

**National Research University “Higher School of Economics”
School of Foreign Languages**

**SPACE OF SCIENTIFIC INTERESTS:
FOREIGN LANGUAGES
AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION –**



**MODERN VECTORS OF DEVELOPMENT AND
PROSPECTS**

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It is aimed at a wide audience interested in the issues of economics, linguistics, translation, teaching foreign languages and cultures as well as the researchers, linguists, teachers of foreign languages, undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate students.

Conference working languages: *Russian, English, German, French, Spanish, Italian.*

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Part I

PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF RUSSIAN AND FOREIGN LINGUISTICS

Arina Galeyeva
Higher School of Economics, Russia
arinagaleyeva@gmail.com

Parcellation in Terms of Actual Division of the Sentence in Political Discourse

The term “parcellation” covers the phenomenon of separating a syntactically and semantically dependent part of an utterance into a separate sentence by means of punctuation and pausation. Western scholars refer to this concept as “sentence fragmentation” (Emmot, Sanford, Morrow 2005), or “sentence satellite” (Bally, Frei 6), or “adding after the full stop” (“ajout après le point” by Goux), whereas the term “parcellation” is more commonly used in the Russian linguistic tradition, and consequently, in this particular study. Parcellation is a multifaceted entity, diversely interpreted by scholars worldwide and, hence, analysed from different points of view, which predictably leads to terminological variation and ambiguity.

Moreover, the diversity of approaches to this concept brings about difficulties in distinguishing between parcellation and other syntactic expressive means, similar in their features. There are a few studies aimed at analyzing the similarities and differences between ellipsis and parcellation. In order to differentiate between the two phenomena, the criterion of semantic dependence is applied. Namely, ellipsis is autosemantic, whereas parcellation implies separating the semantically dependent part of the utterance. Other studies dwell upon the similarities and differences between parcellation and “attachment” (“присоединение” by V. V. Babaitseva, A. A. Vinogradova). Some of them regard both phenomena as identical, or view “attachment” as a specific type of fragmentation (C. Emmot, A. J. Sanford, L. I. Morrow), whereas other research papers consider the phenomena as different ones according to their semantic and structural features (V. V. Babaitseva, A. A. Vinogradova, Yu. V. Vannikov).

The aforementioned disputes make it difficult to develop a unified definition of parcellation. However, the metalinguistic paradigm, as one of the more recent approaches, may help to shed light on the problem. The metalinguistic approach regards parcellation as a tool of the actual division of the sentence, considers it a device aimed at “rhematizing” a particular segment of the utterance, i. e. bringing closer focus to it. The problem of dividing a sentence into structural components has been the topic of dispute among philosophers and linguists for centuries. In the last century, in the research by the founder of the Prague Linguistic Circle V. Mathesius, the formal syntactic structure was opposed to the “actual division of the sentence” (Mathesius 1947 239], which marked the beginning of a number of linguistic studies devoted to the relationship between formal syntax and its internal content. According to the definition by V. Mathesius, the actual division of a sentence is such a characteristic of its structure, which “clarifies the way of including a sentence in the objective context, on the basis of which it arises” [Mathesius 1947 239]. In other words, the actual division distinguishes the components of the thematic order (given) and the elements that make up the rhema (new).

In this regard parcellation (as a case of the actual sentence division) becomes a means of achieving the communicative goal of the utterance (the “what-for” of the utterance), as opposed to the general syntax, which remains a means of expressing the contents of the message (the “what” of the utterance). This functional paradigm corresponds to the aims of this study and enables us to define parcellation from the pragmatic angle as **a stylistic device consisting in separating a fragment of the utterance (by using graphic and prosodic means) in order to rhematise the segmented component.**

A focused study of parcellation as a linguistic phenomenon, or, more specifically, a stylistic device has more than half a century of history. A significant part of research papers is devoted to studying the structural features of the phenomenon, e. g. the syntactic relations of the main part of the utterance and the separated segment (Yu. V. Vannikov, V. G. Gak, A. Kuyumkuyan, Sh. Bally, H. Frei). A number of studies focus on the stylistic, aesthetic and expressive potential of parcellation (A. P. Skovorodnikov, G. A. Kopnina). Of particular interest is the cognitive-semiotic approach to parcellation studies, the one that considers the device in question as a means of invoking images, symbols, and concepts shared by speakers with similar sociocultural experiences (Yu. V. Bogoyavlenskaya, A. Sanford). The analysis of parcelled constructions in discourse appears to be fragmentary: in the prevailing majority of research papers the empirical data under analysis are either fiction texts or media texts. However, it is rather a natural expression in live speech that would serve a more appropriate source of empirical data

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for a linguistic study, and fortunately, recent advances in corpus linguistics open up a wide range of research opportunities in this respect.

Discourse analysis is, probably, one of the most actively developing branches of modern linguistics. That being so, it is not surprising that the framework of discourse analysis is characterised by a variety of scientific approaches. Perhaps, the two most common paradigms of research are the cognitive and the functional ones.

The cognitive paradigm considers discourse as a linguistic reflection of the worldview of a person or a community. It regards discourse as a “verbalization of a certain mentality” (Bocharova 2013 7), perceives it as a cognitive phenomenon (Alexandrova, Kubryakova 1997). In this regard, the psychology of the linguistic community members is of particular importance: their subjective notions about the world around, and, the way they encode these notions by means of language, e.g. in their verbal reactions to external stimuli. Illustrating this, K. F. Sedov identifies three types of the so-called “linguistic personality”, based on the established patterns of verbal response to an external stimulus: invective (tending to direct verbal aggression), courteous (characterized by a high degree of emotionality expressed in linguistic means) and rational-heuristic (prone to verbal critical assessment of the situation, irony). The discourse is considered a reflection of the most recurrent, common, general strategies of verbal behavior of a linguistic personality (Sedov 1999).

The functional paradigm, by contrast, considers discourse as a social phenomenon and focuses on the communicative tasks that make up the discourse, on the strategies for achieving goals existing within it. Only to a small extent is this approach interested in how discourse reflects the ideas and mental categories of speakers. The research aims at defining how discourse serves as an efficient tool for a certain linguistic community (e.g. a tool enabling people to communicate their professional ideas, or resolving disputes), and not how it represents the worldview. The discourse appears as a “systematic critical testing of reasons, claims and arguments for action” (Fairclough, Fairclough, 2012), as well as a verbal instrument for the implementation of this action. In this regard, discourse is characterized as an institutional phenomenon with the goal of ensuring the functioning of a certain sphere of life in society.

It would be incorrect to assume that the functional paradigm of discourse analysis, unlike the cognitive model, does not take into account the characteristics of an individual representative of a linguistic community. The difference between the approaches rather consists in the point of view from which the analysis is conducted. The functional paradigm deals with groups of speakers united by a common goal or common values, and acting as agents of communication. It regards the personalities as parties to a dialogue seeking to achieve a particular communicative goal, such as resolving a conflict or obtaining the necessary information. The focus of functional research is, first and foremost, the motivation that encourages a person or a community of individuals to take verbal action, the intentional, inferential context of a statement, the driving force that generates it.

It is precisely the dualism of discourse, the dichotomy of its cognitive (representative) and pragmatic (functional) nature that enables us to tap deep into its very essence. Both approaches are valuable from the theoretical and practical points of view: cognitive research allows to create “mental maps” of a particular institutional discourse (professional, social, etc.), outline the range of issues relevant to speakers, whereas pragmatic research makes it possible to evaluate speakers’ intentions, to predict the course which a speech act is taking, as well as to make decisions based on the results of such analysis. Moreover, the methodology of cognitive research is frequently focused on the analysis of the vocabulary and internal semantics of the utterance as a structural unit of discourse (or its elements, for instance, a conceptual metaphor), while pragmatic studies consider the utterance “as a tool of social action and interaction in specific situations of communication based on <...> strategies ” (Kaltashkina 2012), that is, they are focused precisely on identifying models for achieving communicative goals. Drawing a parallel with the functional paradigm used in interpreting parcellation, which considers parcellation as a tool of the actual division of sentence, i. e. of expressing the pragmatic nature of the utterance, we emphasize that the objectives of this study are most consistent with the functional approach to discourse analysis.

Summarizing the theoretical conclusions regarding discourse analysis, we shall formulate a definition of discourse, that is to be used in the framework of this study. Discourse as a sociolinguistic phenomenon is regarded in this study as a process of purposeful speaking activity in a specific social (in particular, institutional), locational and temporal context, objectified by the corresponding series of texts with regard to both their linguistic and extralinguistic characteristics. The political discourse, in the framework of this study, will be understood as the process of purposeful speech activity (objectified in a number of texts with regard to both their linguistic and extralinguistic characteristics), “the content, subject and addressee of which belong to the sphere of politics” (Epshtein, 2010).

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In this study, we will examine what functional features are characteristic of parcellation as an expressive means in political discourse, depending on a number of discourse-forming factors (such as region, target audience, etc.). The empirical material under analysis was obtained via the online corpora of speeches by American and European politicians, as well as the speeches by their English-speaking colleagues from Asia.

Having analysed the research on this issue, we concluded that parcellation performs, as a general rule, the following six functions in discourse:

- 1) expression of the author’s position (subjective modality);
- 2) rational impact on the recipient (communicating objectively new information and ideas);
- 3) causing a particular emotional response of the recipient;
- 4) aesthetic impact on the recipient;
- 5) establishing the evaluative perspective, inviting the recipient to formulate and express their own subjective assessment of the message;
- 6) an indication of the hierarchy of data organization.

All of these functions are represented in the empirical data under analysis, which allows us to claim that these data are sufficient to draw conclusions about the trends characteristic of the English-language political discourse as a whole. The one and only exception is the aesthetic function, which is not widely represented or, at least, not obvious to detection. This can be due to both the functional specificity of the discourse (the purpose of the political utterance is to convince the recipient to share the speaker’s point of view or to induce certain actions), as well as the oral nature of the majority of the utterances under study. The aesthetic function is verbalised, as a general rule, through graphic means (for example, through the removal of the segmented part of the utterance in a new paragraph), while political utterances, although presented in a written form on the official websites of the national governments of countries, primarily involve creating an acoustic image through pausation.

Depending on the factor of the **target audience**, all the speeches of politicians under analysis were divided into two categories: the speeches addressed to international organizations or the international audience (UN, world economic forum, etc.) and the speeches addressed to “the domestic audience” when a politician addresses the citizens of their own country (speeches at national celebrations, speeches in the framework of the election race). A statistical analysis of the parcelled utterances (fragmented statements) in such a comparison showed that the function of rational impact on the recipient is most widely represented in speeches addressed to the international audience. That means that the expressive means of parcellation is applied in order to rethematisate the objectively (denotatively) new information. Admittedly, the information communicated by the speaker in that case is often aimed at evoking a certain emotional response as well, but this is achieved by communicating objectively new, previously unknown information: numbers, statistical data, etc. More than 45 percent of the analysed parcelled utterances (fragmented statements) express the function of rational impact on the recipient. A vivid example is the statement by Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu in his address to the UN General Assembly. Netanyahu points that the Iranian nuclear program is a threat to the global public order: “Today I’m revealing the site of a second facility: Iran’s secret atomic warehouse. It’s right here, in the Turkuzahbad District of Tehran. Just three miles away ” (Haaretz). Demonstrating satellite images of nuclear facilities on the territory of Iran, Netanyahu separates the adverbial modifier of place by means of parcellation, on the one hand, in order to inform the public of facts of strategic importance, and, on the other hand, to provoke a negative emotional response from the recipient, to call forth an unpleasant surprise at the proximity of dangerous objects. However, we shall highlight that the component that is separated by means of parcellation contains denotatively new information.

On the contrary, the functions that are most common for the utterances within the framework of a political statement addressed to the nation of the politician, are the functions of explicating the speaker’s personal position and evoking the recipient’s emotional response. Such statements do not contain objectively new information in the segmented component; the rethematisation of the component is connotative. In other words, the purpose of the utterance is to form a specific public opinion to the already known information directly (emotive function), or implicitly – through the expression of the speaker’s personal position (explicative function). The latter function is often manifested in the promises of politicians to people, in the conviction of politicians in a certain course of social development. On the one hand, politicians frequently tend to formulate their opinions and attitudes to events, based on their personal vision of what is happening, and to communicate their point of view to the recipient, frequently in order to influence the public opinion. On the other hand, they often formulate their opinions as correlating to the

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sentiments of the audience, trying to pose themselves as spokespeople on behalf of the nation. Among the analysed statements addressed to the citizens of the speaker's country, about half of the utterances perform the function of expressing the speaker's personal position, and about 30 percent perform the function of emotional influence on the recipient. One of the telling examples of this tendency is the parcelled utterance by the former British Prime Minister Theresa May regarding future scientific achievements possible thanks to the development of artificial intelligence: “These are the kinds of advances that we could see. And that we should want to see” (World Economic Forum). The utterance emphasises the fact that the scientific achievements mentioned above are not impossible. The parcelled component adds the meaning of obligation, turning the expression into an ardent call to the British and international community to continue investing in the development of high technologies. The function of parcellation in this context is to emphasise the speaker's conviction of the collective social responsibility for the future of the national science.

Depending on the factor of **speaker's personal traits**, all the utterances under analysis can be divided into the statements made by politicians and the statements made by nonpoliticians. The latter group consists of the utterances belonging to speech acts that are realised in the extra-linguistic context and theme of political discourse. In the sampling under consideration only a small minority of statements belongs to this second group. Interestingly, the majority of such utterances found in the sampling rhematizing by means of parcellation the predicative component of the statement (either the predicative or the the structures of secondary predication). This factor enables the utterance to express a particular connotation: that of drawing attention to a certain action of politicians, which is, as a general rule, interpreted as negative. One example is the statement by the 2018 Nobel Peace Prize winner Denis Mukwege, a doctor from the Democratic Republic of the Congo: “My country is being systematically looted with the complicity of people claiming to be our leaders. Looted for their power, their wealth and their glory. Looted at the expense of millions of innocent men, women and children abandoned in extreme poverty ” (Mukwege). The stylistic device of segmenting the predicative component by means of parcellation in this case is used in combination with repetition and passive constructions, which emphasises the helplessness of the population before the arbitrariness of the more powerful Congolese. Such examples of parcelled utterances (fragmented statements) implement the interpretative function of discourse, but also implicitly perform the function of persuading the audience. So, the factor of the speaker's personality has an impact on the structural-semantic features of a parcelled utterance (fragmented statement).

The study allows us to conclude that the nature of political discourse, its focus on the formation of public opinion and the initiation of social changes determines the main directions of rhematization by means of parcellation. The rhematization of the denotative component is most characteristic of statements in the international political arena, while the emotive, connotative rhematization is widely represented in the political discourse of domestic political sector. Regional differences between the speakers did not significantly affect the percentage distribution of the studied statements between the main functional groups, which allows us to conclude that the political discourse worldwide is globalised and unified even within the framework of significantly different Western (US, EU) and Eastern cultures (Middle East).

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**National Research University “Higher School of Economics”
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Irina Novikova
Voronezh State University, Russia
Supernovikova1999vrn@mail.ru

Deutsch durch Idiome

Ein Idiom. Was für eine sprachliche Einheit ist es? Welche Funktionen haben Idiomen? Können sie in verschiedenen Sprachen übereinstimmen? Diese Fragen interessieren nicht nur viele Sprachwissenschaftler, sondern auch Studenten, die Linguistik studieren. Idiomen lohnen sich, sich mit ihnen zu befassen. Diese Spracheinheiten bereichern unsere Rede und stellen ein genaueres Bild der Kultur von verschiedenen Ländern.

Mein Ziel war es, festzustellen, wie die Inländer von Deutschland und Russland in Idiomen dargestellt sind.

Als Schwerpunkte meiner Arbeit waren folgende:

- Einige Lebensbereiche zu wählen und mit ihnen verbundene deutsche Idiome zu analysieren
- Herauszufinden, womit die in Idiomen meist zu treffende Wörter verknüpft sind (mit der Natur, dem Essen, den Tieren usw.)
- Die Äquivalente in der russischen Sprache zu finden

Es wurden Umfragen durchgeführt, deren Ergebnisse im Hauptteil des Vortrags beschrieben werden.

Jede Sprache verfügt über viele Redewendungen, die Kultur und Gebräuche verschiedener Länder widerspiegeln. Für mich war es immer interessant, wie man all das durch solche sprachlichen Einheiten, wie Idiome mitteilen kann.

Was ist eigentlich ein Idiom? Laut dem Online-Wörterbuch „Duden“ ist es eine eigentümliche Wortprägung, Wortverbindung oder syntaktische Fügung, deren Gesamtbedeutung sich nicht aus den Einzelbedeutungen der Wörter ableiten lässt. Nämlich diese Wortprägungen helfen uns heute, die Deutschen besser zu kennen und eine kleine Vergleichsanalyse mit den Russen durchzuführen.

Vor kurzem habe ich eine Umfrage durchgeführt. An der Umfrage haben sich 50 Personen aus Russland im Alter von 18 bis 50 beteiligt.

Die Versuchspersonen sollten die Frage beantworten: *Welche deutschen Idiome aus vorgeschlagenen stellen, ihrer Meinung nach, die deutsche Mentalität am besten dar?* Die vorgeschlagenen Bereiche waren mit folgenden Gegenständen und Erscheinungen verbunden: Politik, Familie, Charakter, Aussehen, Arbeit und Geld.

Die Umfrage ergab: fast die Hälfte der Teilnehmer hält die *Arbeit* für den besten «Indikator» der deutschen Kultur (45%). Charakter und Aussehen sind auch relativ populär zwischen den Befragten (20% und 15%). Bemerkenswert ist, dass nur wenige für Geld gestimmt haben (10%). Politik und Familie haben fast kein Interesse zwischen den Befragten hervorgerufen (8% und 2%).

Anhand der durchgeführten Umfrage habe ich für mich selbst *drei* Lebensbereiche gewählt, deren Idiome ich später analysiert und mit den russischen Varianten konfrontiert habe. Die ausgewählten Bereiche sind: Arbeit, Charakter und Aussehen.

Schon die lange Zeit gelten die Deutschen als eine sehr arbeitsfreudige Nation. Das ist aber selbstverständlich, viele Deutsche sind gut organisiert und schätzen ihre Arbeitsstellen. So ein Verhältnis zur Arbeit wird sogar durch Idiome dargestellt, z. B.

1. *mit Dampf arbeiten*. Das heißt, dass man sehr engagiert ist und dem seine Arbeit gefällt.
2. *tief in Arbeit stecken*. Dieses Idiom zeigt die Bereitschaft, die lange Zeit auf der Arbeit zu konzentrieren, um gute Ergebnisse zu bekommen.

Bemerkenswert ist, dass in mit der Arbeit verbundenen Idiomen sehr oft Bilder von Tieren vorkommen. Mithilfe denen widerspiegelt man nicht nur die deutsche Arbeitsfreude, sondern auch die Neigung zur Faulheit, was darauf hinweist, dass die Deutschen manchmal auch faulenzten. So kann man „*wie ein Pferd arbeiten*“ (d. h. sich Mühe geben), „*ein alter Hase sein*“ (Profi sein, sich in auf einem Bereich auskennen) oder umgekehrt kann man „*auf der Bärenhaut liegen*“, was schon ein Gegenteil von der Arbeitsfreude ist. Um die Menschen zu motivieren oder sogar zu erschrecken, damit sie nicht verfaulen, benutzt man folgende Idiome:

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1. *die Beine wegschlagen*. So kann man das Wort „kündigen“ anders sagen.
2. *in die Luft fliegen*. Das heißt „sehr schnell die Arbeit verlieren“.

Meine Analyse dieses Bereichs hat gezeigt, dass hier die Wörter, die Tiere bezeichnen, oft zu treffen sind. In der russischen Sprache können wir auch mehrere ähnliche Beispiele finden, z. B. *рабочая лошадка* (was übrigens dem deutschen Idiom völlig entspricht), *как белка в колесе*, *биться рыбой об лед*, *мартышкин труд*, *конь не валялся* usw.

Charakter jeder Nation ist gar nicht einfach zu erlernen, aber wir geben uns Mühe, um die Deutschen durch Idiome ein bisschen kennenzulernen.

Laut den Idiomen sind Deutsche wirklich würdige Menschen, worauf drei relativ ähnliche Redewendungen hindeuten:

1. *Ein Mann von Wort*
2. *Ein Mann der Tat*
3. *Ein Mensch aus Eisen*

So eine Reihenfolge lautet: man gibt sein Wort, hält es, macht, was man versprochen hat, indem man seinen Prinzipien treu bleibt. Das ist sehr respektabel!

Interessant ist, dass man einige Lebensmittel in den Idiomen erwähnt, beispielsweise:

1. *treulose Tomate*. Das bezeichnet einen unzuverlässigen Menschen.
2. *weich wie ein Butter*. Das heißt, dass man sehr gutmütig und weichherzig ist.

Da es wirklich unerwartet war, „die Lebensmittel“ in den deutschen Idiomen zu treffen, habe ich entschieden, so etwas im Russischen herauszufinden. Einige Beispiele gibt es auch bei uns: *принцесса на горошине* (verwöhnt sein), *иметь изюминку* (eine besondere Charaktereigenschaft besitzen).

Das Aussehen der Deutschen zu beurteilen ist gar nicht unser Ziel, aber thematische Idiome zu untersuchen ist für uns von Interesse. Solche Idiome gibt es wenige in der deutschen Sprache, dennoch repräsentiere ich einige beachtenswerte Beispiele:

1. *wie aus dem Ei geschält*. Sauber sein, gute Kleidung anhaben.
2. *wie ein Vogelscheuche*. Umgekehrt, unsauber sein, schlecht aussehen.
3. *wie ein Storch im Salat sein*. Der Mensch ist zu groß und sieht zwischen den anderen bärenhaft aus.
4. *wie ein Ei gleichen*. Jemandem ähneln.

Wieder haben wir mit den Tieren und mit dem Essen zu tun. Sie widerspiegeln die deutsche Kultur wahrscheinlich wirklich anschaulich. Im Russischen kommen viele Idiome über das Aussehen vor, einige von ihnen sind auch mit Bildern von Tieren und Lebensmitteln verbunden: *кровь с молоком*, *из одного теста*, *чучело гороховое*, *кошка драная*.

Auf diese Weise haben wir festgestellt, dass viele deutsche Idiome Bezeichnungen von verschiedenen Tieren und Lebensmitteln beinhalten. Was noch auffälliger ist, dass solche sprachlichen Einheiten auch in unserer Muttersprache zu finden sind. Aus diesem Grunde können wir vermuten, dass es einige universelle Gestalten existieren, die in allen Sprachen vorkommen können.

Zusammenfassend kann man sagen: Es ist wirklich wissenswert, den Bestand einer Fremdsprache zu erlernen, besonders, wenn es uns auch hilft, die Kultur eines Landes kennenzulernen. Es ist keine einzige Weise, zu ihr näher zu kommen, dennoch ist es eine gute Idee für Linguisten und Liebhaber der Fremdsprachen.

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(Abrufdatum: 10.03.2020)

Alina Geller
Higher School of Economics, Russia
alina_geller@mail.ru

**The Influence of the Speaker’s Professional Affiliation on the Phonetic Design of Sounding
Speech in English**

Profession as one of the components of social status has a significant impact on human speech behavior, which is manifested at all levels of the language, including phonetic. As modern research in the field of sociophonetics (Shevchenko, Savinova, Crystal) shows, this is especially pronounced in the speech of representatives of “professions with increased speech responsibility”, suggesting a high degree of involvement in speech interaction in the framework of professional activities.

Russian and American sociologist Pitirim Sorokin believes that by evaluating the speaker’s speech, one can at least roughly determine the type of professional activity:

“Almost every attentive observer can easily determine by the person’s speech, he is the representative of the “muscular” profession or “intelligent” or not” (Сорокин 1994, 339).

Obviously, any native speaker will be able to distinguish the speech of the lecturer or speaker from the speech of the janitor or shoe seller. In this case, the lecturer and speaker are professions with increased speech responsibility. With the help of speech, the owners of such professions realize their main professional goals and communicative tasks. Public speaking is their main tool. In connection with the daily practice of the speech, their speech is characterized by the absence of excitement, unjustified and illogical slowdowns, fear of the audience, pauses, numerous repetitions and other shortcomings. The phonetic design of speech complies with the requirements of the culture of speech and makes public speaking convincing.

The specifics of professional activity related to the features of speech behavior is reflected in the classification of professions developed within the framework of labor psychology (Klimov 1996, 304):

1. "Man - Technique" (locksmith, turner);
2. "Man - Nature" (vegetable grower, breeder);
3. “Man is a Sign System” (programmer, accountant);
4. “Man is an Artistic Image” (artist, architect);
5. "Man - Man" (teacher, correspondent, journalist, politician).

The last category of professions involves constant communication between people and people, and therefore such professions belong to activities with increased speech responsibility. Each group is characterized by certain features of the phonetic design of speech.

It is characteristic that the phonetic qualities of the speech of representatives of these professions as a whole correspond to the requirements put forward in classical rhetoric in relation to oratory: sonority and purity of voice, diction and quality of articulation, melody, speech tempo, pauses, rhythm, volume (Bloch, Freidina 2011, 466). Let's consider some of them.

Soundness is a way of delivering a given message to listeners. It is assumed that the speaker should vary the strength of the voice depending on the number of listeners, the distance between the speaker and the listeners, and rhetorical goals.

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The quality of the voice, which includes the timbre, is one of the most important characteristics of the voice, which gives an idea of the physiological and psycho-emotional properties of the speaker.

Two important components reflect the pace of speech: the speed of speech and the presence and duration of pauses. Speech speed is a prosodic element that characterizes the speed of playing syllables, words, sentences.

Pause is a way to interrupt speech caused by various reasons: physiological (respiratory pauses), syntactic (allow you to separate parts of the sentence), logical (break down speech into semantic blocks), psychological (focusing the audience on more important points), rhetorical (serve as a way to establish a connection between the speaker and the listener), rhythmic (participate in the rhythmic organization of public speaking).

When describing melodic or tonal characteristics, it is important to consider the range of the voice and the general melodic pattern. In public speech, it is necessary to avoid monotony and try to achieve an extensive melodic variation. When choosing a tone, it is necessary to take into account the communication situation, since an incorrectly chosen tone can significantly affect the perception of the message by the listeners.

For owners of professions with increased speech responsibility, it is extremely important to have a competent perfect speech, their voice is the main attribute of success:

“... it is known that the speaker’s membership in a group of professions with “increased speech responsibility” (politicians, lawyers, TV presenters, teachers, priests) is reflected in the general level of his or her speech competency, voice quality, intonation repertoire. [...] prosodic realization of spontaneous monological discourse performed by representatives of this group of professions will differ significantly from the speech of a person of a different professional affiliation” (Freidina 2013, 15-16).

A number of studies aimed at identifying the phonetic features of speech of politicians, teachers, broadcasters, commentators and other professions with increased speech responsibility, revealed some phonetic markers of belonging to a group of professions with increased speech responsibility.

So, on the examples of the speeches of many lecturers, we can highlight some general phonetic features of speech design. Of course, each of them had their own speech deviations from the common identified markers, but, nevertheless, it was possible to identify common signs:

- Voice control and modulation, which makes the speech more persuasive, the style of disclosure varies depending on the communication situation and the composition of the audience. The phonetic design of speech is consistent with predetermined rhetorical tasks, which is a hallmark of an experienced speaker. In addition, these prosodic signs indicate a high culture of speech and reflect the social status of the speaker.

- Clear articulation, slight pauses, sonority of the voice, emphasis on the intonation of important points in the text, which gives the audience a signal about the need for increased concentration. The division of the text into semantic blocks is achieved through syntactic pauses. An insignificant amount of pause or hesitations is observed.

- Speech expressiveness is achieved by changing the tonal range from wide to narrow in one paragraph. The melodic repertoire is different: you can notice a change in various types of terminal tones (low upward, high downward, low downward). In speech, there is frequent use of logical and emphatic phrasal stresses. Sometimes there is a decrease in the rate of speech and lengthening of syntactic pauses, if necessary, to emphasize important points.

- The presence of frequent rhetorical questions that allow you to hold the attention of listeners throughout the speech and receive feedback from them.

- Some teachers resort to using jokes and ironic remarks, which helps to create a free and comfortable atmosphere, relax the audience and increase self-confidence. In public speeches, jokes are appropriate only when the speaker skillfully uses them, otherwise they can entail unpleasant consequences and problems for the speaker. Therefore, it is important to have a subtle sense of humor and full awareness when you can apply such techniques.

All things considered, we can conclude that the speech of representatives of professions with increased speech responsibility is distinguished by literacy, diversity and aesthetics. For representatives of professions of this kind, the phonetic design of speech plays an important role, since phonetic means have a special power of influence on the audience, contributes to the achievement of communicative tasks and professional goals.

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**Strategies and Tactics Employed in Representing Protest Movements
in Contemporary English-language Print Media**

Anastasia Grigoryeva
Higher School of Economics, Russia
aagrigoreva_4@edu.hse.ru

Protest movements have become a common phenomenon all over the world in the last decades. Today protest movements can be considered a major driver of changes in political, cultural and economic spheres as well as one of the most efficient forms of social activism due to the use of new technologies. Information about protests is mainly transmitted by means of news sources, which have the power to show events from diverse perspectives and shape public perceptions of protest activity. Therefore, it is of great significance to gain deeper insights into manipulative strategies and tactics in protest representation.

A considerable number of researchers express interest in techniques which tend to be used in representing protest movements in the media (Fairclough, 1995; Hart, 2014; Lee, 2014; McLeod, 2007). For instance, much attention is paid to the role of grammatical and lexical choices in revealing the ideological properties in news texts focusing on protests (Fairclough, 1995; Hart, 2014; van Dijk, 1995; Smith, McCarthy, McPhail & Augustyn, 2001). In addition, some scholars highlight the importance of visual images in forming readers' opinions on protest activity (Fairclough, 1995; Hart, 2014).

I extend this stream of research by exploring strategies and tactics employed in the representation of the Yellow Vest movement in France, one of the most vivid protest movements existing nowadays, in contemporary English-language media. The Yellow Vest movement was formed in 2018 entirely by means of social networks. Its name originated from the drivers' fluorescent vests which have become the protesters' symbol. The main impetus for the creation of the Yellow Vest movement was the government's decision to increase fuel taxes in 2019. The plans dealt a blow to all the car owners of France, who largely belong to the middle or working classes. Later on, the movement became more politicized and started to address not only the issue relating to fuel, but also a range of socio-economic problems, such as pensions, social disparity and inequities in the French taxation system. The protests lasted for more than a year and came to a halt only in March, 2020 due to the spread of COVID-19. The purpose of this study is to identify and examine the key manipulative techniques the contemporary media applied to influence the way the

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Yellow Vest movement is perceived by the audience as well as to establish the differences in their use depending on the political views of the selected news sources.

To identify the specific techniques used in the representation of the Yellow Vest movement, 50 articles from the online news editions of English-language newspapers have been analyzed. The selected newspapers differ in their political stances: some of them are considered to be more liberal (the Guardian, the Irish Times, etc.), while others are more neutral (the New York Times, etc.) or conservative (the Irish Independent, etc.).

The Yellow Vest movement and its representation in news sources is a matter of great interest for the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), which views language as a form of social practice and is aimed at revealing the ideological bias behind texts. The methodology described in the works of Norman Fairclough (Fairclough, 1995) and Christopher Hart (Hart, 2014) serves as the basis for the analysis of news articles presented in this work.

Fairclough proposes a universal model for the critical discourse analysis of communicative events. This model connects three dimensions: text, discourse practice and sociocultural practice. Text analysis takes into account both meanings and their forms and encompasses linguistic analysis, which includes grammatical analysis, lexical analysis and the analysis of semantics, as well as the analysis of text organization and cohesion. The discourse practice dimension covers such processes as text production and text consumption. The sociocultural practice dimension incorporates the analysis of non-linguistic factors (situational context, cultural and political aspects of the society, institutional practices, etc.) which influence text creation and text perception (Fairclough, 1995, 57-62).

Hart focuses on the link between grammar and ideology in discourse practice. By “grammar” the author implies “the system or systems that make up part of the human language capacity, as well as the theoretical models that aim to capture this system”. “Ideology” is understood as a particular perspective or attitude (Hart, 2014, 2).

Hart lays emphasis on the ideologically loaded linguistic means of event representation. One of the means revealed through transitivity analysis is the description of certain process types and their participants, who can be perceived as agents or patients. Another strategy is mystification, or the concealment of information. It includes the use of the Passive Voice and nominalization. As far as social actors are concerned, they can be represented as a group or as particular persons. Generalization and collectivization tend to be used to impersonalize “ordinary” actors, while personalization is used to describe powerful people. Moreover, social actors can be determined or undetermined. In case of determined actors, nomination (the use of proper nouns or affiliation) or categorization can be applied. Categorization is connected with functions and characteristics social actors share with others and incorporates functionalization and identification. Functionalization takes into account types of activities social actors perform (what they do), while identification encompasses appearance (physical identification), personal or kinship relations (relational identification), and such characteristics as age, gender, ethnicity and social status (classification). Additionally, hidden evaluation of certain actions can be considered a valuable representation strategy. Besides, Hart acknowledges the role of visual images in CDA and their features (camera angles, distance, etc.) in conveying the desired point of view on events.

One of the strategies used in the majority of the newspapers regardless of their political alignment is the impersonalization of the participants of the movement. They tend to be referred to as “protesters”, “demonstrators” or “groups”. As far as neutral or conservative newspapers are concerned, the word “rioters” is frequently used to describe the “yellow vests”. This emphasizes the fact that the Yellow Vest movement has no defined structure and reinforces the impression of it being completely faceless, leaderless and ambiguous in its goals.

“Riot police fired tear gas to try and disperse the protesters around the Place de la Republique, but demonstrators responded by starting fires and throwing flares and paving stones.” (“Paris yellow vest protest descends into violence.” *The Irish Independent*, 20 April 2019)

“It was the third weekend of protests and confrontations with the police by the group, and by far the most damaging.” (“France’s Yellow Vest Protests: The Movement That Has Put Paris on Edge.” *The New York Times*, 3 December 2018)

““Everything leads us to believe that rioters will try to mobilise again.”” (“Police fire tear gas and arrest hundreds in Paris protests.” *The Straits Times*, 8 December 2018)

However, some articles in liberal newspapers give a more detailed description of the protesters, which evokes sympathy, allows readers to establish an emotional connection with the “yellow vests” and creates a positive impression of them. For instance, some protesters are portrayed as “well spoken”, “neatly dressed” people who do not look like “vandals and looters” that had no criminal record in the past or, in case of the injured activists, as mutilated victims of “the ultraviolence of repression”. Sometimes the activists are categorized according to their family roles or professions to show that the main reason for their participation in protests is to attain better living conditions.

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“Well-spoken, tidy, clipped beards and short hair, these gilets jaunes (yellow vests) seemed hardly the stone-throwing, shop-smashing rabble those packed into the public benches had come to watch.” (“Gilets jaunes in court over violent protests.” *The Guardian*, 8 December 2018)

“Several had lost an eye or limb in clashes with riot police.” (“Injured gilets jaunes protest in Paris against police violence.” *The Guardian*, 2 June 2019)

“He had two children with his girlfriend, but they did not live together, his mother was being operated on for lung cancer this week and his arrest meant he would almost certainly lose his job.” (“Gilets jaunes in court over violent protests.” *The Guardian*, 8 December 2018)

“He worked as a forklift truck operator earning €1,200 a month out of which he paid €300 a month for his council flat.” (“Gilets jaunes in court over violent protests.” *The Guardian*, 8 December 2018)

The analysis has shown a very thought-provoking detail: neutral or conservative newspapers tend to select passive constructions (including agentless passives) when referring to police forces and their actions, for instance, to causing injuries to activists. It may signify that neutral or conservative sources avoid assigning responsibility for certain acts to the police officers:

“A French yellow vest protester’s hand has been ripped apart during violent clashes in Paris as demonstrators tried to storm the French National Assembly during a 13th consecutive week of unrest.” (“French yellow vest anti-government protests turn violent in Paris.” *The Irish Independent*, 9 February 2019)

“...after dozens of Yellow Vest protesters were injured by “dispersal grenades” and rubber pellets.” (“Violence Surges in Paris as ‘Yellow Vest’ Protest Dwindles in Week 18.” *The New York Times*, 16 March 2019)

In contrast, liberal newspapers mainly use the Passive Voice when describing the actions of the protesters to show them in a better light:

“Some bins and bicycles were also torched.” (“Millions for Notre Dame – but nothing for us, say gilets jaunes.” *The Guardian*, 20 April 2019)

“Did he know about the off-licence that had been looted near where he was arrested? No.” (“Gilets jaunes in court over violent protests.” *The Guardian*, 8 December 2018)

Apart from that, nominalization is frequently employed in the analysed articles regardless of the political stances of newspapers. The most common examples are the words “scuffles”, “skirmishes” and “clashes”:

“As scuffles broke out in front of the National Assembly and French police responded with tear gas, paramedics huddled around the injured protester at the National Assembly gates.” (“French yellow vest anti-government protests turn violent in Paris.” *The Irish Independent*, 9 February 2019)

“Skirmishes also broke out between the police and protesters in major cities in western France, including Nantes, Bordeaux and Caen.” (“Violence Surges as Yellow Vests Attack French Government Ministry.” *The New York Times*, 5 January 2019)

“Clashes also broke out between demonstrators and police near the Porte de Champerret, close to the Arc de Triomphe, as protesters prepared to march across town towards Gare d’Austerlitz.” (“Paris police fire tear gas at yellow vest anniversary protesters.” *The Irish Times*, 16 November 2019)

It has been observed that in neutral and conservative newspapers the “yellow vests” usually appear to be the agents of material processes connected with destruction, looting and arsons. This technique discredits the protesters’ agenda by “criminalizing” the activists and shifting all the responsibility for the unrest onto them.

“Protesters dragged two officers to the ground and kicked them repeatedly, the video showed.” (“Violence Surges as Yellow Vests Attack French Government Ministry.” *The New York Times*, 5 January 2019)

“Rampaging groups last weekend threw cobblestones through Paris storefronts and looted valuables in some of the city’s richest neighborhoods.” (“France closes museums, Eiffel Tower amid ‘yellow vest’ protests.” *The Mercury News*, 6 December 2018)

At the same time, liberal newspapers tend to portray the police officers as the main agents of material processes implying violence. In the articles of such newspapers the officers are described as “aggressors” who conduct disproportionately brutal actions against the demonstrators. As for the “yellow vests”, only their participation in peaceful actions is highlighted.

“The gendarmes fired tear gas and stinger grenades.” (“Gilets jaunes protests cause extensive damage on Champs-Élysées.” *The Irish Times*, 17 March 2019)

“A group that observes police conduct at gilets jaunes (yellow vest) protests said officers had attacked five of their number during the demonstration, injuring one of them.” (“Yellow vest protests: Toulouse police use teargas on 1,000 marchers.” *The Guardian*, 29 September 2019)

“In driving rain, protesters marched under umbrellas, waving placards reading “Macron, clear off”. (“France’s ‘yellow vests’ come out for 26th week but numbers on the wane.” *The Irish Times*, 11 May 2019)

As far as verbal processes are concerned, neutral and conservative newspapers predominantly present the information acquired from official sources, so in most cases famous politicians and representatives of police forces play the roles of agents/speakers. Due to that, their point of view on the protest activity becomes paramount. Meanwhile, the “yellow vests” are rarely assigned the role of speakers, which demonstrates the non-acceptance of their position and downplays the significance of their opinions, aims and requests.

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““We need to stop being a country that listens to those who cry the loudest,” Education Minister Jean-Michel Blanquer told LCI news channel.” (“Macron reeling as tough stance against ‘yellow vest’ protests backfires in France.” *The Globe and Mail*, 6 January 2019)

“Two police union officials told The Associated Press they are worried that radical troublemakers from both the far right and far left will hijack Saturday’s protests.” (“France closes museums, Eiffel Tower amid ‘yellow vest’ protests.” *The Mercury News*, 6 December 2018)

On the contrary, the majority of liberal newspapers give the “yellow vests” opportunities to express their position and explain their goals to the audience by making them agents of verbal processes.

““We’re suffocating with this government who wants to put us on our knees,” said Annie Moukam, a 58-year-old teacher among the protesters.” (“Police fire teargas as gilets jaunes protests return to Paris.” *The Guardian*, 18 January 2020)

“Laetitia Dewalle, a protester from the Val-d’Oise, said: “We’re continuing – always in a peaceful spirit.”...she added: “This movement itself is not violent. That’s not our way of doing things.”” (“Paris braces for fifth weekend of protests by gilets jaunes.” *The Guardian*, 14 December 2018)

According to the collected data, neutral and conservative newspapers negatively evaluate the protest activity of the “yellow vests”. The protesters are described as “thugs and bullies” and their actions are considered to be immoral, violent and life-threatening. At the same time, the police are portrayed as “the guardians”, which shows approval. This contrast enables the author to implement the strategy of Self-legitimation and Other-delegitimation:

“French Interior Minister Christophe Castaner blamed “thugs” and “bullies” on Sunday for the violence that hit demonstrations the previous day marking the first anniversary of the anti-government “yellow vest” protests.” (“French interior minister blames protest violence on ‘thugs’.” *The National Post*, 17 November 2019)

“Philippe announced new security measures ... aimed at avoiding a repeat of Saturday’s violence, in which rioters set life-threatening fires, ransacked luxury stores and attacked police around the Champs-Élysées.” (“The Latest: France bans some yellow vest protests in Paris.” *The National Post*, 18 March 2019)

““Once again, the republic was attacked with extreme violence — its guardians, its representatives, its symbols,” Mr. Macron wrote.” (“Violence Surges as Yellow Vests Attack French Government Ministry.” *The New York Times*, 5 January 2019)

The negative evaluation in liberal newspapers is primarily connected with the use of weapons against the “yellow vests” by the police. The public condemnation is drawn by the depiction of injuries and the comparison of clashes with war against civilians:

“Lawyers estimate that as many as 17 people have lost an eye because of the police’s use of such weapons since the start of the street demonstrations, while at least three have lost their hands and others have been left with their face or limbs mutilated.” (“French ‘yellow vests’ march in Paris to denounce police violence.” *The Guardian*, 2 February 2019)

““...It was like a war. It was our first demonstration. I had no idea the police had weapons that could do that damage.”” (“French police weapons under scrutiny after gilets jaunes injuries.” *The Guardian*, 30 January 2019)

“She said using the sting-ball grenades was akin to using military weapons against a civilian population.” (“French police weapons under scrutiny after gilets jaunes injuries.” *The Guardian*, 30 January 2019)

It has been noticed that almost all the images included in the articles of neutral and conservative news sources de-individualize the protesters. The “yellow vests” are portrayed either in large crowds from far distance, or from the back so readers cannot see their faces (see Figures 1, 2). It once again reinforces the impression that the movement is a faceless group of random people.



Fig. 1 More than 3,000 came out in Paris, the government said (*The New York Times*, 5 January 2019)

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Fig. 2 A burning bicycle near the Champs-Élysées (*The New York Times*, 5 January 2019)

However, some images in liberal press tend to draw attention to separate representatives of the Yellow Vest movement. To begin with, observers can clearly see faces even in group pictures. It is worth mentioning that either defenseless people or activists with serious injuries are usually in the foreground of such photos (see Figures 3,4). In this case, it convinces the audience of the fact that the “yellow vests” are fighters for their rights unfairly repressed by the police. In addition, articles in liberal newspapers often contain many close-ups of the most prominent figures of the movement (see Figures 5,6). This demonstrates that the movement has a certain hierarchy and enables the audience to establish an emotional connection with some “yellow vests”. What is more, close-ups are usually associated with rightness.



Fig. 3 Protester who had been injured by a stun grenade, and others with crosses bearing names of injured people, Bordeaux, September 2019 (*The Guardian*, 15 November 2019)



Fig. 4 Jérôme Rodrigues, one of the leaders of the gilets jaunes movement, is helped after being injured in the eye during clashes between protesters and police (*The Guardian*, 30 January 2019)

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Fig. 5 Eric Drouet had the idea of calling national protests and the movement exploded into action (*The Guardian*, 9 February 2019)



Fig. 6 Priscillia Ludosky started the movement with her online petition against the rising cost of fuel (*The Guardian*, 9 February 2019)

Another distinctive feature is that while conservative and neutral newspapers include photos depicting some protesters carrying out destructive actions (see Figure7), the majority of the analyzed articles in liberal newspapers contain images which focus only on the consequences of protest actions and eliminate the protesters from the scene (see Figure 8). Such visuals weaken the link between the “yellow vests” and the caused damage, similarly to mystification in media texts.



Fig. 7 A protester attacking a shop window near the Champs-Élysées in Paris on Saturday (*The New York Times*, 16 March 2019)

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Fig. 8 A statue of Marianne, a symbol of France, inside the Arc de Triomphe was damaged by rioters on 1 December (*The Guardian*, 9 February 2019)

Anchorage points also play a crucial role in the interpretation of images representing the Yellow Vest movement. First of all, in neutral and conservative newspapers the police officers in some photos stand closer to the camera than the “yellow vests” (see Figure 9). This way the viewer sees the events from the police’s perspective and is invited to share the police’s attitude towards the protest activity, as being positioned on the same side in space is associated with support and affiliation. Moreover, social actors who are portrayed far from the camera seem less trustworthy and more dangerous (Hart, 2014, 90). In case of images in liberal newspapers, the viewer appears to be on the side of protesters in space, which evokes sympathy for the “yellow vests” and legitimizes them (see Figure 10).



Fig. 9 About 89,000 security forces were deployed across the country on Saturday, including 8,000 in Paris, compared with 4,600 a week earlier (*The New York Times*, 8 December 2018)



Fig. 10 A woman remonstrates with riot police during an anti-government yellow-vest demonstration on Saturday in Paris. The yellow-vest (gilets jaunes) protests first erupted last November (*The Irish Times*, 16 November 2019)

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One more feature occurring in liberal newspapers is the positioning of the demonstrators to the left of the observer while the police are positioned to the right (see Figure 11). According to Hart, everything that is on the left is associated with the past or the present, something safe and familiar, and what is right is associated with the future, something undetermined and potentially dangerous (Hart, 2014, 87). Due to this fact, the audience subconsciously starts to support the “yellow vests” and express lack of trust towards the police officers. Unlike in liberal news sources, in conservative and neutral newspapers protesters appear on the right while the police appear on the left (see Figure 12).



Fig. 11 Protesters clash with riot police forces near the Opera Garnier in Paris (*The Guardian*, 30 January 2019)



Fig. 12 Protesters clashing with French riot police officers on the Champs-Élysées on Saturday (*The New York Times*, 3 December 2018)

Protest movements have become an integral part of our life and are widely covered by mass media. Having different ideologies, news sources tend to describe protest events in the desired light, influence people’s minds and convince their audiences of certain points of view through numerous techniques. The Critical Discourse Analysis of the articles concerning the Yellow Vest movement in France has been instrumental in revealing the key manipulative strategies and tactics employed by contemporary English-language newspapers to form certain perceptions of the demonstrations as well as uncovering diverse attitudes towards protest activity. The present work can be considered a contribution to the field of media studies and serve as a basis for future research into the topic of protest representation.

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Age-Specific Representation of Future in Russian and English Linguistic Consciousness

Based on the results of the associative experiment, the research covers age-specific differences of the “future” concept in Russian and English speaking cultures. The research discusses linguistic consciousness and characterizes the main methods of its studying. The paper is based on the respondents’ associations for the stimuli-word “future”. Relying on the free associative experiment, the study reveals common and specific characteristics of the phenomenon for different age groups in Russian and English cultures. The findings allow to specify the age-specific differences in perceiving the concept in both cultures.

linguistic consciousness, associative experiment, linguistic map of the world, age groups.

Nowadays linguists are interested in conducting studies of age-specific features, since this approach focuses on cultural and social factors that determine the linguistic consciousness of native speakers. Still, a number of aspects in this direction have not been covered. Thus, age-specific representation of future in Russian and English linguistic consciousness does not seem to be described.

The future is chosen as one of the key concepts of the studied cultures. Taking into account the changes in all spheres of social life and the accompanying changes in mentality, the study of future representation seems to be relevant, as it reveals the influence of age and ethnically specific features on linguistic consciousness of the nation.

The results of the study can be used in such spheres as linguistics, political science, etc. In particular, the research may be relevant while studying new promising areas of psycholinguistics, as well as in elective courses, in writing term papers, educational and manuals on the same topics.

The research is conducted in one of the most dynamically developing areas of linguistics - psycholinguistics and discusses the age-specific characteristics in the representation of the future.

The methodology of the study includes the main points of psycholinguistics related to the nature, structure and functioning of linguistic consciousness (E.F. Tarasov, N.V. Ufimtseva and others) and experimental research methods, in particular, an associative experiment (E.I. Goroshko, V.A. Pishchalnikova).

The main methods that are used to conduct psycholinguistic studies, in particular, the studies of linguistic consciousness, are an associative experiment, survey and comparative analysis.

At first, to decide the age groups for further research, we analyzed the studies that reveal age boundaries in human development. Got acquainted with various approaches to age periodization, we decided on the following age groups of respondents: 1) up to 20 years; 2) from 20 to 40 years; 3) from 40 to 60 years; 4) older than 60 years.

Secondly, the empirical material was collected on the basis of a free associative experiment. We conducted a psycholinguistic experiment that included an analysis of the reactions of Russian and English respondents to the stimulus-word “future”. Such an experiment allows to interview a large number of respondents and to process the information quickly. The respondents were asked to write down their associations on the mentioned stimulus-word. To undertake the research the following platforms were used - *Mentimeter.com* and *Survio.com*, which allow to engage a large number of respondents from various cities and countries.

Thirdly, after analyzing the received associative fields, the identified associative meanings were compared to identify common and specific features.

The total number of respondents was 411 people. The associative experiment was taken by 227 native Russian speakers and 184 native English speakers.

Nowadays psycholinguistics seems to be an integral part of linguistic science, in which the study of linguistic consciousness is one of the most promising areas of research. The study of linguistic consciousness allows to describe the image of the world of a member of a culture, which makes this type of linguistic research relevant. In terms of Moscow Psycholinguistic School this phenomenon is interpreted in different ways, which indicates its complexity and versatility.

Traditionally linguistic consciousness is understood as the “language-mediated image of the world of a particular culture, i.e. the totality of perceptual, conceptual and procedural knowledge of a culture bearer about objects of the real world” (Tarasov 2004, 30). Moreover, the paradigm of Russian psycholinguistics “traditionally contrasts the psychological value represented by culture and recorded in the memory of the

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individual, and the personal experience that is born in the activity of an individual person” (Kardanova 2009, 43).

Linguistic consciousness is considered as an integral part of human consciousness, controlling the mechanisms of the individual's speech activity, namely, the laws of generation, perception of speech and the storage of language in consciousness.

“The system of linguistic units with their various meanings is stored in consciousness and is an affiliation of linguistic consciousness” (Sternin 2017,10), therefore, linguistic consciousness largely controls the speech activity.

To describe the real linguistic consciousness of the culture-bearers, researchers opt for various psycholinguistic experiments, in particular, for associative experiments, which allow to describe the actual content and structure of linguistic units reflected in linguistic consciousness.

This paper aims “to find out how mental entities are represented - the structures of (linguistic) consciousness in the consciousness of the individual (native speaker) and society, how close / mediated the relationship between them” (Souleymanova 2013, 60).

The research studies the real image of the future, analyzes associative fields representing this phenomenon, and highlights a number of the most relevant characteristic of a particular age group. To achieve this goal, a free associative experiment was conducted. The respondents were asked to write down their associations with the stimulus word “future”. During the experiment 411 people were questioned. Based on the age periodization proposed by G. Craig, the following groups of respondents were identified: 1) up to 20 years; 2) from 20 to 40 years; 3) from 40 to 60 years; 4) older than 60 years (Craig 2001).

It turned out that all associations can be divided into categories that combine concepts with a similar meaning. The article will consider the main clusters of meanings that can be distinguished in the associative fields of each age group of respondents.

Table 1-3. The meanings of the stimulus word “future” for the respondents of the first age group

№	Russian native speakers	%	№	English native speakers	%
1.	something that is to come	19,4	1.	advances in technology	28,1
2.	unknown	16	2.	vague	16,3
3.5	advances in science	11	3.	successful	13,7
3.5	space exploration	11	4.	positive	13,1
4.	family	10	5.	the unity of all people	11,2
5.	planned	7,3	6.	intentions	5,8
6.	personal development	4,9	7.	the rule of law	5,5
7.	positive	3,6	8.	something that is to come	5
			9.	robotics industry	3

Among the reactions there are some similarities, including prevailing associations with the achievements of mankind in the field of technology, approaching or planned events, positive or negative emotions, still, the frequency of these reactions is different. Russians tend to focus on upcoming events, while representatives of English culture identify the future concept with advances of science. The English respondents associate the concept in study with the advances of technology (robotics). In turn, in the associative field of Russian respondents, there are frequent associations with the process of space exploration. The associations describing the positive feelings of the respondents also have different frequencies (in the English associative field, this cluster takes the fourth position; in the Russian associative field, this value has the lowest frequency). English respondents also indicated reactions related to law enforcement, which can be considered a culturally specific meaning, the associative field of the Russians doesn't have these reactions. In turn, in the Russian associative field, associations with family and family members are frequent enough.

Table 2-3. The meanings of the stimulus word “future” for the respondents of the second age group

№	Native Russian speakers	%	№	Native English speakers	%
1.	family	15,5	1.	advances in technology	16
2.	self-fulfilling	12	2.	positive	11,2
3.	negative	11,4	3.	approaching	7
4.	planned	6,2	4.	colors	4,5
5.	advances in technology	5,5	5.5.	environmental protection	3,8
6.5.	approaching	4,1	5.5.	planned	3,8
6.5.	positive	4,1	6.	aging / growing up	3,7
7.	different social system	4	7.	space exploration	3
8.	space exploration	2,8			
9.	environmental protection	2			

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The analysis of the associative fields of the stimulus word “future” showed that the associative image of the concept has both similarities and differences. The obtained data can be summarized in the following aspects: 1) among the reactions there are similarities including associations with the achievements of mankind in the field of technology, space exploration, planned events and environmental protection; 2) representatives of both Russian and English culture tend to identify the future with the timeline; 3) there are aspects in which the reactions differ significantly. Both among Russian and English reactions there are associations with negative and positive characteristics attributed to the future concept, but these are the positive meanings that prevail in the associative field of English speakers. What is important is that only Russian respondents correlate the concept in study with a different social system, which can be considered a culturally specific meaning. In turn, representatives of English culture actualize the future through various color designations. This group of reactions can be traced only in the English culture.

Table 3-3. The meanings of the stimulus word “future” for the respondents of the third age group

№	Native Russian speakers	%	№	Native English speakers	%
1.	positive	16,4	1.	positive	19
2.	family	14,1	2.	advances in technology	13,4
3.	material goods	13	3.	negative	12,4
4.	negative	11	4.5.	family	7,9
5.	advances in technology	9,9	4.5.	space exploration	7,9
6.	space exploration	8,7	5.	wanted	4,5
7.	unity of all people	7,7	6.	income	4,4
8.	health	6,5	7.	health	3,3
9.	future generations	3,3			

The analysis the associative fields of respondents aged 40 to 60 years showed that among the reactions of representatives of Russian and English cultures there are more similarities than differences. First, all respondents indicated associations reflecting the positive and negative characteristics of the studied concept. Thus, the category of associations with positive phenomena takes first place in the ranks of both Russian and English meanings. This cluster of reactions of English respondents is characterized by greater variability of associations, which means that, unlike native speakers of Russian culture, when visualizing the positive aspects of the future, this group of respondents covers a wider range of meanings. Secondly, in all associative fields associations with family members and material components of family life prevail. Still, representatives of Russian culture give more precise indications of how they plan to spend their earnings, representatives of English culture, in turn, focus on the process of earning. Thirdly, the respondents of all studied cultures relate the future with the achievements of mankind in the field of technology and space exploration. Only native Russian speakers identify the future with unity of all people, which can be considered a culturally specific meaning. Among the reactions of native English speakers, there are indications of the cessation of an individual’s work due to age-related characteristics, as well as a halt to a person’s life. In Russian associative field there are no associations from this cluster.

Table 4-3. The meanings of the stimulus word “future” for the respondents of the fourth age group

№	Native Russian speakers	%	№	Native English speakers	%
1.	positive	17,8	1.5.	positive	15,6
2.	family	16,3	1.5.	advances in technology	15,6
3.	material goods	11,4	2.	immortality	14,3
4.5.	health	9,6	3.	political aspect	14,2
4.5.	unknown	9,6	4.	environmental protection	10
5.	space exploration	6,4	5.	health	8,5
6.	advances in technology	4,8	6.	material goods	8,4
7.	immortality	3,2	7.5.	negative	5,6
			7.5.	family	5,6

The analysis of the associative fields of the stimulus word “future” showed both similarities and differences in perceiving the concept in study. The results obtained can be generalized in the following aspects: 1) for representatives of the two studied cultures, the future is associated with positive events. This category takes first place in the rank of the meanings of both associative fields; 2) all groups of respondents identify the future with the institution of the family and its members, good health and the process of making money; 3) among the reactions of both Russian and English speakers, there are associations with advances of mankind in the field of technology and

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space exploration, there are also reactions that reflect the ways of a person's rebirth, however, the frequency of these meanings is different. In the associative field of representatives of English culture, associations of this categories are more frequent, which indicates how important for the native speakers these aspects are; 4) both Russian and English speakers relate the future to negative concepts. However, Russian respondents emphasize that the future seems to be unknown and vague, while it is common for English respondents to focus on changes in social system; 5) only for English speakers the future correlates with environmental protection. This group of respondents also associates the future concept with political aspects, which can be considered as the culturally specific meanings.

In terms of psycholinguistics the study of linguistic consciousness seems to be one of the most relevant areas. Linguistic consciousness is considered as a form of externalization of the individual's consciousness, revealing his/her image of the world. The language reflects all the cultural characteristics of the nation. It is the cultural values that largely determine the individual's consciousness, and language, in turn, captures these norms.

The research was meant to identify age-specific characteristics in representing the image of the future in the linguistic consciousness of Russian and English speaking cultures. To achieve this goal, a free associative experiment was conducted. The obtained associative fields were compared to identify common and specific features for each age group of respondents.

After analyzing the associative fields and comparing the frequency of the corresponding reactions, we found out that the associative images of the studied concept have both similarities and differences. The associative fields of respondents aged 40 to 60 years have the greatest number of similar meanings, while the reactions of other groups of respondents are more diverse and less stereotyped.

In all age groups, the associations describing the prospects of mankind in space exploration and achievements in the field of technology are frequent enough, however, only English-speaking respondents tend to associate the future with robotics. Also, among the reactions of all respondents, there are both negative and positive aspects of the future, however, it is the category of negative meanings that prevails in the associative fields of the participants aged up to 20 years.

For the first group of respondents, the future concept is primarily associated with self-realization and plans fulfilling, however, among the reactions of representatives of English culture, a specific meaning appears that correlates the phenomenon under study with the rule of law, which shows the importance of this aspect of public life for the natives.

For participants aged from 20 and 40, the future is identified with intentions, planned events, and family building. English speakers associate the concept with color designations, which can be considered as a culturally specific meaning. Russian respondents in turn identify the future with destructing of the existing system of social structure.

The respondents aged 40 to 60 commonly focus on their financial situation, maintaining their health, and fulfilling their intentions. Only native Russian speakers of this age group express their ideas about the unity of all people, which may happen in the years to come.

The respondents over 60 also focus on their health and material well-being. Both Russian and English native speakers indicate associations with various ways of rebirth. Among the reactions of representatives of the English culture, associations with environmental protection prevail, which indicates how relevant for them this aspect is.

The research contributes to such promising areas of scientific knowledge as linguistics and psycholinguistics. The results of the study allow to draw conclusions about the age-specific differences of Russian and English linguistic consciousness. The results of this paper can be used in the further researches in psycholinguistics, which also seems to be the prospect of study.

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**The Impact of Current Trends on British Society
on the Phonostylistical Peculiarities of the Media Discourse**

Albina Prikhodina
Higher School of Economics, Russia
aaprikhodina@edu.hse.ru

In the light of the current sociopolitical situation in Great Britain, the state that finds itself in the process of finalising Brexit, a country led by the Conservative Party, there is a noticeable change in the common perception of Received Pronunciation (RP) and its contemporary varieties, predominantly among those of opposing political opinions. The given phenomenon is supported by the negative connotation of a word “posh”, which in many ways not only characterises the social status of those who currently rule the country, but also is commonly associated with the accent they speak.

RP was praised in the previous century, some even aspired to acquire it for career purposes. It was commonly spoken by BBC broadcasters and admired by many for its understandability and sophistication. Nevertheless, in the given circumstances, speaking with a previously admired and universally acclaimed RP, also commonly referred to as “The Queen’s English” (all strongly associated with “poshness”) can be much less beneficial than assumed by English language learners.

The aim of this study is to analyse the contemporary media discourse in terms of its phonostylistical peculiarities and identify the deviation from RP canons. Consequently, the questions to be answered in the given article are:

- 1- Are the regional accent-speaking newsreaders and reporters represented in contemporary media industry in Great Britain?
- 2- If so, how significant is the deviation from RP standards in their discourse?
- 3- Do the regional accent-speaking newsreaders and reporters tend to “soften” their accents within the more conventional environment?

The hypothesis is the following: there is a phenomenon of a “preference shift” in terms of accent democratisation, which was strongly influenced by the common disdain towards the Conservative party’s opinions and political moves. Hence, the new generation of broadcasters and newsreaders are expected to embody more regional accents, which was previously considered to be “inappropriate” within media institutions such as BBC.

The current state of affairs in British politics can be defined by one significant event. At the time of this article being written, as of the beginning of 2020, the Conservatives (Tori) remain the leading political party, most significant when it comes to making decisions regarding the future of Great Britain. Having gained the majority of seats in the Parliament after 2019 United Kingdom general elections (12 December 2019), they proceeded to implement the Brexit strategy, previously supported in a referendum held on 23 June 2016, when the majority of voters chose to leave the European Union. Boris Johnson indeed kept his promise to “get Brexit done” by 31 January 2020 (Walker, 2020).

The decision to leave the European Union was shaped under the influence of the given factors also referred to as the causes of the vote in favour of Brexit:

- The desire to reclaim the status of a self-governing nation
- The immigration crisis

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Analysing the given reasons helps with understanding the core issues that currently bother the people of Great Britain. When it comes to understanding Brexit, and how the idea managed to divide a whole country into two massively opinionated sides, commonly referred to as “leavers” and “remainers”, it is essential to consider the globalisation phenomenon. A common belief is that Tories (The Conservative Party, pro-Brexit voters, Brexiteers) and, most importantly, their actions mainly stem from anti-globalisation and anti-democratisation opinions, while those in favour of remaining a part of the EU, Labourists (Labour Party, anti-Brexit voters, anti-Brexiteers), rely on liberal tendencies of a “globalizing” society. Those do include such substantial social matters as supporting LGBTQ+ community, Women’s rights, Racial and Faith diversity etc.

When it comes to defining the Conservatives, understanding who they are and how their opinions have been shaped through their endeavours, one of the most significant points lies within education.

In the book *Posh boys: How the English Public Schools Ruin Britain* (2018), Robert Verkaik describes Britain’s peculiar sociocultural experience, the way public schooling to this day defines what we may put as “privilege” and “poshness” and, most importantly, the way that schools’ upbringing “nourishes” the Conservative political elite. Calling such politicians as David Cameron and Boris Johnson “insiders and products of the establishment”, Verkaik studies how those institutions contribute to the country’s imperial history, social and economic inequality, and how social immobility is one of the reasons Britain finds itself on the edge of a massive political crisis.

In terms of British education system, as pointed out by Alan Weedon in his article *Brexit is indebted to Boris Johnson and David Cameron's former schools — here's why*, “refers to the independent boarding schools that stretch back centuries — home to global royalty, and the offspring of political and business leaders”.

Thus, such educational institutions as Eton, Oxford and Cambridge do contribute to raising generations of the Conservatives due to their “traditional” approach to education and morality, which should be defined to enhance the overall understanding of a current socio-cultural climate in Great Britain. However, of particular interest for the given article is that the students of the aforementioned institutions are, in fact, most commonly referred to as “posh”.

In his article *The Probable Origin of the Word “Posh”*, Pascal Tréguer mentions *Adventures of a Despatch Rider* (1915) by William Henry Lowe Watson who, presumably, was the first to use the noun “posh” in regard to “affected upper class behaviour or language”.

In the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* (2015), 9th edition, one of the definitions of the informal adjective “posh” is “*typical of or used by people who belong to high social class*”. What is more, it is marked as “*sometimes disapproving*” – at times used in a negative connotation. One of the examples of a word usage mentioned in the dictionary is *a posh accent/voice*.

As of 2020, the given political setting in Great Britain has intensified the sociocultural clash within the society. The conflicts in that case are based on sociopolitical issues, though affect the way speech and manners are perceived regardless. It means that the liberal society is shifting towards becoming more biased when it comes to one being or even sounding “posh”. The common dissatisfaction with “poshness” in speech was sustained by the cultural shift in the late 20th century, when a linguistic monoculture (RP dominance) was replaced by linguistic multiculturalism, meaning more accent varieties were suddenly introduced and “*a palliative care nurse from Norwich, a chemist from Wrexham and an undertaker from Gateshead became mutually comprehensible*” (Meades, 2018).

In *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language in Society* (1983) Peter Trudgill identified the at-the-time state of affairs in terms of language preference. According to the author, RP, favoured by aristocracy and upper-middle class, remained the most prestigious accent. According to Trudgill, Standard English was frequently considered THE English language, often making some English native-speakers seriously self-conscious by persuading them that they “cannot speak English”. That being said, non-prestige English varieties were often considered “lazy”, while their speakers – not making enough effort and uneducated.

Even nowadays RP is most fully represented in English as a second language (ESL) textbooks. That nudges English learners to aspire for the accent that does not necessarily grant them success in contemporary social situations. Most of those aiming to study English to further engage with Great Britain do prefer career opportunities offered by big cities, the capital city in particular. According to *trustforlondon.org.uk*, “net migration figures

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account for slightly more than a quarter (27%) of London’s population growth” from 2004 to 2015. That being said, RP as a universal standard for ESL phonetics acquisition (commonly represented, for instance, in Oxford University Press ESL textbooks) might not be as advantageous for those who are aiming to establish connections in “liberal” and “progressive” cities in Great Britain.

In Chapter 16 of *Sociolinguistic Variation and Change* (2001) called *The Sociolinguistics of Modern RP* Peter Trudgill states:

“The relationship between social and regional accent variation in Britain has often been modelled as having the form of an equilateral triangle (following Daniel Jones, as reported in Ward (1929) where, however, the diagram takes the form of a cone). The base of the triangle is broad, implying considerable amounts of phonological variation between the different regional accents spoken by the lower social classes.” (Trudgill, 2001)

The given point contributes to the overall understanding of what RP dominance actually means. It is not only dominant in terms of social-class variations and privilege, but also represents a particular degree of desirable understandability, which is essential for news reporters to embody. News are for everyone to watch, understand and, consequently, reflect on. Hence, for a while, RP has been one of the main requirements for those who aimed to work for British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), for instance. Not associated with any geographical peculiarities, RP serves as a perfect example of the most “phonetically neutral” and, hence, universally understandable accent. Though, being so, it still represents social inequality.

Currently, among the regional accent speakers employed by BBC is Stephanie Rose McGovern (born 31 May 1982, from Middlesbrough, England) worked as the main business presenter for *BBC Breakfast (2010-2019)*, BBC. Known for her “North-East twang”. She started working for BBC on the *Tomorrow’s World* programme, then worked for the *Radio 4* and, finally, went on to become the lead producer of business news on the *BBC’s One, Six and Ten O’clock bulletins*. She is best known as the business presenter on BBC Breakfast, where she has worked until October 2019. She left to join Channel 4 (BBC News <https://www.bbc.com/news/entertainment-arts-50123720>). Her popularity among BBC viewers is in many ways linked to her and the way she speaks being more “relatable”.

To prove the hypothesis, a **phonetic analysis** of the two transcribed speeches taken as examples of contemporary media discourse has been carried out. Both belong to the same speaker and were studied in terms of the speaker’s accent peculiarities, including articulation of vowels and consonants - the most phonetically significant and vivid parts were extracted for the analysis. The results were then compared with the canons of RP to evaluate both similarities and differences. In both tables similarities in terms of sounds are highlighted in pink, differences – in blue.

The speaker is Steph McGovern (see section 1.2), a perfect candidate due to representing a brave new image of a contemporary news reader – liberal, straightforward, natural and very spontaneous. The transcribed examples are:

- 1- *Steph McGovern’s post-leaving BBC Breakfast “goodbye” appearance as a guest on a show (YouTube <https://youtu.be/TBeUBSyN920>) as an example of how a TV presenter with a Northern accent present themselves within the contemporary BBC environment.*
- 2- *“Steph McGovern: discovering her unique selling point” (YouTube <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1SaKE8HTeRY>) video as an example of a more “relaxed” discourse, outside BBC environment.*

Table 2-1

Steph McGovern’s BBC Breakfast guest appearance fragment	RP variation for the same vowels/consonants
00:43	

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five (<i>In such regions as Middlesbrough, the phoneme /aɪ/ before a voiced consonant is commonly substituted with a monophthong [a:] (Williams & Kerswill, 1999), which doesn't happen here due to accent softening</i>)	[faɪv]
00:51	
pain (<i>pronounced with a monophthong [ɛ:]</i>)	[peɪn]
02:52	
started (<i>glottal stop, /ʔ/</i>) noticing (<i>has a monophthong [ɔ:]</i>)	['stɑ:tɪd] (<i>no glottal stop</i>) ['nəʊtɪsɪŋ]
02:55	
popular ['pɒpjələ]	['pɒpjələ]
02:57	
bacteria [bæk'tɪəriə]	[bæk'tɪəriə]
02:59	
gut (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	[gʌt]
03:05	
diversity (<i>the phoneme [aɪ] in such regions as Middleborough tends to become a monophthong [a:] (Williams & Kerswill, 1999), though in the given example it is more or less similar to RP variation, however, exaggerated</i>)	[daɪ'vɜ:sɪti]
03:25	
also (<i>takes [ɔ:]</i>) great (<i>pronounced with a monophthong [ɛ:]</i>) run-up (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	['ɔ:lsəʊ] [greɪt] [rʌnʌp]
03:27	
becoming (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>) healthy (<i>takes a final [eɪ]</i>)	[bɪ'kʌmɪŋ] ['heɪlθi]
03:31	
pregnancy (<i>takes a final [eɪ]</i>)	['prɛgnənsɪ]

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05:01	
hometown (<i>takes a monophthong [ɔ:]</i>)	[ˈhəʊmˈtaʊn]
08:21	
funniest (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	[ˈfʌnɪst]

Table 2-2

Steph McGovern’s monologue in “Steph McGovern: discovering her unique selling point” video	RP variation for the same vowels/consonants
00:00	
TV [ˌterˈveɪ]	[ˌtiːˈvi:]
00:06	
financial (<i>takes [ɪ]</i>) TV [ˌterˈveɪ]	[faɪˈnæŋʃəl] [ˌtiːˈvi:]
00:13	
TV [ˌterˈveɪ]	[ˌtiːˈvi:]
00:17	
TV [ˌterˈveɪ]	[ˌtiːˈvi:]
00:19	
responsibility (<i>takes a final [eɪ]</i>)	[rɪsˌpɒnsəˈbɪlɪti]
00:26	
<i>started (Commonly, there’s no distinction between [a] and [ɑ:] in different varieties of Yorkshire accent (Petyt, 1985), though in the given example the speaker pronounces the sound [ɑ:] + no glottal stop)</i>	[ˈstɑːtɪd]
00:29	
be (<i>takes [eɪ]</i>)	[bi:]
00:31	
done (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	[dʌn]
00:33	
be (<i>takes [eɪ]</i>)	[bi:]
00:35	
that (<i>takes [ɑ:]</i>)	[ðæt]
00:43	

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person ['pɜ:sn]	['pɜ:sn]
00:47	
got (<i>glottal stop, /ʔ/</i>)	[gɒt] (<i>no glottal stop</i>)
00:52	
train (<i>pronounced with a monophthong [ɛ:]</i>)	[treɪn]
00:57	
love (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	[lʌv]
00:59	
made (<i>pronounced with a monophthong [ɛ:]</i>)	[meɪd]
01:09	
life (<i>a monophthong [a:] before a voiceless consonant</i>)	[laɪf]
01:10	
key (<i>takes [eɪ]</i>)	[ki:]
01:12	
me (<i>takes [eɪ]</i>)	[mi:]
01:21	
done (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	[dʌn]
01:23	
way (<i>takes [ɛ:]</i>)	[weɪ]
01:25	
young (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	[jʌŋ]
01:26	
young (<i>takes [ʊ]</i>)	[jʌŋ]
01:32	
great (<i>pronounced with a monophthong [ɛ:]</i>)	[gret]
01:35	
clearly (<i>takes [i:]</i>)	['klɪəli]

The two tables in sections 2.2 and 2.3 embody several significant points:

1- There is a serious deviation from RP standards in terms of Steph McGovern's accent in both

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analysed examples.

Out of 16 studied instances in the first example (see Table 2-1), only ¼ is in compliance with RP. In the second example (see Table 2-2), out of 25 – only 2 instances represent common RP characteristics. That being said, Steph McGovern definitely “embraces” her local accent.

2- The deviation is much more significant in the second example (see Table 2-2), while the BBC breakfast example (see Table 2-1) can be characterised by a subtle “accent softening”.

The second analysed discourse example represents a less formal environment, which is certainly reflected in McGovern’s accent. In the video, she is making a statement regarding her “unique selling point”, which, as she herself claims lies in her being “a normal person” and “authentic”.

As mentioned above, only 2 of the 25 analysed instances resemble RP canons. One of the most vivid deviations is the sound [ʊ], which frequently substitutes [ʌ] in different varieties of Yorkshire accent (Stoddart, Upton & Widdowson, 1999), a Northern accent spoken by Steph McGovern (Middlesbrough variety, to be more precise). For example, that occurs in such one syllable words as “done”, “love” and “young”. It also occurs in the pronunciation of a word “funniest”. What is more, in words like “TV”, “be”, “responsibility”, “key”, the [i:] and [i] final sounds are substituted with [eɪ]. Additionally, a monophthong [ɛ:] is taken in words like “train”, “great”, “made” – instead of a diphthong [eɪ], which in the same cases an RP speaker would use.

When it comes to the BBC Breakfast fragment, the speaker pronounces more words in accordance with the RP standards. Among the analysed utterances, the list of such words includes: “five”, “popular”, “bacteria” and “diversity”. The word “diversity”, in which a Yorkshire accent speaker is likely to use a monophthong [a:] instead of the diphthong [aɪ] (Williams & Kerswill, 1999), is pronounced similarly to RP. However, McGovern exaggerates the sound.

It means that BBC environment, to this day, establishes a particular set of requirements in regard to their newsreaders and reporters. Subconsciously, Steph McGovern might be “softening” her regional accent due to the desire to “fit in”, be recognised, taken more seriously, heard and, most importantly, understood. However, consciously, the speaker does not attempt to hide her origin, instead, making Middlesbrough roots as well as the accent her distinctive characteristics within the media environment.

3- The same word can be pronounced differently in different utterances.

For example, the word “started” that is highlighted in both Table 2-1 and Table 2-2 is in the first case (on BBC) pronounced with a glottal stop [ˈstɑːɾɪd], and in the second case (YouTube video) – without the glottal stop [ˈstɑːɪd] (how an RP speaker would pronounce it). Despite the second fragment being extracted from a much less formal environment discourse example, the pronunciation of a given word is more traditionally “formal” in it. That could be explained by the speaker subconsciously establishing her uniqueness in terms of accent within the conventional television setting in the first case, and at the same time “reminding” the audience of her success in the second case, where she is giving a motivational speech.

In the BBC Breakfast fragment, where the word “started” was pronounced with glottal stop, what Steph McGovern said was:

*“You might have **started** noticing them in the supermarket's now because they've becoming quite popular...”*

The utterance is informal, even though the context itself is quite formal.

In the “Steph McGovern: discovering her unique selling point” fragment, where she pronounced “started” similarly to an RP speaker, she was, however, talking about her career on BBC specifically, which makes the utterance more official:

*“When I first **started**, where I thought oh my god I need to be like how other people have done this job, so, you know, I need to be like a BBC person and do all that and be quite natural...”*

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Hence, it could be concluded that even though, being aware of her local accent peculiarities, the speaker tends to “embrace” it in formal contexts, she, however, frequently “softens” it either in regard to the environment or depending on what exactly she is talking about.

The phonetic analysis confirmed the hypothesis: the speaker, Steph McGovern, consciously “embraced” her regional accent in both examples. Her case is one vivid example of how the accent democratisation, affected by the liberal tendencies in the society, is reflected in media discourse.

The issue is much deeper than as far as common phonostylistical preference shift goes: it lies in the regional accent speakers’ desire to be represented, their opinions heard and acknowledged. That is confirmed by the “silent revolution” that is currently taking place within such previously traditionalist environments as BBC.

The given research could be of great use in terms of evaluating the current political and socio-cultural climate in Great Britain and actualising the more beneficial and up-to-date English-teaching practices. Language changes, and so does the language preference. Hence, the development of an approach to teaching pronunciation could benefit greatly from the “preference shift” acknowledgement.

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Goldilocks as a Precedent Name in Various English Discourse Types

Mikhail Tseytlin
Higher School of Economics, Russia
mishazeit@gmail.com

The paper addresses the “precedent name” concept, and describes its types, structure, and function. It considers the potential of precedent names as a research subject in such fields as intercultural communication theory and Discourse Studies. The paper analyzes the development of precedence in the name *Goldilocks*. It outlines the five ways this precedent name is used in different types of discourse and identifies the most common way. The ability of the precedent name *Goldilocks* to convert from a noun into another part of speech (onomastic adjective) via transcategorial metonymy and to be used in phrases as well as independently is identified. Furthermore, several spelling variants of the precedent name *Goldilocks* are listed. The spectrum of usage of this precedent name is quite wide, from casual speech to scientific terminology.

Since the 1990s, “precedent name” (PN) has been one of the key components in the Russian school of Language Culture Studies, which does not have a direct correlate in the western linguistic tradition. It is typically defined as

“an individual denomination associated either with a well-known text, which is usually a precedent one itself or with a precedent situation (PS) commonly known to native speakers of a certain language. It is a complex sign, which, when used in communication, refers not to the actual denotatum but to the set of differentiae of a given PN. A precedent name may consist of one or more elements which designate one concept” (Zaharenko 1997, 83).

Precedent names possess a certain structure: a nucleus, which consists of differentiae of several levels: appearance, disposition, and precedent situation; and periphery which consists of attributes of a precedent name. According to V. Khrasnykh, a renowned specialist in precedent phenomena in Linguistics,

“differentiae constitute a system of characteristics which distinguish a precedent name from objects similar to it” (Khrasnykh 2003).

Attributes of a precedent name are specific details that are associated with a certain precedent name.

“A precedent name can be signified by its attributes, but they are not exclusively required for signification” (Khrasnykh 2003, 202).

V. Khrasnykh classifies various visual characteristics among attributes of a precedent name. For example, a missing leg and a parrot are attributes of Long John Silver from the *Treasure Island* (Khrasnykh 2003, 202).

A proper noun can potentially function as a proper or a precedent name. In the former case, it simply identifies a denotatum without referring to its differentiae.

Khrasnykh distinguishes two common situations in which precedent names are used in the latter case:

1. A PN which functions directly as a precedent name. A special role is assigned to the invariant of perception. A name can refer to either one of the characteristics (appearance, disposition, precedent situation) or several of them simultaneously (Khrasnih 2003, 202).

- PNs which characterize a subject via one differentia – (the sideburns of Alexander Pushkin) (Khrasnih 2003, 202).
- PNs which might characterize a subject via several differentiae – (bel canto and a love for classical Italian music are attributes of Benito Mussolini) (Khrasnih 2003, 202)

2. PN which functions as a symbol of another precedent phenomenon (precedent text, precedent situation, or another precedent name) and in certain cases may function as its attribute (the PN *Excalibur* is an attribute of the PN *King Arthur* (Khrasnykh 2003, 205)). It should be clarified that a precedent situation is an exemplary situation with certain connotations. A vivid example would be the Betrayal of Jesus by Judas Iscariot, which is one of the most notorious instances of betrayal (Prokhorov 2004).

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- PN foregrounds a PT (including PSs related to the text);
- PN foregrounds a PS;
- PN foregrounds another PN (may function as its attribute).

PN is quite a promising research subject within the framework of the intercultural communication theory and discourse study, as its establishment and functioning possess a conspicuous linguacultural specificity. This can be illustrated with the following example: a certain culture may possess a signifier, but lack a significantive. In other words, “the place for a paragon exists, but nothing occupies it” (Khrasnykh 2003, 208). Robin Hood is the exemplary archer in various English-speaking linguacultural communities, in another, distinct community archery may be present, but with no exemplary figure whose name might become a precedent name via their excellent skills in archery.

This situation is true for the precedent name *Goldilocks*, whose use is among the most widespread discursive trends in the last two decades. It was used for the first time as the name of a character from the fairy tale *Goldilocks and the Three Bears* in 1904 (Opie 1974, 260-264). The popularity of the fairy tale and the character facilitated the development of precedence. The reading series *Dick and Jane*, which was published in the USA between the 1930s and 1970s, and was not only used as a guide to reading and writing for generations of Americans, but also introduced such concepts as race, gender, sexuality, class, and family, often utilized the image of the character from the 1904 fairy tale (Teverson 2019). *Goldilocks* has also appeared in literature, cinema, and theatre for decades. Thus, the name *Goldilocks* has acquired the characteristics of a precedent phenomenon.

The PN *Goldilocks* is widely used in collocations, which can be semantically classified into five groups:

1. Reference to a situation in which some sort of “perfection” is established. Commonly, “perfection” is the middle between the two extremes – “insufficient” and “excessive”. This use is obviously a semantic derivative of the situation of choice which Goldilocks faced in the Bears’ house: “neither too hot, nor too cold, just right”, “neither too hard, nor too soft, just right”. It is the most common in all discourse types considered in this article. Less common is the use in the meaning of “mediocre”.
2. Reference to the behavioral PN differentiae “excessive fastidiousness”, “curiosity” and “impudence”.
3. Reference to the external PN differentiae: appearance and physical characteristics (female gender, hair length, and color).
4. Reference to the following precedent situations: entry in sb’s house, illicit use of the owner’s possessions, stealing (especially of food supplies).
5. Reference to the attributes of the PN: “porridge”, “bed” and “bears”.

In certain cases, reference is made to several attributes and / or differentiae.

It is worth mentioning that the PN *Goldilocks* usually functions as an onomastic adjective formed via transcategorical metonymy.

The use of the PN *Goldilocks* in its conventional meaning may be considered on the basis of the economic term *Goldilocks market*.

“A market that is performing well enough to avoid losses and even provide a solid return for investors, but not so well that it creates a bubble (A situation in which prices for securities, especially stocks, rise far above their actual value).” (Farlex Financial Dictionary).

The two extremes are clearly displayed in this example: unstable return is “cold porridge” while a bubble is “hot porridge”. Between them is a solid return or a “sweet spot”.

Another term, coming from the same discourse is *Goldilocks Economy*. It was coined by David Shulman, senior economist of the UCLA Anderson Forecast, who used it in his 1992 article “The *Goldilocks Economy*: Keeping the Bears at Bay”. The term was used to describe the state of the USA economy during Bill Clinton’s Policies.

“Where the economy was hot enough to spur profitable business growth but cool enough to keep the Fed from using contractionary monetary policy to ward off inflation.” (Balance).

In the decades that followed, the term *Goldilocks Economy* got entrenched in the economic discourse. Among the most common significantives for it is the late 1990s in the USA, as in this period, the economy on the country was in its prime: low unemployment and inflation rates combined with low interest rates created the perfect conditions for economic prosperity of the late 20th century United States (Gordon 1998, 290). The aforementioned term is used not

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only in the American but also in the British economic discourse. In 2000 Oxford University Press published a paper by British sociologist R. P. Dore, in which the comparison between the economic development in Japan and the United States and the *Goldilocks economy* is deemed the American miracle (Dore 2006, 13).

Furthermore, the term is not applied strictly to the economic periods considered above, it could be used to denote any kind of thriving economy. For example, in 2007 the former Chair of Federal Reserve Ben Bernanke made a statement to the Congress in which he supposed that the USA economy of the following year would maintain prosperity:

“Fed’s district banks, essentially portrays a ‘*Goldilocks*’; *economy* that is neither too hot with inflation nor too cold with rising unemployment” (New York Times).

The political discourse also exploits the PN *Goldilocks*. A vivid example of such exploitation is the phrase *Goldilocks voters*. It is used in the article about the electoral system of the USA to identify those voters who are neither overenthusiastic about the political life of their country nor uninterested in it. Within the framework of the electoral system of the USA, if the voters show a lack of interest, the candidates will hardly have any incentive to structure their campaign according to the needs of citizens. Conversely, if the interest rate escalates some candidates are likely to structure their campaign based on the preference of the most invested voters. In both outcomes, the democratic system is corrupted. Therefore, the authors deemed those voters, who possess neither subnormal nor superfluous interest in politics, *Goldilocks voters* (Wolton 2015).

“The electoral process thus performs best when *voters* are like *Goldilocks*: They care neither too little nor too much about politics” (Wolton 2015).

The phrase *Goldilocks candidate* became a constituent of political discourse in the February of 2020. Pete Buttigieg described himself as the *Goldilocks candidate* during the race for the Democratic presidential nomination.

“He’s cast himself as the Goldilocks candidate: younger and more progressive than Joe Biden or Amy Klobuchar, but more moderate and less combative than Bernie Sanders or Elizabeth Warren” (Los Angeles Times).

The first group is not represented solely by economic or political discourse. In medical discourse, the phrase *Goldilocks actions* is used in a paper about Antipsychotics, also called neuroleptics, a special medication that is primarily used to treat diverse types of psychosis. Psychosis occurs with the extensive amounts of dopamine in synapses, and this excessiveness is called “too hot” by the author. Antipsychotics function in the following way: they block dopamine D2 receptors. However, the blocking is not specific and might block D2 receptors in the nigrostriatal dopamine pathway and, as a result, certain movement disorders might occur as a side effect. The author calls this outcome “too cold”. “The sweet spot” are neuroleptics which block dopamine receptors through other means, without causing movement disorders. The effect of such neuroleptics is called *Goldilocks actions*.

“Dopamine System Stabilizers, Aripiprazole, and the Next Generation of Antipsychotics, Part 1: “*Goldilocks*” Actions at Dopamine Receptors” (Stahl 2001).

Medical discourse also offers the term *Goldilocks mastectomy* which can be included in the first group. It stands for a type of mastectomy, a surgical removal of the breasts. The essence of this particular method is that it implies neither the complete removal of the breasts nor their full reconstruction. It is a “sensible middle” which is performed in one operation and does not require any additional medical intervention (apart from the voluntary cosmetic procedures) (Richardson 2012, 522-526).

The utilization of the precedent name *Goldilocks* in the media discourse could be observed in such phrases as *Goldilocks density* and *Goldilocks ocean*. The first one was used in the article published in 2014 in which the author expresses his views on the desired population density in cities:

“There is what I have called the Goldilocks density: dense enough to support vibrant main streets with retail and services for local needs, but not too high that people can't take the stairs in a pinch” (The Guardian).

The second one is a name given to the Atlantic Ocean in one of the issues of *Daily Beast* due to its size:

“The Atlantic, 3,000 miles across, became a kind of Goldilocks Ocean, not too big and not too small. It was big enough that very different kinds of goods were produced around its shores in Europe, Africa, and

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America; but it was small enough that the ships of Shakespeare’s age could cross it quite easily” (Daily Beast).

Afterwards, the Pacific Ocean is called “far too big” for a profitable trade.

The slang of various English-speaking linguacultural communities is not an exception when it comes to the use of precedent names. Commonly it used to describe and stress the “perfection” of individuals, objects, and ideas. The phrase *Goldilocks bod* denotes a “perfect” body in the opinion of the evaluator:

“*Goldilocks bod* – a well-toned body that is not too scrawny or overly muscular” (Urban Dictionary)

It is noteworthy that this precedent name comes in different spelling variants in slang. Even though the other spelling options are less frequent, they occur in such phrases as *Goldielocks burger*, which is used to describe the burger which exactly meets the gastronomic preferences of the speaker (Urban Dictionary).

The second group may be represented by the previously mentioned phrase *Goldilocks voters* which was used by the former Secretary of State Hillary Clinton who was commenting on the subject of congressional election of 2010.

“President Barack Obama may be facing *Goldilocks voters* in Tuesday’s congressional election who feel that he’s done too much, or too little, in two years in office” (REUTERS).

As the phrase *Goldilocks voters* is used to signify more than one significative (which is also true for the phrase *Goldilocks economy*), it can be concluded that precedent names may be polysemic. In addition, polysemy is observed in more than one discourse and the same phrases containing the precedent name *Goldilocks* function in a distinct manner. The first example concerns the reference to the precedent situation in which the emphasis is made on the “perfect condition” between the two extremes, while the second example belongs to the group in which references are made to the behavioral PN differentiae.

The words and phrases from the third group generally come from slang: *God, she is just like Goldielocks!* In this example, its author outlines the appearance of a woman, her blonde hair, whose color resembles gold.

One of the most frequent phrases in the third group is *Goldilocks syndrome*, which stands for a personality trait of an individual who is in constant search for perfection in every sphere and discards any option that does not fully meet the required standard. The addressee of such a phrase is usually a person who would hardly ever achieve the desired perfection and, thus, would face disillusionment (Urban Dictionary). There is a semantically similar phrase *Goldilocks Complex*. It is also used to denote a personality trait, however, in contrast with the *Goldilocks syndrome* “excessive fastidiousness” concerns not every aspect of life but a particular one.

For instance, “to have a serious *Goldilocks Complex* about rice” (Urban Dictionary) is used in order to describe a person who is particularly picky in terms of rice preferences.

The precedent names, belonging to the fourth group are widespread in the media discourse. The phrase *Goldilocks Burglar* is used to denote a burglar who enters a house and then falls asleep at the crime scene. It is spread almost exclusively in British and Australian linguacultural communities. In some cases, the perpetrators did not intend to steal the owner’s possessions but merely used them for their comfort. Thus, an eighteen-year-old trespasser entered a house of a married couple in Melbourne, used their bathroom and phone charger, and fell asleep in their bed.

“Isaac Henderson, an 18-year-old from Melbourne who has been dubbed the ‘*Goldilocks*’ burglar...” (Mail Online).

There are more occurrences of the above-mentioned phrase. Another perpetrator named Lukasz Chojnowski broke into a house in a town of Nelson, Lancashire. The man spent two days inside the house, using the owners’ bathroom, kitchen tools, and the washing machine. Besides, he did the cleaning. After being found asleep by the owners, Chojnowski was arrested ([Daily Mirror](#)).

The phrases of the fourth group are also found in slang and one of the most frequent usages is a description of one’s friend or acquaintance, referencing several precedent situations at once:

“Heather over there is my *goldielocks*. She comes over, eats my food, sleeps in my bed and is still there when I get home” (Urban Dictionary).

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The fifth group can be illustrated by the word *Goldielocks*, which among other meanings stands for a female friend of a homosexual male with excessive body hair who in slang might be called *bears*. In this case, the reference is made to the attributes of the PN *Goldilocks*, who appear in the fairy tale, to the bears (Urban dictionary).

Therefore, the PN *Goldilocks* possesses a considerable semantic potential in various discourse types. It can be employed to denote some daily events as well as in the composition of highly specialized terminology. Moreover, it can be used as a signifier for more than one significative in various discourse types, thus, its productivity in the creation of new phrases is quite remarkable.

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A Linguocultural Analysis of Gender Issues in the US and Russian Political Discourse

Tatiana Chechel'nitskaya
Higher School of Economics, Russia
tvchechel'nitskaya@edu.hse.ru

Prejudice and stereotypical thinking have always been a problem of humankind, and in modern world it still has its consequences despite the evolvement of society. This study focuses on current situation with women in politics, the degree to which they have managed to overcome society's biases, and how the situation differs among countries: Russian Federation and the USA in particular. There is no doubt that gender studies, including gender discourse, is of high interest among foreign researchers, such as Weatherall, A., 2002, Litosseliti, L. & Sunderland, J., 2002, Litosseliti L., 2006, Sunderland, J., 2006, Wodak, R. & Angermuller, J., 2008. However, Russian academic sphere lacks works that analyze the current situation in Russian political realm. Thus, the primary aim of this work is to conduct an analysis and identify linguistic representation and its cultural interpretation of the common and different in the attitude of women in US and Russian public power towards their work, life and balance between family and career.

Referring to history, in the United States gender roles started to change during the process of industrialization. Initially men were considered to be 'breadwinners', while women were supposed to be housekeepers including childcare. Such labor division by gender is suitable for capitalist system due to women's devalued household labor (Bonvillain, 2006). Though, suffrage and then feminist movements gave women opportunities for education and work as well as an opportunity of participation in political sphere, which resulted in change towards egalitarian gender roles. Eventually, by 1990s men started to do household twice as often as they did before, while women reduced their household time (Bianchi, 2000). In short, the United States have had a stable tendency of changing gender roles towards egalitarian.

On the other hand, in Russia history is not so consistent. Initially, Russian families represented patriarchal unites, where a woman is a homemaker and a man is a breadwinner. With the Bolsheviks coming to power by 1918, policy consisted in gender equality. Work was “a duty of all citizens of the republic” (Russian Constitution, 1918). Nevertheless, women of Soviet Union were among the first to receive rights to vote in 1917. In general, Russian feminists made a great contribution to the development and success of the movement. (Юкина, 2007) Later, the rhetoric of “woman as a worker-mother and household caregiver” appeared as a response to decrease in demographic situation (O'Kelly & Carney, 1986). Despite the juridical prohibition of discrimination against women and egalitarian agenda, women had to take care of children as well as run a household by themselves. In modern Russia, propaganda of “woman as a homemaker” discourse is extremely popular both in statements of politicians and media information (Ashwin & Lytkina, 2004). Thus, conservative values of gender division remain central in the mindsets of Russian people.

In a research conducted by Tianyue Ma in 2010, citizens of Russia show prevailing view of “men's job is work, women's job is household” as a preferable one, whereas the USA citizens disagree. This tendency may be correlated with conservative values and the history behind them, which is described above (Ma, 2010).

Globally the percentage of women participating in the parliaments of different countries all around the globe has shown the growth from 11.8% in 1998 to 23.5% in 2018. According to the latest data, in the United States of America the percentage of women taking seats in Congress is 23.49% and in Senate is 25%. As for Russian Federation, the percentage of women working in the State Duma is 15.78%, while in the Federal Council it is 17.06%. (URL: <https://data.ipu.org/women-ranking?month=3&year=2020>)

Another interesting factor to look at is willingness of citizens to see a female as a president. In Russia, according to the above mentioned survey, 53% of respondents answered “definitely no” or “rather no” when asked if they wanted to see a woman as a president in 10 or 15 years. (URL: <https://www.levada.ru/2017/10/16/uchastie-zhenshin-v-politike-2/>) Concerning the USA, 74% of respondents in Ipsos research group poll in 2019 stated they are comfortable with a female president. (URL: <https://www.ipsos.com/sites/default/files/ct/news/documents/2019-06/daily-beast-gender-topline-2019-06-17-v2.pdf>)

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Some may disagree with the statement that sexism still exists, especially in developed democratic countries. Nevertheless, according to the study made by Diana B. Carlin and Kelly L. Winfrey in 2009, media coverage of male and female differs at several points, which lead to unjustified skepticism and doubt in the candidate. Firstly, media discourse and its bias with no doubt influences mass consciousness, using rhetoric of appearance and sexuality assessment, which results in the perception of women candidates as not valuable, not individualistic, and not suitable. Adding to this, male politicians rarer get coverage on the theme of their appearance. Secondly, women candidates are often being criticized for their emotional state, even if there is no precedent of them being overemotional or prejudiced. (Carlin & Winfrey, 2009).

Returning to the topic of the discourse of women in politics, Wodak contributed to it by studying female Members of European Parliament. In 2012 she revealed that female MEPs during the interviews use words that indicate their skepticism concerning their position. Women tend to consider themselves different and wrong for the sphere they are in. What is more, they tend to use different patterns while communicating with their male colleagues, implementing gender roles (Wodak, 2012).

Data used for analysis was gathered by conducting interviews independently with women in Russian politics during the science expedition to Vladivostok, Russia as well as searching for interviews available in the Internet. All in all, the number of respondents, whose statements were taken for analysis is 20. Among them, 50% is the Russian female politicians, other 50% is American female politicians. The number of interviews taken for analysis is 30 due to the fact that some women, such as Hillary Clinton, Nancy Pelosi, Valentina Matvienko and Natalia Poklonskaya have more statements on this topic.

Concerning women of US politics, whose interviews were taken for analysis, these are:

- *Hillary Clinton*, New York State Senator, US Secretary of State and US Presidential Candidate from Democratic Party in 2016;
- *Sarah Palin*, former governor of Alaska;
- *Nancy Pelosi*, Speaker of the United States House of Representatives;
- *Marsha Blackburn*, member of the United States House of Representatives, Tennessee State Senator;
- *Maggie Hassan*, New Hampshire State Senator;
- *Catherine Cortez Masto*, Nevada State Senator;
- *Morgan Harper*, candidate for Ohio State Senator;
- *Jeanne Shaheen*, New Hampshire State Senator and Governor;
- *Leslie Cockburn*, nominee for Virginia's 5th district in the U.S. House of Representatives;
- *Tammy Duckworth*, Illinois State Senator, retired US army lieutenant colonel.

As for the female representatives of Russian political power, these are:

- *Valentina Matviyenko*, Senator from Saint Petersburg and Chairwoman of the Federation Council, former governor of Saint Petersburg;
- *Irina Khakamada*, presidential candidate of the Russian Federation in 2004, former deputy of the State Duma;
- *Irina Yarovaya*, a Deputy Chairman of the State Duma;
- *Natalia Poklonskaya*, a Deputy of the State Duma, a prosecutor of the Republic of Crimea;
- *Olga Golodets*, a Deputy Prime Minister of Russia;
- *Svetlana Savitskaya*, a Deputy of the State Duma, Deputy Chair of the Committee on Defence;
- *Maria Zakharova*, the Director of the Information and Press Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Russian Federation;
- *Tatiana Alexeeva*, a Deputy of the State Duma;
- *Natalia Boeva*, a Deputy of the State Duma;
- *Oksana Bondar*, a Deputy of the State Duma.

As an additional material, anonymous interviews taken personally during the expedition are analysed, but the respondents are not mentioned due to agreement.

The empirical base was gathered via mass media, online magazines, official pages on governmental websites – for American representatives, TASS, RIA News, RBC – for Russian representatives. To conduct discourse analysis and comparison chunks of information correlated with the topic of research were extracted from interviews.

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From the first sight it is clear that American female politicians are less likely to mix family and career and link them while answering one question as well as they are generally less likely to mention their families or the notion of women’s role during interview in comparison to Russian women.

Among Russian female politicians, there are frequently mentioned phrases that can be united by the topic of “true role of woman” (hereinafter translated by the author):

“The most important thing is not to forget that you are a woman, and for this, the man who makes the woman happy should be nearby” (Natalia Poklonskaya);

“The family is changing, but not dying. Just as the woman’s mission does not die off, she is to be a wife, mother, and keeper of the hearth. This purpose of it lies at the heart of our civilization, in its highest and best manifestations” (Valentina Matvienko).

Concerning American female politicians, the situation is different, and the most widely used topic can be characterized as “breaking the barriers”:

“I have fought to be recognized with equality for a long time” (Marsha Blackburn);

“A woman can win, a woman will win” (Nancy Pelosi);

“Human rights are women's rights and women's rights are human rights” (Hillary Clinton).

However, two of the American representatives mentioned their families, but rather in the context of rest, help and incentive comparing to their work:

“I listed all the reasons why I couldn't do it [running for a seat in Senate], and it was my husband who said, "You'd be really good at it, and we'll make it work” (Maggie Hassan);

“But whenever I feel overwhelmed and I need that break to help me power through, I look forward to the time I spend with my daughter in the mornings. She doesn’t care about the Senate or Congress—it’s just mom-time” (Tammy Duckworth);

“Parenthood isn't just a women's issue, it's an economic issue and one that affects all parents—men and women alike. As tough as juggling the demands of motherhood and being a Senator can be, I'm hardly alone or unique as a working parent, and my children only make me more committed to doing my job and standing up for hardworking families everywhere” (Tammy Duckworth).

Nevertheless, despite the differences, there is a common theme in the statements of both Russian and American women: “stating the problem”. Most of them say that still there is a discrimination, violence, “glass ceiling”, etc.:

“Gender-based discrimination in hiring, getting an education and profession, in remuneration, promotion, in politics, sexism, domestic violence are phenomena that are not completely eliminated even in countries where progress in the implementation of gender equality is really large. Not to mention the fact that there are many states on the planet where the process of the establishment of women's equality is at its best in its infancy” (Valentina Matvienko);

“I've found that when you’re a woman running for office, people feel very entitled to say whatever they want in terms of feedback. ... I’m told every other day, are you old enough to be running for Congress? As a 36-year-old woman, that’s frustrating. ... I get a lot of comments on our campaign photo. Morgan, why are you not smiling in the campaign photo? But Morgan, people like women that are smiling, a friendly appearance” (Morgan Harper).

Beginning with the specifics of Russian female politicians’ discourse, the negative connotation of women’s position is conspicuous. Women state that they “*have to* combine their professional duties with those of home and parenting”, as Olga Golodets claimed; that sometimes career makes them forget that they are *women*, meaning such characteristics as “tenderness, inner and outer beauty, dignity and patience”, said Natalia Poklonskaya. Overall, women use words and phrases with negative connotation like “have to”, “difficult”, “impossible” while discussing their work-life balance. Generally, women agree that it is complicated for them to combine work and family since

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they have to come home after work, make dinner, help children with homework, meet husband, etc. According to summarized opinions of women, it may be concluded that women have little time to rest, because they have to work and make all the housework by themselves.

Continuing this point, which may be called a problem in Russian perspective, it is valuable to compare it to the situation in the USA. As it was mentioned above, American women in politics rarely mention their families, however, women tend to use words and phrases such as “look forward to”, “make me more committed”, or “standing up for hardworking families” which have positive connotation. At the same time, they mention that “juggling” work and family is “tough”. How can it be interpreted? Basically, presence of controversy may be explained as understanding the “toughness” of the position, but still “looking forward to” spending time with family. Taking into consideration the statements of women who claim that their husband supports them, it can be concluded that delegation and support in all spheres of life facilitates the attitude and the process of balancing between work and family itself.

Summarizing all the points, the main finding consists in the difference in language representation of cultural differences in the attitude of women towards the balance between family and work. These differences include the usage of words and expressions with negative connotation and denotation by Russian women in politics, while American women tend to express their thoughts with words that have neutral and positive denotational and connotational meaning. In its turns, this phenomenon leads to a conclusion that Russian women feel unhappy combining work and family in their life. The reason for that lies in cultural differences and traditions of family arrangement between the USA and Russia. In Russia women feel obligated to be the one who does cooking, cleaning, and childcare. In the USA values differ: they tend to accept household and childcare as joint duty. Considering that traditionally all the countries were used to the same conservative order, women stayed at home and their business consisted in household and childcare. As society evolves, some cultures developed their traditions, like in case of the USA, which moved towards liberal values and involved men into household and childcare. Conversely, in Russia traditions have not changed drastically, while rights of women have. Consequently, this resulted in a sort of paradox, where women both work and run a household.

The findings shed light on differences between mindsets and cultures of Russia and the USA. Russian female politicians tend to use words and expressions with negative denotational and connotational meaning while speaking about their work-life balance. The obvious reason for that attitude comes from gender stereotype of “woman as a homemaker”. Having the opportunity and necessity to work, Russian women still feel obligated to do all the housework, which leads them to feeling unhappy with their lives. In the USA, at the same time, women mention that they share housework with husbands, which allows them to save time for their individual life without being “a bad mother” or “a bad wife”. These findings lead to a general conclusion that principles of family arrangement make a significant contribution to the level of women’s happiness. Interestingly enough, despite the fact that Soviet (and Russian subsequently) women were earlier given to themselves in terms of participation in political life as well as building a career, stereotypes of “woman as a homemaker” exist in a more clear way rather in modern Russian culture than in the US culture.

These findings may be applied in the future research on gender equality in Russia or the USA, the process of making public policy concerning the position of women, in social and media information agenda in order to overcome gender stereotypes and change lives of female part of the population. Women's participation in the political life of the state leads to increasingly objective representation of all social strata, which is a real embodiment of liberal values. Specifically, this research may assist in understanding of why women tend to stay on lower positions of their political career and how society may influence this situation.

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Anastasia Kozlova
Moscow State University, Russia
nastyakoz@bk.ru

Los préstamos lingüísticos en la lengua española: comparación de los arabismos y los anglicismos

El presente estudio se dedica al concepto del préstamo en la lengua española y su análisis. La meta es indicar las esferas de la vida donde se utilizan los préstamos con el ejemplo de los arabismos y los anglicismos. Dicha meta determina las siguientes tareas:

- dar definición al término préstamo y los que están en relación estricta con él;
- señalar las causas de la aparición de nuevas palabras en el idioma;
- clasificar los préstamos según el grado de adaptación a una lengua receptora;
- comparar los arabismos y los anglicismos, es decir, principalmente sus usos en el español moderno.

El trabajo se basa en las obras académicas de Enrique Bernárdez, Emilio Lorenzo, Rafael Lapeza, F. Lázaro Carreter, Juan Gómez Capuz y dos diccionarios: de la Real Academia Española en línea y del diccionario etimológico también en línea.

Existen varias opiniones sobre la definición del término “préstamo”. La Real Academia Española (en adelante la RAE) lo define como “elemento, generalmente léxico, que una lengua toma de otra”. En otras palabras, es un lexema de origen extranjero que aparece en una lengua. F. Lázaro Carreter en su obra “Diccionario de términos filológicos” define el préstamo como “elemento lingüístico que una lengua toma de otra, bien adaptándolo en su forma primitiva, bien imitándolo y transformándolo más o menos”. (Carreter, 1953, 84). O sea F. Lázaro Carreter indica en su definición dos formas de existencia de las palabras prestadas: sin algunos cambios o con adaptación a las reglas gramaticales de la nueva lengua en alguna manera. Sin embargo, al mismo tiempo los lingüistas suelen explicar dicho término como proceso de adaptación de palabras. Por lo tanto, se puede afirmar que el “préstamo” tiene dos significados y en este caso resulta bastante difícil ofrecer una sola definición que responda a esta ambigüedad.

Además, existe un término “extranjerismo” que se emplea para los préstamos no adaptados. La distinción de dichos términos aparece en la lingüística alemana del siglo XIX y se basa en tales criterios como la asimilación fónica, gramática y gráfica a las reglas de la lengua receptora. En otras palabras, el extranjerismo fue introducido para referirse solamente a las palabras que se conservan su forma original siendo ya la parte del campo léxico de una nueva lengua.

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También están en el uso “los calcos semánticos” que se pueden referirse a los préstamos. Son palabras que se forman de las raíces originarias, pero copian la estructura de la palabra extranjera. En otra manera se puede nombrarlos traducciones literales. (Capuz, 2005)

En primer lugar se ocurre por contacto cultural con el idioma de más prestigio. En este caso generalmente se prestan las palabras de ciencia, filosofía, de las artes etc. Además, la lengua prestataria al encontrarse con los objetos para los que no tiene palabras las presta. Y aquí existen dos caminos: bien aceptar tanto el objeto como la palabra extranjera, bien tomar solo el objeto y crear su propia palabra para denominarlo. Hay factores que influyen en el proceso de préstamos, por ejemplo, la cercanía geográfica. Es indudable que los pueblos que viven al lado van a tener las relaciones más profundas debido a la migración de la gente, el comercio y las guerras. Y como consecuencia sus lenguas van a tener más palabras prestadas de una a otra. Cuando una nación encabeza alguna esfera de vida, como la medicina, o inventa algo absolutamente nuevo, todo el mundo suele prestar la terminología del idioma de este país como de país-líder en este ámbito. Además, hoy en día existe el fenómeno de moda. En este caso se debe entender “la moda” en el sentido más amplio. La moda de algunos objetos específicos, la moda del estilo de vida, la moda de un país como una gran potencia mundial, todas estas “modas” fomenta el préstamo de palabras del idioma que está de moda. Se ve especialmente en la lengua de los jóvenes por ser más expuestos a las nuevas tendencias.

El proceso de préstamo puede ocurrir de dos modos: internamente y externamente. El primer modo se realiza cuando hay intercambio dentro de un idioma entre los dialectos o lenguas especiales. Los préstamos de modo externamente son mucho más frecuentes y habituales y se emplea a los lexemas tomadas de otras lenguas. Cuando hablamos de los préstamos referimos no solo a las unidades léxicas sino también a las estructuras gramaticales y morfosintácticas. En este caso se distinguen préstamos léxicos y préstamos gramaticales.

Préstamos léxicos son exactamente los lexemas del origen extranjero. Enrique Bernárdez en su obra “Metodología para el estudio y la clasificación de los préstamos lingüísticos” ofrece una clasificación que divide dichos lexemas en tres grupos: elementos que conservan la forma original, elementos que la han perdido y elementos de tipo intermedio. El primer grupo de palabras no ha sufrido ninguna alteración destacable ni siquiera fonética. Las unidades del segundo grupo se consideran como autóctonas y fueron totalmente adaptados, por eso estos préstamos son más difíciles para detectar. “Elementos de tipo intermedio muestran faltas de adecuación o asimilación, de tal manera que en parte conservan su forma original, aunque habiendo perdido diversas características acercándose a la estructura de la lengua receptora”, escribe Enrique Bernárdez. (Bernárdez, 1978, 207-208).

Muchos de los rasgos comunes de las áreas lingüísticas —como la forma de construir oraciones— son producto del préstamo gramatical: tomar o basarse en el ordenamiento y construcción de frases de otra lengua para la construcción gramatical de la propia. Este tipo de préstamo suele producirse en comunidades lingüísticas con un alto grado de bilingüismo o con una estrecha conquista cultural.

La RAE da tres definiciones para el término “anglicismo”:

“1. Giro o modo de hablar propio de la lengua inglesa. 2. Vocablo o giro de la lengua inglesa empleado en otra. 3. Empleo de vocablos o giros ingleses en distintos idiomas”. (<https://dle.rae.es/anglicismo?m=form>)

En este trabajo la más importante es la segunda definición porque vamos a analizar las palabras del origen inglés en la lengua española. Pero hoy en día existe la tendencia de denominar cada ejemplo de la influencia inglesa en el español como “anglicismo”.

Emilio Lorenzo en su obra “Anglicismos hispánicos” presenta la clasificación de lexemas inglesas según el grado de adaptación. Hay anglicismos “crudos”, es decir, sin ningunos cambios gráficos y fonéticos. Los “en periodo de aclimatización” han sufrido un poco de adaptación bien en la ortografía, bien en la pronunciación, por ejemplo, *fútbol* o *airbág*. El tercer grupo es los anglicismos “totalmente asimilados”, como “turista” o “suéter”. Estas palabras ya están incorporadas en el idioma. Y los últimos son los calcos, como *rascacielos* que fueron formados como la palabra inglesa *sky-scraper*. (Lorenzo, 1996)

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La influencia del inglés es algo más reciente que los demás idiomas, pero su impacto en el español y otros idiomas del mundo ha sido muy importante, aportando un gran volumen de palabras que hoy día son reconocidas por la mayoría de los idiomas del planeta.

El comienzo de la influencia del idioma inglés en el resto del mundo tuvo lugar debido a la colonización del nuevo mundo en los siglos XV-XVI, continuó expandiéndose en el siglo XIX en la etapa del colonialismo británico, y alcanzó su auge en el siglo XX a partir de la Segunda Guerra Mundial, con los Estados Unidos siendo la gran potencia mundial. El inglés consiguió una difusión rápida y global gracias a que los angloparlantes fueron primeros en las áreas de vida como las ciencias, tecnologías y informática, y a la popularización de sus medios de comunicación y películas, que se distribuían a todo el mundo.

En el caso de España, el proceso de préstamos del inglés se dividen en tres etapas:

1. Etapa prefranquista cuando los especialistas de varios ámbitos, como el fútbol, preferían utilizar los términos en el idioma originario.
2. Etapa franquista: se produce un proceso de nacionalismo que intentaba sustituir los anglicismos por palabras nacionales.
3. Actualidad donde la RAE trata de eliminar el uso de los anglicismos innecesarios, es decir, no usar el anglicismo cuando hay la palabra española con el mismo significado. El fenómeno de existencia de dos palabras de diferentes orígenes pero con el mismo significado se llama “dobletes léxicos”.

Los esferas del uso de los anglicismos son muy variados: deporte, economía, tecnologías y ciencias, gastronomía, automovilismo y tráfico, cinematografía, moda y ropa etc. Aquí están algunos ejemplos de los anglicismos bastante frecuente usados: *online, password, fake, marketing, business, ranking, sándwich, grill, burger, autoestop, box, footing, goalkeeper*.

El arabismo es un préstamo de la lengua árabe. La RAE lo define como:

“1. Giro o modo de hablar propio de la lengua árabe. 2. Vocablo o giro de esta lengua empleado en otra”.
(<https://dle.rae.es/arabismo?m=form>)

La historia del intercambio entre la cultura española y árabe empezó en el año 711 cuando los árabes invadieron la Península Ibérica. Durante casi 8 siglos (hasta el año 1492) el territorio de España contemporánea fue bajo el dominio musulmán que, sin duda alguna, influyó muchísimo como la vida de los habitantes de la Península tanto su lengua. Al-Andaluz, así se llamaba España de aquel entonces, se convirtió en uno de los países más influyentes del mundo. Cabe mencionar que en esa época el latín y su cultura estaban muy empobrecidos y la civilización árabe, al contrario, se mostraba muy poderosa, sobre todo en los siglos IX y XII. El latín, por supuesto, nunca había desaparecido de la Península, pero con el árabe empezó allí la época del bilingüismo.

Durante el proceso de asimilación las palabras árabes recibieron algunos rasgos morfosintácticos similares, como, por ejemplo, suelen empezar con al- o a- (porque en el árabe era un artículo). También en el español contemporáneo existe un sufijo -í de origen árabe que se usa para formar gentilicios, como *ceutí* o *marroquí*. Otro caso muy interesante es que el español tiene muchos dobles lingüísticos árabes y latinos, como *aceituna* y *oliva*, *alacrán* y *escorpión*, *alcancía* y *hucha*. En el desarrollo de la lengua estos dobles encontraron sus usos propios, así se utiliza la palabra *aceite* para referirse al producto de comer, pero casi nunca se utiliza *óleo*, pero cuando hablamos de las plantas siempre es *olivo*.

Como nos dice Rafael Lapesa en su obra “Historia de la lengua española” el español tiene aproximadamente 4000 palabras de su caudal léxico derivado del árabe. De los árabes nos quedan muchos topónimos, especialmente en la comunidad autónoma de Andalucía donde se ve la influencia musulmana en la manera más profunda. El nombre de la misma comunidad es la herencia de Al-Andaluz, los nombres de muchos ríos como *Guadalajara*, *Guadalquivir* y *Guadiana* provienen de la palabra árabe con el significado de “río”, *Madrid* deriva del nombre árabe también que significa “fuente o manantial”. Además, hay préstamos árabes en los campos muy variados, como la guerra, por ejemplo, donde se encuentran palabras como *aceifas*, *atalayas*, *zaga*, *almófar*, *aljaba* y mucho más. En la agricultura y culinaria se encuentra palabras como *acequia*, *alberca*, *zanahoria*, *berenjena*, *azafrán*, *azúcar*, *algodón*. Algunos tejidos, como *barragán* o *tiraz* también son de origen oriental. Además, se puede añadir a esta lista varias artesanías, por ejemplo, *alfarero* con *tazas* y *jarras*, joyería con *aljófares* y *ajorcas*, ocio (*aljedrez*), las ciencias (especialmente

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en matemáticas, astronomía y medicina), el comercio y tráfico, instituciones jurídicas, prendas de vestir. Estas palabras ya están aceptadas completamente por la lengua y se usan más a menudo por los hispanohablantes. (Lapesa, 1981)

En la lingüística contemporánea no existe una definición aceptada para el término el “préstamo” pero la idea general es que un préstamo es un lexema que una lengua tomado de otra adaptándolo en diferentes grados a sus reglas. Este término se emplea tanto para el proceso de penetración de nuevas palabras como para las palabras como tales.

La causa principal de aparición de las palabras nuevas en una lengua es el encuentro con algún objeto o concepto para el cual no hay palabra en esta lengua. Además, se puede ocurrir gracias a que en un idioma existe un aparato terminológico de alguna esfera de vida bien desarrollado y el otro lo presta. Como la tercera causa se puede nombrar la “moda” en un sentido muy amplio, como la moda de algunos objetos, de un país determinante o un estilo de vida.

La clasificación presentada en este estudio es según un grado de adaptación a la lengua receptora. Hay préstamos que conservan su forma original, elementos que la han perdido totalmente y elementos de tipo intermedio que solo en alguna parte se han acercado a las palabras originales.

Los arabismos en español tienen una historia más larga en comparación con los anglicismos. Estas palabras penetraron en la lengua hispana hace muchos siglos y ya no son algo innovador y unifamiliar para los españoles. Los anglicismos son un fenómeno más o menos moderno y nuevo y por eso atraen más atención de los lingüistas.

Los campos semánticos de dichos préstamos difieren mucho debido al contexto histórico cuando empezó el intercambio. Así los arabismos se ocupan más de los topónimos, términos básicos de guerra y ciencias, especialmente de matemáticas, astronomía y medicina, varias artesanías, agricultura (plantas, productos alimenticios), objetos de uso diario (tejidos y vestimenta, vajilla). A su vez los anglicismos tienen en su difusión las áreas de economía y comercio, deporte, transporte, negocios, moda y ropa, gastronomía, cinematografía, tecnologías informáticas e internet.

El Presente estudio permitió sacar la conclusión adicional de que la RAE se dedica a la protección del español en el sentido de penetración de las palabras innecesarias o excesivas. Y en este caso trata de controlar el uso de los anglicismos que están de moda. Dicha idea puede servir la base de futuros estudios.

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Elida Emiralieva,
Uliana Eremeeva
Higher School of Economics, Russia
elidaemiralieva@gmail.com
useremeeva@edu.hse.ru

La política lingüística de España

España es uno de los países multilingües de Europa, conocido por su patrimonio tanto lingüístico como cultural. Indiscutiblemente, el documento principal de un estado legítimo es la Constitución. Según el artículo 20 de la Constitución de España, la ley garantiza el pluralismo lingüístico y respeta las diversas lenguas de España. Este hecho revela que el país presta mucha atención a sus idiomas, incluyendo los idiomas minoritarios. ¿Es verdad? En el presente artículo examinaremos cómo se implementa y se respeta esta ley.

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Antes de nada, se debe analizar el término “la política lingüística”. Según la UNESCO, las políticas lingüísticas están consideradas como un instrumento político poderoso para promover la coexistencia del multilingüismo. Indudablemente, la política lingüística es una parte integral para cada país, ya que forma la imagen del estado. Cada estado soberano no puede existir sin un idioma nacional. El idioma puede considerarse como un marco sin el cual el funcionamiento de todas las instituciones públicas del estado es imposible e inimaginable. Este hecho demuestra una vez más que la política lingüística es extremadamente importante. Vale la pena señalar que el lingüista Anthony Liddicoat comprende la política lingüística como “la planificación”. Además, los académicos como E. Wüster y O. Jespersen se centran en la conexión de la política lingüística con los siguientes términos: la lengua construida y la lengua planificada. Es bien sabido que la política lingüística se estableció en la unión de dos esferas sociales que son la lingüística y la ciencia política. Los principales objetos de la política lingüística de España son los idiomas, en particular los idiomas oficiales, así como sus dialectos. Ya que España es un país con un sistema político monárquico, el poder del estado es el sujeto fundamental de la política lingüística. La política lingüística es un aspecto formador del sistema que determina la constitución del gobierno. Además del estado, los sujetos también son movimientos sociales e instituciones educativas.

La política lingüística de España implica el pluralismo y la libertad de los idiomas, y también prohíbe la discriminación de los idiomas minoritarios. De acuerdo con la Constitución de 1978, el castellano es el idioma oficial de España y se habla en todo el país. Además, se reconoce que allí existen otras lenguas que son oficiales en las comunidades autónomas donde se hablan, a saber, el catalán, el gallego y el euskera (vascuence). En este apartado consideramos el castellano, el catalán, el gallego y el euskera, que se destacan por la mayor cantidad de hablantes y proceden del latín vulgar, además el euskera cuyo origen es desconocido.

1. El español (castellano) es el idioma oficial de 21 países. Se habla principalmente en las siguientes regiones: España, América Latina, los Estados Unidos, Guinea Ecuatorial, Andorra, Filipinas, la República Árabe Saharaui Democrática y Guam. El idioma tiene más de 580 millones de hablantes. Para denominar la lengua común de España y de otras partes del mundo, son válidos los términos “castellano” y “español”. La polémica sobre cuál de estas designaciones resulta más apropiada continúa hoy día. Según la Real Academia Española, el término “español” se considera más recomendable por carecer de ambigüedad, ya que se refiere de modo unívoco a la lengua que hablan hoy casi seiscientos millones de personas. Asimismo, es la denominación que se utiliza internacionalmente (Spanish, espagnol, Spanisch, spagnolo, etc.). Al mismo tiempo, es preferible reservar el término “castellano” para referirse al dialecto románico nacido en el Reino de Castilla durante la Edad Media, o al dialecto del español que se habla actualmente en esta región. En España, se usa también el nombre castellano cuando se alude a la lengua común del Estado en relación con las otras lenguas cooficiales en sus respectivos territorios autónomos, como el catalán, el gallego o el euskera.

La primera noticia que se tiene de la existencia de un dialecto castellano corresponde al siglo X. Era al principio sólo el dialecto que se hablaba en unos valles de Burgos, Castilla. ¿Cómo alcanzó a ser una de las grandes lenguas del mundo? El dialecto castellano presentaba una personalidad muy marcada frente a los otros dialectos peninsulares. Se formaba en una zona más débilmente romanizada que los otros. A medida que Castilla aumentaba su poder político, el castellano se enriqueció con numerosos vocablos. Esto era consecuencia de la creación de una forma literaria del castellano, transformando este dialecto en una verdadera lengua. El hecho de utilizar el castellano como lengua culta, llevaba consigo un enriquecimiento en el vocabulario y en los medios para expresarse. A partir de aquí el castellano ya era un instrumento útil de expresividad en el resto de los territorios peninsulares.

2. El catalán se habla en un territorio, repartido entre cuatro estados europeos: España (Cataluña, la Comunidad Valenciana, las islas Baleares), Francia, Andorra e Italia. Es el idioma minoritario más importante de Europa Occidental. Lo hablan aproximadamente 10 millones de personas. En Cataluña, por ejemplo, el porcentaje de los que hablan catalán, que es el 75% de la población total, llega al 90% entre los jóvenes de 15 a 29 años. En la actualidad es muy difícil conocer a gente joven en Cataluña con la que no se pueda hablar en catalán. Hoy en día hay más de 20 canales de televisión y unas 100 emisoras de radio en catalán. Por añadidura, se publican más de 30 diarios (en versión papel y digitales) y unas 150 revistas.

3. El gallego es una lengua más próxima al portugués que al español y se utiliza en la comunidad de Galicia. Lo hablan alrededor de 2 millones de personas. Al principio era una mezcla de gallego-portugués, pero más tarde los dos idiomas tomaron caminos distintos y se formaron el gallego y el portugués. Desde el invierno de 2020 Galicia tiene su periódico impreso en gallego “Nòs Diario”. Es sorprendente que de la docena de diarios en papel que se pueden encontrar día a día en los quioscos no había ninguno en lengua gallega. Desde un punto de vista lingüístico, los últimos estudios indican un estancamiento en cuanto a la pérdida de hablantes entre los más pequeños. El idioma también afronta las dificultades, fundamentalmente en el ámbito empresarial, en lo que está aumentando la presencia del castellano como lengua principal de los hogares.

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4. El euskera se habla en el País Vasco y Navarra y lo hablan 700 mil personas. Lingüísticamente, es la lengua viva más antigua de Europa y es una de las pocas lenguas no indoeuropeas. Hace falta mencionar que el idioma no tiene origen conocido ni relación con otro idioma, una anomalía que ha mantenido confundidos a los expertos en lingüística durante mucho tiempo. Se defiende la creencia de que el euskera puede ser heredero directo de la lengua que hablaban los habitantes de las cuevas de Altamira, Ekain o Lascaux hace 15 mil años. Sin embargo, a pesar de que el euskera es una lengua tan antigua, es un idioma totalmente en uso en la actualidad y perfectamente integrado en la sociedad vasca. El milagro del euskera es cómo ha podido sobrevivir sin tener literatura ni gente educada en euskera y su origen continúa siendo un enigma sin resolver. En la actualidad se publican 13 diarios y existen 30 emisoras de radio en euskera. Vale la pena destacar que la penetración de la prensa diaria en euskera es muy grande, ya que el número de ejemplares por mil habitantes es casi de 180.

En esta sección se consideran los problemas sociales relevantes en materia de la política lingüística de España. Mucha atención se presta al impacto de los idiomas en el sistema educativo.

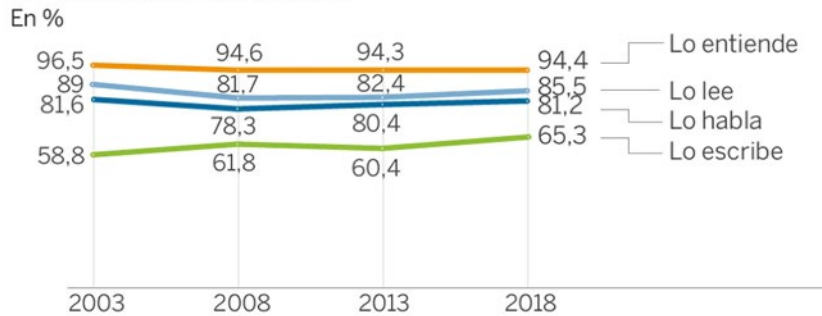
Desde el final de la Guerra Civil en 1939 hasta la muerte de Francisco Franco en 1975, España vivió bajo una dictadura política. Franco instaló un gobierno con todo el poder en sus manos. Todos los derechos de los ciudadanos fueron suprimidos. Franco escogió el castellano como lengua mayoritaria, oficial y única de España. No obstante, imponer el uso del castellano no era suficiente para mantener todo el poder en sus manos por eso su dictadura también prohibió a millones de españoles estudiar en sus lenguas maternas y los idiomas minoritarios, a saber, el catalán, el euskera y el gallego, que se convirtieron en las lenguas silenciadas. Desde aquel momento, empezó una inmersión lingüística forzosa. Las medidas represivas contra los hablantes de las lenguas “regionales” compartían la única meta – el olvido. Tales recomendaciones como “Hablad en español”, “hablad en el idioma del imperio”, “hablad, pensad y sentid como Franco” eran un fenómeno muy común. Las lenguas minoritarias se percibían como antiespañolas y antipatrióticas. La dictadura de Franco declaraba que no era admisible ser español y hablar los otros idiomas. Hablarlos podía meter a alguien en la cárcel. El dictador se esforzaba por acallar las voces de los hablantes de las lenguas minoritarias y borrar sus identidades. Por tanto, Franco prohibió premeditadamente el habla, la lectura y la escritura de las lenguas distintas al castellano. La opresión lingüística era tan efectiva que cuando se promulgó la Constitución de 1978, solo un 25% de la población hablaba catalán. Aunque las lenguas minoritarias de España gozan de historias distintas, lo que tienen en común es la opresión lingüística durante el régimen de Franco. Afortunadamente, las lenguas sobrevivieron por la dictadura y eso representa la posibilidad de luchar contra la opresión y no dejarla ganar. Hace falta destacar que con la muerte de Franco, se abrió una nueva etapa para el país y los ciudadanos pudieron hablar las lenguas oprimidas de nuevo.

Es necesario examinar los problemas actuales, en particular los relacionados con la política lingüística de España. Vale la pena mencionar que el problema del separatismo en la comunidad autónoma de Cataluña tiene un impacto significativo no solo en la economía del país, sino que también en el sistema estatal. Debido al tratamiento de la dictadura de Franco, era más importante mantener el uso del catalán para evitar la pérdida de la cultura de la región. Este aumentado sentido de orgullo se refleja en las actitudes de Cataluña. En noviembre de 2014, los habitantes de Cataluña votaron para demostrar su interés en independizarse. El asunto es que los separatistas explican sus acciones por el objetivo de preservar la cultura e historia catalana, que difieren significativamente de las españolas. Aunque la decisión no era un asunto oficial, según la vicepresidenta de la Generalitat, Joana Ortega, “un 80,7% de los participantes votaron a favor de la independencia”. Mientras el gobierno central no consideraba los métodos ni las cifras como acertados, la votación mostró las actitudes de la pública catalana acerca del gobierno de Madrid. El gobierno de Madrid hasta ahora se ha negado a reformar la Constitución española para dar validez jurídica a un hipotético referéndum sobre la independencia de Cataluña. Se piensa que el gobierno central teme la separación, y por eso, ha negado la posibilidad de tener un referéndum sobre la independencia de Cataluña. Según los resultados de la votación, parece que el deseo de independizarse es fuerte y que un referéndum causaría la división del estado español. El orgullo fue aumentado por la represión que amenazó a borrar la identidad catalana. Sin embargo, este problema está estrechamente vinculado con la política lingüística, ya que los separatistas luchan también por conservar su lengua materna catalana. Hay supuestos de que el español desplaza al catalán.

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ENCUESTA SOBRE EL USO DEL CATALÁN

CONOCIMIENTO DEL CATALÁN



USO DE CADA LENGUA



Fuente: Generalitat de Catalunya. EL PAÍS

Al analizar las estadísticas realizadas por la Dirección General de Política Lingüística de la Generalitat y el Instituto de Estadística de Cataluña, cabe concluir que la situación es completamente diferente: el 94% de la población entiende el catalán; el 81,2% lo sabe hablar; el 85,5% lo lee y el 65,3% lo sabe escribir. Los resultados refutan los argumentos de un sector del independentismo que alerta sobre la desaparición del catalán. Al contrario, las cifras muestran que el número de la gente que aprende el catalán sigue aumentando. El movimiento separatista da un nuevo impulso no solo a la preservación del catalán, sino que a su desarrollo ulterior.

El siguiente gran problema es que otras lenguas que son el euskera, el gallego y el valenciano también están en riesgo. No se trata sólo de la desaparición de los idiomas de las minorías nacionales, sino también del dilema de la enseñanza en las lenguas nacionales. Es importante mencionar que en el País Vasco los padres e hijos pueden elegir que se impartan todas las clases en euskera, mientras en Galicia, la Comunidad Valenciana y Baleares no existe una opción similar. Las cuatro comunidades autónomas cuentan con dos lenguas cooficiales y han creado modelos distintos para enseñar estos idiomas en los colegios, aunque la forma de elección de los padres varía muchísimo. Es necesario considerar este problema más detalladamente con los ejemplos del País Vasco, la Comunidad Valenciana, Galicia y las Islas Baleares.

- En el País Vasco existen tres modelos de educación. Según el primer modelo, las clases se imparten en castellano y el euskera es una asignatura separada. El segundo modelo ofrece todas las clases en euskera y el castellano es una asignatura separada. Finalmente, en el tercer modelo las clases se dan en las dos lenguas, pero domina el euskera. Es curioso que la mayoría de los estudiantes no universitarios del País Vasco reciban las clases en euskera. De los 374.848 alumnos matriculados, el 66% eligieron estudiar todas las asignaturas en euskera.

- Galicia es la región donde los niños tienen más posibilidades de aprender ambas lenguas hasta un mismo nivel. Las asignaturas se imparten a partes iguales en las dos lenguas cooficiales y en las clases de Educación Infantil se usa como vehicular el idioma materno mayoritario entre los alumnos de cada aula. Se imparten en gallego Ciencias de la naturaleza, Ciencias sociales, Biología, Geografía, Geología e Historia y en castellano – Física, Química, Matemáticas y Tecnología. Cada centro educativo tiene libertad para decidir el idioma en que se imparte el resto de las asignaturas pero el porcentaje de horas semanales en gallego y en castellano debe ser el mismo. Últimamente, colegios han empezado a ofrecer la enseñanza trilingüe, con un tercio de las clases impartidas en inglés. Sin embargo, el Consejo de Europa reaccionó negativamente al hecho de que no hay derecho a elegir y también declaró que este método causa un daño significativo al idioma minoritario. Las últimas encuestas sociolingüísticas también confirman estas preocupaciones, ya que el monolingüismo en castellano de los niños se ha disparado.

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• En Valencia, la normativa escolar establece que los colegios votan por la distribución de horas impartidas en cada lengua oficial y en inglés. El tiempo mínimo debe ser del 25% de las horas lectivas. Así pues, las lecciones en varios idiomas se distribuyen de la siguiente manera: un 25% de horas en valenciano, un 25% en castellano, y entre un 15% y un 25% en inglés. A primera vista, la distribución es bastante adecuada. Sin embargo, los ciudadanos locales no están contentos de haber sacrificado las horas de valenciano para añadir las horas de inglés. Como resultado, solo el 30% de los graduados pueden hablar y escribir en valenciano.

• En la actualidad, la educación de Baleares se rige por la Ley de Normalización Lingüística de 1986 impulsada por el PP de Gabriel Cañellas que establece que al menos el 50% de la enseñanza se imparta en catalán. Asimismo, cada centro educativo puede decidir cuantas asignaturas no lingüísticas imparte en un idioma extranjero como el inglés o el francés.

En resumen, las regiones consideradas en este apartado tienen libertad para elegir y emplear su propio modelo educativo. Como consecuencia, las lenguas cooficiales no se imparten a partes iguales si comparamos las horas de estudio.

Para terminar, hay que hacer algunas conclusiones sobre las principales afirmaciones del trabajo realizado. La política lingüística de España implica el pluralismo y la libertad de los idiomas, aunque no todos los modelos educativos examinados cumplen con este principio. Hay comunidades donde la implantación de ciertos modelos educativos no es efectiva y acertada. La enseñanza catalana y vasca no provoca muchas preocupaciones mientras los sistemas educativos valencianos y gallegos no reciben suficiente apoyo de los alumnos y sus padres. También se debe subrayar que el idioma puede ser utilizado como arma política, concretamente en la lucha por la independencia. Las lenguas desempeñan un gran papel en todos los ámbitos de la vida porque las lenguas sirven de base para muchas cosas. Hace falta reconocer que la riqueza lingüística es el patrimonio y el símbolo de orgullo de cada estado por eso es tan importante protegerla. Lo que es también esencial es la creación de tales sistemas educativos que no depriman las lenguas minoritarias sino multipliquen la cantidad de sus hablantes.

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Die Ausbildung für Kinder mit geistigen Behinderungen.

Kontrastive Analyse von den Situationen in Russland und in Deutschland

Die vorliegende Forschung ist einem wichtigen Problem gewidmet und zwar dem Organisationsgrad der Schulen für die Ausbildung von Kindern mit Behinderungen. Das Thema, das erforscht ist, ist heute sehr aktuell, weil eine große Anzahl von Menschen mit Problemen in der geistigen und körperlichen Entwicklung geboren wird.

Die russischen und deutschen Staaten untersuchen das Problem der Kinder mit Behinderungen und versuchen, günstige Bedingungen für kranke Kinder zu schaffen. Krankenhäuser, Sonderschulen, Stiftungen und Organisationen helfen den Kindern eine Bildung zu bekommen. Wie die Praxis zeigt, sind jedoch nicht alle Schulen bereit, behinderte Kinder aufzunehmen. Um dies zu beweisen, haben wir eine große Studie durchgeführt und einige Schlussfolgerungen gezogen.

Der Plan der Arbeit lautet wie folgt:

1. Als erstes gehen wir auf das Konzept der “begrenzten Gesundheitsmöglichkeiten” ein.
2. Als zweites behandeln wir im Rahmen der vorliegenden Arbeit die Evolution der Beziehungen der russischen und der europäischen Gesellschaften den Kindern mit Entwicklungsstörungen gegenüber.
3. Drittens betrachten wir das Konzept der “integrativen Bildung” und die Geschichte deren Entwicklung sowohl in Russland als auch im Ausland.
4. Im Weiteren analysieren wir die russischen und deutschen Rechtsdokumente, die sich für den Schutz der Rechte von Kindern mit Behinderungen einsetzen.
5. Daran anschließend werden unsere Interviews der russischen und deutschen Lehrer analysiert, um festzustellen, ob günstige Bedingungen für die Bildung von Kindern mit Behinderungen geschaffen werden könnten.

Der Ausdruck “Studierende mit Behinderungen” bezieht sich auf Kinder mit Abweichungen in der physischen und (oder) psychischen Entwicklung, die von der psychologischen, medizinischen und pädagogischen Kommission bestätigt wurden und an die Entwicklung von Bildungsprogrammen hindern, wenn keine besonderen Bedingungen vorliegen.

Wissenschaftler unterscheiden die folgenden Kategorien von Kindern mit Behinderungen:

- Verhaltens- und Kommunikationsstörungen haben;
- psychische Anomalien und Entwicklungsverzögerungen haben;
- Sprachstörungen, Hör- und Sehstörungen haben;
- Störungen des Bewegungsapparates haben;
- mehrere Abweichungen gleichzeitig haben.

Jeder Schüler mit Behinderungen hat eine Entwicklungsstörung, daher sollten Kinder mit besonderen Bedürfnissen unter bestimmten Bedingungen unter dem Einfluss bestimmter Unterrichtsmethoden geschult werden. Als besondere Bedingungen gelten in der Regel Lehrpläne und Handbücher für Kinder mit besonderen Bedürfnissen, technische Rehabilitationsmittel und natürlich psychologische Unterstützung.

Viele Wissenschaftler argumentieren, dass es in der Antike nicht weniger Kinder mit Entwicklungsstörungen gab, sondern im Gegenteil sogar mehr als heute. Die alte Gesetzgebung war von der Tatsache geleitet, dass es notwendig war, Neugeborene mit Abweichungen von gesunden Kindern zu trennen und diese aus Gründen des Wohls des Staates bald loszuwerden. Sogar wenn ein Kind mit Behinderungen aus der Oberschicht stammte, hielt die Gesellschaft ihn für nutzlos.

Mit dem Aufkommen des Protestantismus verändert sich die Weltanschauung der Europäer. Er bestimmt ihre eigenen Muster für tugendhaftes Verhalten für Kinder mit Entwicklungsstörungen in Bezug. In den 18-20 Jahrhunderten wird “besonderen” Kindern nicht nur von Kirchenbeamten und einfachen Bürgern des Landes geholfen, sondern auch vom Staat selbst, wodurch das Unterrichten von Kindern mit Behinderungen zur Norm wird. In vielen europäischen Ländern werden diese Kinder in Schulen mit geistig gesunden Kindern unterrichtet.

Nach dem Zweiten Weltkrieg erscheinen Rechtsgrundsätze, die sich für den Schutz von Menschen mit Behinderungen einsetzen. Gemäß der am 10. Dezember 1948 von der Generalversammlung der Vereinten Nationen angenommenen allgemeinen Erklärung der Menschenrechte werden Leben, Freiheit, Würde und Menschenrechte als die wichtigsten und bedingungslosen Werte anerkannt, und die europäische Gesellschaft beginnt zu verstehen, wie wichtig es ist, nicht nur gesunde, sondern auch besondere Kinder und später zu erziehen weigert sich, das Kind in Sonderschulen auszugrenzen.

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Im 19. und 20. Jahrhundert beschloss die russische Gesellschaft, ein Sonderpädagogiksystem zu schaffen, um das Kind in einer besonderen Gesellschaft zu isolieren, wodurch das Waisenhaus und das Internat zur führenden Art von Einrichtung wurden, in der sich das Kind vom normalen Leben ausgegrenzt fühlte.

Wenn in europäischen Ländern die Schaffung eines solchen Systems in Übereinstimmung mit den kirchlichen Ministern, dem Staat und den von der Regierung herausgegebenen Dokumenten, die sich für den Schutz von Menschen mit Behinderungen einsetzen, durchgeführt wurde, wurde das Sonderschulsystem in der Sowjetunion nur auf Kosten der finanziellen Unterstützung von Regierungsbeamten außerhalb der Interaktion mit juristischen Dokumenten durchgeführt. Im sowjetischen Justizvollzugssystem wurden spezielle Bildungseinrichtungen eröffnet und Methoden für den Unterricht von Kindern mit körperlichen und geistigen Behinderungen in der Entwicklung entfaltet.

In den 90er Jahren des 20. Jahrhunderts billigte Russland die UN-Konventionen, die die westeuropäische Gesellschaft zuvor verabschiedet hatte: “Über die Rechte des Kindes”, “Über die Rechte geistig behinderter Menschen”, “Über die Rechte von Menschen mit Behinderungen”. Danach änderte der russische Staat seine Haltung gegenüber Kindern mit besonderen Bedürfnissen zum Besseren und entwarf ein föderales Gesetz “zur Änderung bestimmter Gesetze der Russischen Föderation zur Frage der Bürger mit Behinderungen”. Der Staat hat die Erlaubnis für eine private Wohltätigkeitsorganisation erteilt, die sich um Kinder mit Behinderungen kümmert. Die Eltern von besonderen Kindern erhalten das Recht, eine Bildungseinrichtung, Formen und Methoden der Ausbildung auszuwählen.

Heute übernimmt Russland allmählich die Idee der sozialen Integration und integrativen Bildung aus Europa. Der Staat versucht, Kinder mit Behinderungen in den Bildungsprozess mit gesunden Kindern in normalen Bildungseinrichtungen einzubeziehen. Einige Eltern sind jedoch gegen dieses Projekt, denn viele Erwachsene und Kinder sind heute nicht immer tolerant gegenüber Menschen mit Entwicklungsstörungen. Dies ist höchstwahrscheinlich darauf zurückzuführen, dass Kinder mit Behinderungen seit vielen Jahren aus der Gesellschaft entfernt werden.

Inklusive Bildung ist eine spezielle Form der Bildung, nach der Kinder mit geistigen und / oder körperlichen Behinderungen zusammen mit gesunden gleichaltrigen Kindern lernen, Unterstützung erhalten und alle Möglichkeiten erhalten, um ihren Bildungsbedarf zu decken. Man geht davon aus, dass die Grundidee integrativer Bildung darin besteht, dass sich Kinder mit Behinderungen nicht an die Regeln und Bedingungen der Gesellschaft anpassen, sondern nach ihren eigenen Maßstäben, die die Gesellschaft versteht und berücksichtigt, in ihr Leben einbezogen werden.

Der sowjetische Psychologe L.S. Vygotsky hielt es für notwendig, Kinder mit Behinderungen in das normale Lernumfeld einzubeziehen, da sie trotz aller Vorteile von Sonderschulen in der UdSSR immer noch einen großen Nachteil hatten: Solche Einrichtungen übten großen Druck auf Kinder mit besonderen Bedürfnissen aus. Er war ein Befürworter der Tatsache, dass zuallererst ein Kind mit Behinderungen in die soziale Welt entlassen werden sollte, ihm helfen sollte, aus der geschlossenen Welt herauszukommen und mit anderen Kindern zu kommunizieren und mit ihnen zu lernen. Zuerst wurde seine Idee von Schulen in Westeuropa und den USA in die Praxis umgesetzt, und nur wenige Jahre später entschied sich Russland dafür.

Gegen Ende des 20. Jahrhunderts begannen Länder wie die USA, Großbritannien, Schweden, Deutschland, Italien und Dänemark, das Projekt “inklusive Bildung” aktiv einzuführen. Um die Idee des integrierten Lernens umzusetzen, waren für diese Länder folgende Bedingungen wichtig:

- Pflicht zur Wahrung der Rechte des Einzelnen;
- finanzielle Unterstützung von Staat und Gesellschaft;
- Bereitstellung aller erforderlichen Bildungsdienste und Sonderbedingungen für Kinder mit Behinderungen an öffentlichen Schulen;
- Wahlfreiheit;
- die Bereitschaft der Gesellschaft, Kinder mit Behinderungen in ihren Kreis aufzunehmen und mit ihnen zu interagieren.

In Russland begann in den 90er Jahren der Prozess der Einbeziehung von Kindern mit Behinderungen in eine Gesellschaft mit normaler Entwicklung. Für unser Land erforderte die Umsetzung der Idee der integrativen Bildung eine staatliche Unterstützung. Leider ist dieses Projekt wie heute allen bekannt, aber die finanzielle Unterstützung des Staates und die Bereitschaft der Massenbildung, es umzusetzen, reichen nicht aus. Heutzutage besucht eine große Anzahl von Kindern mit verschiedenen Gesundheitsproblemen russische Schulen. Der Grund dafür ist jedoch meist nicht der Wunsch des Staates, sondern der Eltern, die glauben, dass sich ihr Kind nicht von anderen Kindern unterscheidet.

Aufgrund der Tatsache, dass das Thema inklusive Bildung sowohl Vor- als auch Nachteile hat, wird es heute eher sensibel und oft diskutiert. Befürworter dieses Projekts argumentieren, dass sich Kinder mit Behinderungen normal entwickeln können und nicht in ihrer Kapazität eingeschränkt sind. Und Gegner glauben, dass nicht nur Kinder, sondern auch Eltern und Lehrer nur dann Probleme und Enttäuschungen bekommen, wenn sie ein Kind mit Behinderungen zu Massenzwecken an eine reguläre allgemeinbildende Schule schicken.

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Die Entwicklung eines Kindes mit Behinderungen in Russland hängt in erster Linie von der Funktionsqualität und dem Zusammenspiel der wichtigsten Aspekte seines Lebens ab: Familienleben, medizinische Versorgung, Bildung. Kinder mit besonderen Bedürfnissen, die hauptsächlich Probleme wie geistige Behinderung, Sprachbehinderung und besondere geistige Bedürfnisse haben, haben die gleichen Rechte wie andere Kinder, aber ihre Chancen sind leider ungleich.

Der russische Staat verpflichtet sich, Kindern mit Behinderungen auf allen Bildungsebenen eine kostenlose und qualitativ hochwertige Bildung zu bieten:

- Die Allgemeinbildung von Studierenden mit Behinderungen erfolgt in Organisationen, die pädagogische Aktivitäten nach angepassten allgemeinen Grundbildungsprogrammen durchführen. In solchen Organisationen werden besondere Bedingungen für die Ausbildung dieser Schüler geschaffen.

- Dabei sollten spezielle pädagogische Programme und Lehr- und Erziehungsmethoden, spezielle Lehrbücher, Lehrmittel und didaktische Materialien verwendet werden und Gruppen- und Einzelunterricht sowie die Unterstützung eines Psychologen erforderlich sein.

- Die Ausbildung von Studierenden mit Behinderungen kann sowohl gemeinsam mit anderen Studierenden als auch in getrennten Klassen, Gruppen oder in einzelnen Organisationen, die sich mit Bildungsaktivitäten befassen, organisiert werden.

- Studierenden mit Behinderungen werden nach Erhalt der Ausbildung kostenlose Speziallehrbücher und Lehrmittel, andere pädagogische Literatur sowie Gebärdensprachdolmetscher und Gebärdensprachdolmetscher zur Verfügung gestellt.

Der Status von Behinderungen im Schul- und Vorschulalter gibt:

1. das Recht auf freie Korrektur- und Entwicklungsstunden mit einem Sprachtherapeuten, Psychologen, Sonderlehrer in einer Bildungsorganisation;

2. das Recht auf einen besonderen Ansatz des Lehrers, der die psychophysischen Merkmale des Kindes berücksichtigen muss, einschließlich eines individuell ausgerichteten Bewertungssystems;

3. am Ende der 9. und 11. Klasse das Recht, die staatliche Abschlussprüfung (GIA) in Form der staatlichen Abschlussprüfung (vereinfachte Form) oder in Form der staatlichen Hauptprüfung (Prüfungsaufgaben) zu bestehen;

4. das Recht, 2 Mahlzeiten pro Tag in der Schule kostenlos zu haben;

5. disziplinarmaßnahmen gelten nicht für Kinder der HIA-Gruppe während der gesamten Schulzeit.

6. das Recht, die Durchführung des von der PMPK empfohlenen angepassten Programms sowohl in der Bildungseinrichtung am Wohnort, dh in der allgemeinen Bildungseinrichtung, als auch in einer spezialisierten Einrichtung für Kinder mit bestimmten Entwicklungsstörungen zu wählen;

7. das Recht auf Vertraulichkeit von Informationen über den Stand der psychophysischen Entwicklung und die Geheimhaltung gegenüber Dritten, die nicht am Bildungsprozess von Kindern beteiligt sind.

Heutzutage wollen die meisten Moskauer Schulen keine Verantwortung übernehmen und akzeptieren Kinder mit abweichendem Verhalten, psychischen Problemen oder anderen Mängeln in der Schule. Dank des russischen Gesetzes reichen jedoch eine Erklärung eines Elternteils, sein Reisepass, eine Kopie der Geburtsurkunde des Kindes und der Krankenversicherungskarte aus. Glücklicherweise schützt das Gesetz in Russland Kinder und gibt ihnen die Möglichkeit, sich weiterzuentwickeln und Wissen auf Augenhöhe mit anderen Kindern zu erwerben, obwohl manchmal nicht genügend finanzielle Mittel zur Verfügung stehen.

Jetzt kommen wir zum Schutz von Kindern mit Behinderungen in Deutschland. Im September 2006 unterzeichneten viele Länder der Welt einen Vertrag über die Annahme von Artikeln, die Menschen mit Behinderungen schützen und ihnen das Recht einräumen, mit anderen Menschen ein gleiches Leben zu führen. Dieser Vertrag gilt in Deutschland seit März 2009. Wenn Sie die Punkte in Bezug auf die Bildung von Kindern mit Behinderungen in Deutschland hervorheben, lohnt es sich, Artikel 23 zu lesen. Dieser Artikel lautet:

1. “Ein Kind mit geistigen oder körperlichen Behinderungen sollte ein erfülltes und würdevolles Leben unter Bedingungen führen, die die Würde des Kindes schützen, zu seiner Unabhängigkeit und aktiven Teilhabe an der Gesellschaft beitragen.

2. Jedes Kind in Deutschland und auch Kinder mit Behinderungen haben das Recht, in normalen Klassen öffentlicher oder privater Schulen zu lernen.

3. Die Ausbildung von Kindern mit Behinderungen sollte vom Staat bezahlt werden, wenn die finanziellen Mittel der Eltern oder anderer für das Kind verantwortlicher Personen nicht ausreichen.

4. Die Berufsausbildung, die besonderen Bedürfnisse des Kindes, die Lehrmittel sowie die geistige, individuelle und kulturelle Entwicklung sollten aus staatlichen Mitteln gefördert werden” (Art. 23 Förderung behinderter Kinder. - Zugangsmodus: [www.url: https:// www.netzwerk-kinderrechte.de/themen/behinderung-art-23.html](https://www.netzwerk-kinderrechte.de/themen/behinderung-art-23.html) - 2018.).

Nachdem alle Punkte des Gesetzes zum Schutz “besonderer” Kinder in Deutschland geprüft wurden, wurde deutlich, dass derzeit alle Länder der Welt bestrebt sind, die Lebensqualität von Kindern mit Behinderungen zu verbessern: Es werden Verträge unterzeichnet, die Kindern mit Entwicklungsstörungen die Möglichkeit geben, geistig und kulturell Bildung zu erhalten auf Kosten des Staates zu entwickeln, wenn ihre Erziehungsberechtigten

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nicht die Möglichkeit haben. Nach Prüfung eines Artikels des deutschen Kodex Nummer 23 können wir den Schluss ziehen, dass Deutschland Kindern mit Behinderungen alle Ressourcen für ihr ganzes Leben zur Verfügung stellt und ihnen so hilft, mit anderen Menschen auf Augenhöhe zu sein.

Im Rahmen unserer Recherche haben wir uns entschlossen, Lehrer aus mehreren Moskauer und Deutscher Schulen zu befragen, um deren Sichtweise hinsichtlich der Adoption von Kindern mit geistigen Behinderungen in Bildungseinrichtungen und der Eignung von Schulen sowie der Bereitschaft von Lehrern, Kinder mit Behinderungen zu unterrichten, festzulegen.

Während des Interviews wurden den Lehrern folgende Fragen gestellt:

1) Lernen die Kinder mit Behinderungen bzw. die Kinder mit geistigen Behinderungen an Ihrer Schule oder in Ihrer Klasse? Wenn ja, wie viele gibt es?

2) Was werden Sie tun, wenn ein Kind mit Behinderungen im Unterricht Geräusche macht, die die anderen stören, mit dem ganzen Körper zappeln, mit den Händen winken, unter die Tische klettern?

3) Hatten Sie während Ihres Studiums an der Universität einen Kurs oder ein Fach “Sonderpädagogik”, um die Regeln für den Unterricht von Kindern mit Behinderungen zu lernen?

4) Gibt es an Ihrer Schule spezielle Seminare oder Treffen, in denen Psychologen Ihnen die Merkmale der richtigen Erziehung von Kindern mit Behinderungen erläutern können? Wenn ja, worüber diskutieren Sie mit ihnen?

Nachdem wir eine solche Forschungsmethode als Interview mit russischen Lehrern organisiert hatten, ermittelten wir, dass sich viele Lehrkräfte weigern, über die Erziehung von Kindern mit Behinderungen zu sprechen, da sie keine spezifischen Kenntnisse über die Psychologie spezieller Schüler, ihre Lehrmethoden und die Organisation des Erziehungsprozesses für sie haben. Alle Lehrer, die wir vor der Kamera interviewt haben, und diejenigen, die sich geweigert haben, an dem Interview teilzunehmen, hatten während des Pädagogik-Trainings keinen speziellen Kurs, der sich auf das Unterrichten von Schülern mit ungewöhnlichem Verhalten bezog. Leider haben alle Lehrer der Schule Kinder mit Diagnosen, einige unterrichten sogar Schüler mit Behinderungen, ohne die Grundlagen des Unterrichts solcher Kinder zu kennen. Wir sind der Auffassung, dass Lehrer Vorlesungen und Besprechungen in den Schulen halten müssen, in denen sie über die Probleme im Zusammenhang mit Schülern mit Behinderungen diskutieren, Erfahrungen austauschen, neues Wissen erwerben und Ratschläge von Psychologen und Spezialisten einholen können.

Nachdem wir eine Umfrage bei Lehrern in Deutschland durchgeführt hatten, kamen wir zu einem bestimmten Ergebnis. Deutschlehrern zufolge lehnen die meisten deutschen Schulen die Aufnahme von Kindern mit Behinderungen ab und befürworten, dass Sonderschüler an Sonderschulen studieren sollten. Dennoch versuchen Deutschlehrer, die Kinder mit verschiedenen Diagnosen in ihrem Unterricht zu unterrichten, sie psychologisch zu unterstützen. Leider haben nicht alle deutschen pädagogischen Hochschulen ein Fach namens “Sonderpädagogik”, obwohl die Lehrkräfte Kenntnisse in diesem Lehrbereich benötigen. Außerdem halten die deutschen öffentlichen Schulen keine speziellen Vorträge und Sitzungen für Lehrer ab, um alle Fragen im Zusammenhang mit der Erziehung von Kindern mit Entwicklungsstörungen zu erörtern.

Nach Durchführung einer Studie können wir bestimmte Rückschlüsse auf den Organisationsgrad der Bildung für Kinder mit Behinderungen in Russland und Deutschland ziehen.

Wir haben die Rechtsdokumente Russlands und Deutschlands studiert und sind zu dem Schluss gekommen, dass beide Länder Artikel haben, die von den Behörden bestätigt wurden und die die Rechte von Kindern mit Behinderungen schützen. Die Gesetze von Deutschland und Russland sehen vor, dass Kinder mit Entwicklungsstörungen das Recht auf Bildung an normalen öffentlichen Schulen sowie auf gesunde Kinder haben. Das Gesetz setzt außerdem voraus, dass der deutsche und der russische Staat Kinder erforderlichenfalls bei Diagnosen unterstützen müssen: Bereitstellung von kostenlosem Unterricht, psychologischer Unterstützung, Förderunterricht, speziellen Materialien und Handbüchern für das Lernen von Fächern.

Als wir das Problem der Bereitschaft von Schulen in Russland und Deutschland für die Aufnahme von Kindern mit Behinderungen untersuchten, kamen wir zu dem Schluss, dass die meisten Bildungseinrichtungen die Aufnahme von “besonderen” Kindern ablehnen, weil sie keine spezielle Vorbereitung für die Arbeit mit solchen Kindern haben. Die geleistete Arbeit hat uns die Gelegenheit gegeben zu verstehen, dass es trotz der Tatsache, dass Gesetze die Rechte von Kindern mit verschiedenen Diagnosen schützen, eine gewisse Zeit dauern wird, bis das Projekt “Inklusive Bildung” in Russland und Deutschland vollständig umgesetzt ist.

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Die Korrelation von dem Perfekt und dem Präteritum in der Geschichte der deutschen Sprache

Einleitung

Die Vergangenheit in Deutsch kann mit zwei Zeitformen geäußert werden: das Präteritum und das Perfekt. Heute gibt es bestimmte Regeln für die Auswahl von diesen Zeitformen, und die Regeln wurden im Laufe der langen Zeit erstellt. Der Artikel berichtet von der Korrelation von dem Perfekt und dem Präteritum in der Geschichte der deutschen Sprache.

Der Hauptzweck ist die Verwendung von dem Präteritum und dem Perfekt in mehreren historischen Perioden zu vergleichen, um zu erfahren, ob die grammatikalischen Normen jetzt und in früheren Epochen übereinstimmen. Um die Forschungsfrage zu beantworten, werden die historische Entwicklung des Perfekts und des Präteritums und die aktuelle Verbrauchsnormen dieser Zeitformen studiert. Das Thema wird jedoch nicht nur unter theoretischen Gesichtspunkten untersucht, sondern auch wird eine eigene Forschung durchgeführt. Der Vortrag ist in zwei Hauptteile gegliedert: die Funktionen des Perfekts und des Präteritums und diese Zeitformen in bestimmten Perioden der Geschichte der deutschen Sprache.

Das Präteritum oder Imperfekt ist eine Zeitform des Verbs zur Bezeichnung vergangener Ereignisse und Situationen. Das Perfekt oder vollendete Gegenwart wird in der deutschen Grammatik ein Tempus eines Verbs bezeichnet, das vollendete Handlungen und Vorgänge ausdrückt.

Die meisten Grammatiker sind der Ansicht, dass das Präteritum in schriftlichen Texten verschiedener Genres verwendet wird, um gleichzeitige und/oder sequentielle Handlungen in der Vergangenheit zu bezeichnen, und in einigen Fällen wird das Präteritum in der Bedeutung des Präsens benutzt [9, S. 95-97]. Was die Verwendung des Perfekts betrifft, kann er manchmal auch eine zeitlose Bedeutung haben, aber alle Sprachwissenschaftler nennen seine Hauptfunktion die Bezeichnung von Handlungen in der Vergangenheit und betonen, dass diese Handlungen oft ein Ergebnis oder eine Verbindung zur Gegenwart haben [6, S. 151-153]. Es wird darauf hingewiesen, dass das Perfekt im Gegensatz zum Präteritum normalerweise in Dialogen und kurzen Texten eingesetzt wird.

Um die grammatikalischen Konstruktionen im diachronen Aspekt zu analysieren, ist es notwendig, sich die Vorstellung von der traditionell akzeptierten Periodisierung der Entwicklung der Sprache zu machen. Hier sind die Perioden der historischen Entwicklung der deutschen Sprache [5, S. 3-4]:

- 1) ca. 750 - 1050: Althochdeutsch;
- 2) um 1050 - 1350: Mittelhochdeutsch;
- 3) um 1350 - 1650: Frühneuhochdeutsch;
- 4) seit ca. 1650: Neuhochdeutsch.

Die grammatische Kategorie der Zeit tauchte bereits in der althochdeutschen Sprache (VIII-XI. Jahrhundert) auf [8, S. 116-117]. Zunächst gab es in der Sprache zwei temporäre Formen: das Präsens und das Präteritum. Das Präteritum diente, um alle Handlungen in der Vergangenheit zu bezeichnen; es wurde verwendet, um die Vorzeitigkeit anzugeben (eine moderne Funktion des Plusquamperfekts); und es wurde in Dialogen gefunden (eine moderne Bedeutung des Perfekts). Die Verbformen in den alten indoeuropäischen Sprachen drückten die Zeit in keiner Weise aus, so dass, um die Handlung der Vergangenheit zuzuschreiben, ein spezielles Partikel "é" dem Verb angegliedert wird. Diese Verbform kann man als die Geburt des Präteritums angesehen werden [5, S. 91-92].

Weiter werden das Entstehen des Perfekts, seine Hauptfunktionen sowie die Haupttrends in der Verwendung vom Präteritum angesehen. Das Präteritum in der Sprache vor dem Perfekt erschien. Das Präteritum war ursprünglich gebräuchlich, um alle Aktionen in der Vergangenheit und sogar für den Konjunktiv zu bezeichnen. Das Perfekt tauchte in der Zeit des Althochdeutsches auf. Anfangs wurde es nur mit Verben verwendet, die eine perfekte Bedeutung hatten, aber allmählich verlor das Perfekt diese Bedeutung und war mit allen Verben in Gebrauch, um Aktionen in der Vergangenheit anzuzeigen. Zur mittelhochdeutschen Periode wurden die Funktionen des Perfekts und des Präteritums endgültig geteilt, was für die moderne deutsche Sprache relevant ist: das Perfekt ist heute typisch im Gespräch, und das Präteritum ist typisch für die geschriebene Sprache. Das heißt, im Laufe der Zeit blieben nur stilistische Unterschiede zwischen Zeitformen, aber semantische Unterschiede verschwanden.

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Dieser Teil erzählt über die Ergebnisse der Studie. Für die Untersuchung wurden 4 deutsche Originalquellen in Bezug auf die Normen der Verwendung von zwei Vergangenheitsformen analysiert – das Perfekt und das Präteritum. Die Anzahl der analysierten Fragmente wurde gemäß den traditionell unterschiedlichen Perioden in der Geschichte des Deutschen ausgewählt: Althochdeutsch, Mittelhochdeutsch, Frühhochdeutsch und Neuhochdeutsch. Das heißt, in dieser Arbeit entspricht ein Text jede Periode in der Geschichte der Sprache.

Um die Verwendung der Zeitformen im Althochdeutschen zu analysieren, wurde ein Fragment aus “Hildebrandslied“ entnommen. Dieses literarische Denkmal gehört zu den altgermanischen Helden-Epos und stammt aus dem Anfang des 9. Jhs.:

„Ik gihorta dat seggen,
dat sih urhettun ænon muotin,
Hiltibrant enti Hadubrant untar heriun tuem.
sunufatarungo iro saro rihtun.
garutun se iro gudhamun, gurtun sih iro suert ana,
helidos, ubar hringa, do sie to dero hiltiu ritun,
Hiltibrant gimahalta [Heribrantes sunu]: her uuas heroro man,
ferahes frotoro; her fragen gistuont
fohem uuortum, hwer sin fater wari
fireo in folche,
..... „eddo hwelihhes cnuosles du sis.
ibu du mi enan sages, ik mi de odre uuert,
chind, in chunincriche: chud ist mir al irmindeot“.
Hadubrant gimahalta, Hiltibrantes sunu:
„dat sagetun mi usare liuti,
alte anti frote, dea erhina warun,
dat Hiltibrant hætti min fater: ih heittu Hadubrant.
forn her ostar giweit, floh her Otachres nid,
hina miti Theotrihhe enti sinero degano filu.
her furlaet in lante luttilla sitten
prut in bure, barn unwahsan,
arbeo laosa: her raet ostar hina.
des sid Detrihhe darba gistuontun
fateres mines: dat uuas so friuntlaos man...
„wettu irmingot [quad Hiltibrant] obana ab hevane,
dat du neo dana halt mit sus sippan man
dinc ni gileitos...“

Eine Reihe von Eigentümlichkeiten wurde festgestellt. Das Präteritum wurde hauptsächlich meistens gefunden. Die Beispiele für Verbformen, die wir im Originaltext beobachten, sind „sagetun“, „floh“, „raet“ usw. Es ist erwähnenswert, dass es überhaupt keine analytischen Formen gibt, weil sie in diesem Zeitpunkt praktisch nicht existierten.

In einigen Sätzen wurde das Präfix „gi-“, zum Verb hinzugefügt. Dieses Präfix legt einen besonderen Akzent auf die Vollendung der Aktion, deshalb ist die moderne Übersetzung durch das Perfekt verwirklicht. Zum Beispiel entspricht "forn her ostar giweit" – "ist nach Osten gegangen", "dinc ni gileitos" – "guten Dinge hast verhandeln lassen!" usw. Im Text sehen wir sowohl die Erzählung als auch die direkte Rede in Dialogen, aber keine Analogien für die Auswahl einer Zeitform können gezogen werden. Das heißt, während dieser Periode der Sprachentwicklung hatte die Art der Rede (mündlich oder schriftlich) keinen Einfluss auf die Wahl der Zeitform.

Die Analyse dieses Fragments zeigt also, dass das Perfekt im Althochdeutsch in seinem modernen Verständnis nicht existierte. Die Vergangenheitsform wird hauptsächlich durch das Präteritum vermittelt, und manchmal wird das Präfix „gi-“, zum Verb hinzugefügt, um der Aktion eine Nuance von Vollendung zu geben.

Die nächste Periode in der Entwicklung der deutschen Sprache ist Mittelhochdeutsch. Eines der bekanntesten Werke dieser Zeit ist „Das Nibelungenlied“ [4]. Das ist ein mittelalterliches germanisches Epos, das von einem unbekanntem Autor im späten XII. - frühen XIII. Jahrhundert geschrieben wurde.

Zur Analyse wurde ein großer Auszug aus dem Originaltext entnommen (von 1. bis 99. Strophen). Der Text ist eine Erzählung, deshalb wird die Vergangenheitsform in den meisten Fällen durch das Präteritum (*wuohs* (der Originaltext) – *wuchs* (moderne Übersetzung); *pflagen* – *pfliegen*; *versuochte* – *erprobte*; *zôch* – *erzog* et. al.) geäußert. Das Perfekt wird auch gefunden, aber sehr selten (*Daz hat er gethan* (der Originaltext) – *Das hat er getan* (die moderne Übersetzung); *von den man hat gesaget* – *davon man hat gesagt* usw.). In den Fällen, in denen das Perfekt benutzt wurde, wird eine direkte Ähnlichkeit mit den Normen der modernen deutschen Sprache beobachtet:

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das Perfekt wird hauptsächlich in Dialogen sowie für die Aktionen verwendet, die in der Gegenwart zu Ergebnissen führen.

So war das Perfekt bereits in der Mitte der mittelhochdeutschen Periode eine eigenständige und gut entwickelte Zeitform. Basierend auf dem für die Analyse ausgewählten Fragment können wir schließen, dass die Unterschiede zwischen den Zeitformen in dieser Zeit fast den modernen grammatikalischen Normen waren. Das heißt, im Gegensatz zum Althochdeutsch wird eine strikte Abgrenzung in der Kategorie der Vollendung/Unvollendung der Aktion nicht beobachtet, dafür gewinnt das Perfekt die Bedeutung der Resultativität und begann häufiger in der dialogischen Sprache auftauchen.

Eine große Rolle bei der Entwicklung und dem Werdegang des Frühneuhochdeutsch spielte der Leiter der Reformationsbewegung in Deutschland, Martin Luther. Eine der wichtigsten Errungenschaften von M. Luther ist die Übersetzung der Bibel, und folglich wurde ein Fragment der Bibel von M. Luther, das 1545 geschaffen wurde, als repräsentative Quelle für diesen Zeitraum ausgewählt [7]:

„¹DA Jhesus geborn war zu Bethlehem / im Jüdischenlande zur zeit des königes Herodis / Sihe / da kamen die Weisen¹ vom Morgenland gen Jerusalem /vnd sprachen / ²Wo ist der newgeborne König der Jüden? Wir haben seinen Sternen gesehen im Morgenland / vnd sind komen jn an zu beten.

³DA das der könig Herodes hörete / erschrack er /vnd mit jm das gantze Jerusalem / ⁴Vnd lies versamen alle Hohepriester vnd Schrifftgelerten vnter dem Volck / vnd erforschte von jnen / Wo Christus solt geborn werden?

⁵Vnd sie sagten jm / Zu Bethlehem im Jüdischenlande / Denn also stehet geschrieben durch den Propheten. ⁶Vnd du Bethlehem im Jüdischenlande / bist mit nichte² die kleinst vnter den Fürsten Juda. Denn aus dir sol mir komen / der Hertzog / der vber mein volck Jsrael ein Herr sey. ⇒Mich. 5; ⇒Joh. 7.

⁷Da berieff Herodes die Weisen heimlich / vnd erlernet mit vleis von jnen / Wenn der Stern erschienen were? ⁸Vnd weisete sie gen Bethlehem / vnd sprach / Ziehet hin / vnd forschet vleissig nach dem Kindlin / Vnd wenn jrs findet / saget mirs wider / Das ich auch kome / vnd es anbete.

⁹ALS sie nu den König gehört hatten / zogen sie hin. Vnd sihe / der Stern den sie im Morgenland gesehen hatten / gieng für jnen hin / Bis das er kam / vnd stund oben vber / da das Kindlin war. ¹⁰Da sie den Stern sahen / wurden sie hoch erfrewet / ¹¹Vnd giengen in das Haus / vnd funden das Kindlin mit Maria seiner mutter / vnd fielen nider / vnd betten es an /Vnd theten jre Schetze auff / vnd schenckten jm Gold / Weyrauch vnd Myrrhen. ¹²Vnd Gott befahl jnen im trawm das sie sich nicht solten wider zu Herodes lencken / Vnd zogen durch einen andern weg wider in jr Land.

¹³DA sie aber hin weg gezogen waren / Sihe / da erschein der Engel des HERRN dem Joseph im trawm / vnd sprach / Stehe auff / vnd nim das Kindlin vnd seine Mutter zu dir / vnd fleuch in Egyptenland /vnd bleib alda / bis ich dir sage. Denn es ist für handen / das Herodes das Kindlin süche / das selb vmb zu bringen. ¹⁴Vnd er stund auff / vnd nam das Kindlin vnd seine Mutter zu sich / bey der nacht / vnd entweich in Egyptenland / ¹⁵vnd bleib alda / bis nach dem tod Herodis. Auff das erfüllet würde / das der HERR durch den Propheten gesagt hat / der da spricht / *Aus Egypten hab ich meinen Son geruffen.* ⇒Osee. 11; ⇒Num. 23.

¹⁶DA Herodes nu sahe / Das er von den Weisen betrogen war / ward er seer zornig / Vnd schicket aus / vnd lies alle Kinder zu Bethlehem tödten / vnd an jren gantzen Grentzen / die da zweyjerig vnd drunter waren / Nach der zeit / die er mit vleis von den Weisen erlernet hatte. ¹⁷Da ist erfüllet das gesagt ist von dem Propheten Jeremia / der da spricht / ¹⁸Auff dem Gebirge hat man ein geschrey gehöret / viel klagens / weinens vnd heulens. Rahel beweinet jre Kinder / vnd wolt sich nicht trösten lassen / Denn es war aus mit jnen³. ⇒Jere. 31.

¹⁹DA aber Herodes gestorben war / sihe / da erschein der Engel des HERRN Joseph im trawm / in Egyptenland / ²⁰vnd sprach / Stehe auff / vnd nim das Kindlin vnd seine Mutter zu dir / vnd zeuch hin / in das land Jsrael / Sie sind gestorben / die dem Kinde nach dem leben stunden. ²¹Vnd er stund auff / vnd nam das Kindlin vnd seine Mutter zu sich / vnd kam in das land Jsrael. ²²Da er aber hörete / das Archelaus im Jüdischen lande König war / an stat seines vaters Herodis / furcht er sich da hin zu komen / Vnd im Trawm empfieng er befehl von Gott / vnd zoch in die örter des Galileischen lands / vnd kam / vnd wonet in der Stad / die da heisst Nazareth. Auff das erfüllet würde / das da gesagt ist durch die Propheten / *Er sol Nazarenus heissen.*“

Der Text ist eine Erzählung und enthält eine große Anzahl von Vergangenheitsformen, die durch das Präteritum (*hörete, erschrack, lies, sagten* usw.) geäußert werden. In allen Sätzen mit der direkten Rede wurde die Vergangenheitsform jedoch vom Autor durch das Perfekt ausgedrückt (*haben seinen Sternen gesehen, sind komen, hab ich meinen Son geruffen, hat man ein geschrey gehöret, sind gestorben* usw.).

Die Kategorie der Resultativität der Aktion beeinflusst die Wahl der Zeitform nicht mehr – die Form des Informationsaustauschs (eine mündliche oder schriftliche Rede) wird das Hauptkriterium für diese Wahl. Trotz der Tatsache, dass diese Quelle geschrieben ist, verwendet der Autor immer das Perfekt, um dem Leser zu zeigen, dass es die mündliche Rede ist. Also, in der frühneuhochdeutschen Periode der Sprachentwicklung stimmt die grammatikalische Norm der Verwendung von Vergangenheitsformen mit dem Hauptparadigma des modernen Deutsch überein.

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Neuhochdeutsch ist die jüngste Sprachstufe des Deutschen, die bis heute andauert. Für die Zuverlässigkeit dieser Studie wurde ein Werk ausgewählt, die den Texten ähnelt, die für die Analyse früherer Perioden genommen wurden.

Der Roman von Erich Maria Remarque „Drei Kameraden“ ist eines der bekanntesten deutschen Werke des 20. Jahrhunderts. Um die Auswahl der Zeitformen in diesem Zeitraum zu analysieren, wurde das erste Kapitel des Romans aufgenommen [12].

Die Erzählung in diesem Fragment wird in der ersten Person in der Vergangenheitsform geführt. Am Beispiel dieses Textes kann man deutlich sehen, wie das Perfekt und das Präteritum im modernen Deutsch funktionieren. Die Erzählung des Protagonisten wird ausnahmslos im Präteritum geführt, und im Gegenteil verwenden die Personen in ihrer Rede nur das Perfekt. Erörtern wir uns zum Beispiel einen Auszug, in der Robert an seine Vergangenheit erinnert:

„Den ganzen Tag fuhren die flachen Operationswagen herein und hinaus. Manchmal kamen sie leer wieder. Neben mir lag Josef Stoll.“

Betrachten wir jetzt ein Beispiel eines Dialogs aus einem ausgewählten Fragment eines Romans:

„Haben Sie etwas gesagt?“ fragte Otto dann schließlich zweifelnd, um ihn zu belehren, daß er höflicher sein könnte. Der Mann wurde rot. „Ich habe nach dem Wagen da gefragt“, erklärte er brummig im selben Ton wie vorher.

In diesem Beispiel sehen wir, dass die Anwendung vom Perfekt in der Umgangssprache ausschließlich so tief in der Sprache verwurzelt ist, dass der Autor das Perfekt in der Erzählung nie verwendete. Das heißt, in der gegenwärtigen Entwicklungsstufe der deutschen Sprache wurden keine semantischen Unterschiede zwischen Zeitformen offenbart.

Zum Schluss kann gesagt wird, dass die Haupttrends der Veränderung der Funktionen vom Perfekt und vom Präteritum nach der Vergleichsfahren literarischer Texte aus verschiedenen Epochen der Entwicklung aufgedeckt werden. Im Althochdeutschen war das Perfekt noch nicht vollständig ausgebildet, aber das Präteritum fand breite Anwendung in verschiedene Erzählungen. In der mittelhochdeutschen Periode kann man die Differenzierung der Funktionen der untersuchten Zeitformen beobachten. Die etablierten Normen wurzelten schließlich in der Sprache – in dem modernen Deutschen wird das Perfekt in der mündlichen Sprache verwendet, und das Präteritum wird in der schriftlichen Sprache geschrieben.

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Kommunikative Kontakte des Politikers mit dem Auditorium

Die vorliegende Arbeit beschäftigt mit solchen Begriffen wie "politischer Diskurs", "politische Rede", "kommunikativer Kontakt". Alle diese Begriffe können in vielen Bereichen untersucht werden.

Das Ziel dieser Studie besteht in der Analyse von Aufzeichnungen öffentlicher politischer Reden, wodurch man feststellen kann, wie kommunikative Kontakte zwischen einem Politiker und seinem Publikum hergestellt werden und unter welchen Umständen die Rede des Politikers erfolgreich ist.

Um das Ziel zu erreichen, werden verschiedene Methoden gebraucht, und zwar: psycholinguistische Analyse, die beschreibende Methode und die vergleichende Methode. Wir werden meine Forschung im Rahmen der Psycholinguistik durchführen.

Die Ziele der Studie bestimmten ihre Struktur. Die Arbeit besteht aus zwei Kapiteln: einem theoretischen und einem praktischen. Im ersten Kapitel werden wir uns mit der Psycholinguistik, ihren Definitionen und der Geschichte vertraut machen. Im zweiten Kapitel werden wir uns der Persönlichkeit von Erich Honecker, seiner Biographie und dem eigentlichen Gegenstand unserer Studie - Honeckers politischen Reden - zuwenden.

Die Psycholinguistik verbindet theoretische und empirische Werkzeuge der Psychologie und Linguistik [Slobin, Dan, 1974, S. 9].

Es gibt verschiedene Definitionen der Psycholinguistik. Eine davon ist: Psycholinguistik ist eine Wissenschaft, die die Prozesse der Sprachbildung sowie die Wahrnehmung und Bildung von Sprache in ihrer Korrelation mit dem Sprachsystem untersucht. Diese Definition stellt fest, dass die Psycholinguistik drei Fachbereiche hat:

- 1) Sprachproduktion (in einem einzelnen Sprechakt);
- 2) Sprachwahrnehmung (in einem einzelnen Sprechakt);
- 3) die Bildung der Sprache (im Prozess der Bildung der Persönlichkeit des Kindes).

Und in jedem Fall wird davon ausgegangen, dass die Psycholinguistik diejenigen Aspekte dieser Art von Sprachaktivität anspricht, die durch das Sprachsystem bedingt sind.

Der psycholinguistische Ansatz lässt uns nicht nur verbale, sondern auch solche nonverbalen Arten der Kommunikation untersuchen, wie Mimik, Gestik und optische Signale.

Für die vorliegende Arbeit ist es bedeutend zu betrachten, welche Schritte moderne Psycholinguisten unternehmen und welche Methoden sie benutzen, um einen Film oder Videoabschnitt zu untersuchen.

Hier gehen wir auf politische Linguistik und politischen Diskurs ein, da sich politische Linguistik mit den Problemen der politischen Kommunikation befasst und die Rede des Politikers, die in dieser Arbeit untersucht wird, Teil des politischen Diskurses ist.

Traditionell ist der **Diskurs** in der Linguistik mit Begriffen wie Sprechaktivität, Sprache, Äußerung, Text, Dialog, Monolog und Kommunikationssituation verbunden, die einerseits zu einem Verständnis des Ortes des Diskurses in einer Reihe von Phänomenen führen und andererseits dazu beitragen, eine falsche Vorstellung von der Identität dieser Phänomene zu entwickeln.

Die politische Linguistik entstand an der Schnittstelle verschiedener Wissenschaftsbereiche: Ethnographie, Kulturwissenschaften, Psychologie, Soziologie, Politikwissenschaft, Linguistik und anderer Geisteswissenschaften. Um die Mechanismen der politischen Kommunikation zu verstehen und erfolgreich zu beschreiben, zieht die politische Linguistik auch die Errungenschaften der kognitiven Linguistik an: Rhetorik, Stilistik, Soziolinguistik, linguistische Pragmatik, Textlinguistik, Politische Linguistik wie Explantieren, Funktionalismus, Expansionismus, Anthropozentrismus.

In diesem Bereich gibt es bis heute keinen theoretischen gemeinsamen Rahmen, Terminologie und Methodik. In Form einer Reihe von Grundkonzepten und Begriffen, die die Hauptprobleme der politischen Linguistik abdecken, kann Folgendes identifiziert werden:

- das sprachliche Bild der politischen Welt;

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- politische Kommunikation und verwandte politische Diskurse, Taktiken und Strategien in der politischen Kommunikation, Genres der politischen Rede, politische Phraseologie und Vokabeln, politische Sphäre und ihre Ebenen, politischer Text, politische Rede und politische Sprache [Nikulina, Daria, 2017, S. 146-148].

Mit dem politischen Diskurs ist sehr eng **Propaganda** verbunden. Das ist eine besondere Form der systematisch geplanten Massenkommunikation, die nicht informieren oder argumentieren, sondern überreden oder überzeugen möchte. Das Ziel von Propaganda ist es, bei den Empfängern eine bestimmte Wahrnehmung von Ereignissen oder Meinungen auszulösen, nach der neue Informationen und Sachverhalte in den Kontext einer ideologiegeladenen Weltansicht eingebettet werden.

In dieser Arbeit möchten wir verschiedene Arten und Weisen der Beeinflussung durch Sprache und Propaganda am Material von Honeckers Rede erforschen, die in der DDR auch benutzt wurden.

Erich Honecker war die Hauptfigur der kommunistischen Partei Deutschlands und musste alle Prozesse kontrollieren. Damit benutzte er und die Regierung der DDR alle Möglichkeiten, und darunter - die Propaganda und offizielle propagandistische und politische Reden, die einfache Leute beeinflussten und ihnen passende Gedanken, Umgangsformen und Bewusstseinsarten aufzwingen sollten. Um das alles zurückzuverfolgen, fangen wir an, die Videoaufnahmen von Honeckers Rede zu analysieren [Bazylev, Vladimir, 2014, 37-47].

Im Rahmen des vorliegenden Artikels werden drei Videos aus der Zeit von Erich Honecker analysiert. Mithilfe von Videoaufzeichnungen kann man sehen, wie es ihm gelingt, den Kontakt mit Publikum herzustellen und wie das Publikum auf seine Rede reagiert.

In diesen Videos gibt es unterschiedliche Sprachsituationen. Im ersten Video sehen wir eine Aufnahme der Rede Honeckers vor FDJ.

Im zweiten Video ist die Rede des Politikers vor den Soldaten der Nationalen Volksarmee der DDR dargestellt.

In der dritten Aufnahme hält der Generalsekretär seine Rede am 40. Jahrestag der DDR, an dem Menschen unterschiedlichen Alters und verschiedener Kulturen teilnahmen.

Moderator: “Liebe Freunde!”

Honecker: “Im reichen Jahr der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik, dass die Arbeit unseres Volkes reichen Früchten getragen hat, reine Anstrengungen und kein Opfer sind umsonst gewesen. Die Jugend hat stets in den ersten Reihen der Bau des Sozialismus gestanden und so ist auch Freude. Und ich bin tief davon überzeugt dass dies auch in Zukunft sein wird!”

Honecker (im Off): “Denn nur der Sozialismus gibt der Jugend eine Gegenwart und eine Zukunft, in der sich lohnt zu leben und zu kämpfen!”

Menge in Sprechchor mit Honecker ruft: “FDJ – SED”

Es ist wichtig zu beachten, dass Erich Honecker in diesem Fall die gedruckte Version des Textes seiner Rede fast nicht verwendet, meistens spricht der Politiker in seinen eigenen Worten, verwendet Gesten (dies macht sich besonders am Ende bemerkbar, wenn er zusammen mit der Menge "FDJ - SED" singt, und versucht, das visuelle Kontakt mit dem Publikum zu behalten).

Der Operator zeigt auch den allgemeinen Grundriss des Platzes, auf dem sich Menschen versammelt haben, sowie ausgewählte Personen in Nahaufnahme.

Es fällt auf, dass die Zuhörer nicht von der Rede des Politikers abgelenkt werden, manche beobachten ihn aufmerksam und mit Bewunderung.

Fast jeder Teilnehmer des Treffens hat ein rotes Tuch, was darauf hindeutet, dass sich die Leute auf dieses Ereignis vorbereitet haben. Die Zahl der Menschen auf dem Platz zeigt, dass FDJ unter jungen Menschen beliebt war-

Honecker: “Liebe Genossen! Ich habe den ehrenvoll Auftrag euch und allen angehörigen nationaler Volksarmee die herzlichsten brüderlichsten Kampfesgrüße zum 30. Jahrestag der deutschen demokratischen Republik zu übermitteln.

Honecker (im Off): “Wie die Dinge liegen kommen die sozialistischen Staaten nicht umhin ihre Verteidigungskraft stets auf den erforderlichen Niveau zu halten. Wir sind uns, liebe Genossen, der hohen

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Beantwortung bewusst, die dabei unser deutsche demokratische Republik an der Nahtstelle der beiden Gesellschaftssysteme derzeit mir der Bündnisse in Europa zu erfüllen hat. Die Angehörigen unserer Streitkräfte müssen jederzeit allen Provokationen des Klassenfeindes begegnen und ihre Heimat zuverlässig schützen.

An diesem Auftrag wird sich auch künftig nichts ändern!”

Am Anfang kann man die Gesamtaufnahme der Mitglieder der Nationalen Volksarmee DDR sehen. Die Soldaten sind auf die Rede Honeckers konzentriert, aber das Oberoffizierkorps interessiert sich dafür nicht. Einer der Offiziere lenkt sich ab und dreht den Kopf.

Dann kann man den Sekretär des ZK der SED Erich Honecker sehen. Im diesen Fall liest er vor, und es fällt den Soldaten schwer zu konzentrieren.

Im Laufe von Honeckers Rede kann man die Militärfahrzeuge sehen (BMP-1, 2S3 Akazie, 9K38 Iglä Raketen, MiG-21bis und Schiffe), die bei der Truppe benutzt sind. Also, die Kanonen schießen, die Soldaten marschieren, die Abfangjäger schnellen bei dem Alarm auf. Es ist zu bemerken, dass alle Fahrzeuge bei der Sowjet Union hergestellt sind. Damit zeigt Honecker, dass alle sozialistischen Länder Freundschaft haben und bereit sind, gegen “allen Provokationen des Klassenfeindes zu begegnen und Heimat zuverlässig zu schützen”.

Erwähnenswert ist, dass Erich Honecker in diesem Fall mehr auf geschriebenen Text zurückgreift. Diese Art der Sprache trägt zu einer weniger aufmerksamen Wahrnehmung bei. Man kann einen hochrangigen Offizier sehen, der sich während der Rede des Generalsekretärs ablenkt.

Die Rede hat einen rein propagandistischen Charakter, Honecker spricht mit recht bekannten Klischeephrasen, die den Angehörigen der Armee seit langem bekannt sind.

Es ist auch zu bemerken, dass ein großer Teil der Rede des Politikers im Off bleibt, stattdessen kann der Betrachter verschiedene militärische Ausrüstungsgegenstände sehen, die im Einsatz verwendet werden, was auch von der Propaganda-Natur dieses Videos spricht.

Erwähnenswert ist auch, dass Erich Honecker nach der Beendigung seiner Rede mit den Soldaten kommuniziert, ihnen Fragen stellt und jedem Soldaten persönlich die Hand gibt.

Honecker: ... *“Der Jugend Vertrauen und Verantwortung”, das ist unsere, das ist die bessere Welt. “Wer nach Sinnerfüllung im Leben strebt, der wird den faulen Zauber, der da drüben glänzt, schnell als das erkennen was er ist. Massenarbeitslosigkeit, Obdachlosigkeit und soziale Unsicherheit, welche die moderne Technik in der BRD begleiten, gibt es bei uns weder heute noch in Zukunft. Es ist eine Pervertierung der Menschenrechte, wenn ein Drittel oder ein Viertel, oder welcher Teil der Gesellschaft auch immer, ins Abseits gestellt und ausgegrenzt wird. “Das Erscheinen der Neo-Nazis auf der politischen Tribüne der Bundesrepublik gibt wirklich zu denken. Angesichts der Tatsache die Existenz des Neonazismus zu leugnen oder zu verniedlichen, möchte ich daran erinnern, daß ich unter dem Naziregime mit 2 weiteren Kameraden in dem Gefängnis der „Leibstandarte Adolf Hitler“ zur gleichen Zeit der Verhandlung übergeben wurde, da dort der jetzige Führer der Republikaner als SS-Führer tätig war. Kein Zweifel, solche die Völker der Welt beunruhigenden Elemente der BRD-Politik sind dringend reformbedürftig. Die zügellose Verleumdungskampagne, die derzeit, international koordiniert, gegen die DDR geführt wird, zielt darauf ab, Menschen zu verwirren und Zweifel in die Kraft und die Vorzüge des Sozialismus zu säen. Auch im fünften Jahrzehnt wird der sozialistische Staat der Arbeiter und Bauern auf deutschem Boden durch sein Handeln zum Wohle des Volkes, durch seinen Beitrag zu Frieden, Sicherheit und internationaler Zusammenarbeit ständig neu beweisen, daß seine Gründung im Oktober 1949 ein Wendepunkt war — in der Geschichte des deutschen Volkes und Europas. Es lebe der 40. Jahrestag der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik!”*

Es lässt sich unterstreichen, dass Honecker während dieser Rede den Blickkontakt zum Publikum fast verliert. Er liest seine Rede vom Blatt vor, daher konzentrieren sich einige der Anwesenden kaum auf die Rede des Politikers.

Auch die Arbeit des Kameramanns lässt sich besonders aufmerksam zu beachten. Dies ist eine Rede zum 40. Jahrestag der DDR, es handelt sich eher um eine Propaganda. Wenn dann Honecker über die schreckliche Vergangenheit spricht, die mit der Zeit der Nationalsozialisten verbunden ist, zeigt der Betreiber die Vertreter der älteren Generation. Ihre Gesichter bestätigen Honeckers Worte, dass sich schreckliche Ereignisse jener Zeit nie mehr wiederholen müssen.

Wenn es um etwas Modernes geht, richtet sich die Kamera an Vertreter der jüngeren Generation in Deutschland, um zu zeigen, dass die Zukunft ihnen gehört.

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Obwohl dieses Video zum 40. Jahrestag der DDR gedreht wurde und mit größerer Wahrscheinlichkeit einen Propaganda-Charakter hat, tauchen doch manchmal Leute im Rahmen auf, die von dem, was in der Halle passiert, abgelenkt sind.

Wollen wir nun feststellen, wodurch sich diese drei Aufnahmen voneinander unterscheiden. Im ersten Eintrag redet Erich Honecker, ohne auf den Text zu schauen. Er schenkt dem Publikum mehr Aufmerksamkeit und pflegt den Kontakt zu den Leuten.

In der zweiten Eröffnung spricht Erich Honecker vor dem Militär. In diesem Fall wendet sich der Politiker mehr dem Text zu, was zu einer abstrakteren Einstellung zu seiner Rede führt.

Während der dritten Rede liest Honecker fast den ganzen Text aus dem Blatt, was die Aufmerksamkeit der Zuhörer trübt.

Wir sollten auch auf die Häufigkeit der Verwendung von Wörtern in diesen drei Texten achten: Meistens verwendet er die Wörter “Zukunft”, “Sozialismus”, “Republik”, “Jugend”, “Volk”, “Welt”, “Genosse”, “Demokratie/demokratische”, “Klasse” in ihren verschiedenen Formen. Diese Wörter kann man als wortschatzspezifische Schlüsselwörter bezeichnen, die in der Zeit der DDR sehr oft verwendet wurden.

Zum Schluss muss gesagt werden, dass diese Videos ein gutes Beispiel der politischen Rede und des politischen Diskurses sind. Alle diese Reden sind der Propaganda-Natur, mit Hilfe der Videoaufzeichnungen kann man verstehen, welchen Kurs der KPD in verschiedenen Bereichen des Lebens der Bevölkerung Deutschlands gehabt hat (wir berücksichtigen nur die Ära der DDR).

Es ist auch erwähnenswert, dass man im Video verfolgen kann, unter welchen Umständen sich die Zuhörer auf die Rede des Politikers konzentrieren könnten und wann sie abgelenkt werden.

Zusammenfassend kann gesagt werden, dass die Kontaktaufnahme zwischen dem Politiker und dem Publikum nicht immer erfolgreich war. Dies geht aus den unterschiedlichen Wahrnehmungen von Honeckers Rede durch eine Menge hervor.

Im ersten Fall wurde der Kontakt durch Aufrechterhaltung des Augenkontakts erfolgreich hergestellt. Während dieser Rede bezieht sich der Politiker fast nicht auf den geschriebenen Text, das heißt, er spricht mit seinen eigenen Worten, während er sehr emotional ist, was die Aufmerksamkeit der Zuhörer noch mehr auf sich zieht.

Im zweiten Video spricht Honecker bei Militärübungen mit Vertretern der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik. Es ist zu sehen, dass das Militär nicht sehr an dieser Rede interessiert ist und sie verstehen, dass dies höchstwahrscheinlich nur eine Fiktion ist. Honecker liest fast die ganze Zeit von dem Blatt, seine Rede ist ziemlich eintönig. Für die Zuhörer ist es nicht interessant, und das ergibt sich aus ihrer Reaktion. Darüber hinaus könnte dieses Video als Propaganda in der DDR dienen, da der Betreiber und der Herausgeber während des Geräusches der Rede Aufnahmen von Übungen mit sowjetischer militärischer Ausrüstung zeigen, die die Stärke und Unverletzlichkeit der DDR symbolisieren können.

Das dritte und letzte Video wurde 1989 zum vierzigsten Jahrestag der DDR gedreht. Hier löst sich Honecker fast nie vom Text, liest eintönig und geht auf Themen ein, die für das Publikum im Saal wahrscheinlich nicht interessant sind. Dabei fehlt auch ein visueller Kontakt mit dem Publikum.

Die Studie erlaubt es uns festzustellen, dass der Erfolg der Rede eines Politikers nicht nur von der semantischen Belastung des Textes abhängt, sondern auch vom Verhalten des Politikers selbst. Wenn ein Politiker den Text aus dem Blatt liest, keinen Kontakt zum Hörer oder Betrachter hält, nicht versucht, in eigenen Worten zu sprechen, ist seine Rede fast immer zum Scheitern verurteilt.

Wenn der Politiker den Zuhörer emotional beeinflussen kann, zieht dies Menschen an. Diese Aufmerksamkeit wird auch durch das äußere Verhalten des Politikers erreicht - seine Gesten, Mimik, die Aufrechterhaltung des Augenkontakts mit dem Publikum. In diesem Fall kann die Rede des Politikers als erfolgreich angesehen werden.

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Part II

MODERN APPROACHES AND TOPICAL ISSUES OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Ekaterina Nazarova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
nazarovakate14@gmail.com

Development of Speaking Skills on the Material of German Youth TV Show “Berlin Berlin”

In the process of learning a foreign language, oral speech is as one of the most challenging aspects because a learner should keep in mind and combine in the right way knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and phonetics. In order to develop speaking skills, it is necessary to offer students methodically correct exercises as well as effectively motivate them to speak in a foreign language.

To provide a natural motivation for students to speak, a teacher should prepare relevant material. In this case, the modern TV series can be used as a source of such material.

For using TV shows in class, it is required to develop exercises aimed at improving speaking skills that are based on the topics and communicative situations from the episodes.

A number of methodologists and linguists agree that the development of communicative competence in a foreign language is one of the main goals of teaching a foreign language. At the same time, specialists note that in the process of achieving this goal, difficulties caused by a limited opportunity of communication with native speakers and using the spoken language outside of class can occur.

Moreover, it is vital to consider that the development of communicative competence will be most productive through the study of dialogues. Methodologists indicate that the material for teaching dialogic speech should be organized in the form of speech samples corresponding to the most used models of the language being studied and grouped around typical situations of speech communication.

In this case, TV shows become rich sources of dialogic patterns for various communication situations.

Moreover, the use of audio-visual aids enables to develop imagination, visual and auditory memory and creates a great potential for learning. Thus, video is highly informative, creates a sense of real language communication, can form an environment for the successful perception of foreign speech and increase the motivation of students to learn a language.

Traditionally, methodologists from Russia and abroad divide work with video into 3 stages: pre-viewing, while viewing and after-viewing.

During the **pre-viewing** stage, it is necessary to remove lexical and language difficulties connected with understanding the speech of native speakers. For this purpose, a teacher can offer tasks aimed at activating the vocabulary of students and generalizing the knowledge already existing one in their memory.

In particular, a teacher can offer such types of tasks as: define the subject of the video by the title; guess which statements are correct/false; review the lists of new words and define the subject of the movie according to them.

The next **while viewing** stage includes the exercises aimed at extracting information. The teacher checks the students' ability to clearly understand the content of particular parts and find precise information.

At this stage, a teacher can offer the following types of tasks: correlate printed information with the spoken language of a native speaker; arrange the numbers according to the logical sequence of the video; find the word equivalents in a parallel column by watching the video.

The last **after-viewing** stage includes exercises aimed at testing students' understanding of the content and can be divided into 3 types: reproductive, partially-productive and productive or creative. Students can retell the story, discuss the problems of the film, transform the material; solve problems; create projects.

In accordance with the studied theoretical material, lesson plans were created for two 12-minute parts of the first episode of the series "Berlin Berlin".

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Exercises before watching the video are aimed at predicting events in the episode and removing lexical difficulties. The exercises are accompanied by speech samples and examples.

Then follow the exercises that are aimed at understanding the plot and searching for specific information.

After viewing, students are encouraged to discuss the story once again, revise new vocabulary, use studied vocabulary and structures to discuss some topics, and also offered creative work with snapshots from the episode.

The communicative orientation is provided by the predominance of exercises that contain questions or controversial problems to discuss. Most exercises also involve working in pairs or mini-groups.

Stunde 1

Zeitdauer: 90 Minuten

Teilnehmer: 10-12 Studenten

Staffel 1, Folge-1

Pre-viewing stage

Aufgabe 1: Schauen Sie diese jungen Leute an.

Was denken Sie:

- wie alt sind sie?
- wo leben sie?
- wer sind sie für einander (Verwandte / Freunde / Mitbewohner)?



Fig. 2-1

Aufgabe 2: Lolle ist die Hauptfigur der Serie. Lolle macht den Schulabschluss und beginnt ihr erwachsenes Leben. Schauen Sie, was verbindet Lolle mit dem Schulleben und mit dem Erwachsenenleben. Ist alles klar? Schlagen Sie die Wörter nach, die nicht klar sind.

der Schulleiter	Das Schulleben	die Schleimer
etwas fehlen		das Abi (Abitur) schaffen
verträumt sein		der Gesellschaftsdschungel
etwas ausprobieren	Das Erwachsenenleben	den Schluss machen
der Pennplatz		der Schnuller
schreibfaul		die Schlampe

Table 2-1

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- Was verbinden Sie mit dem Schulleben und dem Erwachsenenleben? Und Ihre Mitstudenten? Arbeiten Sie in Paaren:

Benutzen Sie bei der Antwort folgende Redemittel:

Ich verbinde die Schulzeit mit..., weil...

Wenn ich an meine Schulzeit denke, stelle ich mir vor, ...

Wer das Erwachsenenleben beginnt, ...

Das Markenzeichen des Erwachsenenlebens ist...

Zum Beispiel: Ich verbinde die Schulzeit mit einem strengen Schulleiter, weil er eine autoritäre Person war und weil alle Schüler vor ihm Angst hatten.

Aufgabe 3: Nach der Schule ziehen die Leute oft in eine andere Stadt um. So hat auch Lolle gemacht. Welche Schwierigkeiten können beim Umzug in eine andere Stadt auftauchen? Besprechen Sie in Paaren.

- *Wahrscheinlich muss man...* - *eine Wohnung suchen und mieten*
- *Es ist vielleicht schwer, ...* - *nach einem Job suchen*

Benutzen Sie die Redemittel und das Sprachmaterial unten:

Zum Beispiel:

Wahrscheinlich muss man eine Wohnung suchen und mieten.

While viewing stage

Aufgabe 4: Sehen Sie sich die erste Episode der ersten Folge (12 Minuten lang) an. Ordnen Sie die Punkte und stellen Sie die Geschichte wiederher:

1. Aus Berlin kommt ein Brief kommt von Lollers Freund, wo er schreibt, dass er mit Lolle Schluss macht.
2. Lolle zieht sich in die Wohnung von ihrem Vetter ein und beginnt ein neues Leben.
3. Lolle versucht einen Nebenjob zu finden, aber ihr passt nichts.
4. Lolle plant, Zeit mit ihrem Freund zu verbringen, aber er geht nach Berlin, um dort zu arbeiten.
5. Lolle schließt die Schule ab und freut sich auf das Erwachsenenleben.
6. Lolle fährt nach Berlin, sie fühlt sich gebrochen und verloren.

Aufgabe 5: Sehen Sie sich das Video noch einmal an. Welche Modalverben werden in Sätzen verwendet? Was wollen die Sprecher zum Ausdruck bringen (**Möglichkeit / Gebote / Notwendigkeit / Willen**)?

1) _____ für 2) _____ für 3) **müssen** für 4) _____ für
 _____ **Notwendigkeit** _____

- Lolle, ich _____ nicht mit dir weg.
- Was _____ mir bitte schön fehlen?
- Wir _____ miteinander reden.
- "Was _____ du denn mit deinem Leben eigentlich anfangen?"
- Ja, aber du... ich meine, du _____ doch auch hier jobben, oder?
- Sie _____ nächstes Jahr unbedingt zu Ihrem ersten Jahrgangstreffen kommen!
- Dann **muss** er mich ja ganz vermissen, so
- Mama, ich _____ keine Journalistin werden.

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schreibfaul,
wieder ist.

Table 2-2

After-viewing stage

Aufgabe 6 :

a) (*reproduktive questions*) Arbeiten Sie in Gruppen (3 Personen), diskutieren Sie folgende Fragen:

- Haben Ihre Vermutungen über die Hauptpersonen bestätigt?
- War das Schulleben für Lolle einfach?

b) (*reproduktive questions*) Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sind an Lollers Stelle:

- Was würden Sie tun, wenn Sie in eine unbekannte Stadt umziehen würden, in der Sie niemanden kennen?
- Was würden Sie Ihrem Freund / Ihrer Freundin raten, wenn ihr Partner / seine Partnerin in eine andere Stadt umzieht und ihn / sie verlassen würde?

Aufgabe 7 (productive):

a) Was wollen / können / sollen / müssen Sie tun, um Ihr Leben in der neuen Stadt zu verbessern? Bilden Sie Ihre Beispiele anhand der Tabelle:

<i>Ich will</i>	- <i>verschiedene Ausstellungen und Messen in der Stadt besuchen, weil es mir hilft, die Stadt kennenzulernen.</i>
<i>Ich kann</i>	- <i>den Raum mit meinen Lieblingsfotos dekorieren, weil die Fotos angenehme Erinnerungen an Freunde und Familie tragen.</i>
<i>Ich soll</i>	- <i>Probleme mit meinen Freunden oder meiner Familie teilen, sie werden definitiv helfen.</i>
<i>Ich muss</i>	- <i>studieren oder arbeiten, weil die Aktivität immer hilft, sich an das neue Leben anzupassen.</i>

Table 2-3

b) Geben einander Ratschläge mit denselben Modalverben:

Zum Beispiel:

Du kannst deine Freunde einladen, dich zu besuchen.

Aufgabe 8 (reproductive): Sehen Sie sich das Video noch einmal an.

a) Was passt zusammen?

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| 1. Erdrücken | a) to sweep someone off someone's feet |
| 2. Kopf hoch! | b) to solve all problems |
| 3. Fehlen | c) Stop! |
| 4. Den ganzen Kram erledigen | d) to promise |
| 5. Nach einer Wohnung umgucken | e) to lack |
| 6. Halt! | f) to look for a flat |
| 7. Zum Schluss kommen | g) to put an end |
| 8. Zusagen | h) Keep head up! |

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Table 2-4

b) Achten Sie auf die Konversationsphrasen. Vervollständigen Sie zuerst die Sätze.

1.- Ihnen wird die Schule noch _____ !

- Was soll mir bitte schön _____ ?

2. - _____ zum Schluss!

Jetzt _____ endlich zum Schluss, Mann!

3. - Du _____ mich!

4. - Ich hab ihm gestern _____ .

5. - Hier finde ich doch nichts. Da kann ich

mich gleich immatrikulieren und nach _____ und diesen ganzen _____ .

6. - _____ , du siehst ihn ja bald wieder.

7. - _____ , hier geblieben!

a) erdrückst

b) Kopf hoch

c) fehlen

d) Kram erledigen

e) einer Wohnung umgucken

f) Halt

g) Komm

h) zugesagt

Table 2-5

c) Sehen Sie sich das Video noch einmal an und prüfen Sie die Antworten.

Aufgabe 9 (creative): Lolle mag Comics zeichnen. Schauen Sie diese Comics an. Lolle drückt ihre Gefühle in Form von Comics aus. Kommentieren Sie Lolles Comics:

- Was passiert in diesem Moment?
- Warum hat Lolle solche Gefühle dargestellt? Wie würden Sie sich in diesem Moment fühlen?
- Was passiert weiter?

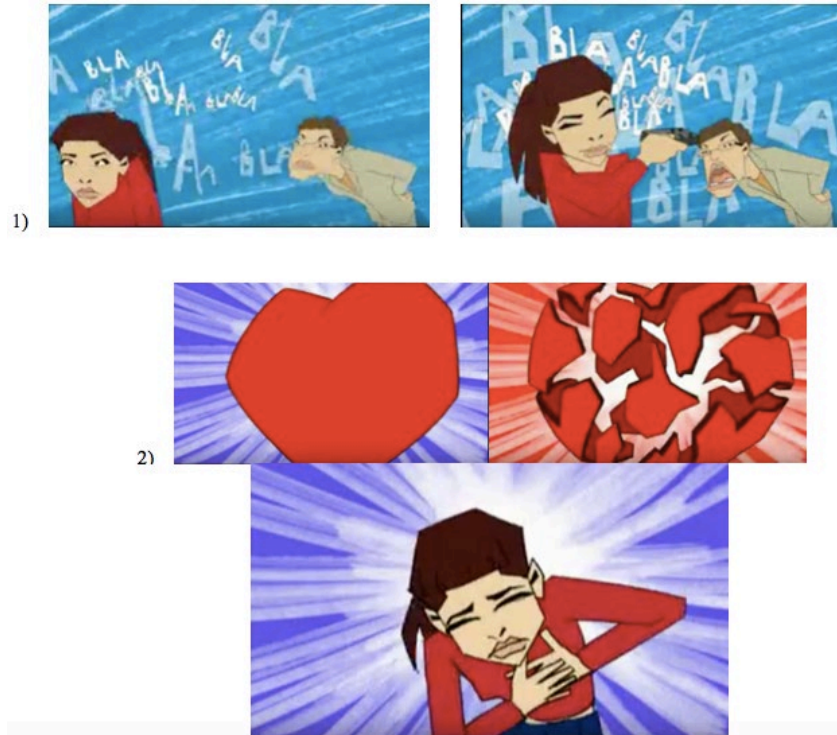


Fig. 2-2

Stunde 2

Zeitdauer: 90 Minuten

Teilnehmer: 10-12 Studenten

Staffel 1, Folge 1

Pre-viewing stage

Aufgabe 1: a) Hier sind Aufnahmen davon, was dann in der Serie passieren wird. Wählen Sie eines der Fotos aus und erzählen Sie einander, was Sie sehen. Stunde 1, Aufgabe 6

Fällt Ihre Beschreibung mit Ihren Vermutungen aus der Aufgabe 6, Stunde 1 zusammen?



Fig. 2-3

Zum Beispiel:

Auf Foto c sehen wir Lolle, die rätselhaft lächelt. Vielleicht hat sie eine Idee, wie sie Tom zurückbekommen kann, vielleicht werden sie doch wieder zusammen.

b) Arbeiten Sie in Minigruppen und versuchen Sie, Fotos in der richtigen Reihenfolge anzuordnen, und erklären Sie, warum Sie so denken. Teilen Sie Ihre Meinung mit der anderen Gruppe / den anderen Gruppen. Schreiben Sie Ihre Variante in die Tabelle.

--	--	--	--	--	--

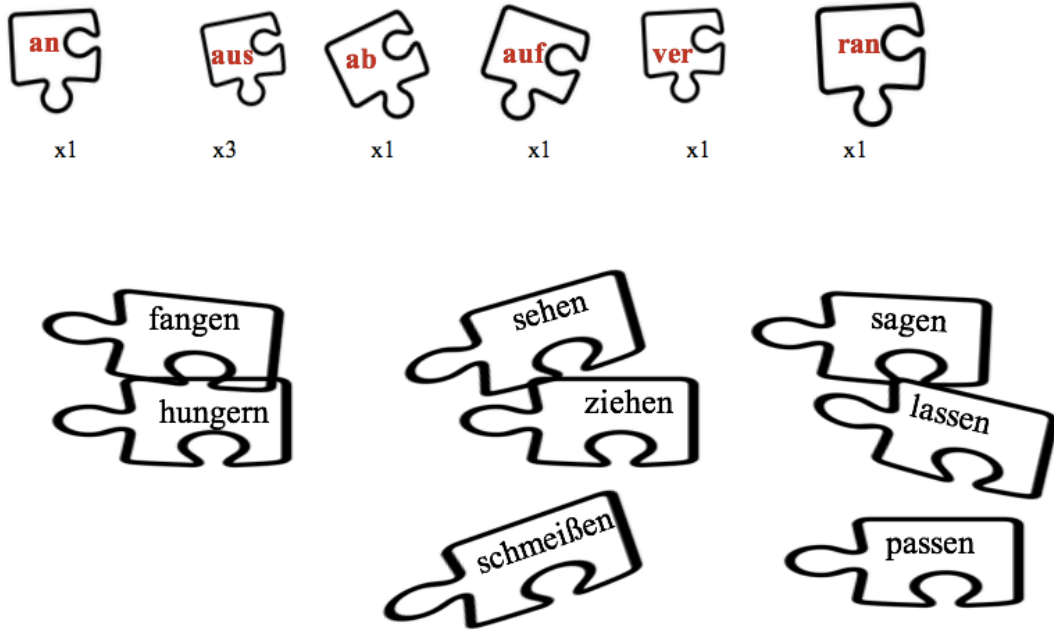
Zum Beispiel:

Wir haben die Fotos in dieser Reihenfolge angeordnet, da das letzte Fragment mit dem Treffen mit Sven endet, sodass die Handlung in der nächsten Episode zuerst in seiner Wohnung stattfinden kann...

Aufgabe 2: a) Der Puzzle aus den Fotos ist zusammengestellt. Wie ein Puzzle werden auch viele deutsche Verben «zusammengestellt».

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Das Präfix gibt dem Verb eine neue Bedeutung. Die Hauptfiguren der Serie benutzen oft verschieden Präfixe. Versuchen Sie, Verben «zusammenzustellen». Als Hinweis finden Sie unten eine Tabelle mit der Übersetzung ins



Englishe. (Fig. 2-4 and Table 2-6)

Fig. 2-4

	Deutsch	English
1.	<u>ausziehen</u>	to move out/ take off clothes
2.	_____	(spoken) to hit on someone
3.	_____	to starve
4.	_____	to look
5.	_____	to break up
6.	_____	to observe
7.	_____	to begin

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8. _____

to cancel

Table 2-6

b) Was sagen die Hauptfiguren der Serie? Ergänzen Sie ihre Aussagen durch die Verben mit Präfixen, die Sie zusammengestellt haben.

1. Hättest du auf deine Freundin _____, wäre das nämlich alles gar nicht passiert.
2. Ja, Silvia und Daniel sind _____. Da wollte ich mich nicht auch noch...um die Möbel streiten.
3. Der Stadionbesuch, stimmt! Das ist Daniels erster, kann ich nicht _____.
4. Dein Stecher ist grad mal 5 Sekunden in der Stadt, da hat er sich schon an sie _____, oder nicht?
5. Sie hat sich doch auf ihn gestürzt, so _____, wie die war!
6. Mein Freund hat mich _____.
7. Was willst du denn mit deinem Leben eigentlich _____?
8. - Ich bin mit ihm zusammen.
- _____ nicht so _____.

Aufgabe 3: Können Sie anhand der Sätze in Aufgabe 2 b) vermuten, was in der Folge passieren wird? Wer könnte diese Sätze sagen?

Zum Beispiel:

Ich denke, im fünften Satz beschwert sich Rosalie bei Lolle, dass sich Lollers Freund an Rosalies Freundin **rangeschmissen** hat.

While viewing stage

Aufgabe 4:

a) Sehen Sie sich den Abschnitt 10:00-11:50 ohne Ton an. Nehmen Sie an, welche Aussagen richtig sind, warum denken Sie das?

1. Sven wohnt mit einem Mitbewohner zusammen; Sven hat nur ein Zimmer in der Wohnung.
2. Die ganze Wohnung gehört Sven.
3. Lolle mag die Wohnung nicht wirklich, weil es keine Möbel gibt.
4. Trotz der Tatsache, dass es fast keine Möbel im Raum gibt, findet Lolle die Wohnung schön.
5. Svens Freund beleidigte Lolle.
6. Svens Freund scherzte erfolglos.

Zum Beispiel:

1. + Sven wohnt bei einem Mitbewohner; Sven hat nur ein Zimmer in seiner Wohnung.

Vielleicht geht Sven in der Wohnung herum und spricht darüber, wie sie mit einem Mitbewohner wohnen, und zeigt Lolle am Ende ein freies Zimmer.

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b) Sehen Sie sich den Abschnitt 10: 00-11: 50 mit Ton an. Haben sich Ihre Annahmen bestätigt? Besprechen Sie das mit Ihren Klassenkameraden.

Zum Beispiel:

Ich hatte recht, dass .../ Ich habe falsch vermutet, dass ...

Continuation of viewing

Aufgabe 5:

a) Kommen Sie zu Aufgabe 1b) zurück und prüfen Sie, ob Sie die Handlung richtig erraten haben.

Sie können die richtige Reihenfolge in die neue Tabelle eingeben:

--	--	--	--	--	--

b) Vervollständigen Sie die Geschichte mit Worten aus dem Video.

1. Sven versprach seinem Sohn, zum Fußballspiel zu gehen. Er kann es nicht _____, um Lolle zu helfen auszupacken.
2. Lolle erzählt Sven später, dass ihr Freund sie _____ hat und deshalb ist sie nach Berlin gekommen.
3. Lolle folgt Tom und sieht, wie Bernadette Tom küsst, als ob _____ wäre.
4. Lolle beschuldigt Rosalie, dass sie auf ihre Freundin wenig _____ hat.
5. In Bernadettes Wohnung _____ alles so _____, als wäre Tom kürzlich bei ihr eingezogen.
6. Rosalie beschuldigt Lolle, dass ihr Freund an ihre Freundin _____ hat, sobald er in Berlin angekommen ist.
7. Lolle lädt Rosalie ein, vom Theaterfundus und in die Wohnung Svens Freund einzuziehen.

After-viewing stage

Aufgabe 6:

1. Inwieweit haben sich Ihre Erwartungen erfüllt? War der Handlungsablauf so, wie Sie am Anfang vermutet haben?
2. Wie verstehen Sie das Beziehungssystem unter den handelnden Personen? Zeichnen Sie ein Diagramm dazu, zeigen Sie die Verbindungen und schreiben Sie, wer die Personen für einander sind (Freunde, Partner, ein Kind).

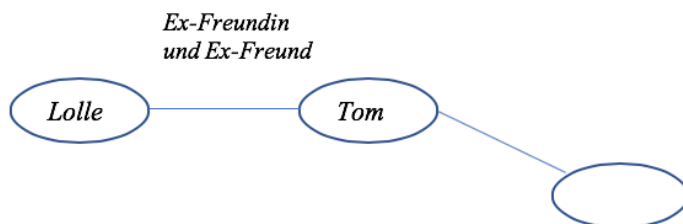


Fig. 2-5

Vergleichen Sie Ihre Schaubilder und diskutieren Sie sie.

3. Glauben Sie, Lolle und Rosalie richtig gemacht haben, als sie in Bernadettes Wohnung gekommen sind?

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4. Warum verstehen sich Lolle und Rosalie trotz ihrer unterschiedlichen Charaktere?

Aufgabe 7 (mixed pairs):

Rollenspiel

Machen Sie jetzt ein Spiel.

Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sind eine der Hauptfiguren der Serie (*Sie bekommen eine Rolle*) und Sie müssen etwas erfahren oder herausfinden, sich gegenseitig helfen, Probleme lösen.

Eine Beschreibung, wie Sie helfen können und was Sie gern wissen möchten.	Name desjenigen, dem Sie helfen können	Name desjenigen, der Ihnen helfen kann + Lösung des Problems
<p>Sie sind Tom</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sie arbeiten beim Onkel auf dem Markt und Sie wissen alles über Gemüse und Obst. - Sie haben einen schönen Pullover, den Ihnen ein Mädchen geschenkt hat. Sie wissen, dass der Pullover über das Internet gekauft wurde. 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sie möchten wissen, wo man Tickets für ein gutes Theater in Berlin kaufen kann. - Sie möchten auch wissen, welche Fußballmannschaften am Wochenende spielen, weil Sie zum Spiel gehen möchten. 		
Eine Beschreibung, wie Sie helfen können und was Sie gern wissen möchten.	Name desjenigen, dem Sie helfen können	Name desjenigen, der Ihnen helfen kann+ Lösung des Problems
<p>Sie sind Sven</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sie sind Fußballfan und wissen alles über Fußballspiele. Zum Beispiel spielen Borussia und Verder Bremen am Samstag und Herta BSC und Sank Pauli am Sonntag. - Ihr Freund sucht einen Mitbewohner. Er ist ein kreativer Mensch, deshalb will er auch einen kreativen Nachbarn. 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sie möchten Ihrem Sohn einen schönen Pullover schenken, wissen aber nicht, wo Sie ihn bekommen können. - Sie möchten Blumen kaufen, um das Haus zum Geburtstag Ihres Sohnes zu dekorieren. 		

Table 2-7

(Such cards are created for every character and correlate with each other)

Keys

Stunde 1

Aufgabe 4:

5, 4, 3, 1, 6, 2.

Aufgabe 5:

- 1) können - Möglichkeit
- 2) sollen - Gebote
- 3) müssen - eine Notwendigkeit

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4) wollen - Willen

Aufgabe 8:

- a) 1-a); 2-h); 3-e); 4-b); 5-f); 6-c); 7-g); 8-d).
b) 1-c); 2-g); 3-a); 4-h); 5-e), d); 6-b); 7-f).

Stunde 2

Aufgabe 1: b) e f a b d c

Aufgabe 2: a) 1.ausziehen- to move out/ take off clothes; 2.sich ranschmeißen-to hit on someone; 3.aushungern-to starve; 4.aussehen-to look; 5.verlassen-to break up; 6.aufpassen-to observe; 7.anfänge- to begin; 8.absagen-to cancel.

b)

1. aufgepasst
2. ausgezogen
3. absagen
4. hat...rangeschmissen
5. ausgehungert
6. verlassen
7. anfangen
8. Sieht...aus

Aufgabe 4: Richtig-1, 4, 6

Aufgabe 5: b)

1. absagen
2. verlassen
3. ausgehungert
4. aufgepasst
5. sieht...aus
6. rangeschmissen hat
7. ausziehen

The presented examples of lessons demonstrate that on the basis of the youth TV show, it is possible to create lessons for the development of speaking skills. The topics raised in the series provide rich language material that can be used for educational purposes. A wide variety of exercises for working with video will enable teachers to create different lesson plans for episodes of the series "Berlin Berlin" or other suitable TV shows.

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Liana Ozerova
Moscow Pedagogical State University, Moscow
velardil@gmail.com

Key Points of Teaching Materials Selection and Use in Italian for Specific Purposes

Classroom

The article examines one of the main methodological features of teaching the Italian language for special purposes such as the effectiveness of the use of authentic materials. It substantiates the necessity of including the authentic foreign language content in the teaching framework, formulates the main criteria of choosing authentic materials and methods of its use, substantiates the advantages of using authentic material to the enhancement of the communicative competence and motivation.

authentic materials, Italian language for specific purposes and business communication, communication skills.

Globalization, increase of business relations between countries, and with Italy, in particular, as well as steadily growing number of international students attending Italian universities: according to statistical numbers of CENSIS there were about 300,000 new entries in 2018 (CENSIS) have boosted a significant interest in learning the Italian language for business communication and specific purposes. The use of authentic materials and the specific related tasks designed for this target audience helps to create not only a highly-effective learning environment (Popko 2014) and to increase the student's motivation, but also to promote language skills needed for effective business and professional communication. Italian language for specific purposes requires content materials that are not always created for the language learning purpose. The use of authentic materials in the language classroom presents instructions with several challenges, including development of effective research skills required to manage vast amount of information available, selection and implementation of appropriate materials.

Italian language education system gives special attention to the creative way of using authentic materials, or so-called "didactization" of authentic materials. Didactization refers to the didactic unit design as an element of the structural part of a foreign language program based on authentic material. Italian researchers and methodologists, in particular, those of the Venetian University Ca' Foscari, believe that specific tasks developed on authentic materials encourage students to use actively a foreign language in various communicative situations related to the professional context (Coonan 2002), as well as allow a parallel work on specific vocabulary, language skills and intercultural communication competence. (Bonvino 2004, Hofstede 2003).

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According to Bonvino,

"the material may be considered authentic if it is not created for intentional use in the Italian language classroom for foreign students, but is created for native speakers" (Bonvino 2004, 26).

Both Begotti and Bonvino are agree that

“the authentic materials are not produced for language teaching purposes and do not have contrived or simplified language” (Bonvino 2004, Begotti 2011).

M. Vedovelli claims that

“Authentic materials have a strong communication component” (Vedovelli 2012, 32),

which is one of the main recommendations of the "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages", because the QCER focuses on the acquisition of linguistic and pragmatic communication skills, and foreign language proficiency levels are based on it (Council of Europe, QCER 2001).

Italian researchers distinguish between four main types of authentic materials:

- printed texts: magazines, newspapers, information or advertising posters, maps, business presentations, brochures, catalogues, advertising, commercial correspondence, memoranda, etc. (Begotti 2011).
- video materials: TV programs: social and political talk shows, documentaries, news, weather forecasts, teleshopping, advertising, etc. According to P. Begotti, they have special significance, because they are enriched with gestural, kinetic and distal-proximal signs, which improve the comprehension and development of real linguistic and pragmatic competence (Begotti 2011).
- audio materials which allow students to improve phonological, lexical, semantic and pragmatic skills (Begotti 2011, Comodi 1995).
- multimedia materials: the Internet contains countless authentic materials necessary for specific and business communication learning, and the use of network technologies opens up opportunities for experimenting with new methodological solutions for effective classroom and extracurricular activities and promotes self-study skills of students (Balboni, 2015).

Authentic materials are often seen as a kind of

"a bridge between classroom use and real-life communicative situations" (Harrich 2012, 321)

They are an excellent tool for developing the social and pragmatic skills close to native speakers of the language in question, in other words, they facilitate the process of acculturation (Comodi 1995, Harrich 2012) and promote intercultural and business communicative skills.

Serragiotti claims that

"Authentic material offers information about facts and real-life situations, and the methods of its choice and adaptation can lead to the fact that both the content itself and the language in which it is transmitted become learning objectives" (Serragiotti 2014, 82).

Authentic materials also

"increase students' motivation to learn and help them acquire professional and business communication skills" (Bonvino 2004, 27).

Comodi distinguishes certain criteria to choose authentic materials for using them in a foreign language classroom (Comodi 1995).

The didactization of authentic materials is a complex process that requires many aspects to be taken into account, such as the type of target audience, their geographical origin, their language level knowledge, their objectives and the previous method of learning, as well as cognitive styles of learners.

Among the basic criteria of choosing authentic material,

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"only textual and paratextual elements that learners can understand should be selected, which also increases their motivation" (Begotti 2011, 26).

The authentic materials should correspond to the student's objectives, taking into account skills which students already reached (Balboni 2011), as well as the topic being studied and its sociocultural content, and, of course, in the interests of the students (Porcelli 1994).

Linguistic diversity must also be taken into account: authentic material reproduces a real speech in many ways, which can create additional difficulties for international students, on the one hand, but at the same time promotes intercultural communication skills, on the other (Balboni 2015). Vocabulary adequacy should also be considered: the material should be provided with a short glossary of new words used in the professional context (Begotti 2011).

Authentic materials must be chosen to create tasks according to the phases of the didactic unit: motivation phase - brainstorming, hypothesis formulation, phase of global understanding of material - global rapid reading (skimming), phase of analysis - analytical reading (scanning) to find accurate information in the text, synthesis phase is the use of material in practice - tasks for fixation and repetition, oral and written reproduction of speech constructions using reuse exercises, tasks for the development of productive speech skills (petal charts, semantic cards, "flow chart" (Balboni, 2015).

The use of visual supports at the beginning of work with authentic material can provide, according to P. Balboni, a faster transition to free speaking. It can also be training in monologue, for example, by writing a presentation, writing a document collectively, describing an event; training in integrative skills, which include dialogue speech (dramatization, chain dialogue, "open dialogue", chat, various types of role-playing games, interviews, talk shows).

At the initial levels of language learning (A1-A2 levels), it is important to use the full potential of authentic material, especially with images, which should be accompanied by very simple tasks that require only a general understanding of the topic and minimal of vocabulary. Offering linguistic structures that do not correspond to the level of students' communicative competence leads to demotivation if they are too complex, and boredom if they are too simple. It is therefore important to evaluate the material according to the level of students' language knowledge and to check its effectiveness.

The use of authentic materials helps to immerse students in the Italian reality and culture of business communication, to broaden their horizons and to teach them to use their skills as native speakers do, without losing sight of the actual language learning. Authentic material must be constantly updated and chosen according to the learners' interests, it must be specially prepared to meet their needs to arouse their interest and to contribute to reducing their emotional tension (Krashen, Terrell 1983).

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Iuliana Levina
Higher School of Economics, Russia
juliana.lewina@gmail.com

**Teaching Foreign Languages to Adult Beginner Students: Psychological and Pedagogical
Aspects**

This paper is devoted to the realm of andragogy with the focus on individual teaching foreign languages. Andragogy stands for teaching adult students and, despite its self-dependent nature this sphere has been underestimated for a long period of time. Nevertheless, in the context of spreading globalization this realm has acquired its relevance. The growing numbers of foreign language adult learners proves the topicality of the problem and serves as a prime evidence of the fact that negligence in this sphere may lead to several issues.

The research goal is to find out the problematic areas faced by adult students when learning foreign languages and to propose feasible solutions to those issues. The object matter of the research is the process of individual teaching foreign languages to adults, while the subject matter is the study of the problems, which both participants of the learning process—the student and the teacher—face. The prime focus of this work is the study of psychological and pedagogical aspects of adult beginner students and their teaching implications. The theoretical and practical importance of this paper lies in the incorporation and thorough analysis of the already existing studies devoted to andragogy and the possibility of practical realization of some of the ideas proposed.

As in my work I concentrate on one-to-one lessons, it would be obvious to start with the description of their peculiarities. First of all, the name of the teaching type itself already contains its most crucial feature – individualism. In other words, the whole teaching process is person-oriented, and its prime goal is to meet the needs of a concrete student (Stukalenko, 2016). As a result, such factors as one’s age, learning styles, interests, personal incentives and goals are taken into account in a more attentive manner. What is more, the pace of studying also depends on the student’s personal abilities, which positively influences the efficiency of the whole studying process and enhances its quality.

To demonstrate the most vivid features of individual teaching it would be logical to provide its short comparison with group teaching. Individual teaching is a very sophisticated realm, which simultaneously comprises several obstacles on the one hand and unrivalled opportunities on the other (Wilberg, 1994). This issue was thoroughly researched by the British philosopher, psychologist and writer, Peter Wilberg. In his book “One-to-one” he focused on the prime differences between individual and group teaching.

In his research Wilberg pointed out a very interesting detail, which I would like to start with. One of the fundamental features of “one-to-one” teaching, which distinguishes it from group teaching, is its naturalness. There is no doubt that interpersonal communication is the most frequent way of interaction in everyday life, while dealing with groups of people happens much more rarely. That is why the latter form of teaching becomes artificial to some extent, while individual teaching remains a pure reflexion of a real communicative situation.

It is often assumed, that individual teaching lacks some dynamics which is inherent for group teaching. Nevertheless, this idea was criticized by Wilberg. He claimed that even one-to-one teaching implies a wide range of activities as well as it implies different roles which a teacher possesses: a friend, a professional, an interlocutor, a colleague and many others.

Another difference pointed out by Wilberg was connected with the extent of initiative taken by the teacher. Dealing with a group of students a teacher should take control of the lesson and remain an obvious leader during the

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whole class. As for the individual teaching, the situation turns out to be quite different. Being based on individualism, this form of teaching implies the reliance on the needs of a concrete student. Therefore, individual lessons are expected to be more flexible than group ones, and the teacher should always respond to some unexpected changes, which may happen during the studying process. As a result, the teacher is not a manager anymore, but a professional, whose aim is to guide but not to control.

The final comparison of the two mentioned types of teaching was built on contrasting practices that are implemented during individual teaching but cannot take place during group classes. Among them is, for example, the creation of an individual studying plan, which would suit the student's own pace. This principle was already highlighted in the works of Stukalenko, when talking about the features of individual teaching (Stukalenko, 2016). Another distinguishing feature, mentioned by Wilberg, is the ability to remain in an authentic and constant contact with the student. Generally speaking, there is a causal link between the two mentioned features: in order to appreciate the individual pace of the student the teacher should always encourage any communicative attempts. The combined role of a teacher and an interlocutor enables one-to-one communication, when the student should not only perceive the information but also respond to the teacher's "signals" (as a casual dialogue).

Having considered the features of individual teaching, one should focus on the realm of andragogy, as it serves as a matter of this research. Being introduced in the first decade of the 19th century by Alexander Kapp, the sphere of andragogy remained unexplored for many years, and only in 1968 the American adult educator Malcolm Knowles developed this concept, having proposed the adult learning theory (Knowles, 1973). Let me introduce the four basic assumptions highlighted by Knowles, which characterized andragogy as a self-dependent realm.

The first assumption is called changes in self-concept. Its main idea is that adults in comparison to children constantly strive for being perceived as self-directing individuals. Thus, any restrictions of adults' attempts to satisfy this need may interfere with the whole studying process. The second assumption—the role of experience—is connected with the great impact of the adult students' background on the studying process. The more experience a person possesses, the more sophisticated his or her perception of the world is. The existing differences in cognitive styles among adults shouldn't be neglected, and in turn they do require special teaching approaches. The third assumption is readiness to learn. The appreciated need of an adult to advance is the natural result of the biological development on the one hand and one's continuing socialization on the other. Moreover, in contrast to children, adults appreciate the practical value of knowledge they seek to receive. Last but not least, the assumption mentioned in the andragogy theory is orientation to learning. The time perspective of an adult student significantly differs from the child's one. According to Knowles, an adult student studies in order to solve some concrete current problems he or she faces, while children gain knowledge to use it in an abstract situation in the future, what makes them more subject-oriented.

Now we see, that andragogy differs from pedagogy a lot and there is no doubt that adult students learn and behave in a distinct manner. Nevertheless, studying any realm one should refer to the reasoning. Namely, why do adult students learn foreign languages and what is their motivation?

First of all, the definition of motivation should be established. According to Robert Kreitner, the senior lecturer in management at Arizona State University, motivation is “the psychological process that gives behavior purpose and direction” (Kreitner, 2009, 335). In this case a very specific interpretation of the phenomenon is given, as there is no individual in this definition, and the object which gains purpose and direction is the behavior of a person.

Generally speaking, two types of motivation are distinguished: extrinsic and intrinsic. The main difference lies in the source of motivation. In other words, where is the incentive derived from. The first type, extrinsic motivation, is connected with some external rewards. In the context of learning in adulthood, as a prime example of such motivation might serve a chance of career promotion thanks to one's obvious advantage of speaking a foreign language. Individual teaching is a more efficient way to gain those rewards, as it is more student-centered, what was already pointed out when describing the features of the one-to-one teaching. For instance, if a student is externally motivated to learn a foreign language as he or she is planning to get a new post, a tutor may help to create an individual studying program, which would meet the student's needs.

The described situations refer first of all to some rewarding results, as the prime benefit is gained after some work is accomplished. Nevertheless, there are still other motivating factors, which contribute to the process of learning (Lucardie, 2014). The key idea is that fun during studying is perceived by a student as a motivating factor.

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There is no doubt, that the mentioned features are evident advantages. Firstly, they motivate a student to attend classes and to make progress. Secondly, they convert the stereotyped image of stressful and dull studying into a new one, which is full of creativity and fun.

Now let's move on to the second type of motivation, which is called intrinsic motivation. In contrast to the extrinsic one, this type originates within the individual and meets one's needs. Firstly, this definition appeared in two significant scientific works written by the American psychologists Woodworth R.S and White R.W. (“Dynamics of behavior”, 1958 and “Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence”, 1959 respectively). Malcolm Knowles when working on his adult learning theory expressed a very interesting thought. The idea was that grown-up people are more able to find their intrinsic motivation than immature learners (Knowles, 1973). In fact, this statement may be logically explained: possessing more life experience an adult student appreciates the goals that he or she wants to set and to reach one day. Therefore, any step undertaken becomes more meaningful as the feasible outcomes are partly envisaged in advance.

Taking into account the descriptions provided, one may conclude that both types of motivation considerably influence the outcomes that the student derives from the learning process, but still the intrinsic motivation by its independent nature may lead to more progress. The same idea was clearly justified by the Indian Professor of the Management Department, Dr. Subhasish Chatterjee. In the context of the industrial environment the professor claimed that motivation remains one of the basic factors, which influences the employees' efficiency. On the contrary, the extrinsic motivation, which in most cases implies some materialistic rewards does not have that long-term effect and has minor chances to keep the desired spirit (Subhasish Chatterjee, 2018).

Having scrutinized the motives of adult students to learn foreign languages, it would be interesting to move on to the learning process itself in order to consider some problematic areas, which may arise in the studying process. The basic challenges and their reasons faced by adults were scrutinised by Cross (1981). He suggested that there are four main types of challenges emerging in adult learning. These are situational, institutional, dispositional and academic.

Situational barriers incorporate difficulties determined by one's lifestyle. These are everyday activities apart from studying which require much time and attention. There is no doubt that adult students suffer from these barriers more than children as they have more social roles. It should be taken into account that each role implies several norms of behaviour, duties, expectations. So, an adult student may be lacking some free time for studying because of such situational barrier as domestic responsibilities.

The next type of difficulties, distinguished by Cross, is institutional barriers. They are connected with financial limitations, which put obstacles in the way of paying for tuition fees, supplying needed studying resources and so on. To some extent these barriers exist in a correlation with the already mentioned situational barriers. This is because adults are to estimate their expenses in respect that there are other spheres of life they are financially responsible for.

Dispositional barriers are stimulated by one's internal problems. These barriers are caused by negative emotions of adult students, preventing them from successful studying on the grounds of their hesitation and low self-esteem. For instance, adults often consider themselves as not talented enough to learn something new.

Academic barriers lie in the lack of skills, which are essential for successful learning. Among them are for example, writing, reading, listening skills, critical thinking skills and logic needed for a competent information analysis. In contrast to children, who have continual practice of all those skills at school, adults having not been included in learning for many years may face some troubles.

Having analysed the difficulties which hamper the studying process of adult students due to several circumstances one may conclude that Cross represented the most basic barriers which in their turn incorporate more detailed and individualised challenges faced by adult students. Therefore, focusing on them and trying to propose some practical steps to avoid those barriers may help to resolve several other existing issues. This is going to the main concern of the following part of this paper.

Let me start with the situational barrier highlighted by Cross. If we take into account that an adult student is a busy person, and that sometimes little progress is not necessarily caused by the lack of motivation and aspiration

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for it, we will come to the point. Very often, having set the goal to master a language, the adult student might be unable to transform their daily schedule, leaving time not only for regular lessons but also for practicing language on their own (which is an essential aspect in foreign language acquisition). There is no doubt that the teacher cannot (and should not!) force their student to learn language everyday by heart. Nevertheless, the teacher might propose a range of activities which might be easily included in the daily adult student’s routine. For example, listening for gist might be completed parallel with some other activities, such as having breakfast or going to work. What is more, creating authentic situations on a regular basis will undoubtedly stimulate the progress. For instance, having learned the vocabulary of the sphere applied in everyday routine (such as domestic work), the student may rehearse the vocab just by facing those objects in real life.

The next barrier which is often faced by adult students is concerned with financial constraints and is called the institutional barrier. It should be highlighted that the quality of the education does not always exist in a strong correlation with its costs. In case of a strong intrinsic motivation of the student, the focus on individual work may serve as a valuable solution. Namely, in such lessons the teacher plays the role of a manager rather than a leader, and their prime task is to set the student on the right track. The substantial part of learning itself is done by the student. The teacher is also expected to provide the student with the materials needed, which have such essential options as keys for checking and regular tests.

The dispositional barrier standing for some individual intrinsic problems and negative emotions represents a very wide-spread issue among adult students. The emergence of this barrier should not be equalized to the lack of motivation. Quite the contrary, in comparison to younger learners, adult students demonstrate more readiness to learn (Knowles, 1973). There are no specific exercises to improve one’s self-esteem in a short period of time, but the essence of this barrier lies exactly in the way the student perceives themselves. Once uncertainty is swept away, negative emotions disappear, and the learning process goes smoothly. The role of the teacher in this case is close to a psychologist’s one, who would understand the “client’s” fears and help him or her to overcome them. A lot depends on the manner the material is presented by the teacher. Therefore, it is of special importance for the student to understand whether it is comfortable for them to work with their teacher or not. The role of the student inevitably implies some embarrassing moments we are all aware of. Especially for adult students the situation when they do not know the answer or make a mistake is much more painful and annoying to them, which undoubtedly causes negative thoughts and demotivates. Therefore, it is crucial for the adult student to be ready for challenges and to trust their teacher.

Finally, academic barriers also put obstacles in the adult students’ learning path. These barriers may incorporate the lack of skills, essential for successful learning, such as writing, reading, listening skills, critical thinking skills and logic. Due to the absence of constant studying praxis and a wide gap between the school years and the current situation, adult beginner students suffer from the lack of some skills, which are vital during the studying process. What is more, this challenge may be considered from the opposite side, as according to the already mentioned Knowles’ feature of adult students, the role of experience they possess is of great value. The only thing which is needed in case of some specific issues remains drilling of the needed aspects. For instance, the more the student reads, the better his or her reading skills become. Therefore, the textbooks with some special focus on the skills required may be very helpful for any adult student feeling uncomfortable with this aspect.

Taking everything into account, the learning process of adult students is an absolutely new and independent realm. In the context of individual teaching, which is the prime focus of this paper, this process is often full of multiple obstacles rooted in several factors and constraints. Some of them are caused by the external circumstances such as lack of time or financial constraints, while the others are consequences of individual peculiarities of a student including low self-esteem or the fear of starting something new. Having studied the realm of andragogy and having pointed out its prime features, including feasible difficulties, a conclusion can be drawn, that despite several similarities, which seem pretty obvious, the pedagogy and the andragogy should not be equalized, and thus distinct studying approaches are expected in both realms.

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Anastasia Mitrofanova
Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia
asya-mitrofanova@yandex.ru

Emotional intelligence in language teacher training: listening skills

The widely-spread communicative approach in teaching languages aims to form and strengthen one’s communicative competence, which includes certain skills to recognize, understand, manage and express emotions – the skills which are connected with the concept of emotional intelligence (EI). This article examines the relationships between the EI of the future EFL teachers (26 3rd-year students of the Lomonosov Moscow State University) and their academic achievements, and provides an exercise aimed at the development of language teachers’ ability to identify basic emotions in the speech of their students. The study shows that there is a significant correlation ($r=0.53$) between the total MSCEIT (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence test) score of the students and their grad-point average (GPA), which means that EI influences the performance of a language teacher. The exercise has demonstrated a moderate correlation ($r=0.44$) between its results and the total MSCEIT score and so proved that it trains one’s emotional intelligence skills. Only one person out of 25 managed to get the maximum score in the exercise, which means that the future teachers’ abilities to recognize emotions need to be developed.

The communicative approach in teaching languages focuses on forming the communicative competence of the students—in other words, on developing their capacities to use a language for constructive communication. This includes several skills, among which there are the skills to identify and control emotions. Moreover, educational standards (for example, teaching standards) in such countries as Russia, the USA and the UK require teachers to possess quite a high level of emotional intelligence (EI), although the concept of EI is not explicitly mentioned there (Mitrofanova 2019, 5).

The abovementioned considerations lead us to the idea that EI of a language teacher may have a large impact on their performance. In particular, it might have close connections with professional-communicative listening skills of language teachers, for instance, emphatic listening skills during supportive listening, which defines the topicality of our work.

The research questions of the given article can be formulated as follows:

- 1) Is EI important for a language teacher?
- 2) Is there a correlation between the EI level of future language teachers and their academic performance?
- 3) Will the results of the exercise aimed at recognizing emotions of people speaking correlate with the EI level of future language teachers?

According to the *Dictionary of Psychology*, emotional intelligence is understood in the following way:

“The capability of individuals to recognize their own emotions and those of others, discern between different feelings and label them appropriately, use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior, and manage and/or adjust emotions to adapt to environments or achieve one’s goal(s)” (Colman 2008, 250).

In the work given, we are basing on the ability (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso) model of EI which includes four branches of abilities: perceiving emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions and managing them (Mayer et. al. 2008).

The studies undertaken in recent years show that there is a link between EI of a language teacher and their creativity, pedagogical skills (Dewaele et. al. 2018), self-efficacy (Rastegar and Memarpour 2009), success (Ghanizadeh and Moafian 2010) and motivation of their students (Roohani and Mohammadi 2014). Furthermore,

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the analysis of educational standards (*Teaching Standards, The Curriculum (England): Key stage 2: Foreign language* and *Subject Benchmark Statements (Languages, Cultures and Societies)* in the UK, *National Board for professional teaching standards (world languages)* and *Standards for foreign language learning* in the USA, *Professional standards for teachers, Federal Education Standards: general education* and *Federal standards of higher education (in linguistics)* in Russia) revealed that there are components which are connected with EI. For instance, in the Professional standards for teachers in Russia we can find the following phrases:

“A teacher should be able to analyze the real situation in the class and maintain a friendly and professional atmosphere in the group of children... A teacher should be able to design and create situations and events that would develop the emotional values-based orientations of a child”¹

In order to be able to develop the emotional sphere of a child’s life, teachers themselves should be able to control and understand emotions well. This means that it is necessary to develop teachers’ EI so that they could work in accordance with the requirements in the teaching standards. In particular, language teachers’ professional-communicative skills are closely connected with empathy. Steven Walsh points up an “emphatic listener” role of a teacher (Walsh 2011), and Jim Scrivener describes supportive listening, during which a language teacher needs to demonstrate emotional involvement and provide emotional reaction to the emotions of their students (Scrivener 2012). A classification of professional-communicative listening skills, designed on the basis of a survey of 1288 English teachers, includes two skills connected with EI: therapeutic listening (solving student’s problems after classes) and listening for administrative purposes (giving instruction and support to other teachers) (Korenev 2017). During these types of listening teachers have to identify, understand and manage their own emotions and emotions of their students. Hence, there is a need in an exercise which would train the future language teachers in identifying emotions of their students.

All in all, a high level of emotional intelligence is necessary for a language teacher for a number of reasons. First, documents regulating the work of language teachers include requirements that are connected with the concept of EI. Second, previous research found that EI influences the performance of language teachers. Last but not least, professional listening skills of language teachers (therapeutic listening and listening for administrative purposes) include managing and understanding one’s own and others’ emotions.

In this section, we aimed to investigate if a correlation between a language teacher’s success and their EI level exists. However, we concluded that at the moment it is impossible to measure teachers’ success in Russia objectively. We took academic achievements (the grad-point average, GPA) as an indirect criterion of the success of future language teachers (students at the modern languages department specializing in teaching), since their curriculum includes both practical and theoretical subjects.

Since it is important for a language teacher to be able to identify the emotions that a student feels while speaking, we also developed a video-exercise in identifying emotions and hypothesized that it would correlate with EI score.

26 students (23 female and 3 male) aged between 19 and 22 participated in the research. The participants studied in the third year at the Faculty of foreign languages and area studies, Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia, and specialized in teaching foreign languages. Their teaching experience varied from 0 to 5 years.

To evaluate students’ EI, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Russian adaptation) was utilized. It consists of 8 sections, 141 questions in total, and it takes 30-40 minutes to complete it. The choice of the instrument was defined by the fact that the data of the task-based tests, unlike self-report tests (e.g. EQ-i), do not rely on the subject’s motivation or honesty.

¹ Russia. Ministry of Labour and Social Security. 2016. “Prikaz Mintruda Rossii ot 18.10.2013 N 544n (red. Ot 05.08.2016) Ob utverzhdenii professional'nogo standartar "Pedagog (pedagogicheskaya deyatel'nost' v sfere doskol'nogo, nachal'nogo obshchego, osnovnogo obshchego, srednego obshchego obrazovaniya)" (vospitatel', uchitel').” [Federal State Educational Standards of school education]. Accessed 15.07.2020, <http://legalacts.ru/doc/prikaz-mintruda-rossii-ot-18102013-n-544n/> (request date 20.05.2018)

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To determine the role of students’ EI in their academic performance and the relations between the results of the emotional listening exercise and the participants’ EI, Pearson product–moment correlation was applied to the data, and a test of statistical significance was used.

While creating the exercise, we addressed the model of basic emotions by Paul Ekman, according to which there are 7 basic emotions (anger, fear, surprise, sadness, disgust, contempt and happiness). We asked 5 students to say, while looking at the camera, 10 phrases in the English language, feeling one of the 7 basic emotions. The phrases (“What time is it?”, “No, thank you” etc.) were recorded during training lessons and could be interpreted in different ways depending on the emotion. We chose 20 videos out of 57 and made a test on the Google Forms platform. 2 professional psychologists completed the exercise, and all the tasks where the answers were not the same were removed. In the final version it is necessary to choose one of the 7 basic emotions for each of 15 videos. It takes 5-10 minutes to complete the test, the maximum score is 15.

Most students (12) fell into the category “High average score”, 11 students appeared to be “Competent” (the maximum score was 117). Nevertheless, 3 students showed “Low average” results, and 2 students fell into the category “Consider improvement”, which means that communicating with people might be a challenging process for them.

As far as the connection between their EI and GPA is concerned, the results revealed that there is a noticeable ($r=0,51$, $p<0.05$) correlation between total EI score and GPA, as well as between the branch “Identifying emotions” ($r=0,53$, $p<0.05$) and GPA.

Table 2.2.-1. Correlation between future language teachers’ EI and their academic performance

Criterion (n=26)	Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r)	Level of Significance (p<0.05)
Perceiving Emotions	0,53	0,006
Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought	0,17	0,418
Understanding Emotions	0,43	0,029
Managing Emotions	0,08	0,716
Experiential Emotional Intelligence Score	0,44	0,024
Strategic Emotional Intelligence Score	0,37	0,063
Total Score	0,51	0,008

“Understanding Emotions” and “Experiential Emotional Intelligence Score” showed a moderate statistically significant correlation with GPA (0,43 and 0,44 respectively). Regarding the teaching experience, no statistically significant correlation with EI was found.

The students showed quite high results in the emotional listening exercise (in half of the tasks more than 80% of the participants managed to give the right answer). However, only one person scored 100%. In the thirteenth task (the phrase “What time is it?”) some participants mistook anger for sadness (1), contempt (3) and even happiness (1).

All the participants completed MSCEIT (adapted in Russian). The results of the exercise have shown a noticeable and statistically significant ($r=0,53$, $p<0.05$) correlation with the branch “Managing Emotions”, as well as a moderate correlation with the total EI score (0,439) and strategic EI score (0,457).

Table 2.2.-2. Correlation between future language teachers’ EI and the results of Emotional Listening exercise

Criterion	Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r)	Level of Significance (p<0.05)
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(n=26)		
Perceiving Emotions	0,341	0,102
Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought	0,171	0,424
Understanding Emotions	0,216	0,310
Managing Emotions	0,542	0,006
Experiential Emotional Intelligence Score	0,302	0,151
Strategic Emotional Intelligence Score	0,457	0,024
Total Score	0,439	0,031

0,51 is a significant correlation (according to Cheddock scale, it is a “medium” level), which means that EI defines a quarter of individual differences in academic performance. For example, in a similar work, the correlation between EI of students, specializing in the English language, and their GPA was 0,21 (Fahim and Pishghadam 2007). In the work by Iranian scientists *The role of EFL teachers’ emotional intelligence in their success* the correlation between EQ and success was 0,392 (Ghanizadeh and Moafian 2010).

It is interesting that “Using emotions to facilitate thought” and “Managing emotions”, which refer to one’s ability to motivate themselves, did not show the correlation. The abilities to name emotions expressed in pictures and photographs, understand the reasons behind the emotions and predict the emotional reaction of a person, though, are linked with the scores which students got during their exams. It might be connected with the fact that during oral exams at the end of the semester (this type of assessment is still widely used at Moscow State University) those students who can identify the teacher’s emotions on his/her face are more likely to understand if they are giving the right answer. Unfortunately, we did not manage to find other works supporting this idea since in other research in the field MSCEIT was not used as an instrument.

As for the fact that there are no relations between EI and working experience, it might be connected with the little time period (0-5 years of experience only). It is also possible that in order to develop EI, teachers need special training, without which working and teaching experience is not enough.

The exercise has shown that not all the students are able to identify the emotions of people speaking correctly. In some of the tasks less than 50% of respondents managed to give the right answer, which means that in the lesson they would have interpreted the student’s behaviour in a wrong way and their reaction would not have been adequate.

However, the quality of the emotions shown in the videos is a disputable question. The students who participated in the recording of the videos were not professional actors. The psychologists who passed the test do not necessarily possess high EI, so the answers they gave (even though they correspond to the emotions that the students said they felt while acting) may not be right. The problem could be solved in three ways: if we asked professional actors to participate, if we asked students with a high EI level to record the videos, or if we asked the specialists to use Facial Action Coding System (FACS) to analyse the recordings.

Concerning the correlation with MSCEIT score, the results show that the exercise is connected with EI. It means that it can be used for developing future language teachers’ skills in identifying emotions. Nevertheless, it is surprising that the exercise, showing a significant correlation with the branch “Managing emotions”, did not show such a correlation with the branch “Perceiving emotions”. It might be connected with the small sample (n=25).

In conclusion, there is a noticeable, statistically significant correlation between EI level of future language teachers and their academic performance, which means that EI influences the performance of a language teacher. In further research we are planning to enlarge the sample size. As for the video-exercise, it showed that it is necessary to develop abilities of the future teachers to identify emotions of the language students as 24 out of 25

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respondents mistook (in one or several tasks) one basic emotion for another. The correlation between the results of the exercise and the MSCEIT score allows to use it as an instrument for developing language teacher’s EI.

The results of the present study lead to the conclusion that a language teacher’s emotional intelligence plays an important role in their performance. Specifically, EI is connected with professional-communicative listening skills of language teachers. We have undertaken a study which showed that EI really influences the teachers’ performance as we have found a significant positive correlation between EI and academic achievements of future language teachers, which we see as one of the markers of their professional success in the future.

The exercise in identifying basic emotions of the students, which we developed and described in the current work, correlated with EI of the future teachers, which means that it is indeed connected with their EI and can be used for its development. This allowed us to include it into our course in integrated development of language teachers’ EI and their professional communicative skills.

In our further work we are planning to extend the sample, to improve and complicate the listening task (by analysing the videos using FACS and adding a part where the participants will need to choose the degree of the expression of a basic emotion) and to carry out a study to see if there will be a correlation between the EI level of language student teachers and the results of their teaching practice.

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Yanina Tukmakova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
yaniyari@yandex.ru
Research Advisor: Maria Kirsanova
Higher School of Economics, Russia

Video Games As Source Material For Language Tasks Designing:

The Case of Dragon Age II

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Although it's already been years since computer games have established their rightful place in the sphere of education, unfortunately, they still tend to receive moderate attention from both the scientific community and most second language learners are yet to unleash their full potential. This especially applies to non-educational video games, or video games designed primarily for the means of entertainments, which are very rarely studied from the point of their possible contribution to the second language learning process. The vast majority of existing researches into the phenomenon of non-educational video games tend to simply observe the natural flow of language learning process throughout gaming. As a result, they are mostly concentrated on the existing and most common ways to utilize video games while neglecting other possibilities for their usage and integration into the learning process, especially learning process occurring in small groups. This limitations served the main objective of this study.

The current paper will be looking into possible strategies for enhancing and optimizing the second language learning process via gaming by introducing possible strategies for adapting video game material into tasks. This will include tasks on the development of all four main language skills, namely, listening, reading, speaking and writing tasks, as well as grammar and vocabulary tasks. All of the strategies and ways of applying them to a particular game will be demonstrated on the example of *Dragon Age II*, an action role-playing video game (RPG) and a part of one of the most popular game franchises on the market. This game can be considered a very typical representative of its type, and most of the features presented in the game can be traced in many other video games of this and other genres. Furthermore, the material and general contents of the game are diverse and come in different media, which will allow teachers to construct tasks on the development of different language skills.

One of the main peculiarities of *Dragon Age II* is that the game contains a wide range of cutscenes, or small video fragments included between main game events. All cutscenes differ in their content and structure, thus providing ample material for the construction of listening tasks of various types and aimed at the development of different skills. There are both cutscenes including natural conversations (both dialogs and polylogs) occurring between the characters and those structured in the form of narration and presenting excerpts from the history of the in-game world or summaries of previous events. The variety of accents represented in the games serves an added benefit. It is also worth mentioning that the game includes a large number of less significant dialogs and interactions which are not separated into cutscenes but occur throughout the gaming process itself. They may also be adapted into learning material, although in this case the process of task designing would be more complicated due to shorter duration and less predictable occurrence of these scenes.

While determining on the structure and order of listening tasks, it would make sense to maintain the standard division into three parts: pre-listening, listening, and post-listening. This typically helps to ensure better memorization and comprehension of the material. The latter is mostly achieved via pre-listening tasks, which tend to prove themselves especially efficient for English learners with higher level of language knowledge (Anyzova & Ždímalová, 2012).

The types of listening tasks should be determined by both the format and the content of the cut scene, as well as by students' particular needs. In case of pre-listening tasks, all three most common types (tasks including lexical support, content support, and stating the main purpose of listening) can be successfully combined, with the emphasis made on the type most suitable for a particular learning group (Molavi & Kuhi, 2018). While-listening tasks can also vary, ranging from those aimed at the general fragment comprehension (true or false questions, multiple choice questions, etc.) to more specific and closely related to the content of the fragment. For instance, fragments on the history of the in-game world may be accompanied by tasks on timeline completion, or on restoring the right order of the events. In the similar manner, fragments depicting dialogues are most suitable for table-completion tasks where students have to summarize the opinion of each speaker on each issue touched upon in the conversation. Finally, post-listening activities will require students to carefully recollect the information from the listening tasks and reflect on the information perceived. Overall, in order for students to complete all the tasks, each extract of the listening section has to be played 2-3 times, which is considered to be the optimal number of listenings (Anyzova & Ždímalová, 2012).

One of the most noticeable features of *Dragon Age II* is that the game, rather than simply unfolding the setting through dialogues and main story plot, has a separate section containing texts on various aspects of the in-game world and spheres of life, which can provide material for the construction of various reading tasks. This section, which is called *Codex*, consists of various types of monological texts (e.g. diary notes, formal and informal letters, articles on the in-game geography and history, extracts from books, etc). All of the texts presented in the

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Codex contain new information which is otherwise not mentioned in any other parts of the game and thus provide opportunities to occupy classrooms and maintain interest and higher involvement rates (Compton-Lilly, 2007).

As well as with listening tasks, it would make sense to divide all reading tasks into three main sections (pre-reading, reading, and post-reading) in accordance with the majority of the existing activity design manuals. The lack of this division in general and a lack of the pre-reading stage in particular may drastically affect the overall success of the learning process and have a severe negative effect on students’ abilities to comprehend new information (Alemi & Ebadi, 2010). The types of pre-reading tasks may vary, but it has been demonstrated that the tasks on predicting reading content from questioning activity have allowed students to comprehend the text better than the vocabulary activities (Azizifar et al, 2015). Nevertheless, both types can still exist together and be successfully combined, even with an emphasis on the former. The types of reading activities should also vary and may include, for instance, multiple choice questions, identifying information, sentence completion, etc. The same applies to post-reading tasks.

While Codex is a feature unique to the Dragon Age series only, many other video games tend to present written texts of different types throughout the gameplay process in the form of letters, extracts from in-game books or newspapers the player has to examine. These types of texts are also perfectly suited to be adapted into reading tasks of different types.

As there is a significant number of controversial topics and issues touched upon throughout Dragon Age II (such as social inequality, discrimination, migration, etc.), it would be natural to revolve speaking tasks around these issues. This approach will allow students to develop their critical thinking skills and acquire the ability to analyse the in-game events from different points of view. Teacher can start with general questions regarding in-game events and then slowly proceed to build a connection between these events and similar issues occurring in the real world in order to make speaking tasks feel more personalized and complex. The most controversial of questions would be perfectly suited for pair and group discussion.

Moreover, the game also provides content for designing monologue tasks that could be presented in the form of a question, a notion or phenomenon to elaborate on, or a quote to comment on, all related to the in-game events and issues covered before. In case of monologues, it would be best to present certain criteria outlining most vital aspects of a wholesome performance in order to raise students’ awareness of them and contribute to their long-run growth (Yeh, Tseng & Chen, 2019). Peer feedback at the end of the monologue presentation would also be a valid addition, as the existing in-group relationships and similar background shared by people of the same age or in the same position will make it easier to comprehend and accept the criticism (Zhao, 2010). Furthermore, presenting feedback itself is an enriching experience which can help students become more aware of their own performance. Even when the teacher has the opportunity to listen to students and assess them himself or herself, introducing peer feedback might remain an interesting and valid opportunity due to the factors listed above.

Similar as speaking tasks, writing tasks can also be based on the content of the game and specific issues and topics touched upon throughout the game process. As well as in most second language handbooks, it would be logical to locate writing tasks closer to the end of the unit or a particular sequence of tasks, as students tend to perform at a higher level when encountering a familiar topic or, ideally, a topic they take an interest in (Nami, Enayati & Ashouri, 2012). The second reason for this is that by the time students reach the writing task, they must already have a handle of all grammar and vocabulary constructions required to complete this type of task. The lack of a solid foundation often becomes one of the biggest challenges for a non-native English speaker (DelliCarpini, 2012). Therefore, most typically, it is not enough for students to simply cover progress in a video game in order to successfully complete a writing task, and more careful preparation guided by a teacher is required.

While the game does include an ample number of various grammar constructions, they are generally not presented on purpose due to the non-educational nature of the game. On the one hand, this ensures better comprehension and memorization due to the structures first being encountered in a meaningful and relevant context (Zuidema, 2012). On the other hand, this means that the majority of constructions will most likely not be repeated (at least in a relatively short stretch of speech) and are typically hard to spot. Therefore, while the teacher may take one or two example sentences from the game, they will have to come up with many more in order to properly explain all aspects of a grammar rule. Overall, students will still have a chance to notice the grammar pattern in the game and try to outline the basic rules themselves, which adds up to better comprehension and memorization, and the teacher must encourage them in their desire to autonomously find the right answer and point out the correct word order and the overall pattern of each grammar construction (Kohler, 2015). After that, the proper set of rules should

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be introduced in order to eliminate any misunderstanding, and ample examples and exercises for drilling should also be given.

The game includes a wide range of different vocabulary units, which cover various areas of life and belong to different topics and parts of speech. In order to ensure better memorization and provide the learning material in a more structured and comprehensive way, it would be best to choose one or two vocabulary learning strategies and employ them consistently, without switching from one strategy to another (Yang & Wu, 2015). This would help to enhance the overall learning process and lead to better internalization of vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Taking into account the content of Dragon Age II, it would be best to employ the principle of grouping categories, and organize all vocabulary items in accordance with their respectful characteristics, such as the topic or the part of speech they belong to. The words drilled in vocabulary exercises may be taken from cutscenes or in-game dialogs used in listening tasks, extracts from Codex used in reading tasks, or other segments of the game not adapted to tasks before. The former, however, is strongly recommended and reported to have a more distinct positive effect on the overall learning rates by ensuring prior representation (Jenkins, Stein & Wysocki, 1984).

While it is certainly possible to apply these strategies separately and only utilize video games as a basis for the development of one or two particular language skills, it would make much more sense to apply them in sequence. This way, as it has already been mentioned on numerous occasions throughout the article, it will account for better memorization rate and contribute to the success and tempo of the learning process. It would be also more natural to combine some types of tasks and, for example, treat general questions about the in-game events, which are included in the speaking task, as a post-listening task as well, as they allow students to revise material from these task by encouraging them to discuss the same events or aspects of the in-game world. In the same fashion, the new information obtained from the text in the reading part may also be used and revised in the group discussion, thus providing the opportunity for the post-reading drill. Finally, vocabulary and grammar constructions, which are first encountered in reading or speaking tasks, are later required to successfully complete speaking and writing tasks. This demonstrates the close connection in which all of the aspects of language tend to come, and it would make sense for teachers to pay close attention to it and try to maintain it while designing tasks and determining their order.

The present article covered the main strategies for task designing based on the material of Dragon Age II and listed several ways to adapt different types of the in-game content into language tasks. While it cannot be stated that all of the other non-educational video games are identical in features to Dragon Age II, there are still a lot of similarities typical for modern video games of different genres, such as, for example, the existence of cutscenes or tendency to resemble and touch upon real life issues. Therefore, the majority of the main principles, outlined in the scope of this research, may be successfully applied to games of other types and genres as well.

At present, video games remain an exceptional and extremely popular phenomenon which is yet to be fully studied from different angles and points of view. It is entirely possible that in the future the potential of non-educational video games will be fully unleashed, and their inclusion in the educational process will become a common and universally accepted practice. For now, the scientific community shall continue to examine different aspects of this phenomenon and seek new ways to adapt video games to the typical language classroom and make the process of second language learning via gaming as effective and comfortable as possible.

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Yulia Chigareva,

Natalia Onushenko
State university of humanity and social sciences, Russia
jlasrgvn@gmail.com

La chanson en cours de FLE : l'approfondissement de la compétence lexicale

Dans le cadre de la modernisation, la mondialisation et l'informatisation de notre monde au cours de la dernière décennie, les établissements scolaires visent de nouveaux objectifs de l'enseignement. Aujourd'hui les contacts avec les représentants des pays étrangers se multiplient. C'est pourquoi les enseignants de nos jours doivent préparer les apprenants à la communication interculturelle, donc, former la compétence communicative en langue étrangère.

La structure de la compétence communicative en langue étrangère est composée de compétence linguistique (la connaissance de la phonétique, de la grammaire, de l'orthographe et du lexique), compétence discursive (savoir parler, lire et comprendre les textes écrits et oraux), compétence socio-culturelle (introduction à la culture et aux traditions du pays de la langue étudiée), compétence stratégique (savoir réagir dans des situations réelles), compétence cognitive (la motivation à l'apprentissage autonome de la langue).

Alors, pour répondre aux objectifs de l'éducation contemporaine, l'enseignant est appelé à utiliser en classe des textes actuels et authentiques. La musique représente, d'un côté, une partie de la culture de la langue étudiée, et de l'autre côté, l'un des types de textes authentiques. C'est pourquoi l'utilisation des textes de chansons en cours de FLE possède un bon nombre d'avantages:

- Le perfectionnement de la phonétique;
- L'élargissement du vocabulaire;
- Le développement de compréhension des textes écrits et oraux;
- L'incitation à l'expression orale;
- La production de la grammaire étudiée;
- Les informations sur l'actualité socio-politique du pays de la langue étudiée;
- La sollicitation affective;
- L'augmentation de la motivation à l'apprentissage autonome de la langue.

Pour en revenir à la notion de la compétence communicative en langue étrangère, à notre avis, il est nécessaire de dire que les compétences socio-culturelle, cognitive et stratégique seraient développées au moment de l'étude du problème traité dans la chanson durant le travail avec le texte. C'est pourquoi nous ferions une attention particulière au développement des compétences linguistique et discursive.

Dans le cadre de notre étude nous avons insisté sur le développement de la composante lexicale de la compétence linguistique. La compétence linguistique détermine la capacité de l'apprenant de reconnaître et d'employer en

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pratique les unités lexiques énoncées dans le programme du manuel mais aussi celles qui sont populaires et les plus utilisées dans la langue étudiée ainsi que les clichés de la politesse. Les textes authentiques des chansons bien choisis ont un grand potentiel, parce que le lexique appris réapparaît dans un nouveau contexte ce qui aide à l’activer dans les situations proches à la réalité. Le professeur contemporain est capable d’organiser les conditions qui pourraient mener au développement des capacités lexiques et de la compétence linguistique.

Pour approfondir les compétences de la lecture en travaillant avec le texte de la chanson il est possible d’utiliser les exercices suivants:

- Choisir les mots ou les phrases qui expriment les sentiments et les émotions du personnage principal de la chanson;
- Compléter le texte à trous par les mots appropriés;
- Souligner les phrases qui peuvent caractériser les personnages de la chanson ou les chanteurs;
- Traduire les mots soulignés ;
- Lire les répliques avec les parties de la chanson, etc.

Quelques activités pour approfondir la compréhension orale:

- Trouver et souligner les mots entendus dans la chanson;
- Choisir les phrases qui caractérisent l’atmosphère de la chanson ;
- Dire si les phrases sont vraies ou fausses;
- Mettre les parties de la chanson dans le bon ordre, etc.

En travaillant avec la chanson en cours de FLE il est possible également de développer l’expression orale. En voici quelques activités :

- Imaginer la suite de l’histoire présentée dans la chanson;
- Raconter l’histoire qui se passe dans la chanson ;
- Dire si on est d’accord ou pas avec l’idée présentée dans la chanson. Argumenter son opinion en utilisant le lexique étudié ;
- Composer un dialogue en utilisant 3 phrases présentées dans la chanson;
- Raconter ses émotions en utilisant les phrases suivantes, etc.

Pour développer l’expression écrite on peut proposer aux apprenants une des activités suivantes:

- Donner un autre titre à la chanson;
- Raconter l’histoire de la chanson en forme d’un conte de fée;
- Ecrire une lettre à son ami et lui parler de ses émotions après l’écoute de la chanson;
- Composer une carte mentale en utilisant le lexique de la chanson;
- Faire la description des personnages de la chanson, etc.

Dans le cadre de notre étude nous avons effectué un travail expérimental avec 11 apprenants russes de 14 – 15 ans. Nous avons donné 2 cours de la langue française autour de deux thèmes “Edith Piaf” et “Les chanteurs célèbres” et un cours de contrôle “The voice: la plus belle voix”. Les séances choisies correspondent au sujet lexique “Description d’une personne” du manuel de FLE choisi par l’enseignant de ce groupe pour les cours de FLE qui porte le titre “Французский язык. 4-й год обучения. 8 кл. ” (auteurs: Séliванова N.A., Shashurina A.Y.). Tous les apprenants sont bien éduqués et énergiques.

Le travail expérimental comportait les étapes suivantes:

I. Préparation.

Durant cette étape-là nous avons formulé l’objet de notre travail – l’assimilation du lexique “Description d’une personne”. En plus, nous avons analysé plusieurs textes des chansons et composé des exercices.

II. Réalisation.

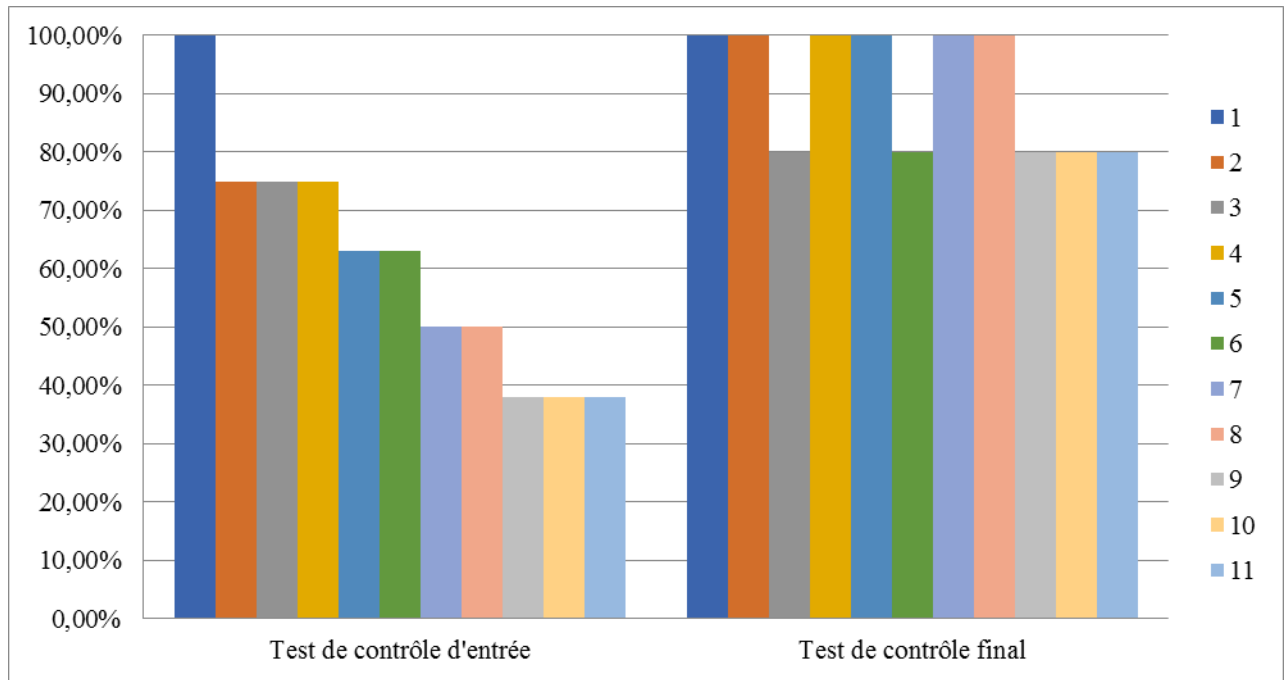
Durant cette étape-là nous avons préparé les plans des leçons et observé le comportement des apprenants. Pour définir le résultat, nous avons aussi fait un test de contrôle d’entrée.

III. Etape final.

Durant cette étape-là nous avons donné le cours de contrôle où les élèves ont dû présenter tout le lexique qu’ils avaient appris pendant les cours précédents. En plus, ils ont fait le test de contrôle finale comportant les questions similaires au test de contrôle d’entrée.

Les résultats des tests sont présentés sur le graphique suivant:

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Nous pouvons constater qu’au moment du début de notre travail seulement un apprenant a réussi à faire 100 % du test, ce qui représente 9% du total des apprenants. Par ailleurs, le nombre des apprenants qui ont réussi plus de 50% du test est de 6 personnes, soit 55% du total des apprenants. Les autres apprenants ont réussi moins de 50% du test d’entrée ce qui représente 5 apprenant ou 45%.

Les résultats du test de contrôle final sont de loin meilleurs. 7 apprenants ont réussi 100% du test ce qui correspond à 64% du total des apprenants. Les 4 apprenants ou 36% du total ont surmonté 80% du test. Donc, le nombre des apprenants qui ont réussi plus de 50% du test a augmenté de 55%.

En plus, notons que pendant la deuxième étape les apprenants s’impliquaient beaucoup dans les activités proposées. Ils participaient activement aux discussions sur les problèmes traités dans les chansons, faisaient part de leurs émotions.

Alors, nous avons prouvé que l’utilisations des chansons en cours de FLE contribue à la formation de la compétence communicative. En conséquence du travail avec les textes authentiques des chansons, l’apprenant prend connaissance de la culture du pays étranger, acquiert de la motivation à l’apprentissage des langues étrangères, élargit son vocabulaire et s’entraîne à l’utiliser correctement.

Resources Internet

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Anastasia Sidorova,
Elena Soldátova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
nsidorova9836@gmail.com
soldalena@mail.ru

La comparación cualitativa de exámenes de evaluación del grado de competencia y dominio del idioma español como lengua extranjera (DELE, SIELE, CELU)

El español es el segundo idioma más hablado (después de chino) en el mundo con aproximadamente 460 millones de hablantes nativos [1]. Cultura vibrante, música ardiente, comida deliciosa, una variedad de paisajes en España y América Latina, las oportunidades que se abren hacen que cada vez más personas estén interesadas en aprender español y, en consecuencia, aprobar un examen para determinar el nivel del idioma. Actualmente hay tres exámenes certificados de español como lengua extranjera: Diplomas de Español como Lengua Extranjera (DELE), Servicio Internacional de Evaluación de la Lengua Española (SIELE) y Certificado de Español: Lengua y Uso (CELU). A pesar de que los tres exámenes han existido durante bastante tiempo, se presta la mayor atención a DELE. También puede encontrar suficiente información sobre SIELE y algunos artículos sobre la comparación de estos dos exámenes. De hecho, pocos han oído hablar de CELU. También es casi imposible encontrar información sobre los tres exámenes al mismo tiempo, en un solo lugar.

Este hecho nos lleva a la relevancia de nuestro estudio, ya que el objetivo principal de nuestro trabajo es comparar los tres exámenes enumerados anteriormente y analizar sus ventajas y desventajas en diferentes categorías. Dado que cualquier comparación se lleva a cabo sobre la base de ciertos criterios, para nosotros llevamos a cabo los siguientes: vigencia, reconocimiento internacional, accesibilidad, destinatarios y número de niveles, y estructura.

DELE

Y parece lógico empezar con la descripción general de estos tres exámenes. DELE es gestionado y titulado desde 1989 por Ministerio de Educación y Formación Profesional de España [2], y desde el año 2002 el Instituto Cervantes ostenta la dirección académica, económica y administrativa del examen.

SIELE

SIELE existe desde 2016 y es titulado por Instituto Cervantes, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Universidad de Salamanca, Universidad de Buenos Aires en España, México y Argentina respectivamente [3].

CELU

CELU es el examen que nació en Argentina en 2004 y que está avalado por el Ministerio de Educación [4], Ciencia y Tecnología y el Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores y Culto de la República Argentina; el Consorcio Interuniversitario ELSE, que se enmarca en el Consejo Interuniversitario Nacional (CIN) en Argentina y el Ministerio de Educación de la República Federativa del Brasil, el Ministerio de Educación de la República Popular China, el Ministerio de Educación de Italia en Brasil, China y Italia respectivamente.

En cuanto a los niveles que evalúa estos exámenes, el mayor número de ellos cubre DELE. Con equivalencias a los niveles de Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las lenguas (MCER), DELE evalúa A1-C2, SIELE A1-C1 y CELU B2-C1.

DELE y SIELE

Por lo general, los exámenes de idiomas extranjeros constan de cuatro partes: comprensión de lectura, comprensión auditiva, expresión e interacción escritas y expresión e interacción orales. En este caso, esto se aplica solo a dos de los tres exámenes – DELE y SIELE. Además, esto nos lleva a las características de SIELE. Su peculiaridad radica en el hecho de que estos módulos se pueden tomar por separado o en varias combinaciones que surgen de cinco combinaciones posibles de las pruebas que constituyen el examen SIELE Global, que permite al candidato elegir qué tomar. CELU

El examen CELU es diferente de otros exámenes en este aspecto ya que consiste de dos partes: sección oral donde el candidato necesita leer textos y conversar sobre ellos y sección escrita donde el candidato escucha textos orales, lee y produce textos escritos, con una finalidad determinada.

Uno de los criterios para comparar los exámenes fue la vigencia de certificados que los candidatos reciben después de aprobar el examen. El análisis mostró que en este criterio SIELE difiere de los otros dos exámenes

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porque su validez está limitada a cinco años, mientras que la validez de otros exámenes (DELE y CELU) es ilimitada (que es ventajoso para el candidato).

DELE

Los diplomas DELE están reconocidos a nivel internacional, y gozan de un gran prestigio, no solo entre instituciones y autoridades educativas públicas y privadas sino también en el mundo empresarial y entre cámaras de comercio. Son una garantía en la evaluación y valoración de las competencias lingüísticas en lengua española.

En muchos países, los certificados DELE han sido adoptados por autoridades educativas y centros de enseñanza reglada como complemento a sus propios programas de evaluación. Son idóneos para facilitar la promoción laboral y el acceso a la educación tanto en España como en el resto de países donde se realizan las pruebas.

DELE tiene el reconocimiento internacional en sistemas educativos de tales países como Brasil, Francia, Italia, instituciones, empresas, universidades y en España para el recibo de la nacionalidad española.

SIELE

El certificado de Español SIELE esta reconocido por organismos internacionales referentes a la educación de idiomas.



CELU

Actualmente CELU es el único examen reconocido oficialmente por el Ministerio de Educación y el Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores y Culto de la República Argentina. El certificado CELU permite usar español como segunda lengua para ámbitos de trabajo y de estudio en Argentina.

Esta certificación es ofrecida por el Consorcio Interuniversitario ELSE, que se enmarca en el Consejo Interuniversitario Nacional (CIN) que reúne a las universidades nacionales argentinas. A nivel internacional hay acuerdos de mutuo reconocimiento entre los gobiernos de Brasil, China e Italia.

Los certificados CELU pueden presentarse como comprobantes de competencia en lengua española ante entidades académicas e instituciones o empresas públicas y privadas. Los exámenes evalúan el uso adecuado de la lengua, pero no acreditan a los hablantes como profesores de español como lengua segunda y extranjera.

En comparación con los exámenes DELE y CIELE CELU, no tiene un amplio reconocimiento internacional. Sin embargo, permite rendir un examen de dominio cuando necesita una certificación de su capacidad lingüística para ingresar en protocolos de trabajo o de estudio en Argentina o Brasil.

Hablando de la accesibilidad de exámenes, vale la pena decir que el rango de precios es insignificante, en general, depende de la región y el país elegidos para aprobar.

DELE

Los exámenes DELE se administran en los centros del Instituto Cervantes y en su red de más de 1000 centros examinadores, en más de 100 países.

El precio de inscripción en los exámenes DELE depende del nivel de español de cada diploma, y del país en el que se efectúe la inscripción. Cada candidato debe consultar el precio del diploma elegido en el centro de examen DELE del país donde desee realizar las pruebas. El examen se realiza en centros acreditados, se requiere registro previo y registro en el sitio. En Rusia hay 15 centros autorizados para tomar el examen.

Allí, por ejemplo, el precio de DELE en Moscú en 2020 para diferentes niveles es el siguiente:

Nivel A1	3.300,00 rub
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Nivel A1 para alumnos	3.300,00 rub
Nivel A2	3.800,00 rub
Nivel A2/B1 para alumnos	4.700,00 rub
Nivel B1	4.700,00 rub
Nivel B2	5.500,00 rub
Nivel C1	5.900,00 rub
Nivel C2	6.700,00 rub

SIELE

El examen SIELE completo, así como la entrega de modalidades independientes, se lleva a cabo en centros oficiales de examen que brindan al candidato el equipo técnico necesario y coordinan el examen.

Al registrarse para el examen, el candidato elige el país en el que quiere examinarse, entre los centros que ofertan plazas, dónde y cuándo realizar el examen. Si no encuentra plaza en el centro deseado, puede contactar con el mismo para que ver la posibilidad de que se la tramiten. En Rusia hay solo 4 regiones acreditados para la realización del examen (Moscú, Samara, Tatarstán, San Petersburgo). En España, esta cifra es, por supuesto, mucho más alta. Hay 54 de ellos solo en Comunidad de Madrid.

Hablando sobre el costo de aprobar el examen, es aproximadamente el mismo en todos los países que realizan SIELE y no depende del nivel de dominio del idioma. El precio de inscripción en Moscú– 145 €, en Madrid – 155 €, en Buenos Aires – 145€ que es mucho más alto que los precios de DELE.

CELU

Para rendir el examen en las fechas regulares se debe visitar la página web (<https://www.celu.edu.ar>) dos meses antes de la fecha regular y verificar la fecha exacta y el modo de inscripción. También se puede escribir a la sede en que se desea rendir el examen para obtener mayor información.

La información sobre cada sede se encuentra en el sitio web. La inscripción se completa con el pago del arancel y la confirmación de la institución sede, enviada por correo electrónico, sin la cual el candidato no quedará inscripto.

Dos meses después de la toma de los exámenes, se publicarán los resultados en esta misma página y luego se entregan los certificados de acuerdo a lo solicitado por el interesado.

Curiosamente, los aranceles del examen se calcula a la tasa del país en el que desea realizar el examen.

A continuación se muestra una tabla de comparación de los precios de los exámenes en diferentes países en la divisa nacional y en rublos. El tipo de cambio de las divisas nacionales al rublo es de 2 de julio de 2020.

El país	La moneda	En rublos
Argentina	\$ 2500 (pesos argentinos)	2527
Brasil	R\$ 225 (reales)	3024
Europa	€ 80 (euros)	6423
Estados Unidos	100 USD	7139

Niveles

DELE

Se ofrecen exámenes desde el nivel A1 hasta el C2 del MCER y el candidato puede decidir a cuál desea presentarse. El Instituto Cervantes ofrece dos exámenes DELE diferentes específicos para escolares: el examen A1 y el A2/B1. Estos exámenes están orientados a estudiantes de español que se encuentren entre los 11 y los 17 años (las personas de edad igual o mayor a 18 años deberán inscribirse en los exámenes generales). Al igual que los exámenes destinados a adultos, constan de cuatro pruebas: Comprensión lectora, Comprensión auditiva, Expresión e interacción escritas y Expresión e interacción orales. Como señalamos anteriormente, el costo de los diferentes niveles de examen varía: cuanto mayor sea el nivel, mayor será el precio.

SIELE

Es un examen para jóvenes y público adulto en el que se integran tareas desde el A1 hasta el C1 del MCER (Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas).

En el nivel A1 los usuarios son capaces de comprender textos muy breves y sencillos, leyendo frase por frase, captando nombres, palabras y frases básicas y corrientes. Los usuarios pueden solicitar y ofrecer información detallada de la escritura en oraciones simples. Los usuarios pueden hacer y responder preguntas generales sobre temas cotidianos, así como hacer declaraciones básicas, expresándose en frases simples y solitarias.

En el nivel C1 los usuarios entienden completamente textos largos y complejos en varios campos, entienden temas abstractos y complejos, reconocen una amplia gama de expresiones idiomáticas y coloquiales. Los usuarios pueden escribir sobre temas complejos, defender su punto de vista con la ayuda de razonamientos y ejemplos.

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Escriben textos claros, precisos y bien estructurados, realizan descripciones y presentaciones claras y detalladas sobre temas complejos. Se expresan libre y espontáneamente.

CELU

Hay solo 2 niveles acreditados por el examen CELU: intermedio y avanzado.

Nivel intermedio

El orador en el nivel intermedio puede comprender y hablar sobre situaciones familiares, sociales y oficiales, incluso si fluctúan en un contexto desconocido.

Puede participar con cierta fluidez y naturalidad en conversaciones con hablantes nativos sobre temas cotidianos o específicos de su área de trabajo o estudio.

Este nivel se considera el nivel correspondiente al umbral universitario. Incluye principalmente la comprensión de los textos informativos y simples de opiniones, historias, artículos y ensayos populares o educativos, aunque ciertos detalles pueden requerir la ayuda de un diccionario. El hablante puede escribir varios tipos de textos con poca complejidad y pocos detalles: cartas informales y formales, instrucciones, historias, ensayos, artículos de opinión, informes en general. Comparable a los niveles B1- B2 del MCER (bueno, muy bueno, excelente - B1+, B2, B2+ de MCER).

Nivel avanzado

El hablante se expresa en el idioma de manera cómoda y espontánea en una variedad de situaciones familiares y sociales. Su comprensión lectora es amplia y variada: lee textos informativos, técnicos y especiales. Casi siempre puede entender el humor y la ironía.

Puede escribir una amplia gama de textos claros, precisos y apropiados: cartas informales y formales, instrucciones, historias, ensayos, currículums, artículos de opinión, trabajos o informes académicos. Puede interactuar con hablantes de diferentes dialectos, comprender diferentes puntos de vista en la discusión, argumentos y explicaciones. El orador puede hablar al público y participar activamente en conversaciones formales e informales y discusiones entre hablantes nativos. Comparable a los niveles C1-C2 del MCER (bueno, muy bueno, excelente - C1, C1+, C2 de MCER).

Después de analizar 3 exámenes para determinar el nivel de español, podemos decir que cada uno de ellos tiene sus propias características, en particular el propósito por el cual el examinador eligió estos exámenes. El examen DELE ha ganado un reconocimiento más amplio debido a su aplicación más amplia en diferentes países, así como a la diversificación de los niveles de propiedad y el precio relativamente bajo.

Recientemente aparecido (2016) SIELE tiene más de 75 universidades asociadas presentes en 22 países de Iberoamérica que habla del reconocimiento del examen como base en el espacio iberoamericano, que en nuestra opinión es un inconveniente de este examen y justifica su popularidad no generalizada en este momento. Además, las pruebas y el registro se realizan utilizando una computadora, y el candidato selecciona la fecha y la hora en que desea ser examinado. Es decir, la preparación para el examen requiere más preparación, ya que la capacitación en una computadora es necesaria, lo que para muchas personas, especialmente las personas mayores, puede ser difícil. Pero entre las mayores ventajas del examen podemos atribuir al hecho de que el ofrece la posibilidad de realizar un examen completo o bien solo algunas pruebas si se desea acreditar competencias parciales de la lengua. Las modalidades independientes SIELE surgen de cinco combinaciones posibles (Comprensión de lectura y la prueba de Comprensión auditiva; Comprensión de lectura y la prueba de Expresión e interacción escritas; Comprensión auditiva y la prueba de Expresión e interacción orales; Expresión e interacción orales; Expresión e interacción escritas y la prueba de Expresión e interacción orales). Pero independientemente de las modalidades que elija, la vigencia del examen es solo cinco años.

El examen CELU, en realidad, solo es adecuado para aquellos que planean graduarse o trabajar en Argentina. A pesar de que la vigencia del certificado de este examen es indefinida, es bastante costoso, más costoso que DELE, pero su aplicación es muy limitada. Además, CELU no tiene sedes en muchos países, por ejemplo, Rusia, y no hay posibilidad de aprobar este examen online.

Por lo tanto, en este caso, todos eligen el examen que sea más consistente con sus necesidades. Esperamos que nuestro análisis ayude a determinar la elección del examen, en vista de las características descritas anteriormente.

Para mayor claridad, el resultado se presenta en la forma de la siguiente tabla:

	DELE	SIELE	CELU
Descripción	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> el MCER A1-C2 1989, España 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> el MCER A1-C1 2016, España, México y Argentina 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> el MCER B1-C2 2004 en Argentina, Brasil, China e Italia
Estructura	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comprensión de lectura Comprensión 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comprensión de lectura Comprensión auditiva 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sección oral (leer textos y conversar sobre ellos) Sección escrita (escuchar

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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> auditiva Expresión e interacción escritas Expresión e interacción orales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expresión e interacción escritas Expresión e interacción orales Las modalidades independientes SIELE surgen de cinco combinaciones posibles de las pruebas que constituyen el examen SIELE Global 	textos orales, leer y producir textos escritos, con una finalidad determinada)
Vigencia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indefinida 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cinco años 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indefinida
Reconocimiento internacional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> en sistemas educativos reglados, instituciones, empresas, universidades en España: nacionalidad española, MIR, FIR, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> reconocimiento internacional de las instituciones de enseñanza superior del SIELE 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> reconocimiento internacional en las universidades de Argentina, Brasil, China e Italia; de un derecho de trabajar en Argentina
Accesibilidad	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> El precio de depende del nivel de español de cada diploma, y del país en el que se efectúe la inscripción. Cada candidato debe consultar el precio del diploma elegido en el centro de examen DELE del país donde desee realizar las pruebas. En Moscú el nivel A1 en el año 2020 cuesta 3.300,00 rublos, el nivel C2 – 6.700,00 rublos. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> En Rusia hay solo 4 regiones acreditadas (Moscú, Samara, Tatarstán, San Petersburgo). En España (Madrid) – 50 centros El precio de inscripción en Moscú– 145 €, en Madrid – 155 €, en Buenos Aires – 145€ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 100 dólares (~ 7.400 rublos) Sedes en Argentina, Brasil, Alemania, Italia, Inglaterra, Francia, Austria, Bulgaria, Armenia, Iran y Palestina
Niveles	ELE y L2, escolares, jóvenes y adultos; seis exámenes para público adulto: A1 - C2. Dos exámenes escolares: A1-A2/B1	ELE, L2 y L1, jóvenes y adultos; un examen para público adulto en el que se integran tareas desde el A1 hasta el C1	ELE y L2, desde 16 años y tres años completos de educación equivalentes a la escuela secundaria Solo Intermedio (bueno, muy bueno, excelente (B1+, B2, B2+ de MCER) y Avanzado (bueno, muy bueno, excelente (C1, C1+, C2 de MCER)

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Ekaterina Pestrikova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
eapestrikova@edu.hse.ru

The IELTS Exam as a Measure of Spoken Proficiency Level

Introduction

Due to the fact that the number of English learners all over the world has rapidly expanded, it was utterly important to investigate the common scale of assessing the level of proficiency by means of international exams. In the European Union, such a scale was developed, and now CEFR is used as the basic system for describing levels of proficiency in a foreign language.

For successful functioning of the system, standardized exams drawing upon CEFR standards were developed. One of the most popular ones was IELTS, which assess such skills as Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing. In our article, we would like to focus on the oral part of the exam.

Taking into account the fact that IELTS as other exams from Cambridge Assessment Group is designed according to the official standards CEFR 2001, it can be an indicator of spoken proficiency level, but it is necessary to consider the amendments which are periodically investigated to the document. In 2018, the new version of CEFR with significant changes in the oral part was published, consequently, scholars raised concerns about assessing the exam according to the new requirements.

Although there have been numerous studies on assessing the IELTS speaking part (Karim & Haq, 2014; Li, 2019; Kolesnikov, 2019), much less attention has been given to the communicative competence in CEFR and analyzing exam compliance with new requirements. The speaking test needs to be reconsidered to assess all the necessary skills according to European standards. This article will evaluate to what extent IELTS tasks cover oral skills provided in CEFR 2018 and the level of validity and reliability of the exam’s format. The level of validity and reliability in this context means that the exam is not biased and can objectively measure the oral skills of each candidate.

The ultimate goal of the investigation is to provide measures for improving the format of IELTS speaking test and tasks, which will meet the new CEFR requirements and evaluate a wider range of oral skills.

To achieve the primary aim, it is necessary to pursue the following objectives:

- 1) describe the goals, objectives and modules, of the IELTS exam;
- 2) study the main principles of the CEFR, to conduct a comparative analysis of the 2010 and 2018 CEFR regarding the oral part;
- 3) analyze the format of tasks and evaluation criteria of the international IELTS exam in order to understand which oral skills each task can assess;
- 4) identify which oral skills provided in CEFR are not covered by IELTS assignments;
- 5) supplement the existing exam format with assignments from other Cambridge Assessing English exams to test more oral skills;

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) includes a description of the main goals, objectives, competencies and language proficiency levels that should be considered by language test developers, teachers, examiners, and students. Analyzing the CEFR, it is important to note that in 2018 the document underwent serious changes, which should entail changes in the assessment of the level of foreign language proficiency.

In the 2018 document, the student is considered as a social agent throughout the learning and communication process. Moreover, to the such previously presented characteristics of the language code as fluency and accuracy of speech, complexity was added. (Council of Europe, 2018, 131)

According to both CEFR documents, communicative competence includes reception, production, interaction, and mediation. (Council of Europe, 2018, 165-168)

A distinctive feature of CEFR 2018 is the consideration of mediation in various categories. The mediation consists of more specific categories: mediating concepts, mediating a text, and mediating communication. Mediating communication contributes to the creation of a pluricultural environment in which the student acts as an intermediary of information. Moreover, mediating communication avoids disagreement within the framework of

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intercultural communication. Mediating concepts provide interaction and exchange of information between the students. (Huang, 2018, 4)

In the 2018 document, in addition to a more detailed description of each speech situation, a sustained monologue was added: giving information. The main idea of such a monologue is the ability to explain information to a recipient in a long turn. Even though the recipient has the right to interrupt the narrator or to ask a clarifying question, this type of communication is unidirectional and does not imply the exchange of information. The key aspects that are tested in this speech situation are a type of information and degree of precision. (Council of Europe, 2018)

Another aspect of communicative competence that is directly related to oral speech is an interaction in which the aspect «using telecommunication» has taken the place of the «comprehension in communication» aspect. However, in our article, we will not touch on this aspect as the way to modernize the exam, since it is hard to implement telecommunications as the format of the exam now. (Council of Europe, 2018, 94)

It is necessary to conduct a Speaking test analysis to highlight the main aims of each task and tested skills. The oral part of the IELTS exam includes 3 main parts:

- The first part. Part 1. Introduction and interview - in this part, the examinee should firstly introduce himself and answer general questions about his/her life. (Black, 2015, 15)
- The second part. Part 2. Individual long turn - the examiner offers the examinee a cue-card, which indicates the topic and the bullets which need to be covered in his/her monologue. After the long turn stage, the candidate is asked 1-2 questions on the topic. (Black, 2015, 15)
- The third part. Part 3. Two-ways discussion - the examiner invites the examinee to participate in a discussion on more abstract issues. (Black, 2015, 15)

The development of any test is related to checking its validity, as the main goal of language tests is to fully and objectively evaluate the language proficiency level. Hughes in his work pointed out the importance of validity in all types of language exams and observed four main types: content, criterion-related, construct and face. The main goal of validity evaluating is to figure out to what extent the exam measures the necessary skills and competence. (Hughes, 1996, 26)

Criterion-related validity includes two types: concurrent and predictive. The test, which has a high criterion validity by concurrent type, implies that tasks are designed in such a way that they can evaluate the formation of skill in the allotted period. Tasks that have a predictive type of validity are able to evaluate not only the level of knowledge of the candidate at the moment, but also make a forecast for his/her future performances. The main aim of the construct validity is to test only a specific skill. (Hughes, 1996, 27)

The content validity of the IELTS exam is questionable, on the one hand, the oral part of the exam can assess the skills of comparison, summation, explanation, assumption, contrasting, rephrasing and analysis. On the other hand, the exam does not assess the personal characteristics of a candidate and the interview is conducted in a formal context. IELTS can be assessed as an exam with high face validity because the exam format is available on the Internet in the public domain. Criterion-related validity includes a concurrent and predictive type. In the study was established the fact that too short time frame and the identity of IELTS Academic and General modules dramatically reduce this type of validity. According to E. Quaid, skills that are assessed in IELTS tasks (micro-level) may not necessarily reflect the spoken proficiency level (macro-level). Taking into account, that the structure of General and Academic modules are the same, evaluating speaking skills is easier in an informal than in an academic context. (Hughes, 1996, 28)

Regarding the construct validity of the oral part of the exam, it is important to note that, because of the limited period, each task in the exam tests several skills at once. (Hughes, 1996, 28)

Based on the types of validity, Karim S. and Hack N., in their article “An Assessment of IELTS Speaking Test”, put forward several recommendations to improve the exam’s format. Firstly, the authors suggest allowing candidates to ask questions during the exam, which will better assess their ability to formulate questions and interact. Secondly, a role-playing game as a part of the exam will bring its format closer to the real-life situation. Thirdly, the authors recommend adding a second examiner, who will increase the level of results ‘objectivity and make the discussion less formal. Moreover, according to the authors of the article, the evaluation criteria should take into account the age and education of the candidate. The authors' suggestions are significant and fill up the gaps in the exam according to the new CEFR requirements. (Karim & Haq, 2014)

We made the table (see Table 1-1), representing the oral skills which assignments in IELTS can assess. Moreover, this table highlights the gaps, the skills mentioned in CEFR 2018, which IELTS does not cover.

Table 1-1. Assessment of oral skills indicated in CEFR 2018 by IELTS assignments

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According to the table, it is clear that the exam mainly focuses on the assessment of the spoken language. Speaking of mediation, it is extremely difficult to evaluate such an elusive skill in the framework of an exam. Therefore, we see a more appropriate consideration of interaction that can be assessed by pair or group tasks.

To supplement the current version of the exam, the tasks from Cambridge Assessment English group’s exams were considered. We compiled the table (see Table 2-1) to represent the fact that the modernized version can access a wider range of oral skills.

Table 2-1. Assessment of oral skills indicated in CEFR 2018 by IELTS modernized version

Aspects which are included in the communicative competence of CEFR 2001	IELTS assignments	Aspects which are included in the communicative competence of CEFR 2018	IELTS assignments
PRODUCTION		PRODUCTION	
sustained monologue: describing experience	Part 2. Individual long turn	sustained monologue: describing experience	Part 2. Individual long turn
-	-	New speech situation: <i>sustained monologue: giving information</i>	Part 2. Individual long turn
sustained monologue: putting a case	Part 2. Individual long turn	sustained monologue: putting a case	Part 2. Individual long turn
public announcement	-	public announcement	-
addressing audiences	-	addressing audiences	-
INTERACTION		INTERACTION	
understanding an interlocutor – native speaker	Part 1. Introduction and interview, Part 3. Two -ways discussion	Modernized speech situation: <i>understanding an interlocutor</i>	Part 1. Introduction and interview, Part 3. Two -ways discussion
Conversation	-	conversation	-
informal discussion	-	informal discussion	-
formal discussion	-	formal discussion	-
goal – oriented co -operation	-	goal – oriented co -operation	-
obtaining goods and services	-	obtaining goods and services	-
information exchange	-	information exchange	-
interviewing and being interviewed	Part 1. Introduction and interview, Part 3. Two -ways discussion	interviewing and being interviewed	Part 1. Introduction and interview, Part 3. Two -ways discussion
comprehension in interaction	Part 1. Introduction and interview, Part 3. Two -ways discussion	Modernized speech situation: using telecommunications	-
MEDIATION		MEDIATION	
simultaneous translation	-	New speech situation: facilitating pluricultural space	-
consistent translation	-	New speech situation acting as intermediary in informal situations	-
informal translation	-	New speech situation: facilitating communication in delicate situations and disagreements	-
Aspects which are included in the communicative competence of CEFR 2018		Assignments	
Production			
sustained monologue: describing experience		IELTS. Part 2. Individual long turn	
sustained monologue: giving information		BULATS. Part 4. Presentation with the Graphics	
sustained monologue: putting a case		CAE. Part 2. Long turn	

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public announcement	-
addressing audiences	-
Interaction	
understanding an interlocutor	IELTS. Part 3. Two-ways discussion
Conversation	-
informal discussion	-
formal discussion	CPE. Part 2. Collaborative task
goal-oriented co –operation	CAE. Part 3. Collaborative task
obtaining goods and services	-
information exchange	CAE. Part 3. Collaborative task
interviewing and being interviewed	IELTS. Part 1. Introduction and interview.
using telecommunications	
Mediation	
facilitating pluricultural space	-
acting as intermediary in informal situations	-
facilitating communication in delicate situations and disagreements	-

Although the current version of IELTS already focuses on assessing the aspects of production, the exam could be diversified by the task from the oral part of CAE (Certificate in Advanced English). In the second part of the exam, each candidate (the exam is taken in pairs) is offered three pictures related to one topic. Examinee A describes his pictures, while examinee B answers the question about the pictures of his partner. Then they change roles. This task can assess the ability to state one’s position because questions to the candidate allow him/her to express his/her opinion (for example, “Which of these people do you think looks most impatient?”). (Greenwich English College) (Fig. 2-1)

To assess the ability to compose a sustained monologue: giving information, Part 4 from BULATS (Business Language Testing Service) exam can be used. The main task of the examinee is to analyze and describe the presented graph. This task helps to more fully evaluate the ability to present information based on the visual part. (Cambridge English Language Assessment) (Fig. 2-2)

The main objective of this study was to implement tasks for evaluating interaction. Such a task is presented in the CAE Part 3 exam. Candidates should discuss the question with each other, based on the bullets from the mind map. After this, the examinees are given a minute to choose which aspect was the most important. The first part helps to assess the ability to organize a formal discussion, as well as the exchange of information. The second part of the task allows evaluating goal-oriented skills because they need to come to a consensus. (Greenwich English College) (Fig. 2-3)

Furthermore, the CPE (Certificate in Proficiency English) Part 2 exam can be used to evaluate interaction. In the first part, two photographs are offered, the examiner asks a question that needs to be discussed with your partner. Then, in the second task, the examiner will ask another question and offer to discuss all 4 images in 3 minutes. At this stage, the assignment helps to assess the skill of formal discussion and exchange of information. According to the outcome of the task, partners need to come to a single conclusion, which helps to evaluate the ability to interact in order to achieve the goal. (ESLcafe Exam Advisor) (Fig. 2-4)

The notion of mediation is quite elusive, that is why the academic community is in the process of developing assignments to test this type of oral skill.

To check the fact, that the new tasks make the exam more valid, we have evaluated the updated version according to the criteria proposed by A. Hughes.

The content validity of the exam becomes higher since the proposed range of tasks takes into account the psycho-emotional characteristics of the candidate to a greater extent. For example, in addition to tasks aimed at monologic utterances, tasks for interactive actions are introduced, which expands the range of assessment of speaking skills of students with different levels of language proficiency.

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The high face validity of the exam remains since the tasks are presented on the Internet in the public domain for preliminary preparation.

According to the concurrent type, the criterion validity is growing rapidly due to the fact that with an increase in the number of tasks for the oral part, a longer period is allocated. This factor gives examiners more opportunities to assess the ability of the examiner. According to the predictive type, validity is also quite high, since, including tasks for interactive actions, examiners have more opportunities to assess the level of formation of oral speech skills in the future. Since a separate task is proposed for testing each type of skill, the constructive validity of the exam becomes higher.

We can conclude that importance for improving the format of IELTS speaking test and its assessment criteria according to CEFR 2018 is high, because language tests should be standardized according to the CEFR requirements. Analyzing the CEFR 2018 requirements, the main aim is to assess if the IELTS exam can assess the provided oral skills. Through the comparative analysis of two CEFR documents and other scholars' studies, the number of gaps in IELTS in oral skills assessing were found, which means that the tasks from Cambridge Assessing English exams can be added in IELTS speaking test, concerning CEFR 2018 requirements.

The oral part of the exam was evaluated in terms of validity, according to the criteria proposed by A. Hughes. The major concern should be made on the increasing of the level of interaction and mediation in the IELTS exam, providing the opportunity for forming of plurilingual and pluricultural competences. As a base, tasks from such international exams as CAE, CPE, BULATS were used. The theoretical contribution of the study is in highlighting the oral skills from CEFR 2018 which IELTS assignments cannot assess. As for the practical implementation, the findings may contribute to the development of the new IELTS speaking test.

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Internet Resources

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- Appendix

Fig. 2-1. Greenwich English College. Cambridge CAE Speaking Test

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Part 2

In this part of the test I'm going to give each of you three photographs. I would like you to talk about your photographs on your own for about a minute and also answer a question about your partner's photographs.

(Candidate A) It's your turn first. Here are your photos. They show people waiting for something. I would like you to compare and contrast two of the photographs and say what you think the people are waiting for and how they may be feeling.



(Candidate B) Which of these people do you think looks most impatient?

(Candidate B) It's your turn now. Your photographs show people with animals. I would like you to compare and contrast two of the photographs and say what you think the relationship between the people and the animals is and how the people may be feeling.



Fig. 2-2. Cambridge English Language Assessment. BULATS. Guide for Candidates

Part 4

In Part 4, you have to talk about some visual information which appears onscreen. You have 1 minute to look at the visual and think about what you are going to say. You then have 1 minute to speak about the visual.


Below is an example of Part 4.

Part Four Presentation with Graphics 00:58


You will have 1 minute to talk about some visual information.
First, you have 1 minute to look at the task and prepare what you are going to say.
You will then be given 1 minute to speak.

These charts show the breakdown of the total exports of a company called Pepco to three countries during the years 2005 - 2007.
Look at the information and talk about the changes that took place between 2005 and 2007.


2005





2006



2007



BULATS

Fig. 2-3. Greenwich English College. Cambridge CAE Speaking Test

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Part 3

(Candidate A) Who do you think has the closest connection to an animal?
(3 minutes)

Now I would like you to talk about something together for about 2 minutes. Here are some situations where people need to take precautions. First you have some time to look at the task.

Now talk to each other about why people need to take precautions in these situations.

```

graph TD
    A[Why do people need to take precautions in these situations?] --- B[Travelling]
    A --- C[Changing Jobs]
    A --- D[Getting Married]
    A --- E[Starting a Business]
    A --- F[Having Children]
    
```

Thank you.

Now you have a minute to decide for which situation precautions are most important.

Fig. 2-4. ESLcafe Exam Advisor. CPE Sample Papers

**Certificate of Proficiency in English
Speaking Test**

Part 2 (approximately 4 minutes / 6 minutes for groups of three)

1 TV documentary – Working in the food industry

Interlocutor	<p>Now, in this part of the test you're going to do something together. Here are some pictures of people in different situations.</p> <p><i>Place Part 2 booklet, open at Task 1, in front of the candidates. Select two of the pictures for the candidates to look at*.</i></p> <p>First, I'd like you to look at pictures * and * and talk together about how common these situations are in your country.</p> <p>You have about a minute for this, so don't worry if I interrupt you. <i>(2 minutes for groups of three)</i></p>
Candidates	<p>⌚ 1 minute <i>(2 minutes for groups of three)</i></p> <p>.....</p>
Interlocutor	<p>Thank you. Now look at all the pictures.</p> <p>I'd like you to imagine that a television documentary is being produced on working in the food industry. These pictures show some of the issues that are being considered.</p> <p>Talk together about the different issues related to working in the food industry that these pictures show. Then decide which issue might stimulate most interest.</p> <p>You have about three minutes to talk about this. <i>(4 minutes for groups of three)</i></p>
Candidates	<p>⌚ 3 minutes <i>(4 minutes for groups of three)</i></p> <p>.....</p>
Interlocutor	<p>Thank you. (Can I have the booklet, please?) Retrieve Part 2 booklet.</p>

**Peculiarities of Information Technology Use in the Formation of Students’ Out-of-class Study
Skills**

in Learning a Foreign Language

The article reveals the features of the organization of students’ out-of-class study when learning a foreign language by means of information technology. It provides an analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of using information technology for both teachers and students. It assesses the potential of multimedia educational products as an essential instrument in developing students’ out-of-class study skills while learning a foreign language.

information technology, out-of-class study, virtual learning environment, multimedia product, electronic textbook, linguistic competencies, student.

The out-of-class study of students mastering educational programs at a university (level – higher education) is not only a mandatory component of the educational process in all fields of training (specialties), but also an integral part to shape cognitive and creative activities of a person who is capable of life-long self-education and self-development.

The Federal Law on Education dated December 29, 2012 No. 273-FZ “On Education in the Russian Federation” defines out-of-class study as part of the students’ workload (Article 13), while students are required to individually prepare for classes (Article 43), and pedagogical employees are obliged to develop students’ cognitive activity, independence, initiative, creative abilities (Articles 48, 50) [2].

In accordance with the requirements of educational standards, the curriculum of any field of training or specialty provides for a definite number of hours for out-of-class study of a student. The analysis of most curriculums has revealed that over 50% of the total amount of hours is to be given to individual study of a discipline.

In the modern educational system, the teacher is already leaving the position of the mentor and the main participant of the learning process. The role of the leader is assigned to the student, and training is guided by their individual requests, pace, etc. These fundamental changes can be first and foremost seen in teaching a foreign language. With a good command of a foreign language a student will be able to get successfully socialized in the modern world, develop professionally and access new knowledge. It is teaching a foreign language that covers the issue of independence and individuality in the learning process especially sharply, the formation of linguistic competencies is impossible without proper out-of-class study.

Educational independence of students when studying a foreign language starts from imitation during the joint activities of teachers and students, then approaches the stage of awareness and randomness of mental processes, then goes to the stage of learned actions and, finally, to the stage of creative activity [5, p. 195].

The three stages of educational independence which a student who learns a foreign language passes through are the basis of three types of out-of-class study: reproduction, search and performance, and finally creativity.

O.A. Ivanova identifies the following goals of out-of-class study:

- systematization and consolidation of obtained theoretical and practical knowledge;
- deepening and expanding theoretical information;
- improving the skills of work at reference books;
- development of initiative, commitment, self-organization [1, p. 5].

The main target of a teacher as the organizer of out-of-class study is to guide students, provide them with the necessary explanations and recommendations about how and in what order to implement a task. An adequately organized out-of-class study will provide conditions necessary for shaping linguistic competencies of a student when studying a foreign language.

Many methodologists emphasize that the knowledge acquired by a student on their own, by overcoming feasible difficulties, is acquired much better than the information that is received in a ready-made form from a teacher. In the course of out-of-class study, a student directly covers the material, concentrating and focusing on specific information. This process involves both intellect and emotions of a student, activates their willpower. [4, p. 2]

The considerable advantage of out-of-class study is its individual nature. Orientation to a student’s character, temperament and learning habits enables the teacher to organize out-of-class study so that a student can use sources of information depending on their own needs and capabilities. This approach to the organization of the educational

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process provides flexibility, makes it possible to adapt learning to the needs of a student, results in a greater performance of a student.

The peculiarity of the organization of out-of-class study when studying a foreign language is in the specifics of the discipline itself. Success in mastering a foreign language directly depends on developing the skills of speaking, reading, listening, writing, building up the vocabulary, etc.

Out-of-class study in the process of forming linguistic competences can be carried out individually, in smaller or bigger groups. The choice of the organizational form of the work depends on the objectives of the training. Obviously, in order to develop students' communicative skills, it is necessary to create conditions for real communication with one or more partners, while the formation of the ability to read the text and extract the necessary information out of it is also possible when performing an individual task. Out-of-class study to be performed individually can be organized in two ways: each student receives their task, depending on their level of knowledge of a foreign language, or everyone receives a general task, but they perform it individually. In the latter case, the teacher can objectively estimate the degree of learning a new material, analyze the way to explain a particular topic and adjust the subsequent stages of teaching a foreign language.

If we talk about out-of-class study in pairs or small groups for the formation of linguistic competences, such an organization of training is undoubtedly necessary for full development of speaking skills. Teachers note that work in small groups tends to eliminate the “speaking barrier”, which many students encounter when learning a foreign language [3, p. 707]. It is in small groups that students can demonstrate mutual assistance, establish communication and develop a rapport with all members of the group. This type of organization of out-of-class study has surely its drawbacks. First of all, it is obvious that when working in small groups the teacher's supervision and control is minimal, and in order to develop the ability to speak a foreign language, the testing of the speaking skills must be carried out without fail.

It is worth considering that the choice of the form of organization of out-of-class study depends on the age and psychological characteristics of a student, as well as on technologies and equipment available.

Whatever organization of out-of-class study the teacher would choose, its effectiveness depends on a student's out-of-class study skills. In order to work with a text in a foreign language a student should acquire certain skills which are as follows: the ability to distinguish new unfamiliar words, to catch the main idea of the text, to draw conclusions from what has been read, to analyze the text scheme, etc. While working with the text, it is important to be able to correctly use reference books and dictionaries. The task of the teacher is to show the student the way to work with the dictionary, to find the right word in its original form, and to define the meaning of a word which suits the given text.

No activity to be performed by students when studying a foreign language is impossible without mistakes. When it comes to out-of-class study, the teacher's supervision should be minimal, and a mistake could be an incentive for a student's self-development. Here it is the student himself who is to understand the cause of his mistakes and correct them. The skill of detecting errors in a speech or text of another student, for example, when working in pairs or smaller groups, can be useful. Error detection will gradually result in increased control over a student's own speech and writing and finally any mistake to be avoided.

The key goals of organizing out-of-class study when learning a foreign language should be the development of a student into an independent personality, capable of creative activity and self-control. Active involvement and excellent results in out-of-class study depend not only on the need for its implementation while covering the discipline, but also on the organization and systematic monitoring of its implementation and progress under the conditions of teacher's non-direct supervision over all students' actions. It is the organization of students' out-of-class study by means of information technologies which makes it possible to achieve these goals.

By information educational technologies we mean educational technologies, implemented mainly by information and telecommunication networks providing indirect (at a distance) interaction between students and teachers [2].

Cognitive activity, organized with the help of information and technical tools and focused on the formation of self-development and self-education skills, provides great opportunities for the teacher to organize it in a diverse and interesting way. The educational process supported by information technology is characterized by flexibility, modularity, asynchrony, wide access to various sources of information.

Information and communication technologies provide an innovative approach to the creation, presentation and control over covering educational material in a foreign language, namely:

- instant access to training information;

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- the creation of training courses and materials based on authentic printed texts as well as audio and video materials provided by native speakers of a foreign language;
- visualization, graphical interpretation and computer simulation of educational information in a foreign language of a general cultural and professional character;
- the ability to speed up / slow down the pace of training;
- automation of the processes of search, educational and methodological support, educational process management;
- effectiveness and objectivity of curriculum monitoring systems.

Speaking about the reasons for an increasing role of information technology in the organization of students' out-of-class study when mastering a foreign language, most specialists in the field of pedagogy and education note a decrease in the number of class hours to be spent to learn a foreign language, which is especially true for non-linguistic universities, absence or shortage of course books that would correspond to a student's life in modern information world, the low efficiency of current methods to be applied to train the necessary foreign language skills and to control over knowledge acquisition, the need for electronic and distance learning, etc.

One of many ways to solve this problem of the education system is to shape a virtual learning environment for a student when studying a foreign language. And the question about what instruments and methods to be found and applied for out-of-class study in such environment for shaping students' both general cultural and professional competencies, is gradually finding its solution.

To practice effective approaches to organization of students' out-of-class study by means of information technologies MGIMO-University uses virtual training platforms *lms.mgimo.ru* and *ed.mgimo.ru*. These electronic educational systems are focused on the interaction between the teacher and the student, filled with various interactive elements and can serve as the basis for shaping an individual educational plan to study a foreign language on one's own in accordance with the tasks and needs of a student. The particular trait of the organization of out-of-class study in the electronic educational systems mentioned above is not only ready-made information perfectly fitted for out-of-class study, but also an option to choose various methods to obtain and process necessary material in accordance with the requirements of the tasks.

One of the most wide-spread information and technical tools for students' out-of-class study is an electronic textbook (interactive course). As an example, three multimedia products designed by the English Language Department of MGIMO University can be mentioned. They are as follows:

- The distance learning course for the Unified State Examination and MGIMO's additional entrance test in the English language (this annual training and consulting course is provided for school leavers and hosted on a virtual training platform *lms.mgimo.ru*);
- The electronic manual *Let's not skip Christmas with the Kranks – the scope of everyday and holiday activities in the USA through reading* based on *Skipping Christmas* by J. Grisham (this semester course has been developed for first-year students in order to cover the Home Reading class in an out-of-class format, available in the Moodle MGIMO Electronic Educational System *ed.mgimo.ru*);
- Interactive courses *Great Britain: Culture Across History* and *The USA: Culture Across History* – the appendices to the year's lecture course on British and American studies to be found in the Moodle MGIMO Electronic Educational System, available at *ed.mgimo.ru*).

Structurally, all three electronic training courses contain both theoretical and reference information. They are available in a convenient form with presentations, audio and video materials. There are practice-oriented tasks and exercises of increasing complexity, as well as progress tests that enable the students and the teacher to assess the level of knowledge and understanding of the topic to be presented and covered.

The trend towards global informatization of education leads to a revision of the requirements for out-of-class study designed to prepare students for individual professional activity. Therefore, it is necessary for students to form a special attitude to this type of educational and cognitive activity, and the task of teachers is to optimize the learning process, step up the current control system, adjust the methodology for organizing educational and research work, and the system of pedagogical support for all types of assignments and practices.

Speaking about the advantages and disadvantages of using information technology to shape students' out-of-class study skills when learning a foreign language, it should be noted that:

- Learning a foreign language using multimedia makes the educational process as technologically advanced as possible, but at the same time requires all its participants to be technically equipped with an access to the Internet.

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- The use of various technical tools necessary to create a learning virtual environment for foreign language classes requires technical literacy from both teachers and students. All participants in the educational process should be able to find and process, receive and transmit the required information using computers, modems, multimedia, etc. Thus, modern instruments of communication with other participants, access to Internet resources require being an advanced user of not only computer technologies, but also a good command of foreign languages (primarily English).
- The widespread use of media and the abundance of information flows can not only contribute to the accumulation of student knowledge, but also cause disorientation, a decrease or loss of interest in the learning process or the formation of false concepts about the language. The student is not always able to adequately assess the potential and usefulness of materials taken from the Internet, highlight the correct things and filter out wrong or unnecessary things.
- Information technology ensures social equality, i.e. equal opportunities to receive educational resources, regardless of nationality, material status, place of residence / location or health of a student.
- Information technologies to be used when studying a foreign language contribute to the individualization and personalization of the educational process. Now the student has an opportunity to individually set the time, pace and volume of the material to be covered in accordance with their preferences, capabilities, circumstances, etc. At the same time self-discipline and self-control are of particular importance since the result of the training now largely depends on self-consciousness and learning capabilities of a student.
- Information technology provides interactive learning, i.e. synchronous and asynchronous interaction with other participants of the educational process. However, in the future, this may result in hardships in group learning and poorer socialization in the educational environment both in relation to the student – the teacher and the student – the student(s).

Obviously, educational information technologies cannot fully replace the teacher, however, for the organization of students' out-of-class study, it is a virtual teaching environment that becomes the most effective instrument to increase the study effectiveness and provide a better control over the study material to be covered. A key condition for the formation of both general cultural and professional competencies of students is a proper balance between the traditional teaching approach with a teacher as a supervisor and main participant of the learning process and innovative methods based on students' out-of-class study provided by information technologies.

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Part III

CURRENT METHODS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Yuliana Galyamova
Department of Foreign Languages
HSE University, Russia
yuigalyamova@edu.hse.ru

Problems of the Development of Critical Thinking at English Lessons in High School

Much of the literature concerning the development of critical thinking in the English language classrooms has discussed the concept of "critical thinking" from different sides; who is the critical thinker, methods of how to ameliorate it and what lesson plans should look like. This theme considers being essential in the modern education, as a lot of universal and federal standards mention the importance of integrating of the development of cognitive abilities into the English lesson, which is critical thinking as well. However, the problems that teachers could face while trying to evolve critical thinking in the lesson plans have not been sufficiently discussed. The main purpose of this research is to identify problems the teachers collide with while integrating critical thinking in the English lessons and to highlight the most frequent ones. I conducted a survey in which English teachers are asked what problems they have confronted to. Some of the questions were chosen by me from the previous studies, whereas others will be suggested by the respondents. The questions were devoted to the understanding of terminology, professional development, understanding learners' needs and some contextual challenges, like motivation or school plans. First of all, it was found out that the focus of schools on preparing for final exams strongly prevents teachers from integrating the development of critical thinking in English lessons. Also, attention should be paid to the professional training of teachers before they start their careers, because sometimes teachers do not have enough knowledge in the critical thinking development after graduating from universities, where they were not even taught these topics. The findings of the research may contribute to the improvement of the teachers' professional competence in terms of critical thinking development during English lessons. cognitive abilities, thinking, critical thinking, problems of critical thinking development, universal learners' competences.

Modern young people are objectively forced to be more informed, more motivated to self-study and self-development, and therefore be able to think critically. The development of cognitive abilities plays an important role in education. Today, it is still relevant to say that the fundamental goal of education is not only to provide information to students, but to develop a critical way of thinking that will allow to adequately assess new circumstances and overcome the problems. According to the universal learners' competences and federal state educational standards (Asmolov, 2008), which are recommended to be followed at all stages of school education, the development of cognitive abilities is a mandatory part (Devine, 1962). As critical thinking is a cognitive ability, its development, as a result, has become an increasingly important issue, as well as one of the most crucial objectives and integral parts of the English language lessons (Yuan and Stapleton, 2019). First of all, the notion of "critical thinking" is becoming more popular due to the constantly changing world, where individuals need to think critically to survive, secondly, due to the emergence of new factual knowledge, which is needed to be speculated on, and, finally, due to the demand of mass media to present, receive and process a lot of complicated information and social problems (Skinner, 1971). The specificity of the subject "Foreign language" makes it possible for its development: the formation of communication skills and the cultivation of communication skills with representatives of a different society. But there are also many reasons to doubt that critical thinking is an unquestionable and accepted value in modern educational systems. Schools continue to be criticized for not teaching their students to think. Critical thinking is also not the strongest side of students entering the University (Radulović and Stančić, 2017). Moreover, teachers encounter many different challenges with the development of critical thinking during the English lessons. The concept of "critical thinking" is vague and imprecise, so teachers are not competent enough to develop simultaneously English language and critical thinking skills (Yuan and Stapleton, 2019). That is why the main goal of this work is to identify and analyze the problems faced by high school English teachers when trying to develop the ability to "think critically" in English lessons.

Many kinds of research even of the last century contributed to the development of critical thinking and presented some important articles (McMahon, 2009; Devine, 1962; Downing, 1997), as well as researches of the current century do (Yang and Gamble, 2013; Santos and Fabrício 2006; O'Halloran, 2019). However, the problems of the

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development of critical thinking have been barely examined (Skinner, 1971; Vdovina, 2013). Therefore, the exploration of this topic presents a worthwhile research avenue.

This research is going to extend the topic of the development of critical thinking by highlighting the problems which teachers have to encounter during English language lessons. As this issue concerns every English teacher, my work is valid and represents an essential contribution to the sphere of learning and teaching foreign languages.

I hope to make two primary contributions to the English and critical thinking education process through our research. Firstly, I aim at defining critical thinking and its features by examining foreign and Russian authors' papers, with the help of it, I will find out the main problems teachers face while developing critical thinking. Using the theory, I need to create a questionnaire to explore what problems teachers have to cope with in their day-to-day life and to check the statistics, which of them are the most frequent. For this purpose, I will apply the following methods: quantitative and qualitative research, documented analysis or screening, and surveying.

I believe that my study has important implications, as teachers are going to realize the problems in the development of critical thinking in the English language classroom they can encounter and, as a result, will make attempts to avoid them in their future careers.

The term "critical thinking" is too complex and is used in plenty of contexts (Vdovina, 2013). Many scholars suggested their definitions of this concept (Gurvich, 2013; Lindsey, 2008; Halpern, 2000; Clark, 1976). However, it was decided to choose one definition as the main for this work. "Critical thinking is self-guided, self-disciplined thinking which attempts to reason at the highest level of quality in a fair-minded way. People who think critically consistently attempt to live rationally, reasonably, empathically. They are keenly aware of the inherently flawed nature of human thinking when left unchecked." (Paul and Elder, 2007, as cited in Vdovina and Gaibisso, 2013) According to Skinner (1971), creating a single, concise definition of the concept of critical thinking is very difficult, since there are many sides from which it can be considered. Although, it can be definitely mentioned that five subskills of critical thinking make this concept: inferences, recognition of assumptions, deductions, interpretations, and evaluation of arguments.

There is a whole list of abilities and attitudes that characterize a person who thinks critically. For example, he or she should have the ability to organize thoughts and coherently use them, to support all decisions and judgments with the evidence, to suspend judgments if there is not enough evidence, to presume some consequences of different actions. He or she should also be able to be an independent learner, who is interested in self-education and, finally, to use some problem-solving techniques in the process of searching for the decision.

The specific nature of the subject "Foreign language" makes possible the development of critical thinking. The goal of this lesson is the advancement of communicative skills, which are an important tool for the development of critical thinking. Consequently, high-quality communication is the result of the development of the ability to think critically, which allows you to harmoniously combine teaching a foreign language with the development of critical thinking (Galskova, 2008). Also, familiarity with the culture of other countries and its comparison with the culture of their own ones provides an opportunity to train students to critically comprehend the socio-cultural realities, to foster a tolerant attitude to its traditions and ethical standards, to cultivate the ability to communicate with representatives of a different society, using verbal and non-verbal language means. This contributes to the acquisition of socio-cultural competence.

The technique of forming critical thinking can be used by the teacher on a daily basis (Zagashev, 2003). There is a special theory, which describes several stages of critical thinking development. The first stage is a challenge (Shakirova, 2006). Students should think and tell others what they know about the chosen topic, so that the previously acquired knowledge is realized and becomes the basis for new ones. The next step is understanding (Kornilova, 2013). This is where students begin to get to know the information directly and process it. The teacher should set students up for individual information searches followed by group discussion and analysis. The final stage is a reflection, which is based on the discussion of the topic. At the same time, students have the opportunity to evaluate their own views and habits and compare them with the views of others (Kornilova, 2013).

The importance of developing cognitive abilities, which includes the one we are considering – critical thinking, is noted in the universal learners' competences and federal state educational standards, which are presented as the most important component of learning because they help students learn complex processes necessary for life (Asmolov, 2008). Universal learners' competencies consist of 4 blocks: personal, cognitive, regulatory, and communicative (Solovova, 2003). A lot of tasks that are applicable at various lessons in secondary schools can contribute to the

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development of the cognitive block that is significant for this work, but English, being a meta-subject, contributes to this best (Solovova, 2003). For example, due to the cognitive competencies, students should formulate their own tasks, organize various practical activities for elementary school students, prepare monologues and dialogues together in pairs and groups, or perform tasks for listening to authentic texts and searching for the main information.

Many kinds of research claim that critical thinking can be easily taught in an English class, but there is no evidence that it will make students think critically (Yang and Gamble, 2013). There are many problems that I would like to identify, investigate, and analyze in this work.

The article by Yuan and Stapleton, as well as Skinner's article, states that the understanding of critical thinking by foreign language teachers can be relatively superficial and erroneous, which leads to other problems (Skinner, 1971); (Yuan and Stapleton, 2019). Skinner (1971) adds that teachers do not provide students with sufficient practice of taking up different problems to develop the cognitive ability "critical thinking". The major conclusion is that teachers make a dramatically serious mistake resulting in students' not knowing how to confront problems. The mistake is the lack of practicing exercises aimed at the development of critical thinking. According to Skinner (1971), in most cases, teacher-students are provided only with the theory, but they even do not have an idea of how to put it into practice.

Teacher-students are often told exactly how to develop critical thinking, but no examples are given. As a result, without explicit modeling of the development of critical thinking and related subsequent discussion of problems, teacher-students experience difficulties. Moreover, school programs are often focused on preparing students for final exams, and there is simply no time left for the development of cognitive abilities. The fourth contextual problem by Rui yuan and Paul Stapleton is the shyness of students. Critical practice in the classroom requires quite a long debate, which can be difficult for some pupils, who tend to be quiet during the lesson and silent in the classroom (Yuan and Stapleton, 2019). Furthermore, the level of foreign language proficiency of students also provides some certain limitations. Thus, methods, that require the formulation of arguments, deep analysis of the text, a detailed answer to a question, or writing an essay, can only be used among students with a sufficient level of vocabulary (Bryushinkin, 2007).

In order to discover the frequency of the problems teachers encounter by trying to integrate critical thinking in teaching English along with specifying the character of the problems, I am going to collect data via surveying teachers. The survey will be sent to teachers of Russians schools who had an experience of teaching pupils of the 10th and 11th forms, high school. The survey consists of 16 questions, 15 of which are closed questions requiring answers "yes", "no," and "other", the last question being an open one. Questions 1 to 15 ask about the problems teachers face while integrating critical thinking in the English language lesson in the 10th and 11th forms only. The respondents are expected to answer anonymously whether they confront the problems described in questions 1-15 during their teacher experience. If they do not know or are not able to answer unambiguously or just have something to add, their opinion or in order to extend the answer, they should provide their own responses in the option "other." Question 16 suggests whether respondents could name critical-thinking-related problems not mentioned in the questionnaire. (The questions and the results are presented in the table "Appendix 2-1").

After analyzing each question separately, it was decided to draw some conclusions. Firstly, the interviewed teachers have agreed almost upon all of the questions (more than 60% of the respondents said they had encountered such a problem), which means that problems described in the questions were presented in their professional practice. Respondents strongly disagree only with one question: English level proficiency may prevent the successful development of critical thinking in the English classroom (about 70% of respondents said that a good level of language proficiency is not an important condition for the full development of "critical thinking"). Secondly, the most popular problem among the surveyed teachers was the impact of the school plans, and, in particular, the focus on preparing students in high school for the unified state exams and other final ones. More than 84% of respondents said that they agree that strict school policies on these issues are a serious obstacle to integrating the development of critical thinking in the English language lesson. Moreover, interesting results were obtained after analyzing a chain of questions about the impact of professional training of teachers in higher education and their ability to integrate critical thinking in their lessons. About 50% of respondents noted that while studying at higher educational institutions, their teachers did not even mention not only the importance of developing critical thinking, but also methods and techniques for developing this cognitive ability (about 54%), and about 80% of respondents believe that after graduating from higher educational institutions as a "teacher of foreign languages", their professional training is not enough for the full development of students' critical thinking. After analyzing the last, sixteenth open question in detail, we realized that one respondent had made a great contribution to our work. An important problem

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that also requires detailed research is related to students and the fact that they themselves do not fully understand what critical thinking is and why to develop it. This information may be used for further research.

Despite the growing popularity of the thoughts concerning the importance the critical thinking development in English lessons and a lot of suggested methods on how to do it, sometimes teachers face numerous problems in this sphere. The present research highlights the problems teachers can come across during critical thinking development in the English language classroom that can help to find out why integrating critical thinking in every lesson is so complicated. The findings provide better understanding of the current situation, problems, and solutions, and help to encounter all challenges in the sphere of critical thinking more effectively.

Thus, we can draw some important conclusions. First of all, the focus of schools on preparing for final exams strongly prevents teachers from integrating the development of critical thinking in English lessons. There are two ways of further improvement. It is possible to increase the number of hours claimed for learning English, so that teachers can not only solve tasks of the exam format, but also conduct various other exercises in the classroom. Also, it would be a reasonable idea to create additional training sessions and webinars that will help teachers to simultaneously cope with exam preparation and the development of critical thinking. Secondly, attention should be paid to the professional training of teachers before they start their careers. The program of universities should include a block of lessons aimed at studying critical thinking and ways to integrate it. In addition, university professors themselves should be well prepared and not only give theory to their students, but also organize practice of integrating critical thinking development exercises in English lessons. Only working in this way, as already described above, successful implementation of critical thinking development in English lessons is possible.

Among other things, it should be concluded that we are in need of a pedagogical model that would take into account the development of critical thinking. It ought to include a clear plan of expected learning outcomes: improving critical thinking skills with the ability of self-reflection and seeking solutions for complex problems and ensuring a positive climate of learning that will create emotional incentives for successful teaching critical thinking by means of various academic subjects.

The sociological survey developed in this study helps to identify the problems that high school teachers face when developing critical thinking of their students in English lessons. Its results can also help to study and create a complete model of technology for developing students' critical thinking. Students who will use this technology will have deeper and more stable knowledge because they will be able to master the techniques of working with information and actively use them in an independent work.

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Question	“yes”	“no”	“other”	Comments
Are you familiar with the concept of "critical thinking"?	100%	zero	zero	
Do you understand the meaning of the term "critical thinking" well enough?	76,6%	23,3%	zero	
Could an inaccurate understanding of the term "critical thinking" have caused the failure of usage of the learning technologies that develop this ability in English class?	60%	40%	zero	
Are you familiar with any techniques or methods for the development of "critical thinking" of schoolchildren in an English lesson? If so, which ones? * Write your answer in the "other" line»	46,7%	30%	23,3%	1. Technologies: brainstorming, basket of ideas and concepts, project activities, etc. 2. Tasks for reflection, argumentation of your position 3. Debate, essay writing-opinions 4. Information gap; project method; authentic tasks. 5. Thick and thin questions, problem solving 6. Debates, discussions 7. Thick and thin questions, debates, discussion of complex issues 8. Debates 9. Debates
Have your university professors mentioned the importance of developing students critical thinking in their English language teaching classes?	50%	46,7%	3,3%	I didn't study as a teacher in Russia
Do you believe that the combination of knowledge obtained at the University about the techniques and methods of developing critical thinking of schoolchildren allows you to successfully use them in English lessons?	40%	53,3%	6,6%	At the University-no I didn't study as a teacher in Russia
After graduation, did you have a feeling that your professional training in English teaching methods, and in particular in the development of students' critical thinking could be better?	76,7%	13,3%	9,9%	I'm still in the learning process If I got my knowledge only in high School, then yes I did not study as a teacher in Russia
Have there been cases in your teaching practice when you did not know which exercises can be used to develop students' critical thinking?	80%	13,3%	6,6%	This topic was not considered at our University I didn't even think about it
Have there ever been cases when you didn't know how to integrate critical thinking exercises into your English	76,7%	16,7%	6,6%	I didn't use such exercises I didn't even think about it

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lesson?

<p>Do you agree that the school curriculum and plans do not involve the introduction of innovative learning technologies, such as TRCM, in the educational process, due to the focus of school education on preparing for final exams?</p>	<p>83,3% 13,3% 3,3%</p>	<p>I don't teach at school; I only work with high school students as a tutor. I often see that students are not just not able to analyze and think, but do not want to do it - it is easier for them to say "teacher, give us the correct answer, we will repeat it". There are those who are afraid to think, because they believe that they can make a mistake and say something wrong, not the way the teacher expects.</p>
<p>Have you ever used other, simpler interactive ways of interacting with students (question-answer (discussion), unfinished sentence, working in pairs, etc.), when you could not integrate complex tasks aimed at developing critical thinking? If so, which ones?</p>	<p>70% 20% 10%</p>	<p>1. Thick and thin questions 2. Selection of synonyms and antonyms for the word. (Concept wheel) 3. Discussion, working in pairs 4. Able to use only simple 5. Work in pairs, groups, mingling, games, debates, projects, Supplement a sentence, essay, etc.</p>
<p>Do you believe that the low level of language proficiency of schoolchildren does not allow teachers to effectively use complex educational technologies? Have you ever encountered such a problem?</p>	<p>70% 26,7% 3,3%</p>	<p>some students think so, but I suspect that this is the idea of their parents or teachers at school/university</p>
<p>Can you recall cases when active teacher-student interaction and the development of critical thinking were hindered either by the natural shyness of the student, or by the fear of expressing their opinions and participating in the discussion in any way?</p>	<p>73,3% 23,3% 3,3%</p>	<p>this is usually not a natural shyness, but the teacher's unwillingness or inability to listen to the student, as well as the lack of skill to arrange the lesson so that this student is listened to by others when working, for example, in pairs/groups. The fear of expressing an opinion is based on the fear of being punished or judged for this opinion if it differs from the opinion of the teacher/other students or is generally accepted. In other words, again we need to start with the development of tolerance</p>
<p>Have you ever encountered a lack of students' motivation to perform exercises (for example, group discussions or debates, solve complex problems and questions) aimed at developing critical thinking due to a lack of understanding of the positive impact of this ability on their further development?</p>	<p>73,3% 26,7% zero</p>	<p></p>
<p>Have you ever encountered such a case that students use</p>	<p>73,3% 23,3% 3,3%</p>	<p>Sometimes they switch to Russian</p>

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only Russian when completing tasks aimed at developing critical thinking?

If you have encountered any other problems not mentioned in this survey related to the development of critical thinking in high school students in English class, please write them in the line below.

zero zero 100%

"Students do not understand the meaning of such tasks."
"Obstinacy in the sense of" this will not happen on the unified state exam".
"Students are too lazy to perform any tasks of increased complexity."
"Students don't understand why they should do anything other than solve the use tests."
"Students don't have enough ideas when I ask them to organize a debate."

Appendix 2-1

Anastasia Berendeeva
Higher School of Economics, Russia.
asberendeeva@edu.hse.ru

Ask-Based Learning as A Tool for University Students' Motivation Development

Abstract.

The paper is dedicated to the research of Task-based learning as a tool to increase university students' motivation in EFL. The ways to implement TBL in the existing curriculum without vocabulary and grammar loss are described. Results of this research are expected to increase awareness of TBL becoming a solution to resolve the lack of motivation problem.

Key words: Communicative Language Teaching; Task-based learning; motivation; task.

Introduction

Having analysed a number of works related to CLT and TBL, it was found out that there are 7 main characteristics of CLT today namely: learners-centered classroom; adequate exercises; meaningful communication; EFL is a process of “creative use of language, and trial and errors”; multiple intelligence orientation; a teacher as a facilitator; classroom as a community². Due to globalization processes, it is becoming more and more crucial for Russian education to catch up with the European system and the best way to do it is to turn to the CLT classroom step by step. We should turn to a new approach as soon as possible if we want our students to be high-level specialists worldwide. And one of the best ways to do it is TBL implementation.

The **subject matter** of this research is to give an overview of task-based learning, a subtitle of the communicative approach, as a perfect way to inspire university students in terms of English learning. As for the **scope**, the paper will focus on the key principles and specifics of TBL to prove the accuracy of their role in motivation development.

The **purpose** of this paper is an in-depth study of TBL as the best technique for developing university students' motivation. In order to reach the presented goal, we have analysed CLT history, TBL's key principles, university student's motivation in Secondary research part. After that we have looked at TBL methodology coursebook, created our own TBL tasks, implemented them in HSE classroom while conducting an experiment, conducted a questionnaire and an interview to get a feedback.

Secondary research

The core of the TBL approach are Tasks, which are those actions done while understanding the language³, which involve students in interaction in L2 to mobilize all aspects of the target language in order to convey a clear message rather than just focus on form manipulation⁴; goal-oriented and can be achieved in a given time after facing all the

² Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

³ Richards, J., J. Platt and H. Weber. (1986). *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. London: Longman.

⁴ Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based Language Teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press

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challenges⁵. If we look closer at these components of the task presented in the following definition, we can notice that all of them are about motivation.

So, having been introduced by Willis (1996), Task-based learning has proven to be the one that puts children in the first place and gives them an opportunity to ‘discover’ new knowledge by sticking to *cycle*: pre-task, task (+ planning, and report) and language focus. The main *principles* of TBL are: scaffolding, task dependency, recycling, active learning, integration, reproduction of creation, reflection (Nunan, 2004).

The only theory question left to discuss is motivation of university students, who being young adults continue to demand a great amount of knowledge and make their first steps in achieving self-actualization.⁶ Therefore, they need adequate instructions to set goals for every task in order to be motivated to accomplish it. But why motivation is so important? In his work "Motivation and personality" Maslow (1970) refers to motivation as a key to learning in general.⁷ Douglas Brown (1987) summarises that motivation can be viewed from the following perspectives: Behavioristic/Cognitive/Constructivist; Intrinsic and Extrinsic.⁸

5. Primary research

Despite the fact that the vast majority of textbooks are designed on the basis of the traditional approach, there is one methodological coursebook named Cutting Edge which is assumed as nearly the only one based on the TBL approach. Having analysed the units of this book, we have noticed that in spite of claiming to use the TBL approach, methodologists of the Cutting Edge Upper-Intermediate just took some of the TBL techniques omitting such stages as Preparation in the Task part of the cycle and the Language focus. In defense of the book, it can be said that a professionally trained teacher does not need a reminder to discuss the mistakes at the end of the Task cycle but here rises the *query of the paper*: are Russian specialists ready to turn to the TBL approach?

Moving to the English language study at the HSE university, we need to bring up the coursebook we deal with: Outcomes Advanced. The contents of the book are great for the level providing a great vocabulary and grammar, however, as a student, I can say that the coursebook has just a few tasks that can be named communicative, so the focus is again on grammatical competence. After analyzing the Cutting Edge Upper-Intermediate and getting a proper image of TBL tasks, we have designed some TBL tasks based on Outcomes Advance tasks to prove that TBL is more motivating than grammatical approach tasks. To create the tasks unit 8 “Science” from Outcomes was chosen as the target group was dealing with it at that time. Two tasks were designed to cover two 80-minute lessons.

After that a set of experiments were done to observe the change in motivation. During the experiments, students obviously enjoyed being the center of the lesson. Learners interacted with each other and learnt new expressions while doing that. Some people talked more than others but it might be a result of the fact that the format is new for the group, so they needed to overcome their shyness and get used to the idea of being the “leaders” of the lesson. However, it was noticed that one participant tended to avoid talking and sharing his opinion. An explanation for that was found during the questionnaire part: the one was an introvert. That raises a question: what should be done in this case? It is believed that introverts need to get used to people they are talking to, so they also have to adapt to the new format. So, the answer is: time and waiting.

To evaluate on the observations two questionnaires were designed on the google-form platform to compare the motivation of the experimental group and ordinary HSE students from 3 different groups including both second year and third-year students. Moreover, some open questions for interview part were added.

The questions were designed with the purpose to compare involvement in the activities (85% experimental group vs 31% ordinary students), motivation (Intrinsic: 86% vs 12%; Extrinsic: 14% vs 87 %; Behavioristic: 14% vs

⁵Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow: Longman

⁶Craig, G. J. & Baucum D. (2002). *Human development*(9th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

⁷Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper & Row

⁸Brown, D. H. (1987). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

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75%; Cognitive: 57% vs 50%; Constructivist: 71% vs 43%), speaking practice (100% vs 10%) and efficiency of the approaches (100% vs 27%).

During the interview part we found out that experimental group consider all the basic activities of the lesson both from Pre-Task and Task cycles *motivating*. However, two of the respondents raised a *problem of shyness and unpreparedness* of students to work in such a format. Respondents *would be happy to continue* working in such a format. One of them assumes that the format might *not be useful while studying grammar*. Another speaker outlines TBL’s quality of providing a *great speech practice*. Yet, two students consider the *audience to be the main issue* for implementation as they might not have a good English level or they might simply be not in the working mood.

While receiving the answers from the ordinary students, we found out about the *problems* in current EFL education: *the lack of speaking; tasks not connected with reality*. The first issue might be connected with the *organization of the process* itself while the second one is about *learning material* that needs to be chosen properly. As a result, students feel unmotivated which explains the numbers in quantitative research statistics. It is to be said here that both of the problems may be *solved by TBL implementation*.

Conclusion

As a result of all the work done, we have accomplished all our goals step by step and proved that TBL is a good choice for developing university students’ motivation. It is believed that the results of both secondary and primary parts of this research will assist HSE teachers in their TEFL practice and will raise awareness of the possible benefits of TBL as a great approach to increase student’s motivation and competence.

Appendix

Plans of the lessons

Lesson Plan №1

Level of students: University students, upper-intermediate/advanced

Type of the lesson: TBL – Reading **Topic :** _____ Statistics _____

Main goal: to learn how to talk about statistics and present your research using it.

Lesson objectives:

- Communicative ability: to develop linguistic competence in this topic; find out new synonymic expressions for describing statistics; to learn how to conduct your research and present it; to extend the knowledge on different topics of previous units; to develop social competence by group work activities.
- FLL objectives: to evaluate speaking, listening, reading and partly writing skills with the help of the topic.
- Optimal development of personality: cognitive – find out new about statistics, affective- develop the skill to listen to each other and think about other members of the group.

Materials: Outcomes Advanced, p 50 + handouts + polleverywhere.

Place of the lesson in a chain of lessons: the lesson contains the revision of previous units, and provides some vocabulary for IELTS writing and future course-works

Segment	Time	Objective	Description	Difficulties
Pre-task cycle	10-15 minutes	To lead students into the topic; create interest	Warm-up <u>Word-cloud activity.</u> (Individual work) Poll-everywhere platform. https://www.polleverywhere.com What words come to your mind when you hear the word statistics? <u>When do we usually need statistics?</u>	The link might not work. In this case, write the words on the board.

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			<p>Modified Reading ex.A p50. Group work <u>Work in groups of 3. On your cards you have some things that are essential to know about any research. Grade them on a scale 0-5 from least to most important. Be ready to explain your rating.</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who committed the research • Ways to collect data • Whether the sample was big or not • Numbers being in their full context • Data explains the conclusion • Whether the data has been reviewed by peers <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Now let's exchange some ideas.</u></p>	
Preparation to task	15-20 minutes	To find out answers to the questions emerged during the warm-up; to prepare for the project.	<p>Reading – individual work. Exercises-Pair-work.</p> <p>Reading, ex.B p50 Read the text and find out why it is important to know... (board+ ex.A) Do you have any comments on the text? Do you feel that you need to change your rating?</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1) Ex.C p 50 Discuss the questions1, 3,4.</p>	The number of the students might be unequal. In that case, they may work in trios.
Task	40-42 minutes	To learn how to conduct and present research using the target language.	<p style="text-align: center;">1) Task Group-work.</p> <p>In groups of 3 (Mix the previous groups) conduct mini research on the topic you receive. You need to find out relevant information on the topic. The problem of the research you can choose yourself. Don't forget to outline all the necessary points the research should have.</p> <p><u>Topics:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Military conflicts. (unit 6) - Night clubs. (unit 5) - Elections (unit 4) - Ethnic minorities (unit 2) <p style="text-align: center;">Timing: 15-20</p> <p>Planning. Now let's look at the useful expressions on p. 50 which helps to describe statistics. *Give definitions or ask the group who finishes first to look up and present*</p> <p>Now you have 5 minutes to implement as many words from here in your presentation as possible.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Timing: 10 minutes</p> <p>Presentation. So, each group has 3 minutes to present</p>	The number of students may be less than 12, in that case make smaller groups (pairs).

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			<p>your research. Others need to grade them according to the following criteria: speech, number of phrases, originality, structure, and language – each weighs 2 points.</p> <p>The number of students may be less than 12, in that case, make smaller groups (pairs).</p> <p>Timing: 12 minutes</p>	
Language focus	5 minutes	Point out the students' mistakes	During the lesson make notes. After the presentation phase write down the most brutal mistakes. Ask students to find the mistake.	Students might not have mistakes. In that case point, out successful/new/interesting expressions they used today.

Lesson plan №2

Type of the lesson: TBL – Listening **Topic :** Scientists and achievement

Main goal: to learn how to communicate about science, scientists, scientific achievements.

Lesson objectives:

– Communicative ability: to develop linguistic competence in this topic; find out new synonymic expressions for describing research and scientific achievements; to learn how to present your point of view connected with the topic; to develop social competence by working together during the role task – conference.

– FLL objectives: to evaluate speaking, listening, reading and partly writing skills with the help of the topic.

– Optimal development of personality: cognitive – find out new about science and scientists, affective- develop the skill to listen to each other and think about other members of the group.

Materials: Outcomes Advanced, p 52 + handouts.

Place of the lesson in a chain of lessons: the lesson contains the revision of previous parts of the unit, and provides some vocabulary for IELTS speaking and for future course-works.

Segment	Time	Objective	Description	Difficulties
Pre-task cycle	10-15 minutes	To lead students into the topic; create interest	<p>Warm-up</p> <p><u>So, last time you must have discussed the image of the usual scientist. Does it reflect your own view? Do you know any movies or books about scientists? Can you tell your classmates something about the main character? (Class-work)</u></p> <p style="text-align: right;">1) Modified</p>	The students might not know any particular scientists or movies, in that case, give them a hint.

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			<p style="text-align: center;">Vocabulary ex.A p52.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Pair work</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>So, with your descriptions, we have discussed some jobs connected with science and now let’s move on to find out some more of them. You’re going to receive some cards: with the words and definitions. Your task is to match them.²</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Now let’s exchange some ideas.</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>So, the first pair can you tell us about an agricultural scientist, an anthropologist, and an astronomer?</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Are there any groups who have different descriptions of these 3 jobs?</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Which of these jobs do you consider the hardest one? Why?</u></p>	
Preparation to task	15-20 minutes	To find out answers to the questions emerged during the warm-up; to learn something new about scientists; to deal with new vocabulary about the research project presentation; to prepare for the task.	<p style="text-align: center;">1) Listening , p.52 B,C</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Now, we will listen to 5 speakers describing their jobs, your task is to listen carefully and do the tasks B,C on page 52.</u></p> <p>Have you changed your opinion about the hardest occupation? Would you like to do any of these jobs?</p> <p style="text-align: center;">2) Discussion</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Now in pairs discuss the questions in D on p 52. Would you like to share some ideas?</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">3) New vocabulary</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Now you will receive a piece of paper which contains the list of useful vocabulary. Please look through it carefully and choose those phrases that you would like to use during the task.</u></p>	Students might have disagreement about the task, in that case listen twice.

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<p>Task</p>	<p>20-30</p>	<p>To learn how to communicate about scientific achievements.</p>	<p>Task</p> <p>Task. Roleplay.</p> <p>Now all of you will take part in a conference with the president who gave you the task to conduct some research in your field a year ago! Each will get a card with his role which includes your occupation, your discovery and some particular task which you need to do during the play. The common task for all of you is to convince the president that your discovery is the best so that it is you who need to be given a grant for further research. The task for the president is to decide who will get the money. Do not show your card to anyone.</p> <p>Planning.</p> <p>Now you have 2 minutes to reach a decision. The President, The Minister and the Adviser need to discuss who will be given a grant. Others in pairs (divided according to Guess task) will work on “Guess”-part of your task.</p> <p>Presentation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • So, the president speaks first, what is your decision? • Minister, what was your task? • Chandler and Phoebe, what do you think was the adviser’s task? Adviser, is it correct? • Rachel and Daria, what do you assume to be a president’s special task? President, is it correct? • Monika and Joey, what do you consider Chandler’s special task? Is it true? • Ross, who are 	<p>The number of students may be less than 10, in that case, opt out characters with the same special task.</p> <p>Students might not know how to begin, what to say at first – ask additional questions, guide the way.</p>
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			relatives here? Is it correct?	
IELTS PREPARATION – TASSK	0	To prepare for IELTS based on the topic of the lesson.	<p style="text-align: center;">Monologue.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">You are going to give a 1.5 minute talk about science.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Say:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li style="text-align: center;">– whether you like science <li style="text-align: center;">– what science classes you had at school <li style="text-align: center;">– which was the most interesting and why. <p style="text-align: center;">You have 1.5 minutes to prepare. The one who listens should make notes with mistakes and suggestions.</p>	Students might have problems with finding mistakes, in that case, comment on your own, and ask them to name pros of their partner’s speech.
Language focus	5 minutes	Point out the students’ mistakes	<p>During the lesson make notes. After presentation write down the most brutal mistakes. Ask students to find the mistake.</p> <p>After the monologue ask students to review on their partner’s mistakes.</p>	Students might not have mistakes. In that case point out successful/new/interesting expressions they used today.

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Arina Karaseva
State Social and Humanitarian University
Kolomna, Russia
rishik.karasik@gmail.com

Practical Application of Fairy Tale in The Process of Teaching English Grammar to Russian

Younger Students

According to S.I. Ozhegov «A fairy tale is a narrative, usually folk poetic work about fictional persons and events, predominantly featuring magical, fantastic powers» [3].

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It is not a secret for anyone that fairy tales are loved by people of all ages, thanks to it the world around us acquires more colors. A fairy tale constantly accompanies a child in preschool age, but what happens after? Its presence remains important, since a fairy tale is a connecting link in the transition from kindergarten to school. Moving from kindergarten to school, the child is faced with significant changes in his/her activities, interactions and relationships with others.

When lifestyle changes, new responsibilities arise. The leading activity at school is educational and cognitive. It lies in mastering new knowledge. Children receive true knowledge and skills in the process of active mastery of educational material. To assimilate more actively, attention is required from the child to what he is studying. [2]

When a younger student is interested in subject, he will be quicker and easier to learn new material. To maintain a steady interest in learning, the teacher uses entertaining materials. Then, comprehension of the new for younger students becomes an exciting process that brings them the joy of learning something new. Children feel moral satisfaction and pride in their achievements. And there is the help for teacher in didactic fairy tales, which carry on a high educational potential. [2]

Children should be taught to reason about the meaning of fairy tales. Children love to animate objects, natural phenomena, often attribute human properties to animals and plants. It is for this reason that children easily perceive and understand the language of fairy tales, and therefore, together with the fairy tale, they can better learn universal values, learn to draw the line between good and evil, appreciate hard work, and understand what justice, perseverance and courage are. [2]

There are many fairy tales to teach various types of speech activity, however, the modern teaching methodology does not pay attention to teaching children the “boring” English grammar, which is very different from the grammar of Russian. We have developed fairy tales that simply and interestingly explain some of the rules of English grammar.

The topic in which a large number of mistakes are made is the use of the verb “to be” in sentences as this phenomenon is not a common practice for the realities of the Russian language and for this reason cause difficulties for Russian-speaking students.

Fairy Tale 1 (King To Be):

Once upon a time, far far away a king lived in «Grammar» land. His name was “To be” (the teacher writes down “To be” in the center of the blackboard and draws the red crown above “To Be”) his name is translated like «быть, есть, являться (byt', yest', yavlyatsa)» (the translation is written down on the blackboard and is circled by the red chalk (the same as the crown's colour)). “To be” ruled his kingdom wisely and fairly. He had three sons: Am, Is, Are (draws three arrows from Tobe and signs them, draws red crowns (as the king's crown)). And their names were translated just like the name of their father; *Do you see that the crowns are the same color? - Yes, that is; their crowns are their translation. And who do you think was the eldest brother?* (As a rule, children quickly guess that the elder brother is Are as his name contains a lot of letters), and who is the middle and who is younger? (“Is” is the middle as he is in the middle; Am is the youngest).

And so, when the princes grew up, it was time to give them their own possessions with subjects-pronouns. “Are”, as the eldest son and direct heir to the throne, decided that he deserved more possessions than his brothers. He said:

- I need a LOT of everything!

And so he took a huge land and plural pronouns (sign under “Are” “plural” and then “we, they, you” with a translation in a column). “Is” extremely disliked such a situation, he said:

- “Why did my brother take so much? I am worthy to take a lot of things too.”

However, the plural has already been taken, so “Is” decided to take a lot, but in the singular. The subjects were called: He, She, It (the teacher signs under “Is” “singular” and He, She, It with a translation in a column). - “I’m doing fine for now,” said “Is”, and then he went to rule his own land.

The youngest son, being the most modest and honest, came to his father and said:

- “Father, I do not need huge kingdoms and many subjects - “I” am my own servant and king.

That is why “Am” has himself as his servant: I – I (rus. я)

Sometimes princes go out for a walk accompanied by their subjects. Remember, it is impossible for the prince to come up with a proposal without his own subject, for example, I with Is or He with Are, otherwise a war will be started between the kingdoms, and, as we know, war is bad.

When the princes go in the affirmative sentences (with a dot at the end), they first send their subject, and only then they appear.

Look:

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He is happy.
You are good.
I am a pupil.

Please, note that the subject comes in front there, and only then the prince. However, when the prince needs to resolve the issue (question) - he appears at the first place:

Is he happy?
Are you good?
Am I pupil?

Remember this tale, my dear students. We will return to it more than once and find out the sequel!

Fairy tale 2 «Unfriendly Vowels» (opened syllable):

Look at these simple words:

Cut – cute
Kit – kite

Please read these pairs (most of the children read with errors). What is the difference between these pairs of words? (Children's answers) The teacher reads the options correctly. Why do you think these words are read differently? (they have the letter –e at the end)

That's right, and if I add the word Kit - kite - kitte (writes the third word on the board), then how do we read it? (Answers). Read the same as the first. Let's find out what's the matter.

So, (the teacher circles the consonants in blue and the vowels in red) the fact is that in English not all vowels are friendly and they fight, and the consonants separate them. However, the vowels are not so simple to be appeased: the second vowel attacks the first and beat it so that the first will sound like in the alphabet. Look at the word kite: the two vowels are separated by only one consonant-wall, which the letter –e punches and attacks –i, which after the fight, instead of the sound [i] gives us the sound [ai].

What can we do to prevent the vowels from fighting? – we should double the wall. Here's the word kitte, you see, the wall-consonant is doubled. Vowel still has enough strength to break through one wall, but it lacks of strength for another wall.

There is no problem with kit as there is only one vowel, and therefore there is no fight.

How can this fairy tale help us? When we meet an unfamiliar word - we can read it correctly, just look at how the vowels are separated.

Fairy Tale 3 «Degrees of Adjective Comparison»

Well, we know how to form degrees of comparison of monosyllabic adjectives. What adjectives do we call monosyllables? - (Answers). Right, and now we are going to get acquainted with polysyllabic adjectives: these are such adjectives in which more than two syllables are placed. These words are so long that their end drags on the ground and it quickly becomes dirty and we erase it: first we lower the word into “mope” (sea), and then we hang it to dry on the “мост” (the bridge). Please give an example of a polysyllabic adjective - (children's answers). Let's take the adjective beautiful (krasiviy) - beautiful, how do we turn such a word into "krasivee"? - omit the word in ‘mope’ and get - more beautiful, but how do we make the “krasiveyshiy”? - hang the word to dry on the ‘мост’ and get the word - the most beautiful.

This is a funny story that will help you to form the comparative degrees of polysyllabic adjectives correctly. You are just to determine how many syllables are in a word, and if there are more than two, then feel free to recall this tale.

As a result of repeated testing, it was found that the use of fairy tales in teaching English grammar to younger students is an effective method to improve the assimilation of grammatical material, as well as to simplify understanding and memorization of the rules.

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3. <https://gufo.me/dict/ozhegov>

Maximising Task Achievement Score of IELTS Academic Writing Task 1

International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Academic, being the most popular standardised test measuring language proficiency to be taken for the purpose of getting higher education in English, is rather unique in the design of its writing assessment. The first task of the Writing Part of the exam requires students to present a summary of a visual that entails some information, which is arguably a challenging undertaking for students who need to possess specific knowledge as regards the content of their piece of writing. This study is based on the assumption there are more details to consider than the public assessment criteria offer, as those may vary depending on the type of the visual included in IELTS Academic Writing Task 1 (AWT1). The aim is to investigate the specifics of the criteria descriptors “Task Achievement” by reviewing the selected official publications and online material provided by the joint owners of the IELTS exam, and to devise strategies that should be applied in order to complete AWT1 in this aspect at a high score of Band 7.0+ that most educational institutions set as a minimum requirement.

In most of the examinations that measure language proficiency often special focus is given to testing writing skills as these are characterised as productive ones, requiring to utilise the language across almost each of its aspects, and thereby tasks testing them serve as a more reliable indicator of the proficiency level than those focused on receptive skills. Written assessments can include either discrete test items that evaluate the examinee's grammar and (or) lexical language abilities, or integrative items which require the candidate to display both grammar and lexis, as well as to organise the produced written text coherently (Harmer 2004, 40). A wide range of integrated writing task formats can be observed in language proficiency exams, and some of them include input components, often audio- or text-based, sometimes combined, that should be incorporated into writing. On the periphery stand cloze-tests – tasks that require candidates to fill in the gaps in a text, both in terms of lexis and grammar, with lexical items which may or may not be given as multiple-choice options. As regards IELTS Academic Writing Task 1, candidates are asked to use the given visual input as a basis for written output, which requires students to utilise not one, but multiple skills. The data can be presented in one of the following forms: a line graph, a pie- or bar chart, a table, a diagram, or a combination of some of these. This task requires students to analyse and interpret graphic information, thereby utilising a special skillset that has to be developed through specialised training (Rotaru 2018, 64), as some scholars view it.

Visual input is not quite common as a component of standardised written assessment, and the justification for including it in AWT1 seems to lie in the academic settings that this module of IELTS reflects. The types of visuals that might be there are simply the ones that a student of a higher educational institution would typically utilise for the purpose of illustrating data when giving presentations or conducting research. Consequently, one should be ready to describe such visuals both orally and in writing when in academia, and the latter skill is the one reasonably selected to be tested in IELTS Academic. Both of these skills are also included in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (CEFR Companion Volume 2018), where their importance is highlighted and the aspects of such skill are ranked by the CEFR level system, starting with B1. Charts, diagrams, numerical data, and other graphic elements are mentioned as visual components, and the descriptors include such aspects as describing visual information on familiar topics, visualising trends in graphs, commenting on bar charts, highlighting and interpreting the most vital components of empirical data presented graphically. The descriptors in scale increase in their complexity, as well as visuals, from simple ones on familiar topics to elements that serve as an accompaniment to research papers, and the actions needed for interpreting data are also ranged up to the advance level, from stating the most basic facts about the provided information in simple sentences, including a mention of the most significant points, to more and more detailed description of the identified trends. A direct correlation between the skills described above and AWT1 task description can be observed which requires candidates to summarise the information by reporting the most vital features of the input component.

There seems to be a general consensus in the sphere of language education that such reputable standardised proficiency tests as IELTS determine English as a Foreign Language teaching to a certain extent, so that educators are constantly exploring new preparation methods and strategies in an attempt to equip students with

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test-specific exam skills that would boost their scores. However, some of the learners, as well as teachers, never having dealt with description of graphics, appear to be particularly puzzled by the visual component of AWT1 as the study conducted by Rotaru indicates. In this regard, some scholars even question the validity of AWT1 (O'Loughlin and Wigglesworth 2003, Alavi and Masjedlou 2017), but the results of such investigations were called into question as they focused mainly on task design and did not sufficiently account for cognitive aspects. Furthermore, according to the official statistics of the Bands obtained for both tasks of the IELTS Academic Writing (IELTS Test Taker Performance 2018), the average rarely exceeds Band 6.0, and in the vast majority of cases this is the lowest score compared to other three modules of the exam, which defines this part as one of the most difficult to perform for all examinees. One reason might be that the public version of the assessment criteria appears to be rather vague so as to serve as a clear guidance for successful task achievement for those candidates unfamiliar with the basic assessment principles. As another justification might serve the fact that there is a lack of information about the task typology and expected response characteristics that would be openly displayed on the official internet sources, and students and educators turn to numerous textbooks and other available resources, striving to find out more. Therefore, one of the aims of the present research is to analyse the most reputable official resources and their contents in order to single out the typology of visual components that might be included in AWT1. The next aim is to explore the public assessment criteria so as to further detail how they may vary according to those types according to official recommendations. Based on the previous steps, strategies for AWT1 completion will be devised which can serve as a guide for those who wish to maximise their “Task Achievement” score.

Task typology and assessment of AWT1

In this part of the study it is necessary to separately review the website ielts.org as the main source for preparation for the exam in focus, and also identify other official resources by which we would consider those that are verified or issued by the joint owners of IELTS: British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia, Cambridge Assessment English. It is assumed that the information about AWT1 on the official IELTS website is incomplete as regards task typology, and arguably does not allow candidates to get a clear idea of the expected task response. In the subsection “Academic Writing” of the website under consideration, several descriptions of the assignment are given, and each of them contains various facts about the types of visual components. While in one passage only a graph, table, chart, and diagram are mentioned, in the other it is indicated that a process with stages, or how something works, an event, or an illustration of an object might be an input. The website also presents several sample exam tasks, but only for three of the visuals from the description, which may leave candidates puzzled about how other ones would look like and even affect their scores for this task. As for the description that the candidate has to produce, it is mentioned that it is necessary to “describe, summarise, or explain the information in your own words,” or “describe the stages in a process, how something works or an object or event”. In a more detailed explanation of the type and format of the assignment, the verb “describe” is used only in relation to numerical information, and “explain” – to diagrams of processes, devices, or technical structures, without involving illustrations of an object and event. In addition, candidates are strongly encouraged to write in an academic, semi-formal, or neutral style and include the most important and relevant parts of the diagrams in the text, omitting minor parts and details. Next, it is also indicated what the Band can be reduced for: the number of words in the answer is below the minimum of 150 words; there is a discrepancy in the description of the information; the text lacks logic and does not represent a coherent statement (use of the form of notes, abstract enumeration); plagiarism. The major descriptor of the AWT1 assessment criteria is “Task Achievement” as it evaluates the correctness, accuracy and appropriateness of the candidate's response text in accordance with the requirements of the task. However, it simply repeats information from the task description (“Summarise the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant”), which makes it rather general as no correlation can be revealed with the specifics of the types of visual components. For instance, it is unclear what can be considered under “main trends” in a diagram illustrating a process of production.

Information relating to the types of visual components on the official exam website can be characterised as incomplete, since specific examples of tasks for each of them are not given, and when analysing the public AWT1 assessment criteria separately, it is not possible to single out the necessary components that the produced text should include. Therefore, the official resources issued by the exam owners should be drawn in order to explore the typology of visual components, general recommendations and specifics of the requirements. After conducting a research into the official websites of the exam owners, the following accredited educational

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resources were selected for further review: The Official Cambridge Guide to IELTS (textbook); Top Tips for IELTS Academic (textbook); Complete IELTS Bands 6.5-7.5 (textbook); Cambridge IELTS 1-14 (textbook); Mindset for IELTS Level 3 (textbook); Official IELTS Practice Materials 1,2 (textbook); New Insight into IELTS (textbook); IELTS Trainer (textbook); IELTS Preparation Guide (printout); Free IELTS Essentials Preparation Pack (guide); Official IELTS Practice Tests (printout); Understanding IELTS: Writing – Future Learn (MOOC); How to Prepare for IELTS (textbook); Road to IELTS (paid online course). The basic selection criteria were their availability and richness in AWT1 samples, as well as comments from experts or official advice.

In the first stage of the content analysis of the selected resources the focus was placed on the samples of AWT1 and the visual components. The result is illustrated in the table below, where the identified visuals are further detailed and categorised.

Table 1

The typology of AWT1 visual components

Visual component type	Subtypes of visual components
1. Graph	1.1. Combination with a table, bar- or pie chart.
2. Table	2.1. Combination of several tables. 2.2. Combination of a table with a graph, bar- or pie chart.
3. Chart	3.1. Bar chart. 3.2. Pie chart. 3.3. Combination of several subtypes (e.g. two-three bar charts). 3.4. Combination of one of the subtypes with a graph or table.
4. Diagram/flow-chart	4.1. Process of production of something. 4.2. Process of work of a device. 4.3. Process of completing several steps in order to reach a certain goal in a form of a flow-chart. 4.4. Natural process (cycle). 4.5. Combination of a natural and production processes. 4.6. Combination of production processes.
5. Illustration (map/plan)	5.1. One map of an area with several indicated changes. 5.2. Two or more maps of the same location in different time periods. 5.3. Two plans of a premise in different time periods.

Most of the visual component subtypes were identified during the analysis of the Cambridge IELTS 1-14 practice tests, which was made possible only with the purchase of the entire series. As these books presented the largest bank of examination variants, it was also possible to track the frequency of certain types: bar chart, single, in combination of several, or with another subtype (19); pie chart in combination of several, or with another subtype (11); graph, single or in combination with a table, bar or pie chart (11); table, in combination with several or with a graph, bar or pie chart (11); one illustration, or a combination of several subtypes (6); illustration in the form of a map (5) or a plan (2). In the rest of the analysed resources containing examples of AWT, the same trend is identified: most often the components are bar charts, a little less often – graphs and pie charts, even less often – tables, and only rarely – diagrams and illustrations. The subtype of the diagram in the form of a flowchart, was found only during the analysis of the paid online course “Road to IELTS”, where it was repeatedly presented as an exam option. The illustrations of events mentioned as a type of visual component on the official exam website were not found in any of the resources.

The AWT1 assessment criteria were briefly discussed in the first part of this article. They are presented in the form of descriptors ranged on the IELTS point scale for each of the four categories. Given that they are rather general, as stated before, an attempt will be made to devise a more detailed version of the first criterion “Task Achievement”, drawing parallels with the typology of visuals, and to develop strategies of approaching the description. The descriptor in focus can be summarised as follows: the candidate presented a fully developed

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response, which thoroughly satisfies all the task requirements, correctly identified, highlighted and clearly presented all the key features and drew relevant comparisons, illustrating them appropriately, not tending to focus on details.

By reviewing the task description and identifying the key words in it (“Summarise the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant” – to summarise, to select, to report, main features, make comparisons), as well as after conducting a thorough analysis of the official resources, recommendations, typical model responses, the answers of candidates with comments from experts, all relating to AWT1, it was possible to expand the criteria.

Table 2

Extended criteria for AWT1 “Task Achievement” descriptors

-
- the description starts with an introductory sentence that does not represent a complete copy of the statement given in the assignment;
 - a summary of the main features of the displayed information is presented without reporting specific data;
 - in a separate paragraph(s), all the most relevant aspects are described, supported by specific data (graph, table, chart: maximum and minimum values, sharp and (or) long-term changes, their absence or, conversely, abundance; diagram: all stages of the process are described in detail, without logical inaccuracies; illustration: all objects in relation to which changes have occurred are mentioned);
 - it is correctly highlighted in what relations the visual components are, if a combination of several is presented;
 - only the main similarities and differences between the components are highlighted and described;
 - the description includes only the information that is presented in the visual component;
 - no opinion or conclusions are presented;
 - at least 150 words are written.
-

Strategies to maximise Task Achievement scores

The defined AWT1 assessment criteria were extended even further by conducting a more thorough analysis of model answers and comments from experts, and converted into strategies, which, if applied, would greatly increase the chance of candidates receiving Band 7.0+ for this aspect.

The description of the visual component must begin with an introductory sentence, consisting of a paraphrased statement in the given task. Repetitions of words should be avoided by all means if possible, e.g. by using synonyms, reverted word order, generalisations. Apart from that, it is recommended to add general facts about the visual that were not included in its given description in the task, e.g. using its headline and other captions. Further, in at least one sentence, it is necessary to briefly present the main trends of the information depicted, without referring to specific details, e.g. numerical data. This part of the text can be combined with the introductory sentence or be a separate one following it, and also placed as the very last one in the description. Under the main trends different aspects are meant, depending on the typology of the component and its content. Many graphs, tables, bar- and pie charts present information in a variety of categories, typically including various time frames and numerical data. For such types and their subtypes, the main trends will mean the following: static changes in one or more categories of information in relation to the starting and final time points, completely the same or very similar values; the maximum and minimum values, as well as the similarities in numerical data across the categories. One or several main trends should be highlighted in each category – otherwise the response will not be fully developed. As regards the data from diagrams and illustrations, it can be summarised through slightly different generalisations: in the process – by indicating the number of stages, initial condition and the final result; in plans and maps – by mentioning that the changes were significant and stating the possible purpose of their implementation. In the remaining paragraphs candidates should describe in greater detail the most relevant aspects and trends indicated previously, supporting the made statements with details. It is also necessary to highlight the main similarities and differences between them, if possible. If for graphs, charts and tables, such aspects typically would be maximum and minimum values, sharp and (or) long-term changes, their absence or, conversely, an abundance, in diagrams each stage will have to be described in detail, and in the illustrations– a brief enumeration of all changes made to the depicted objects and differences between them.

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The general structure of the text remains the same for each of the types of visual components: the first paragraph is an introductory sentence; the second paragraph – one or more sentences summarising the main features of the information; the third paragraph and the one(s) that follow it – details supporting statements about the main features, covering all aspects and categories. The requirement for writing a minimum of 150 words is also universal, and the optimal range is around 160-175 words, but no more, so as to spend on the task around the recommended 20 minutes and reduce the risk of making language mistakes.

The implementation of some of the distinguished strategies changes if multiple subtypes of visual components are represented in AWT1. The combination of several typologies complicates the task, since during the initial analysis the student needs to determine in what relationship the components are, whether they can be directly compared, or whether they reflect different aspects, but relate to a common topic. Correct or incorrect identification of this can greatly influence the Band for the criterion “Task Achievement” and the general logic of presentation.

If we were to consider, for instance, pie charts, which, judging by the official training manuals discussed previously, usually range from two to six, although a combination of one or several such charts with tables, graphs, or bar charts is possible. In the event that pie charts represent various aspects and categories that are not logically related to each other, it is worth marking such differences in the introductory sentence, e.g. “The first given pie chart illustrates ..., while the second one demonstrates...”, thus drawing a required comparison. In the next or final paragraph, it is also worth highlighting the trends and the most prominent aspects separately for each of the charts. Further, it would be a good strategy to describe the first component in a separate paragraph and do the same with the rest and compare the values within each of them.

It might be the case in AWT1 when several pie charts overlap in terms of the content and include the same categories by sector, but the data varies, e.g. different time frames are depicted, so that it is worth approaching the description in a different way. The first option is to describe in one paragraph the most vivid general trends or changes, and then briefly mention the least striking ones. The second option is to outline the main changes in each of the categories separately, grouping them into paragraphs on this principle. The same logic of presentation should be followed when describing any combination of components consisting of a graph, chart or table.

The description of the details of diagrams and illustrations should be approached in another way given that the information is more graphical and there is rarely any numerical data. In the case of maps and plans, as a rule, these are given in the quantity of two, with an illustration of a terrain (map) or a building (plan) during several periods of time. Candidates should refer to all the depicted objects and indicate the changes made to them, or whether they were introduced at some point, and their sequence should be based on the significance of changes.

The method of describing diagrams illustrating processes is rather complicated to present in a single form, since they can be of different types: mechanical, production, cycle of a natural phenomenon (development of a living being or a plant). Obviously, the introductory sentence is drawn up according to the principle of paraphrasing, and it can also be combined with a paragraph with a summary the main trends, which would be a brief description of the number of steps in the process and its result or the starting and ending points of the cycle. The subsequent detailed description of each of the stages in the process should be presented in two paragraphs, the second of which seems relevant to start with a major stage in the middle of the process. Also, a separate paragraph can be devoted to the final steps.

Conclusions

In the course of this study, the official preparation resources and the recommendations included therein were analysed, and, as a result, a typology of visual components as a part of IELTS Academic Writing Task 1 was formulated, based on which, during further content analysis of the materials, a detailed version of the AWT1 assessment criteria was devised. The research into how the major criterion “Task Achievement” should be reflected in the description of each type of the visual components in order to successfully complete AWT1 resulted in a formulation of several strategies which correlate with the specifics of visuals.

The research results can be used in the future to optimise course programs aimed at preparing candidates for IELTS Academic, constitute a theoretical basis of developing training tasks, as well as short-term training courses for educators who are preparing students for the exam in focus.

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Part IV

LANGUAGE AS A MEANS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Valeriya Bogorodskaya
Higher School of Economics University, Moscow
lerabogorodskaya@yandex.ru

Comparative Cross-Cultural Analysis of Advertising Campaigns

Over a considerable period, intercultural communication as part of different fields of study has applications in a variety of research areas and appears to be the object of study for researchers and scientists. In the current period, the cross-cultural aspect mostly exists in management and business. However, there is no extensive study in intercultural communication as part of the international marketing field. This particular research design foregrounds concern cross-cultural study implementation in different research areas. This paper also aims to shed a light on the significance of applying the intercultural communication concept to different fields of study, as it may develop international business relations and communication. The research employed a qualitative approach and comparative method analysis. In accordance with the purpose of the study, I chose the materials for the research by the fact that comparative analysis requires more descriptive observation. To link together the study of intercultural communication and international marketing, we provide a comparative analysis of Russian and American cultural identities and features within the international advertising campaigns. The significance of the international communication aspect in the marketing analysis will be demonstrated in the research and will be provided with the theoretical and practical backgrounds.

cross-cultural communication, cultural identities, international marketing, intercultural communication, cultural dimensions, advertising campaigns.

In the current period, international marketing is the core field of companies and organizations throughout the world. Many companies undertake deployments outside the country and develop the business in the international market. However, many organizations are faced with the challenge of corporate culture following the cultural identities of foreign countries. Consequently, researchers and scholars all over the world try to examine how the root causes of cultural adaptation problems could be dealt with. Arnold (2004) suggests that international marketing has radically changed in terms of global markets and conventional marketing standards, which include the intercultural communication aspect. Gerbe (2007) assumes that the basic reason for international companies' success depends not only on the modern marketing strategies but actually on specialized marketing concepts, which bound up with cultural identities of a particular country. Dumbrava (2010), in accordance with modern research, explains intercultural business communication by framing which applies to international companies' adaptation.

Cross-cultural communication has always been part of international marketing, as it can lead to successful market entry. Gerbe's research (2007) explains that intercultural communication plays a great role in all the components of international marketing strategy: product mix, distribution, promotion, and communication. For this reason, intercultural communication as an essential part of global marketing nowadays generates scientific interest.

Generally, culture affects all these components within intercultural cooperation. Hofstede (1991) considers cultural differences with regard to region, gender, ethnicity, and generation as leverage for international organization survival in the global market. This study characterizes the process of international marketing and communication collaboration.

Researchers investigate cross-cultural communication as a study which applies to all areas of marketing, especially international marketing. Other scholars highlight intercultural communication within the different components of marketing strategy: budget, positioning, branding, and advertising (Gerbe, 2007; Sadokhin, 2004; Dumbrava 2010). Numerous studies explore cultural identities with the help to adapt all these components of marketing strategy into international business (Popov, 2007; Gerbe, 2007; Usunier 2000; Lafley and Roger, 2013).

In fact, marketing is an essential part of major business industries. FMCG (Fast-moving consumer goods) sector is constantly in everyday demand and mostly depends on the customers' behavior. Many researchers provide FMCG sector cases in their studies (Gerbe, 2007; Lee and Carter, 2009; Ballantyne, Christopher and Payne, 2003) and formulate marketing objectives: advertising and promoting strategies. That is why our research provides the analysis of advertising campaigns in international marketing.

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On the whole, intercultural communication studies point out comparative research based on the analysis of different countries’ cultural identities. In detail, Russian and the USA cultures cover the large scale of cross-cultural analysis, as the Russian and American cultural dimensions are particularly different (Hofstede, 1991; Lewis, 1999; Samovar, Porter and McDaniel, 2013). The purpose of my research is to undertake a comparative cross-cultural analysis of Russian and American advertising campaigns of international FMCG companies. The analysis aims to continue discovering intercultural communication as an essential part of international marketing and, particularly, advertising campaigns, considering the case of “Procter & Gamble”, “Unilever” and “Mars” companies. In this respect, the following questions will be answered in this study:

- 1) Which criteria will be provided in accordance with this research to conduct a comparative analysis between Russian and American cultural identities?
- 2) What are the main differences and similarities between Russian and American cultural identities following cultural dimensions?
- 3) Do the companies consider an intercultural perspective while developing a particular marketing strategy or an advertising campaign itself?
- 4) In case companies provide a cross-cultural communication perspective, which tools does the organization use to make adaptation successful for the whole international company?
- 5) Why is it essential to take into account an intercultural communication study in the adaptation process of international companies’ advertising?

The **practical value** of this comparative analysis is that cultural dimension theory, as well as the intercultural communication concept, can become a core criterion in the process of advertising companies’ development. Along the same line as the advertising strategy changes, this research can prove that intercultural communication can be applied to other fields and industries on the international level.

This particular research refers to the field of study, which focuses on international communication theory in different cultures. Intercultural communication as a research area was established in the 1950s in countries such as the USA, Great Britain, Germany, Spain, and others. However, the main intercultural communication issues are observed in Russia, too.

The concept of intercultural communication was introduced into scientific parlance in the 1950s by the American cultural anthropologist Edward T. Hall and G. Traeger in their work called “Culture and communication. Model of analysis” (1954). Edward Hall defined cross-cultural communication as “the ideal goal that a person should strive for in their desire to adapt to the world around them as most effectively as possible” (Hall, 1954). Based on this concept, it can be observed that intercultural communication means not only the process of studying cultural identities and particular countries’ features but in some part the ability of a particular person to adapt to other cultural conditions and communicate effectively.

Intercultural communication research is the major part of national comparisons theory and also related directly to the organization and management fields of study. Geert Hofstede defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from others” (Hofstede, 2013). Comparing cultural identities, features, and values of a particular nation, Hofstede discovered the cultural dimensions’ theory, which represents the principals of intercultural communication of different nations. This study was able to apply the cross-cultural communication theory in many research areas and marked the beginning of discovering intercultural communication as an essential part of different fields of study.

In the current period, several business and management studies provide research with the international communication concept. Gerbe (2007) dedicates his research to account for the correlation between international marketing and intercultural communication. He describes the process of business adaptation to the international market with the help of modern cross-cultural theories, which have a particular set of rules and features to have an ability to be involved in the process of international business communication successfully.

To give a broader theoretical basis to the research, it is necessary to consider the study by Usunier (2000), which investigates intercultural communication as the major concept of marketing. He provides his study with the term “Intercultural marketing”, which is described as “the localizing as much as globalizing; it aims to customize product and marketing strategies to customer needs within the framework of a global strategy” (Usunier 2000). From Usunier’s (2000) perspective, cross-cultural theory plays a major role, especially when it connects with

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products of daily demand (FMCG). He proves this particular statement with the fact that everyday products are highly culture-bound for the reason that different nations have their values and behavioral features.

Rozanova and Shubenkov (2009) in their study describe the main principals of developing modern international marketing theories. They provide different examples of successful intercultural relations between FMCG companies with the help of global marketing and cross-cultural communication studies. Rozanova and Shubenkov’s main idea (2009) could be described as an investigation of the concept of macro marketing as globalization in business relations to fully realize potentially important implications.

Studies on intercultural communication and international marketing put forward the comparative cross-cultures analysis, based on cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2013), which offered a new explanation for developing strategies and frameworks of modern intercultural communication theory’s implementation. Numerous research provide Russian and American cultures as an example of cross-cultural comparative analysis, in the reason that the cultural values and features of these both nations have completely different cultural dimension’s levels (Hofstede, 1991; Lewis, 1999; Samovar, Porter and McDaniel, 2013; Gerbe, 2007; Usunier, 2000; Popov, 2007; Rozanova and Shubenkov, 2009).

A considerable amount of valuable work on modern marketing theories has been done to provide a solid grounding for the intercultural communication concept as part of the international marketing field of study and other research areas. However, the potential application of the cross-cultural aspects in international marketing requires a lot of further investigation. Above all, the **purpose** of this research is to conduct the comparative cross-cultural analysis of advertising campaigns in international marketing to estimate the transferability of the intercultural communication theories in the process of creating advertising strategies, which should be adapted to other cultures’ identities, values, and features successfully. Along the same line as the purpose, to highlight the importance of applying the intercultural communication concept to different fields of study, as it may develop international business relations and communication. Thus, the following study question is formulated.

In my study, I aim to describe, analyze and compare features and dimensions of Russian and American cultures and, in accordance with this study, provide research, based on the comparative cross-cultural analysis of both nations’ advertising. The first part of the proposal pinpoints the key features of a cross-cultural theoretical basis, whereas the second part of the research gives special emphasis to the analysis of the concept of intercultural communication in advertising campaigns in The USA and Russia within the international marketing field of study.

This particular research employs qualitative methods, as I will conduct the study with non-numerical data. To answer the main questions of this study, I will apply cross-cultural comparative analysis to estimate the implementation of international communication and cultural dimension theories in international marketing.

The first part of the research mostly provides a descriptive approach and theoretical background of the study. The second part, on the whole, focuses on the comparative analysis and provides the successful and failure examples of the particular cultural features adaptation into the correlation of intercultural communication and international marketing. In the same way, this part of the proposal aims to highlight the significance of applying the intercultural communication concept to different fields of study, as it may develop international business relations and communication.

This research will employ written texts and promotional videos of Russian and American advertisements of “Procter & Gamble”, “Unilever” and “Mars” products. In accordance with the purpose of the study, the materials were chosen by the fact that comparative analysis requires more descriptive observation. All the materials will be taken from printed sources, television advertisement programs, and Internet sources (promotional videos).

This research assumes a particular significance to the intercultural communication study. It highlights the cultural identities of Russian and American cultures and provides the cross-cultural aspect into the process of adaptation of international companies’ advertisements to the nation. This study aims to develop the implementation of intercultural communication theory to the international marketing field of study. Thus, it can also describe successful and failure cases of advertisement campaigns’ adaptation to the international FMCG market. On general grounds, it is expected to find an implementation of cross-cultural features into the marketing strategy while creating an international advertisement. Thus, it is anticipated to provide new theoretical developments and practical outcomes in accordance with comparative analysis and the whole research.

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The results of this study may be used for further research on intercultural communication and international marketing. This study could give a clear perspective for the further research of intercultural communication as part of different fields of study and help to prevent emergent problems in the process of marketing globalization.

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Polina Bylova
Higher School of Economics, Moscow
pdbylova@gmail.com

Body Positivity as a Discursively Construed Phenomenon

Increasingly gaining popularity on social media platforms, the body positivity movement is aimed at abolishing social stigma based on physical appearance. At present time the cultural norm of a person’s physical appearance is characterized by the need to subordinate all bodily manifestations to a set of social norms, which is the reason for alienation from the body and adopting a set of practices for controlling and modifying its appearance. An attempt to solve this problem is often seen in removing the cultural taboo from diverse bodies.

Body image, which is a subjective perception of one’s own body that has form of a spatial mental image (Schilder, 1999, 11) is developing in the process of interpersonal communication and interaction with beauty standards promoted by media. Body shaming and unrealistic beauty ideals often result into negative body image. Body positivity movement presents the idea that all people should attempt building positive body image regardless of their appearance, height, weight, skin colour etc. Currently this spontaneous social activism movement becomes a significant sociocultural phenomenon that has a serious impact on modern media. Throughout the 2010s the media coverage of body positivity was hugely increasing. Body positivity activists are taking an attempt of abolishing discriminatory sociocultural practices by transforming the discourse: the language used to describe the body is changed in accordance with rules of political correctness. Lexical substitutions allow to encode the message in such way that the recipient has no negative associations while reading about diverse bodies, their characteristics and functions.

People with disabilities belong to stigmatized social groups. The reason why this social stigma emerged is the high value of health in traditional agricultural societies with economy based on physical labour. Good health of traditional society members guaranteed its preservation and prosperity. Being associated with ritual or metaphysical purity, such values were also supported by ancient religions. Later, with the spread of Christianity the dichotomy of body and soul, in which the spiritual dimension of human personality prevails over the bodily, opens the possibility for overcoming the disability stigma. Having a significant influence on the culture of Europe and the United States, this religion requires its followers to treat disabled people with proper care and respect.

However, negative stereotypes about disabled people remained to exist. With the development of industrial culture and consumerist society, the value of a person was still viewed entwined with their ability to produce material wealth. Despite the fact that in the modern post-industrial society the value of intellectual work is widely recognized, the attitude to the survivors of physical trauma, injuries or diseases is still prejudiced. Common stereotypes about disabilities reinforce the image of a person who doesn’t take active participation in social life.

Social stigmatization of disability is manifested both in sociocultural and discursive practices. On sociocultural level it is manifested as refusal of respect and care, perceived low value in the society, distancing and labour

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discrimination. The practice of excluding people with disabilities from society, assigning the stigma of “inferiority” to them is reflected in media discourse by showing a condescending attitude, or an excessive amount of sympathy in those areas of life that are not actually affected by disability. Therefore, a tendency of acquiring the neutral lexical units for describing the state of having disability and related bodily manifestations (e.g. injuries) and removing the units with negative connotations becomes apparent.

In body positivity discourse, there’s an attempt to overcome the influence of negative stereotypes about disability. The body of a person with disabilities is discursively construed in such way that it is portrayed as one endowed with physical and mental strength despite the minor limitations imposed by illness or injury. A person with disability is seen as fully able to overcome any challenges in daily life. The linguistic means construing the image of body with disabilities found in the articles of “disabilities” column published in the American daily newspaper The New York Times include the following:

A) In order to follow the modern requirements of political correctness, the previously neutral vocabulary used to denote disabilities becomes a taboo; there is a need to replace all negative meanings. Commonly used in the past, such lexical units as “invalid”, “handicapped”, “differently-abled”, “crippled” acquired a strong negative connotation. As the popularity of body positivity increases and new requirements for political correctness emerge, the frequency of the word usage decreases, and those lexical units are replaced such words as “disabled” or “with atypical body”. In order to avoid negative connotations, the lexical units “neurodiverse”, “with special needs” are used for referring to disabilities caused by a mental disorder.

B) A verbal indication of a person with disabilities being an important part of the society being a professional, a student, a sports person etc. Thus, this attitude challenges the negative stereotype that disability is an obstacle to educational and professional activities, that it erases the person from public life and makes them “dysfunctional”:

“In his restaurant, however, many customers never knew that he couldn’t see them. He was a master at what is referred to in the industry as touching the table - a personal visit to make sure customers were happy” (Severson, 2020).

C) A verbal indication of daily difficulties faced by people with disabilities and their relatives due to social stigma and insufficient support from the state and the society, a realistic description of the problems people with disabilities face when they are seeking medical care and financial support.

D) Verbal indications of valuable experiences that people without disabilities can get while socializing with disabled people, which are aimed at debunking the stereotype that it is hard to maintain a meaningful communication with disabled people.

“When children help with the education of a brother or sister with special needs, the outcomes are often good for both” (Landman, 2020).

E) Verbal indications of disability as a means of adaptation to difficult life conditions or a key to discovering the world from a different perspective.

“Because I can walk short distances, strangers judge me for using a wheelchair. But it allows me to be the parent my active toddler needs” (Slice, 2020).

Thus, as it could be seen from articles and other materials published in The New York Times, the following elements of disability discourse could be distinguished: the image of a disabled person is construed by indication of their professionalism, daily struggles with the negative consequences of social stigma, the ways communication with disabled people can enrich one’s social experience.

Older people are another heavily stigmatized social group. Bodily manifestations of aging process are marginalized and kept out of public discourse. This social stigma is based on prejudice against older people rooted in a stereotypical idea of their feebleness and lack of independence, being dependent on other people’s help, inability to use modern gadgets etc. These prejudices lead to such discriminatory sociocultural practices as employment age restrictions, obstacles to getting medical care and financial support.

Certainly, aging body becomes a part of marginal discourse due to the association between young age and physical strength, working capacity, and fertility. Since the age of Neolithic cultures young age of a tribe member was vital for supporting its existence. Discrimination against older people simultaneously emerged in cultures of different countries, people that lost their working capacity with age were prevented from living in their family’s home and sharing meals.

A significant part of body positivity agenda is concerned with the fight against aging body marginalization. Body positivity movement activists are striving for building a positive body image in elderly people, which also means respectful representation in media. Text analysis showed that the following linguistic means served to construing an image of an elderly person:

A) The verbal indication of an individual’s perception of their own age as less than the actual, their sensation of inner youth despite their advanced age. Aging is construed as dependent on the subjective experience.

“I don’t let age stop me. I think it’s a mind-set, really” (Laber-Warren, 2020).

B) The verbal indication of retaining working capacity, being physically and mentally able enough to pursue a career, as opposed to the common negative stereotype of older people associated with inability to take responsibility.

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“Kay Abramowitz has been working, with a few breaks, since she was 14. Now 76, she is a partner in a law firm in Portland, Ore. - with no intention of stopping anytime soon.” (Miller, 2017).

C) Positively indicated bodily manifestations of aging, such as the changes in appearance reflecting older age. In addition to body acceptance, it is encouraged to boycott the practices of taking control over physical appearance and pursuing a “youthful” look (plastic surgery, hair colouring, etc.) Human face is described by the conceptual metaphor of a “life map” in which wrinkles are conceptualized as “paths” that refer to the key milestones, the personal journey.

“Calling her face, a map, she rejects the surgery that would erase her history” (Applewhite, 2017).

D) The use of humour while talk about age and aging.

“Old is my current age + 4” (Petrow, 2018).

E) At the same time, there is also an indication of discriminatory practices, such as neglect in nursing homes and limited access to proper medical care, dissatisfactory life conditions and involuntary distancing from their relatives. Article authors draw the reader's attention to existing social issues caused by the old age stigma.

E) Using the term “ageism” for referring to discriminatory sociocultural and discursive practices that affect older people.

“In America, ageism is a bigger problem for women than aging” (Monteiro, 2019).

Summarizing all of the above, the following features of construing an elderly person image in modern English-language media can be distinguished: age is presented as a matter of inner subjective experience, aging body - as a visible manifestation of personal history and valuable life experience. On the other hand, there is also an indication of vulnerability of elderly people and discriminatory sociocultural practices threatening them.

Fat stigma is another crucial part of body positivity movement agenda. For centuries excess body weight was perceived positively, as far as it was associated with access to material wealth and even political power. Having excess weight was associated with noble origin, wealth and being influential in the society. On the contrary, low body weight had a strong association with lower positions of social hierarchy, poverty and lack of nutrition.

With the development of fast food industry in the beginning of 20th century the availability of highly affordable dishes with reduced cooking and consumption time is steadily growing. At the same time, the “healthy food” culture emerges. Designed to be conceptually opposite to fast food, “healthy” products were characterized by organic ingredients and higher prices. These social and economic factors caused a major shift in body weight perception: slim and fit body without any excess weight becomes an aesthetic ideal and a symbol of higher income and healthy lifestyle, while even healthy bodies with excess weight become marginalized. Consequently, the discursive practices contributed to the further spread of fat stigma by promoting the idea of having a slim body as the only way of following the modern beauty ideal.

Sociocultural practices related to fat stigma include bullying, employment discrimination and anti-fat bias in healthcare. All these discriminatory practices are reflected in discursive practices - the image of a full-bodied person in media was originally construed by adopting common negative stereotypes, such as portraying people with excess weight as “lazy” and “lacking willpower”. The existence of fat stigma is confirmed by the “Joint international consensus statement for ending stigma of obesity” published in March 2020 (Rubino *et al.*, 2020).

Thus, the messages influenced by body positivity are aimed at changing the perception of excess body weight by overcoming negative stereotypes and building a positive body image. The analysis of the articles containing verbal portrayal of bodies with excess weight that were published in The New York Times, including the coverage of body positivity movement agenda, the following verbal means of construing an overweight body can be distinguished:

A) The word “fat” is often replaced by a huge variety of politically correct synonyms. This replacement serves for the purpose of omitting the word that became loaded with negative connotations and replacing it with lexical units that are neutral or bear the semantical component of positive evaluation: “curvy”, “plus size”, “people of size”. There is also a tendency of reclaiming the word “fat”, the followers of the body positivity movement consciously use it for neutralizing negative connotations. The media usage of such lexical units as “overweight” and “morbidly obese” (both have origin in medical terminology) becomes the subject of taboo.

B) The verbal indication of fat stigma and evidence proving its existence, as well as the need to overcome it: message authors of the messages use the concepts of fatphobia and fat shaming related to sociocultural practices of bullying, insulting and body shaming based on individual’s weight.

C) The verbal indication of “plus size bodies” as a source of aesthetic pleasure, as well as subjective experiences reflecting positive body image: “being proud of yourself”, “loving yourself”, “loving your body” despite having excess weight. These messages are challenging the beauty standards predominant in modern Western culture.

“Ms. Holliday is not only unapologetic about her size-22 body, she is proud of it, with a confidence has catapulted her to mainstream fame” (Salam, 2017).

D) The verbal indication of the existing need for media visibility and inclusiveness, such as hiring plus size models and actors, normalizing diversity in entertainment, visual arts and fashion industry.

“She’s putting it on the map for people to be inclusive ... Plus size, white, black. It’s good for young women to see different types of people in a fashion show” (Kurutz, 2017).

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Text analysis showed that modern requirements of political correctness including the ones that were shaped by body positivity movement influence brought many changes to the language of the media when it comes to portraying people with excess body weight. All bodily manifestations are construed by means of lexical substitution. Moreover, positive body image is built through positive evaluation and replacing past aesthetic ideals of human appearance with more inclusive and diverse concepts of beauty.

Since the body positivity movement is a phenomenon that is currently gaining more popularity and has a significant impact on modern Western culture, its media coverage increases. The existing connection between the cultural norms of human appearance and prescribed beauty practices led to marginalization of bodily manifestations that fall out of current cultural norms.

Thus, the construction of body image by means of the language was examined in relation to three social groups, which members' rights for respectful and unbiased attitude are widely recognized by the followers of body positivity movement: people with disabilities, elderly people and people with excessive weight. As it could be seen from text analysis, the ideological requirements set the ground for the further changes in the language of media. Though there are some discrepancies between the discourses of different groups, it is still possible to conclude that there are common linguistic means used for discursive construction of disabled, aging and plus size bodies. Such means include lexical substitution and omitting the words that may have negative connotations, neutral or positive image of marginalized bodily manifestations and verbal indication of discriminatory practices against these social group. In addition to that, the need to abolish the stigmatization of diverse body is commonly recognized.

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Cultural issues in translation

Language is the main form of existence of any national culture. It is the external manifestation of the character and the soul of any nation. As a part of the world’s evolutionary path language and its components are developing depending on the changes in spiritual and material social life. This means they reflect the historical appearance of a nation, its moral standards and ethical values, its ability to perceive and assess the actual reality. Language accumulates nation’s psychology and transmits it in the process of intercultural communication.

Most directly culture is reflected in fiction. That is why the problem of language-culture connection is of great interest to theory and practice of literary translation. Allocation of cultural component in the lexis of a literary text gives an opportunity to explore its language in reflecting cultural features of a nation.

When comparing worldviews of different cultural communities, we can single out mismatches of some elements of environment. That is because each culture contains its own characteristic features that are alien and confusing to other cultures. These differences create particular difficulties in translation.

In the original text we see the worldview that had gone through the lens of the author’s individuality. And in translation there is an opposition of two views that had got a specific refraction both in the author’s and the interpreter’s minds. The first view of the world exists in the source language, the second one is determined by the target language.

The ability to convey the cultural originality of the text is one of the most difficult components of creating the adequate translation. It requires from the interpreter not only the accurate conveyance of the meaning, the exact literary style, the preservation of language characteristics of the author, but also the compulsory transfer of the cultural specificity of the source text.

National colouring is an integral part of any text. Every work is created in the conditions of the country where the author lives. Therefore, the country with its language, way of life, historical background, political and economical atmosphere and many other factors influence the text. It acquires the national colouring of the country even if the author does not think of creating of a work that would be nationally coloured. Interaction between two or more cultures in the process of translation results in a creation of a ‘hybrid’ text, which appears in the target culture by adopting some of the features of the text in the source culture. As a matter of fact, a hybrid text can be described as a product of a compromise between two or more cultures.

Many scientific researches expressed the idea of preservation of traditional colours. Some of them marked that translators should not create national colouring artificially with the help of false realia. On the other hand, the usage of all true realia can overload the translation and draw too much attention. But if the aim of the source text’s author is to satiate the text with elements of ethnocultural origin on purpose, then the translator has to keep this intention in the target text. The passage from the novel “The picture of Dorian Gray” by Oscar Wilde and its translation made by V. Chukhno can be held up as an example:

“...mad gypsies tore wild music from little zithers, or grave yellow-shawled Tunisians plucked at the strained strings of monstrous lutes, while grinning negroes beat monotonously upon copper drums, and, crouching upon scarlet mats, slim turbaned Indians blew through long pipes of reed or brass, and charmed, or feigned to charm, great hooded snakes and horrible horned adders... He had the mysterious juruparis of the Rio Negro Indians, that women are not allowed to look at, and that even youths may not see till they have been subjected to fasting and scourging, and the earthen jars of the Peruvians that have the shrill cries of birds, and flutes of human bones such as Alfonso de Ovalle heard in Chile, and the sonorous green jaspers that are found near Cuzco... the long clarin of the Mexicans, into which the performer does not blow, but through which he inhales the air; the harsh ture of the Amazon tribes, that is sounded by the sentinels who sit all day long in high trees, and can be heard, it is said, at a distance of three leagues; the temponaztli...” [Wilde 1994: 155].

“...лихие цыгане исторгали страстные мелодии из своих маленьких цитр, величавые туниисцы в жёлтых шальях перебирали туго натянутые струны уродливых по форме лютной, белозубые негры, широко улыбаясь, монотонно ударяли в медные барабаны, а стройные, худошавые индийцы в чалмах сидели, поджав под себя ноги, на алых циночках и, наигрывая на длинных камышовых и медных дудках, заклинали (или создавали видимость, что заклинают) больших ядовитых кобр и рогатых гадюк... В его коллекции был таинственный «хурупарис» индейцев Рио-Негро, на который женщинам смотреть запрещается и даже юношам не дозволено его видеть до тех пор, пока их не подвергнут испытанию постом и бичеванием плоти. У него были перуанские глиняные кувшины, издающие звуки, подобные пронзительным крикам птиц; флейты из человеческих костей, которым некогда внимал Альфонсо де Овалле, когда бывал в Чили; находимая близ Куско “поющая” зелёная яшма... и длинный мексиканский clarin, играя на котором нужно не дуть, а, напротив, втягивать в себя воздух; и резко звучащий «туре» амазонских племён, которым пользуются

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часовые, сидящие весь день на высоких деревьях; звук этого инструмента слышен за три лье: и «тепонацтли»...» [Уайльд 2004: 193-194].

This fragment contains three asterisks to the words *clarin*, *Cuzco* and *Alfonso de Ovalle*. The text is very rich in foreign interspersing. But it was the author’s intention, so the translator didn’t have to adapt the text for the readers.

By accepting the opinion of famous scientists, we can say that the process of translation is not just a mechanical transfer of the words into another language. Besides, the diversity of a foreign culture is created not only by realia but also by associations and images that appear in readers’ minds due to words with extra background and connotative information. They reflect some cultural features, aspects of people’s life, thinking and behaviour.

The brightest representatives of the connotative words are realia, non-equivalent lexis and foreign language inclusions. This group of words may also contain lexis that has various lexical background. So, the host of national colouring may be a unit or a piece of text that doesn’t necessarily indicate any realia. The translation of such elements requires certain background knowledge from the translator. Such lexis cannot be considered as realia regarding the wide range of its referent distribution and the lack of connection with the certain country or nation. For example, in Russia mandarins (or their scent) are associated with New Year celebrations that can be completely incomprehensible for representatives of other cultures.

Most commonly adaptation technique is used in translation of such connotative lexis. The main task of the translator in this case is to evoke a reader of the translated text the same associations that has a reader of the original text. If this doesn’t succeed a reader perceives the images in a slightly distorted way. It is important to note that in some cases the translator has to deal with an opposite challenge – to neutralize national colouring. Sometimes punctuating of national features doesn’t bring the describing environment closer to recipients but on the contrary emphasizes its foreign nature. Y. A. Sorokin considers that abuse of exotic elements leads to opacity of the text. Under this approach the text transforms into one large piece of foreignness, it doesn’t give the readers an opportunity to understand it properly [Сорокин 1988: 76-83].

A word with all its characteristic features addressed to its national reader is understood automatically. To be fully taken by an international reader a word needs an explanatory commentary. Otherwise a loss of transmitted information is formed. In text adaptations translators often have to change the form of the source text by adding cultural asterisks or footnotes with the translation of some statements that are clear to readers of the original text. For example, R. Zelazny uses a great number of allusions and references in his famous series of novels “The Chronicles of Amber”. They can be understood only by experts in particular area. That is why the interpreters found it necessary to add asterisks to all lexical items with specific meaning:

“The .32 automatic, belonging to the nameless individual at Greenwood, was in my right-hand jacket pocket. I suppose that if Greenwood or my sister wanted me picked up in a hurry, a Sullivan violation would come in handy” [Zelazny: http://webreading.ru/sf_lsf/roger-zelazny-nine-princes-in-amber.html].

“Пистолет, прихваченный в клинике «Гринвуд», я сунул в правый карман пиджака. Если тот тип или моя неведомая сестрица Эвелин хотели засадить меня в тюрьму, то сейчас повод был бы идеальный: незаконное ношение оружия. Поправка Салливана” [Желязны 2008: 15].

The translation of this text portion has an explanatory commentary to the words “Sullivan violation”:
“Вторая поправка к конституции США предусматривает право граждан на свободное ношение оружия. Однако ныне в США действует так называемый “закон (или поправка) Салливана”, принятый в 1968 г. И предусматривающий контроль федеральных и местных властей за приобретением, хранением, ношением и использованием гражданами огнестрельного оружия” [Желязны 2008: 1257].

The conveyance of national originality of fictional texts in translation is one of the most difficult and challenging tasks. It performs not only by means of various techniques and methods of translation of background information but also due to creative reconstruction of the whole idea and art content of the text. The author’s attitude and style of writing must be also preserved. Translators find the most appropriate way of adaptation relying on his or her own experience, intuition and background knowledge. Every nation is proud of its history and traditions. It is a great loss when the translator doesn’t manage to convey the national colouring or if he or she conveys it wrong. That is why the translator must be very attentive and careful with any kind of literary work.

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Elizaveta Kryukova
HSE University, Russia
liza.kryukova1998@gmail.com

**Cross-cultural Organizational Conflicts and Ways of their Resolution
(Elaboration of Coursera Online Course Materials)**

Conflict resolution ought to be one of the essential skills in the realm of cross-cultural communication. It should be possessed by all negotiators who interact with foreigners and representatives of other cultures, whether it is a student or a well-known entrepreneur. It is especially true in the business world where people in business need to be skilled at communication not only with domestic partners but with the international ones as well. Due to the lack of knowledge in cultural differences and organizational conflict resolution, many enterprisers frequently face difficulties while interacting with international partners.

cross-cultural communication, conflict resolution, organizational communication, online education, Coursera

In the fast globalizing world, it is a necessity to be culturally aware and to have well-developed skills in conflict resolution. It is especially true in the world of business. From practical experience, it is clear that multinational companies and organizations tend to have conflicts concerning the diversity of cultures, miscommunication, misunderstanding, and many others. Successful managers need to know the premises of such conflicts, how to handle them, and what is the nature of a conflict in general.

To obtain conflict resolution skills, an entrepreneur needs to complete a particular course dedicated to it. However, it is not always possible due to the lack of spare time. That is why an online course is an excellent resolution in such a situation. In the current research, not only the role of conflict is analyzed, but the role of online education in the modern world as well. The development of distance education and e-learning is described, the emergence of MOOCs is outlined, and the structure of the Coursera platform, which serves as a prototype for the future materials of the online course is covered.

The current research is aimed at elaboration of new and unique materials for an online course dedicated to cross-cultural organizational conflict resolution that is created from a prototype of Coursera. As in the Coursera platform structure, the materials are logically divided into five weeks, where each of the weeks covers one topic:

Week 1. Cross-cultural communication and conflict resolution (during the week culture’s features through G. Hofstede’s cultural dimensions are analyzed, the way they affect the emergence of conflicts is covered and the peculiarities that different cultures possess are noted);

Week 2. The premises of a conflict (during the week the motives of conflicts and the background information that is required to know are covered, “Circle of Conflict” model by Gary T. Furlong is provided as a template for conflict premises analysis);

Week 3. The preventive techniques to avoid the conflict (during the week the existing preventive techniques are enumerated, and the way they can be applied to prevent conflict situations are stated);

Week 4. The conflict-handling strategies and the role of a mediator (during the week the five common handling techniques are described, the way these strategies should be used are stated, situational considerations that might affect the choice of an appropriate conflict-handling intention are analyzed, the mediation sessions (pre-caucuses sessions and a joint session) are presented);

Week 5. A case study (during the week the students are to analyze the conflict situation applying all that they have learned during the course, including Cultural Dimensions, the Premises of a Conflict, the Preventive Techniques, and the Handling Strategies).

All parts (weeks) of the course (except for the last one) will include: 1) lectures on particular topics, 2) auxiliary texts for self-study (including textbooks and examples of real cases), 3) test and questionnaires at the end of the

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topic. Test and questionnaires will be presented as the following types of exercise: 1) answering the question, 2) matching, 3) filling the gaps. At the end of the course during the fifth week, students are to do a case study that aims at resolving a conflict applying all that they have learned during the course. The case study ought to be checked by the instructors and is defined as the end of the course.

In the current research, all the materials are presented in the written form as the scripts for the future online course. Each part of the chapter is dedicated to a particular week of the course. Each part (except for the last one) contains two or three lectures, one test or questionnaire, additional texts to study.

- Learning objectives
- To introduce students to the subject, the fundamental theoretical and practical issues of modern organizational conflict resolution in the realm of cross-cultural conflicts
- To learn how to apply the model of cultural dimensions, preventive techniques, and conflict-handling strategies in practice, to learn how to analyze the premises of cross-cultural and organizational conflict situations.
- The ability to identify typical conflict situations, as well as the specificity of their emergence
- Knowledge of modern theories of conflict-management, the nature of conflict as specific features of social interaction, the primary strategies for conflict-handling
- The ability to identify and analyze the premises of conflict situations and techniques that might be applied to prevent conflict situations
- Skills in performing primary analysis and interpretation of culture’s actions in a conflict situation

This lecture will be dedicated to the description of the course. To be able to resolve conflicts efficiently, you need to know the premises of these conflicts, what factors may lead to them, what handling techniques you may use. If we speak about cross-cultural conflict emerging in companies and organizations, first of all, we should consider cultural differences as the primary source of conflicts. The first week of the course will be dedicated to the analysis of culture’s features through Geert Hofstede’s cultural dimension theory and how these cultural differences may lead to a conflict situation. During the second week, we will analyze other factors that might be sources of conflict (not only cross-cultural ones), what background information of participants we should consider while examining the premises of conflict using Gary T. Furlong’s “Circle of conflict” model. Not all situations may lead to a conflict, especially if you are aware of the preventive techniques that help to avoid conflict. Our third week will be dedicated to this topic; we will discuss the existing techniques, how they can be applied to prevent conflicts and how to choose a particular technique. On the fourth week, we will describe the five existing handling strategies thoroughly. Then we will come up with strategies suitable for cross-cultural conflicts. Also, we will analyze how these strategies should be used and what situational considerations we should pay attention to that might affect the choice of an appropriate conflict-handling intention. At the end of the course, students will have to do case studies’ analysis applying all the information that they will learn during the course. Throughout the course, at the end of the week, students will need to complete small tests based on the topic they have learned. Welcome to the course, let’s get started!

In this lecture, we will analyze cultural diversity as the main source of organizational conflicts. First of all, we should consider the organizational culture of a company in order to find cultural peculiarities in it. One of the most influential theoretical and practical methods for studying organizational cultures is the parametric method provided by Geert Hofstede. The model of cross-cultural research developed by Hofstede is focused on identifying cross-cultural contrasts and, as a result, common characteristics within cultures. In general terms, four main parameters can be described as the following:

Power Distance (PD). It involves the perception of power, the degree to which members of society, institution, or organization with relatively less power expect and allow an uneven distribution of power and accept differences in the position and status of individuals.

Individualism vs. Collectivism (IDV). Individualism, as opposed to collectivism, is an inclination towards personal goals.

Masculinity vs. Femininity (MAS). Masculinity, unlike femininity, has a focus on achieving results, moving up the career ladder even at the expense of personal life. It is associated with persistence, competition, independence, assertiveness, and success. Conflicts often have a hidden nature, and their settlement is carried out through negotiations.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI). This term involves features of perception and the degree of acceptance/rejection of situations of uncertainty, of something new and familiar.

Subsequently, G. Hofstede developed his theory with the other two dimensions: Long-term orientation vs. short-term orientation and indulgence vs. restraint (IVR). Long-term orientation involves planning for the future and

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perseverance values, while short-term is oriented at the past and the present. Indulgence allows the gratification of basic impulses and having fun while restraint is regulating everything through strict social norms.

Having learned the given model of cultural dimensions, you may have a question, “How can we determine whether a culture/organization belongs to a particular dimension?” If a culture or organization belongs to a particular dimension, it will have a set of specific features that are presented in the table where you can also find tips for determining (and behaving with) each of dimension’s representatives:

Dimension	Characteristics	Tips
High PDI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Centralized organization -Complicated hierarchies -Significant gaps in compensation, respect, and authority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Confirm the status of a leader -One may need to go to the top to get the needed answers
Low PDI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Flat organizations -Employers and employees are almost equal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Delegate what is possible -Try to involve in the decision-making session those who will be affected
High IDV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -People’s time, privacy and freedom are highly valued -Challenging, enjoy being rewarded for work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Acknowledge the individual’s achievements -Do not confuse work life and social life -Stimulate discussions and expression of people’s ideas
Low IDV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Priority on building skills and becoming professional -Work for inherent rewards -Harmony among groups members is prioritized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Intelligence is significant -Conceal feelings and emotions that threaten the harmony -Beware giving negative feedback publicly -Answering “No” may cause further problems except that it is a sign of politeness
High MAS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Strong egos – feelings of importance and pride belong -Finances and success are essential 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Bear in mind the possibility of differentiated gender roles -People are driven by certain tasks
Low MAS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Orientation on relationships -Orientation on reaching a consensus -Concentrate on quality of life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Negotiation and collaboration are the keys to success -Workplace flexibility and maintaining work-life balance are important
High UAI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Conservative, strict and organized -Many societal conventions -Expressive, showing emotions if 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Clearance and concision about anticipations and objectives -Acknowledge the existence of “unspoken” rules -The use of gestures to express emotion may be

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	<p>required</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A society of increased energy 	<p>part of the conversation</p>
Low UAI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Readiness for changes and innovations - Inclined to endless learning - Less feeling of emergency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Make sure that people are concentrated but avoid making it too structured - Demonstrating your knowledge in front of others is not always a good idea, being able to manage under all circumstances is more valuable
Long-term Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - People are puzzled by the question of what is right and what is not - Frugality and education are valued - Modesty - Advantages and duties are highlighted - “What?”/“How?” > “Why?” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Act in a shy manner - Avoid being selfish - People tend to compromise which is not always seen for others
Short-term Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - “Why?” > “What?”/“How?” - Firm convictions - People overrate themselves - Others tend to evaluate their statements critically - Values and rights are highlighted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - “Selling” yourself is accepted seriously - Compromising is equal to weakness - Adulation empowers
High Indulgence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Optimistic - Significance of freedom of speech - Concentration on personal prosperity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do not assume life being that serious - Promote debates and discussions in conferences and decision making - Pay attention to feedback, coaching and mentoring - Accentuate flexible work-life balance
High Restraint	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pessimistic - More regulated and strict behavior 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prevent joking during formal meetings - Express negativity about the life and the world during informal meetings

Table 1. Cultural dimensions’ characteristics

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After reviewing the dimensions’ characteristics and tips, you may easily substitute the needed culture or company and analyze it through Hofstede’s model of cultural dimensions. During this week, you have learned the cultural dimensions model that you may further apply for avoiding conflicts in the organizations and to analyze its premises from the cross-cultural point of view.

In the previous lecture, you’ve learned the famous model of cultural dimensions and how to determine the needed culture according to their characteristics. In this lecture, we will dwell on the analysis of organizational culture. The parameterization method is widely used for analyzing corporate cultures within one locale (country or region). However, it is not explicitly developed for this purpose and is intended primarily for the contrastive analysis of national cultures. As a result of the study of corporate cultures of more than 20 companies in 1990, Geert Hofstede developed a parametric model explicitly designed for the analysis of organizational cultures – “dimensions of organizational cultures”. Geert Hofstede showed that while national cultures differ mainly at the level of values, the differences between corporate cultures are most clearly expressed at the level of practices.

Six independent measurement parameters were determined that resemble the distinctive features known from the sociology of organizations. These parameters can describe most of the variety of organizational practices. Here is a brief explanation of these parameters (P1-P6):

P1 = Process-oriented vs. Results-oriented. Process-oriented cultures are under pressure from technical and bureaucratic procedures, and Results-oriented cultures are driven by a shared concern for achieving results. This parameter is associated with the degree of homogeneity of the culture. In Results-oriented organizations, everyone has approximately the same idea of what they are doing. In Process-oriented organizations, this idea differs at various levels and in various departments. The degree of homogeneity of a culture is a measure of its “strength”. In essence, strong cultures are more result-oriented than weak ones and vice versa.

P2 = Employee-oriented vs Job-oriented. In Employee-oriented cultures, responsibility is taken for the welfare of members of that culture. The second one implies the responsibility only for the results of the employee’s work and nothing else. The research made by G. Hofstede and co-authors shows that contrast of Employee-oriented and Job-oriented organizations is part of the culture, and it is not just an option for an individual manager. The index of a division in this parameter is mainly determined by historical factors such as the philosophy of its founder(s), the presence or absence in its recent history of economic crises with the temporary suspension of production and staff cuts.

P3 = Parochial vs. Professional. In the first case, the identity of employees is derived from the organization they work for. In the latter, employees (usually highly educated) identify themselves primarily as members of the professional community. In sociology, this factor has long been known as “localism” as opposed to “cosmopolitanism”, the confrontation of internal and external coordinate systems.

P4 = Open system vs Closed system. This parameter describes the overall style of internal and external communication, as well as the ease with which newcomers are accepted. For example, in the research, a systematic difference between Danish and Dutch organizations was found only for this parameter out of all six. So, it turns out that the “Open system” of the organization is a characteristic of Danish society to a greater extent than that of the Dutch. It also demonstrates that organizational cultures contain elements of national cultural differences.

P5 = Loose vs. Tight control. This parameter describes the degree of formalization and punctuality within a given organization. It is a part of an organization’s professional technology. In essence, banks and pharmaceutical companies can fairly expect a high degree of management hardness. In contrast, research laboratories and PR agencies can expect a less rigid style. However, even within one technology realm, specific departments may take a more or less rigid approach to management than others.

P6 = Normative vs. Pragmatic. The last parameter describes the common way – flexible or rigid – of interaction with the environment and, in particular, with clients. Service-related departments are more likely to be closer to Pragmatic ones. In contrast, those that are related to the application of laws and regulations are more likely to be closer to the Normative ones. This parameter measures the degree of “customer orientation”, which is now a common topic in the marketing literature.

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There are several organizational conflicts that happen due to the willingness for change. To avoid such conflicts and to ensure a smooth change process, it is necessary to take these six parameters into account. With the help of this model, it becomes possible to know who you are before you start changing and to see what you lack while being who you want to be. If you are a CEO of a multinational company or you are just planning to be, it is significant to pay attention to cultural differences both of your employees who will be representatives of various cultures and your partners from other multinational companies to communicate and negotiate efficiently. During this week, you have learned two models of cultural dimensions that you may further apply for avoiding conflicts in the organizations or indicating its premises from the cross-cultural point of view. Moreover, you may find case studies as examples in the “readings” section. Next week you will learn other factors that might be sources of a conflict, what background information of participants we should consider, the role of emotions and perceptions in a conflict.

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Week 1 Quiz

Q1: What is one of the characteristics of High PDI cultures? (only one option is correct)

- (a) Flat organizations
- (b) People delegate what is possible
- (c) Centralized organizations (*correct*)
- (d) Employers and employees are equal

Q2: What cultural dimension can be characterized as “challenging”?

- (a) High PDI
- (b) High IDV (*correct*)
- (c) Low PDI
- (d) Low IDV

Q3: “Conservative, strict and organized” are the characteristics of ... culture (fill in the gaps) (High UAI)

Q4: P1 of dimensions of organizational cultures is about ... (fill in the gaps)

- (a) Process vs Results orientation (*correct*)
- (b) Open vs Closed system
- (c) Loose vs Tight control
- (d) Employee vs Job orientation

Q5: What parameter is described by the overall style of internal and external communication?

- (a) Normative vs Pragmatic
- (b) Parochial vs Professional
- (c) Process-oriented vs Results-oriented
- (d) Open system vs Closed system (*correct*)

Q6: How do you understand that the company is results-oriented?

- (a) It is under pressure from technical and bureaucratic procedures.
- (b) It is driven by a shared concern for achieving results. (*correct*)
- (c) The idea of the ongoing work differs at various levels and in multiple departments.
- (d) The organizational culture of the company is rather weak.

Discussion prompt

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Analyze your own culture through Hofstede’s model of cultural dimensions. How can you describe its specific features?

During this century, many specific platforms were created to facilitate the process of receiving knowledge, obtaining special skills, and getting an education. As this field is not that developed yet, online courses have just started to gain popularity, several well-known universities around the world switched from offline lectures to online ones considering them to be more effective and productive. Such online courses may become a great way for busy entrepreneurs to gain new skills whenever they want to not being stuck to a timetable. That is why obtaining such skills as cross-cultural organizational conflict resolution becomes more comfortable to accomplish and use in the future as online courses are usually practice-oriented. Currently, it is essential to possess vital soft skills such as conflict resolution to operate successfully in the multinational companies, which are a common phenomenon in the fast globalizing world. That is why the elaboration of the materials for an online course dedicated to the resolution of cross-cultural organizational conflicts is considered to be topical nowadays.

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Goar Avagyan
Moscow State University, Russia
goar24@yandex.ru

El carácter nacional español a través del discurso gastronómico

Spanish National Character through the Prism of Gastronomical Discourse

Para investigar el tema del carácter nacional español a través del discurso gastronómico, ante todo, hay que entender la definición del carácter nacional, destacar las peculiaridades del pueblo español. Además, se debe definir tales conceptos, como la gastronomía y el discurso. También, se necesita analizar como los factores históricos, económicos, climáticos, políticos, sociales influyen en la cultura gastronómica y el modo de vida de la gente. Como base de la investigación se puede tomar el bar español que tiene mucha influencia en la comunicación entre personas de todas edades y géneros y en el contenido del léxico. En el transcurso del artículo se narra de los entrantes típicos españoles – las tapas, que son, sin duda alguna, la base de la cultura española y la parte relevante de mentalidad española. O sea, todos conceptos mencionadas pueden ayudar en el aprendizaje de la lengua española. el carácter nacional, la gastronomía, el discurso gastronómico, el bar, las bebidas alcohólicas, las tapas, las novedades del léxico.

Los temas del carácter nacional y el discurso gastronómicos son muy actuales en la sociedad moderna debido al deseo constante de conocer no solo la lengua, sino también particularidades culturales de la nación. La meta principal de este estudio radica en distinguir los rasgos troncales del carácter nacional español analizando las peculiaridades del discurso gastronómico. Esta meta define los objetivos generales del trabajo. Ante todo, hay que dar explicaciones a tales fenómenos como: el carácter nacional; la gastronomía; el discurso y como una especie de éste - el discurso gastronómico. Por ello se estima pertinente analizar el tapeo español como la parte esencial del carácter nacional. Y por fin, se debe detectar las especialidades lingüísticas nacidas del discurso gastronómico en España. Entre los materiales clave de la investigación hay que destacar la Revista Española de Cultura Gastronómica (La Tapa); el Diccionario de la lengua de la Real Academia Española (RAE); el Diccionario práctico de gastronomía y salud de Miguel J. Jordá.

En lo que se refiere al término “el carácter nacional”, el doctor de ciencias sociológicas N. Dzhandildin lo define como “un conjunto de los rasgos psicológicos y de comportamiento únicos que caracterizan a un grupo socio-étnico, influido por las condiciones históricas, económicas, culturales y naturales” (Джандильдин, 2006). Por su parte S.M. Arutunyan caracteriza “el carácter español” como un colorido especial nacional de sentimientos y

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emociones, pensamientos y acciones, rasgos estables que se forman bajo la presión de las condiciones de vida y el desarrollo de la nación a lo largo de la historia. El estereotipo es otro fenómeno que a menudo se asocia con el carácter nacional (o también llamado “personalidad de base”). Según la RAE, el estereotipo es la “imagen o idea aceptada comúnmente por un grupo o sociedad con carácter inmutable.” (RAE) De ahí que surja la diferencia troncal entre estos dos términos que radica en que los estereotipos se crean de las relaciones y experiencias personales mientras que el carácter español de factores históricos, climáticos, económicos y políticos.

La gastronomía es, sin duda alguna, uno de los aspectos socioculturales más importantes a la hora de conocer un país. En las tradiciones gastronómicas refleja el carácter nacional de los habitantes que se requiere para el aprendizaje tanto de la cultura como de la lengua. Según una de las definiciones de la Real Academia Española (RAE): “la gastronomía es conjunto de los platos y usos culinarios propios de un determinado lugar” (RAE).

De ahí resulta lógico que algunos platos debido a los factores históricos, económicos y climáticos sean característicos para regiones determinadas porque demuestran especialidades culturales, pensamiento y comportamiento de los vecinos de ésta. Por ende, es evidente que la gastronomía no trata solo de la comida, sino cumple la importante función comunicativa al darle a la gente de distintas razas conocer los rasgos de otra mentalidad, cultura y carácter nacional en general. La doctorada de la universidad de Vigo, Marta González Peláez, propone una definición de la gastronomía así: “Acontecimiento comunicativo y de relación social en el que dos o más personas degustan una buena comida, acompañada de elementos decorativos, vino y música” (Peláez, 2016).

La RAE define el discurso como una “serie de las palabras y frases empleadas para manifestar lo que se piensa o se siente” (RAE). Y.S. Stepanov define el discurso como “el uso particular de la lengua para expresar la mentalidad o ideología especiales” (Степанов, 1995). O sea, el fin esencial del discurso radica en exponer y transmitir la información necesaria para entender tal o cual asunto. Y si se habla del discurso gastronómico se trata de todo lo referente a la cocina y a las tradiciones de comer de una región concreta. A.V. Olyanich define el discurso gastronómico como “un modo de transmisión de la experiencia o el estudio de las tradiciones culinarias de otros pueblos y en la formación de las preferencias alimenticias”.

En lo que se refiere a la cultura española cabe mencionar que es una cultura de contacto, de abrazos, de muestras de afecto constantes. Un rasgo psicológico inherente de los españoles es la necesidad de comunicarse y moverse. El comportamiento típico español es de tipo extravertido. Les encanta hacer las cosas en grupo. Entre el éxito profesional y la felicidad familiar la mayoría preferirá lo segundo. España se asocia con el sol, el calor, la comida rica y fresca. La cultura española tiene el gran patrimonio gastronómico. Todas estas peculiaridades se notan en el estilo de la vida española. No se puede imaginar a un español sentado en casa porque la comunicación es una parte relevante de la cultura española. De esa costumbre nació otro concepto importante – “ir de tapas” o “tapeo”, que consiste en visitar bares tomando algo con algún entrante, llamado tapa. Un bar español se diferencia mucho del ruso. Éste no es solo un lugar para descansar y relajarse, sino un centro de comunicación entre amigos y colegas. Las tres partes esenciales del bar español son el alcohol, las tapas, la comunicación (la charla).

Según la Real Academia Española el bar es un “local en que se despachan bebidas que suelen tomarse de pie, ante el mostrador” (RAE). O sea, el bar y las bebidas alcohólicas son partes inseparables entre sí. Esta conexión refleja no solo en la cultura española, sino en la producción y la economía.

Sin lugar a dudas, España es uno de los proveedores del vino principales del mundo, aunque según las estadísticas los mismos españoles prefieren la cerveza al vino. La-Rioja se considera la región con el clima más agradable para el cultivo del vino. Es en La-Rioja donde el vino forma la base de la economía.

En lo que se refiere al sur de España, Andalucía es famosa por el cultivo de la especie de vino blanco que se usa para la producción de vino espumoso – el jerez (viene del inglés “sherry” y el francés “xérès”).

Otra bebida típica española es el cava (del latín “cava” (cueva); “vino espumoso blanco o rosado, elaborado al estilo del que se fabrica en Champaña, región del norte de Francia” (RAE)) que normalmente se bebe durante las fiestas, como, por ejemplo, el Año Nuevo.

En cuanto al norte, allí se concentra la producción de la sidra, bebida alcohólica fermentada del zumo de manzana. Las regiones más fructíferas en esa son Asturias y País Vasco.

En suma, es lógico que el cultivo y la producción de alcohol sean pilares no solo de la cultura gastronómica, sino de la economía y del turismo debido a la existencia de las rutas y excursiones que incluyen tanto la degustación como el conocimiento de la producción de las bebidas.

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La palabra “tapa” en sentido de cubierta viene de una palabra germánica “tappa”, que daría el verbo “tapar”. Según la RAE una de las definiciones de la tapa es “pequeña porción de algún alimento que se sirve como acompañamiento de una bebida.” (RAE) Con la aparición de este entrante están relacionadas múltiples leyendas. Una de ellas narra que los Reyes Católicos hicieron a los dueños de bares que sirvieran un entrante gratuito junto con una bebida para que los soldados y otros ciudadanos no se emborracharan muy rápido. Otra historia es más simple. Se dice que los navegantes tapaban su copa con un trozo de pan o jamón para que no entraran polvo y arena.

Hoy en día existe el fenómeno de tapeo que incluye los paseos de un bar al otro, donde se toma algo junto a una tapa. El menú de tapas es muy variado. En el País Vasco las llaman “pinchos” (de “pinchar”, “porción de comida tomada como aperitivo, que a veces se atraviesa con un palillo” (RAE)). Otra especie de tapas se llama “montaditas” (de “montaña”). Representa un trozo de pan con algo sobre. Antonio Ramos Álvarez y Alicia Pacual Muigueláñez denotan que “las tapas se han convertido en toda una especialidad gastronómica; ya no solo consisten en embutidos o aceitunas, sino que se han diversificado mediante guisos servidos en pequeñas raciones que bien pueden sustituir a una comida o cena y donde lo único que no cabida es lo dulce” (Muigueláñez, 2008). La base de cualquier tapa es el aceite de oliva. Los otros ingredientes típicos son olivas, jamón, queso, mariscos. Las tapas más preferidas de los españoles son con patata, entre ellas: tortilla, patatas fritas, patatas bravas, huevo frito con patatas y jamón, pulpo a feira (con patatas), bomba a la Barceloneta (la Bombeta). Claro que éstas no son las primeras que se asocian con la dieta Mediterránea. Otras tapas populares son: callos a la madrileña, croquetas de callos, ensaladilla rusa, flamenquines cordobeses. Rafael Ansón, presidente de la Real Academia de Gastronomía y Embajador de Turismo Responsable de la Organización Mundial de Turismo, en el Foro Mundial de Turismo Gastronómico de 2019 insistió en “la importancia dada al modelo de comer que son las tapas, que espero que el año pasado sea declarado Patrimonio Inmaterial de la Humanidad” (Guadaño, 2019).

Según las investigaciones del antropólogo Margaret Mid, la socialización es el aspecto clave para entender la cultura. Esta idea se aplica a la tradición española “ir de tapas” puesto que está nacionalizada y al mismo tiempo socializada. O sea, no solo demuestra el carácter nacional, sino también es una práctica común. Se ve la influencia de esta tradición en la lengua. Así encontramos expresiones como “te invito a las tapas” o múltiples refranes y frases hechas conectadas con el tapeo español. Entre ellas unas cómicas: con cerveza no hay tristeza; una tapita rica y buena compañía te alegrarán el día; hígado a calentar que hoy va de titular; una comida sin vino es un desayuno; la difícil decisión entre el bien y el bar. Resumiendo, en estas expresiones refleja la influencia de la gastronomía en el léxico español y en el carácter nacional español.

Del discurso gastronómico español nacen denominaciones de bebidas o platos propios no solo de una región concreta, sino de España en general, o sea, que demuestran el carácter nacional español. Ya se ven algunos cambios en el contenido léxico relacionado con la gastronomía. Se añaden tanto los nombres de la cocina, como algunas frases hechas o incluso refranes. El objetivo para las futuras investigaciones pueden ser las peculiaridades lingüísticas y sintácticas del lenguaje coloquial típicas para un bar.

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Alexandra Filimonowa

Die Rolle des fremdsprachlichen Akzents bei der soziokulturellen Integration russischer Migranten in Deutschland

Dieser Artikel befasst sich mit der Rolle des Fremdakzents bei der soziokulturellen Integration einer der größten Migrantengruppen in Deutschland. Es wird einen Überblick über die oben erwähnte Problematik gegeben. Außerdem werden die Ergebnisse einer unter in Deutschland lebenden russischen Migranten präsentiert und analysiert.

Das 21. Jahrhundert kann bestimmt als das Zeitalter der Globalisierung bezeichnet werden. Die Ländergrenzen werden offen und immer mehr Menschen wandern nach verschiedenen Ländern ein auf der Suche nach besseren Lebensbedingungen. Für die Menschen mit Migrationshintergrund ist es nicht immer einfach sich in der neuen Kultur zu assimilieren. Erstens können sie Schwierigkeiten beim Lernen einer neuen Sprache haben. Zweitens unterscheiden sich die Mentalität, Sitten und Bräuche einer Kultur äußerst von denen in ihrer eigenen Kultur. Außerdem kann der fremdsprachige Akzent auch negativ rezipiert werden, was auch die Integration deutlich erschwert. (Попова, 2018)

Das Ziel dieser Forschung besteht darin, die Entstehung des Akzents zu erklären und herauszufinden, welche Rolle der fremdsprachliche Akzent bei der soziokulturellen Integration russischer Migranten in Deutschland spielt.

Die Forschungsmethoden sind die kritische Auseinandersetzung mit verschiedenen Quellen, die sich mit dem Thema «der fremdsprachliche Akzent» befassen sowie die Analyse von Daten, die im Rahmen einer Umfrage gesammelt worden sind.

Der fremdsprachliche Akzent ist als das Ergebnis von der phonetischen Interferenz zu kennzeichnen. „Ein Akzent entsteht in solchem Fall, wenn Merkmale der muttersprachlichen Aussprache auf die Zweitsprache übertragen werden. Dabei stehen Vokale und Konsonanten, aber auch Melodie und Rhythmus der Erst- und der Zielsprache in einem spezifischen Verhältnis zueinander, so dass es zum Beispiel einen typisch russischen Akzent im Deutschen oder einen typisch deutschen Akzent im Englischen gibt.“ (Ursula Hirschfeld 2016) David Crystal bezeichnet fremdsprachliche Akzente in seinem Buch „A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics“ als einen akustischen Effekt solcher Merkmale der Aussprache, die die regionale und soziale Herkunft des Sprechers bestimmen. Fremdsprachlicher Akzent kann sich also auf die Volkzugehörigkeit oder auf eine soziale Gruppe beziehen. Im ersten Fall, wenn fremdsprachlicher Akzent auf die Zugehörigkeit zu einer bestimmten Nationalität verweist, entsteht Fremdakzent aufgrund der zahlreichen phonetischen Unterschiede zwischen der Muttersprache eines Sprechers und der erlernten Sprache. Und wenn fremdsprachlicher Akzent die Zugehörigkeit zu einer sozialen Gruppe markiert, enthält dieser Akzent bestimmte Merkmale der Aussprache, die für eine soziale Gruppe typisch sind. Zum Beispiel gehört Cockney zu den Vertretern der Arbeitsklasse in London. (David Crystal 2008)

Muttersprachler bewerten fremdsprachige Akzente unterschiedlich. Sie halten die jeweilige herkunftsbedingte Aussprache für entweder schön, neutral oder grob. Das gilt auch für die deutschen Muttersprachler, die ebenfalls ihre beliebten und wenig beliebten Akzente haben, wie eine Befragung des Instituts für die deutsche Sprache in Mannheim zeigt. Nach dieser Befragung sind besonders französische und italienische Akzente beliebt. Vierzehn Prozent der Befragten mögen Russisch nicht. (Deutsche Welle 2015) Solches negative Verhältnis zum Russischen kann von mehreren Faktoren bestimmt werden. Sprachlich gesehen interferiert, zum Beispiel, die russische Intonation im hohen Maß mit der deutschen. Im Russischen ist die terminale Tonführung zum Ausdruck der Höflichkeit kennzeichnend im Gegensatz zum Deutschen, in dem die steigende Tonführung diese Funktion erfüllt. Außerdem sprechen russische Muttersprachler den russischen Zungenspitzen-r aus anstatt des vokalisiertem /ʁ/ in unbetonten Präfixen «er», «ver», «zer»(z.B. versprechen [fɛr'ʃpɛtʃɪn], erzählen [ɛr'ts ɛ:lən], zerschlagen [tsɛr'ʃla:gn]. (Богомазова, Подольская, 2004). Das lässt den russischen Akzent grob klingen. Laut der Studie finden etwa zehn Prozent der Befragten, dass ein türkischsprachiger Akzent unschön klingt. Fast die Hälfte aller Teilnehmer der Studie erklären, dass es keinen Akzent gibt, der ihnen unsympathisch ist, und ein Fünftel findet keinen Akzent sympathisch. (Deutsche Welle 2015)

Im Rahmen der vorliegenden Untersuchung sind russische Migranten in Deutschland befragt worden. Diese Befragung dient dem Zweck festzustellen, ob sich der fremdsprachliche Akzent auf den Integrationsprozess russischer Migranten in Deutschland negativ auswirkt. An der teilweise online und teilweise persönlichen Umfrage nahmen 145 Teilnehmer/-innen teil, darunter 90 Frauen und 55 Männer. Ihr Wohnort wird in **Diagramm 1** dargestellt.

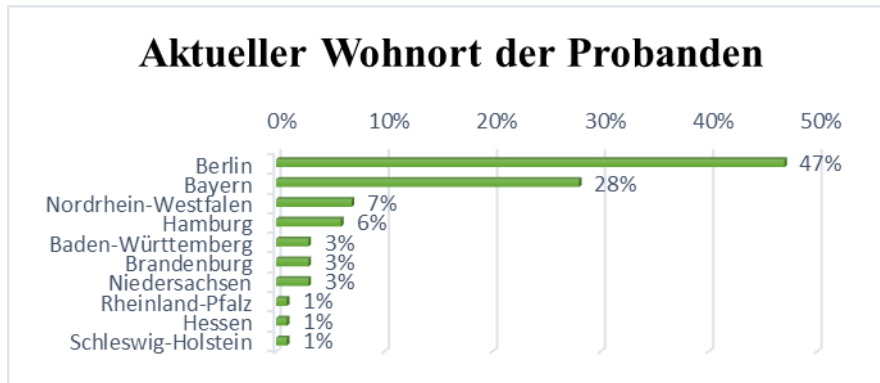


Diagramm 1. Aktueller Wohnort der Probanden.

Was ihre höchste abgeschlossene Ausbildung betrifft, so haben mehr als die Hälfte der Probanden das Bachelorstudium abgeschlossen, ein Viertel der Probanden hat das Masterstudium abgeschlossen, 2% der Teilnehmer haben das Doktoratsstudium absolviert, 12 % haben das Abitur abgelegt, 5 % haben eine Fachschule absolviert. An dieser Stelle ist anzumerken, dass 59 Probanden an der Universität mit dem Kernfach „Deutsch“ studiert haben. Die Mehrheit der Probanden hat Deutsch vor ihrem Umzug nach Deutschland gelernt. Knapp die Hälfte der Teilnehmer hat Deutsch an der Universität studiert, darunter 36 Probanden, die Deutsch auch in der Schule gelernt haben. 44 Probanden haben Deutsch sowohl in der Schule als auch bei Fremdsprachenkursen erworben.

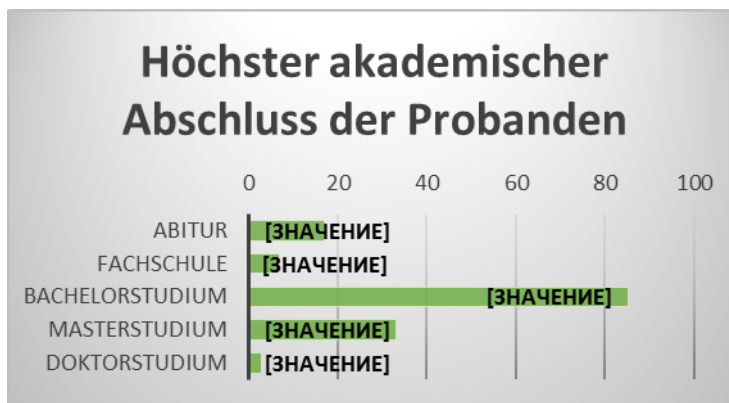


Diagramm 2. Höchster akademische Abschluss der Probanden.

Es hat sich ergeben, dass mehr als die Hälfte der Befragten ein vorgefasstes Verhalten beim persönlichen Umgang mit Deutschen erfahren haben. An dieser Stelle ist es anzumerken, dass es in der Fragestellung präzisiert worden ist, dass es sich nicht um ungenügende Sprachkenntnisse handelt, die den Kommunikationsvorgang deutlich erschweren können, sondern um einen ausgeprägten russischen Akzent, der ungenügende Sprachkenntnisse nicht ausschließt. Anhand der verbindlichen Kommentare der Teilnehmer/-innen zu dieser Frage, wo sie die Situationen genau beschrieben haben, können wir uns vergewissern, dass sie die Frage richtig verstanden haben.

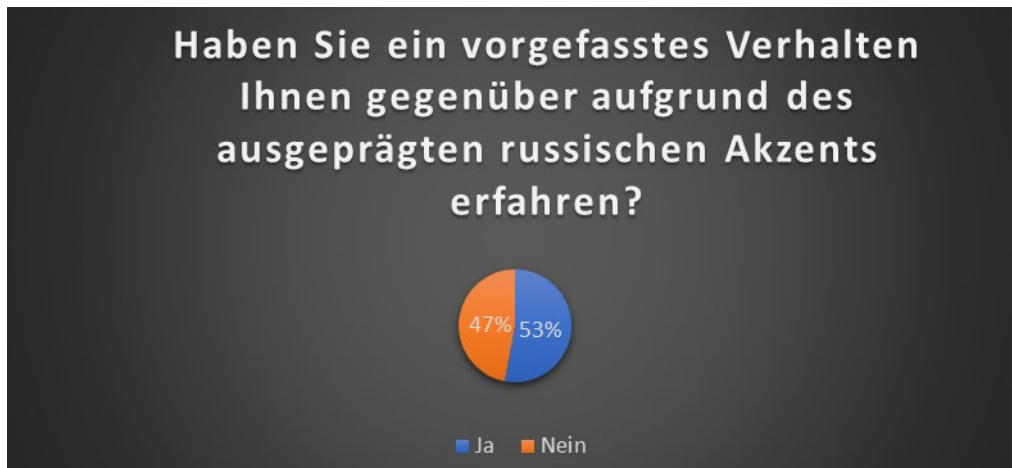


Diagramm 3. Umfrageergebnisse bezüglich eines vorgefassten Verhaltens den russischen Migranten gegenüber aufgrund des ausgeprägten russischen Akzents.

Hiermit werden einige Beispiele zum vorgefassten Verhalten russischen Migranten gegenüber angeführt. Anhand von Kommentaren, die die Probanden geschrieben haben, hat es sich ergeben, dass solch ein vorgefasstes Verhalten vor allem im privaten Bereich zum Vorschein kommt.

Eine Teilnehmerin hat darauf hingewiesen, dass sich die Bekannten ihres Mannes über ihre Aussprache lustig machen. Sie parodierten typische russische Aussprachefehler und bemerkten, dass sie oft grob klinge, auch wenn sie lächle, so die Teilnehmerin.

Die andere Teilnehmerin, die einen ausgeprägten russischen Akzent hat, arbeitet in einem Geschäft. Einige Besucher, die den russischen Akzent sofort erkennen, bringen das Gespräch oft auf die russische Regierung, Öl und Stalin. Dies sei unangenehm und fehl am Platze, weil dies sofort zeige, dass sie als eine Fremde wahrgenommen werde, so die Teilnehmerin. Eine russische Migrantin, die die deutsche Staatsangehörigkeit erworben hat und bei einer Firma als Anwältin arbeitet, wird wegen ihres Akzents immer noch als Russin wahrgenommen. Sie hat auch darauf hingewiesen, dass sie sogar während des Gesprächs vor dem Treffen mit Kunden gefragt werde, woher sie stamme. „Diese Frage werde manchmal viel zu oft gestellt“, meint die Teilnehmerin.

Manche Teilnehmer/-innen haben angekündigt, dass sie auf Schwierigkeiten auch bei der Arbeit- und Wohnungssuche gestoßen sind. Die Wohnungssuche dauert manchmal länger, weil sobald der Vermieter beim Telefongespräch einen starken Akzent hört, werden viele zusätzliche Fragen gestellt und die Wohnung wird manchmal nicht vermietet.

Was die Arbeitsuche betrifft, wird oft darauf hingewiesen, dass die Arbeit mit Kunden nicht nur tadellose Sprachkenntnisse, sondern auch eine akzentfreie Aussprache verlangt. Einer Teilnehmerin, die sich um eine Stelle in einem Callcenter beworben hat, wurde gesagt, dass sie unbedingt ihre Sprachkenntnisse verbessern und an ihrer Aussprache arbeiten solle. Die oben genannten Kommentare sind in der Unterlage 2 zu sehen.

Vom großen Interesse ist für die vorliegende Arbeit auch die Gruppe der Migranten, die ein vorgefasstes Verhalten ihnen gegenüber beim persönlichen Umgang nie empfunden hat. Diese Gruppe umfasst 68 Menschen, das heißt 47% der Befragten. Es muss festgestellt werden, über welche gemeinsamen Eigenschaften sie verfügen, damit es verständlich wird, warum sie dem vorgefassten Verhalten entkommen sind.

Fast alle Befragten aus dieser Gruppe (95%) haben Deutsch vor ihrem Umzug nach Deutschland gelernt und studiert. Dabei haben mehr als die Hälfte der Probanden Deutsch an einer Universität mit dem Kernfach „Deutsch“ studiert. Vier von ihnen haben ihre Doktorarbeit in Deutschland verteidigt. Drei Probanden haben Deutsch in einer Schule in Deutschland gelernt. Und sieben der Befragten hatten Privatunterricht im Deutschen. In der Tabelle 1 werden die oben angeführten Daten veranschaulicht. Sie werden auch mit den Daten von Probanden verglichen, die mit einem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert werden.

Unterrichtsart bei Probanden, die nicht mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden.		Unterrichtsart bei Probanden, die mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden.	
Nie gelernt bzw studiert	5%	Nie gelernt bzw studiert	31%
An einer Uni mit dem Kernfach Deutsch	81%	An einer Uni mit dem Kernfach Deutsch	3%
In der Schule	4%	In der Schule	28%
Privatunterricht	10%	Privatunterricht	17%
Selbststudium	-		12%

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An einer Universität	-	9%
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Tabelle 1. Umfrageergebnisse bezüglich der deutschen Unterrichtsart bei den Respondenten, die ein vorgefasstes Verhalten nie erfahren haben und bei denjenigen, die das Gegenteil empfunden haben.

Was das Ziel der Einwanderung nach Deutschland betrifft, zeigen die Umfrageergebnisse, dass sich dieses Ziel bei der Probandengruppe, die mit einem vorgefassten Verhalten nie konfrontiert wird, in zwei Kategorien einteilen lässt. Das Ziel des Umzugs ist entweder Arbeit und Studium oder Familie. 40 Menschen sind nach Deutschland wegen der Arbeit oder des Studiums eingewandert. Das heißt, dass sie hoch motiviert waren, weil sie sowohl bei dem Kollektiv gut angenommen werden als auch das Studium in den Griff bekommen wollen. Für 26 Menschen ist der Umzug nach Deutschland familienbedingt.

Bei der zweiten Probandengruppe sind die Ziele des Umzugs ähnlich. Aber bei der zweiten Probandengruppe sind Russlanddeutsche repräsentativ, weil das Ziel des Umzugs nach Deutschland für 15 Probanden die Rückkehr zur ethnischen Herkunft ist. Die angeführten Daten sind in der Tabelle 2 zu sehen.

Ziel des Umzugs nach Deutschland	Probanden, die nicht mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden	Probanden, die mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden
Arbeit und Studium	59%	42%
Familie	38%	24%
Rückkehr zur ethnischen Herkunft	3%	25%
Sonstiges	-	9%

Tabelle 2. Das Ziel des Umzugs nach Deutschland bei zwei Probandengruppen im Prozentanteil.

Was die Häufigkeit des Sprachgebrauchs bei Probanden betrifft, die mit keinem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert werden, so sprechen 42 von ihnen ständig Deutsch, sogar zu Hause. 23 von ihnen sprechen oft Deutsch aber zu Hause wird Russisch gesprochen. Und schließlich sprechen nur 3 Menschen selten Deutsch.

Diese Daten werden mit der Häufigkeit des Sprachgebrauchs bei den Probanden verglichen, die mit einem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert werden. Dies ist in der Tabelle 3 zu sehen.

\	Probanden, die nicht mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden	Probanden, die mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden
Deutsch wird ständig gesprochen (zu Hause, auf der Arbeit, mit den Freunden usw)	62%	23%
Deutsch wird oft gesprochen, aber zu Hause wird Russisch gesprochen.	34%	50%
Der gesamte Prozentanteil der Menschen, die Deutsch immer oder fast immer sprechen	96%	73%
Deutsch wird selten gesprochen.	4%	20%
Deutsch wird nie oder fast nie gesprochen.		7%

Tabelle 3. Die Häufigkeit des Sprachgebrauchs bei zwei Probandengruppen im Prozentanteil.

Da die Dauer des Aufenthalts in Deutschland den Grad des Akzentausdrucks beeinflussen kann, wird dieser Faktor in der Umfrage auch berücksichtigt. Zuerst werden die Daten der ersten Probandengruppe, die mit keinem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert wird, präsentiert. Sieben der Befragten aus dieser Gruppe wohnen in Deutschland schon seit mehr als über 20 Jahre. Acht von ihnen wohnen bereits seit 15 Jahren in Deutschland. Zwölf der Befragten sind vor 5 Jahren nach Deutschland eingewandert. Die anderen 44 Menschen wohnen seit weniger als 5 Jahren in Deutschland. Dies wird mit den Daten der zweiten Probandengruppe verglichen. Die Ergebnisse sind in **der Tabelle 4** zu sehen.

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Die Dauer des Aufenthalts in Deutschland.	Probanden, die nicht mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden	Probanden, die mit Vorurteilen konfrontiert werden
Mehr als 20 Jahre	10%	29%
Circa 15 Jahre	11%	10%
Circa 10 Jahre	-	14%
Circa 5 Jahre	17%	25%
Weniger als 3 Jahre	62%	29%

Tabelle 4. Die Dauer des Aufenthalts bei zwei Probandengruppen.

Die durchgeführte Umfrage stellt fest, dass es eine gewisse Anzahl der russischen Einwanderer gibt, die ein vorgefasstes Verhalten ihnen gegenüber erfahren haben. Dabei lässt es sich aufgrund von bekommenen Ergebnissen erschließen, dass es höchwahrscheinlich ist, dass diese Migranten mit solch einem Verhalten aufgrund von ihrem ausgeprägten Fremdakzent konfrontiert werden. Dies zeugt dafür, dass das Vorhandensein des ausgeprägten russischen Akzents den Prozess der völligen Integration, bei der sich Migranten als wahre Mitglieder der Aufnahmegesellschaft fühlen, erschwert.

Da es bei der Durchführung der Umfrage präzisiert worden ist, dass es sich vor allem um die negative Auswirkung des ausgeprägten russischen Akzents handelt, kann konstatiert werden, dass sich die erhaltenen Ergebnisse für die Bestätigung der in der Arbeit aufgelegten Hypothese eignen. In der Arbeit ist die Probandengruppe, die mit keinem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert wird, mit der anderen Probandengruppe, die das Gegenteil erfahren hat, verglichen worden. Die Vergleichsbasis umfasst Art und Weise wie Deutsch gelernt worden ist, das Ziel des Umzugs nach Deutschland, die Häufigkeit des Sprachgebrauchs sowie die Dauer des Aufenthalts in Deutschland.

Anhand von Umfrageergebnissen ist anzunehmen, dass das Sprachniveau bei den Probanden, die kein vorgefasstes Verhalten erfahren, ziemlich hoch ist. Es hat sich ergeben, dass mehr als 80% dieser Probanden an der Universität mit dem Kernfach Deutsch studiert haben. An den Universitäten, besonders mit dem Kernfach Deutsch, wird normalerweise Phonetik unterrichtet, wo an der Aussprache gearbeitet wird. Diejenigen, die ihre Doktorarbeit in Deutschland verteidigt und in einer deutschen Schule gelernt haben, müssen auch den geringsten Grad des Akzentausdrucks haben, weil sie sich in dem deutschsprachigen Milieu befinden und sowohl im akademischen als auch im persönlichen Bereichen aktiv sind. In diesem Zusammenhang ist auch Motivation ein wichtiger Faktor, weil das Studium sowie die Arbeit tadellose Sprachkenntnisse verlangen.

Was das Ziel des Umzugs nach Deutschland und die Häufigkeit des Sprachgebrauchs betrifft, kann aus den Umfrageergebnissen erschlossen werden, dass die Probandengruppe, die mit keinem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert wird, sowohl starke Motivation wegen des Ziels ihres Umzugs hat als auch oft mit den Muttersprachlern umgeht. Das ermöglicht die Nachahmung der muttersprachlichen Aussprache sowie das Benutzen der deutschen Sprache in verschiedenen Lebensbereichen. Der gewisse Unterschied im Sprachgebrauch zwischen zwei Probandengruppen zeugt davon, dass je öfter man mit Deutschen in verschiedenen Lebensbereichen umgeht, desto höher ist die Möglichkeit sich an die deutsche Ausspracheweise zu gewöhnen und anzupassen.

Es muss auch angemerkt werden, dass die Probanden, die an der Universität mit dem Kernfach Deutsch studiert haben, die deutsche Aussprache erfolgreicher wahrnehmen können. Das hängt damit zusammen, dass sie über genügend deutsche Kenntnisse und eine Erfahrung im Bereich der Phonetik verfügen. Dies ermöglicht die bewusste Wahrnehmung der deutschen Aussprache. Dies bekräftigt die Vermutung, dass diese Probanden keinen stark ausgeprägten russischen Akzent haben.

Es lohnt sich auch zu erwähnen, dass fast alle Russlanddeutschen, die befragt worden sind, zur Probandengruppe gehören, die mit einem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert werden. Dieses Problem wird auch auf der Website von der Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung angesprochen. Es wird angedeutet, dass die Migration in die Bundesrepublik Deutschland für viele Russlanddeutsche mit einer Erfahrung «doppelte Fremdheit» verbunden war. Diese Erfahrung lässt sich auf solcher Weise beschreiben: "dort waren wir die Deutschen, hier sind wir die Russen". (Bundeszentrale für die politische Bildung, 2017). Die Umfrageergebnisse korrespondieren mit der angeführten Aussage. Aber mehr Russlanddeutsche müssen befragt werden, damit diese Tendenz auch statistisch bekräftigt werden kann.

Da die Dauer des Aufenthalts in vielen Forschungen als einer der Faktoren bezeichnet wird, die den Grad des Fremdakzents beeinflussen können, wird sie in der vorliegenden Arbeit auch berücksichtigt. Aus den Umfrageergebnissen folgt, dass die Dauer des Aufenthalts in der Aufnahmegesellschaft keine entscheidende Rolle bei der Anpassung an die authentische Aussprache spielt. Daraus lässt sich schließen, dass dieser Bereich noch

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umstritten ist und weitere Forschung in diesem Bereich betrieben werden sollte. Aber solch ein Ergebnis kann schon dafür zeugen, dass die Häufigkeit des Sprachgebrauchs wichtiger als die Dauer des Aufenthalts ist, wenn es sich um Anpassung an die authentische Aussprache handelt. Man kann mehr als 20 Jahren in einem Land leben aber fast immer seine Muttersprache zur Kommunikation benutzen und in der Diaspora zu leben. In diesem Fall gibt es keine Möglichkeit, sich an die authentische Aussprache zu gewöhnen und anzupassen.

Die Ergebnisse dieser Umfrage sorgen dafür, dass mehr Aufmerksamkeit diesem Thema geschenkt wird und die Wichtigkeit der korrekten Aussprache hervorgehoben wird. Es ist erennenswert, dass viele Menschen an der Umfrage teilgenommen haben und ausführliche Kommentare geschrieben haben. Dies zeugt davon, dass dieses Thema akut und aktuell ist. Anhand von Kommentaren lässt sich erschließen, dass ein vorgefasstes Verhalten vor allem im privaten Bereich vorkommt. Es gibt aber einige Situationen, die sich auf die Arbeit - und Wohnungssuche beziehen. Präzise diese Faktoren beeinflussen die Integration der Migranten in die Aufnahmegesellschaft. Wenn Migranten mit einem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontiert werden, kann man nicht behaupten, dass sie erfolgreich und völlig integriert sind. Im Kontext der Migrationskrise muss diesem Problem mehr Aufmerksamkeit geschenkt werden.

Was die durchgeführte Untersuchung betrifft, besteht es Bedarf am weiteren Forschen und an der weiteren Analyse der Ergebnisse mit einer größeren und repräsentativen Stichprobe. Es müssen Korrelationen zwischen dem Grad des Akzentausdrucks und den Faktoren, die ihn beeinflussen, festgestellt werden. Deshalb soll die mit einem vorgefassten Verhalten konfrontierte Gruppe genauer erforscht werden, damit man weitere Unterschiede zwischen dieser Gruppe und der anderen, die in dieser Arbeit analysiert worden ist, erkennen kann. Da die Teilnehmer/-innen, die keine Experten im Phonetikbereich sind, den Grad ihres Akzentausdrucks selber bewertet haben, und es keine genauere Kriterien für die Grundgesamtheit gibt, kann keine rein statistische Analyse der Ergebnisse erfolgen. Dies ist das Ziel der weiteren Arbeiten zu diesem Thema, die unsere Kenntnisse vervollständigen und neue Forschungsperspektiven anbieten werden.

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Part V

BUSINESS COMMUNICATION: CURRENT AND FUTURE RESEARCH CHALLENGES

Elina Amineva
Higher School of Economics, Russia
elina.amineva@bk.ru

How to Successfully Negotiate with Spanish Businessmen

Nowadays Russia actively develops business relationships with foreign companies and corporations. It improves Russian economy system and provides a great variety of goods for customers. One of the world economic leaders is Spain. There are plenty world famous companies which have Spanish origin and function on the territory of our country, namely:

- 1) “Iberia”- air transportation company;
- 2) “Inditex” - the biggest fashion group in the world, which owns the chains: “Zara”, “Bershka”, “Stradivarius” and many others. The total annual sales from “Inditex” shops account more than 40% of total clothes sales in Russia;
- 3) “Campofrio” – international Spanish company, which specializes on production of meat products and is considered to be one of the most recognizable brand in the world.

Undoubtedly, there are many other Spanish companies that implement their endeavours in Russia, though it will be quite challenging to mention all of them. As it can be seen these companies suggest almost all types of products and services. In order to make them be presented in our local market Russian businessmen need to negotiate with Spanish colleagues. Unfortunately, this type of interaction does not always finish successfully. Due to the lack of experience and background knowledge sometimes it is difficult for Russian businessmen to choose suitable communication and behavioral tactics. There is an opinion that translator (if they take part in negotiations) can reduce the potential risk of miscommunications’ appearance. Though any third part will never replace person's knowledge and ability to conduct negotiations. It is possible to find some articles and Youtube tutorials related to this topic, but unfortunately, in Russia there are still no specialized courses for businessmen. That is why the main aim of this work is to suggest a brief preparatory course for Russian businessmen how to negotiate with Spanish colleagues successfully.

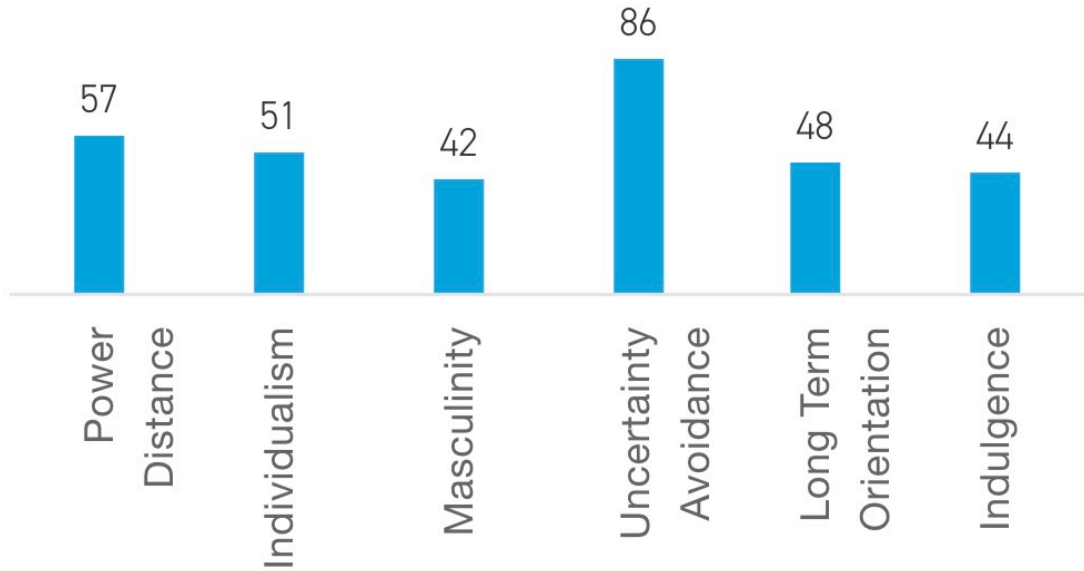
Generally speaking, people, who work in the business sphere do not have lots of time for long-term courses to improve their skills. Nevertheless, this small course, which consists of three main parts will be extremely useful and can be covered in one session. The first part of is a lecture, which is hold by cross-cultural specialist or mediator. Interested companies can invite such specialist for their employees. There will be mentioned and discussed all crucial aspects and recommendations for successful negotiations between Russian and Spanish businessmen. Second part is a seminary, when participants will have an opportunity to apply new knowledge in practice and role play real negotiations.

The introductory lecture should contain the following information: why we all need basic knowledge in cross-cultural sciences, the explanation of main differences between Russian and Spanish cultures and which potential challenges can be meet. Firstly, the lecturer should talk about the importance of being aware about cross-cultural studies. In general, people, who work in a business sphere have economical education, which means awareness about market peculiarities, juridical aspects and others. Usually these people know several (or at least one) foreign languages, but very less about differences between cultures. The lecture should define the term of “culture” and explain its significant role in international business. Russian businessmen could understand that their foreign colleagues are not just people, who care about financial aspect and are interested in benefit, but at the same time representatives of other culture that has unique history, traditions and customs, that should also be treated with respect. This aspect is especially crucial for Spanish businessmen, as for them personal qualities of people are more important than professional ones.

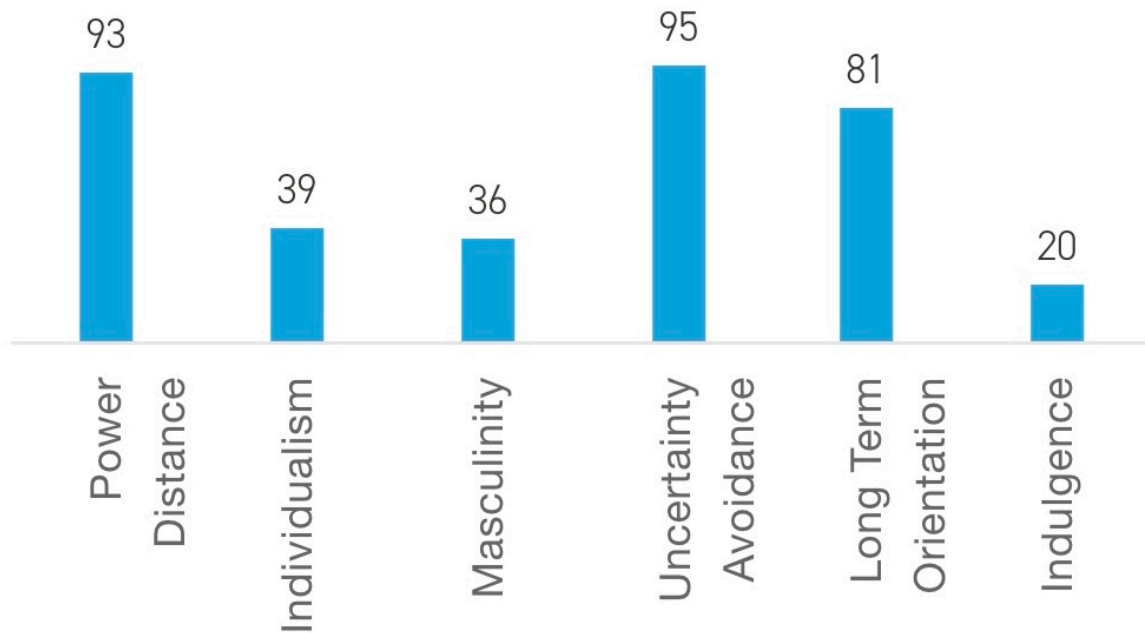
Secondly, the lecturer should explain in which aspects Russian and Spanish cultures are different. The most suitable model to illustrate these differences can be Hofstede's cultural dimensions. With a help of illustrations or bar charts the lecturer should explain to listeners how cultures can be compared. By using Hofstede's dimensions, namely: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation and indulgence. With a help of this model it can be seen that Russia and Spain are close only in uncertainty avoidance aspect, while

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by other parameters there are significantly different. The following diagrams will demonstrate this difference graphically and help Russian businessmen understand that the roots of potential misunderstandings lay not in character of their foreign colleagues, but in specific features of Spanish culture and traditions.



Picture 1-1. Spain



Picture 1-2. Russia

Afterwards, listeners should be informed about potential difficulties that they could meet with. For example, the habit of Spanish businessmen to be late, have a long break, to interrupt the interlocutor, speak too emotionally and many others. Though with the understanding the reasons of such behaviour Russian businessmen will not treat them

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as bad characteristics, but as specific features of their colleagues. Afterwards discussing all crucial aspects of the second part the lecturer can move to the next one.

The last part of the lecture should be dedicated to the practical recommendations and advice how to deal with all mentioned challenges. In this section not only communication tactics should be mentioned, such as: how to begin a conversation, react for unexpected utterances, which words should not be used. Moreover, special attention will be drawn to extra-linguistic aspects. The lecturer will explain how Russian businessmen should present themselves, especially: the appropriate poses, gestures language, eye contact, comfortable distance between colleagues, the loudness of voice. Speaking about extra-linguistic aspects here will also be discussed such an important aspect as clothes. The lecturer will show the most appropriate for negotiations outfits for men and women. This aspect will also be useful for women, as here will be mentioned recommendations concerned hairstyles, make-up and shoes. In this section the lecturer will also talk about communication outside the negotiations, for example, business coffee break or lunch. There will be mentioned the themes that can and cannot be discussed with Spanish partners. As an extra addition to the whole section the list of the most useful Spanish words will be presented. It is a well-known fact that it will be pleasant for each nation to hear the native language from their colleagues, and Spanish businessmen are not an exception.

The second part of the course is a seminary. All listeners will be divided in smaller groups (approximately 8-10 people) in order to pay equal attention to each participant. At the beginning lecture information will be briefly repeated and discussed. Then participants will investigate and solve real life cases of unsuccessful negotiations and suggest their ideas and solutions. The final part of this section is a role-play practice, in which groups of 3-4 people will try to practice real negotiations in order to apply their knowledge in practice. By the end of the course all participants will get a printout. This paper will contain the most important aspects from the lecture and practical guidelines how to prepare for negotiations and appropriately behave during them.

The practical importance of this course is wide. Firstly, it will help Russian businessmen to be emotionally ready for potential difficulties during negotiations. Secondly, it will inform people about the most suitable and effective communicational and behavioral tactics. Moreover, the course will be provided with real life cases in order to show how this theory can be used during real interaction. This course lasts for 3-4 hours, including seminary part, and will be significantly useful for Russian companies that cooperate with Spanish corporations. Potentially it can be also presented in online format (lectures and cases) in order to give businessmen an opportunity to complete it at any time and place. The advantages of this course are the following:

- 1) Capacity – the course can be covered in one day.
- 2) Structure – the course is organised in logical way and presents information that can be used in the practice immediately.
- 3) Originality – the course does not have analogues on the Russian market.

Summing up, the course “How to successfully negotiate with Spanish businessmen” will help many Russian companies to negotiate with Spanish colleagues professionally and make their partnership long-term and reliable.

Daria Mirzaeva
Higher School of Economics, Russia
damirzaeva@gmail.com

Cultural Peculiarities of American and Chinese Corporate Culture Models

The international market nowadays provides companies with ample opportunities to address potential customers. Nevertheless, different organizations have different ways to communicate their corporate image to their employees and consumers. The system of these specific ways refers to corporate culture and corporate communication of a company. Despite having similar objectives and core values, companies are highly likely to have different corporate cultures if they operate in different cultural environments. Hence, this article aims at establishing a link between cultural factors that shape the culture and communication in American and Chinese companies.

Being a part of society a person is constantly surrounded by various patterns of thinking and behavior. Some of them are learned in childhood when people are easily susceptible to learning. Some of the practices are acquired throughout the whole life in different settings: from primary school to work. The system of all values, beliefs and norms which create an intertwined picture of reality in the human mind and differentiate one from others can refer to culture (Newman and Nollen, 1996).

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From the perspective of social anthropology, culture can be defined as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others” (Hofstede, 1993). The analogy of computer software stresses the importance of experience that “programs” the way people act. In particular, a social environment where a person was brought up determines what is appropriate or inappropriate, just or unjust. Thus, people with similar “programming” create groups and share common values and norms. One can easily identify to which group he or she belongs to and act accordingly.

In business realities employees and employers are also involved in a particular environment with the established set of rules shaped by corporate or organizational culture (Goldhaber & Barnett, 1988). Nowadays all big corporations (Apple, Google, etc) are known for their unique corporate cultures that make them stand out in the volatile market. Although the concept of corporate culture has been studied from multiple perspectives for many years, there is no unified definition of this notion. One of the earliest definitions were introduced by Eldridge and Crombie who explain the notion of corporate culture as “the unique configuration of norms, values, beliefs and ways of behaving that characterize the manner in which groups and individuals combine to get things done” (Eldridge and Crombie, 1974). According to E. Schein, culture of a group is “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 1992). Furnham and Gunter introduce corporate culture as “the commonly held beliefs, attitudes, and values that exist in an organization” (Furnham and Gunter, 1993).

However, just the establishment of corporate culture is not enough to achieve the highest level of work performance. Organizations need to ensure that their culture is perceived and understood accurately among all their stakeholders. Consequently, the need for communication channels appears, which leads to the concept of corporate communication. Corporate communication is “an integrative communication structure linking stakeholders to the organization” (Riel & Charles, 2007). Corporate communication includes not only media and means to transmit a message, but also the message content. This primarily refers to language means that determine how the message would be transmitted. The choice of words is influenced by the recipients of the message: whether it is a company worker or a potential consumer.

Both culture in an organization and corporate communication ensure the level of efficiency of the company’s performance. Thus, organizations try to establish corporate cultures with productive corporate communication that would be effective for them, on one hand, and reflect their identity, on the other hand. However, not always companies succeed in their attempts to create their own unique culture. The reasons for the failure and ineffective corporate cultures could be different. To ensure the efficiency of culture in an organization, managers need to combine the desired corporate culture model with the environment the company performs in. To start with corporate culture models, this section presents: Edgar Schein’s Model, The McKinsey 7s Model, and Deal and Kennedy's Cultural Model.

Based on Edgar Schein’s Model, culture should be analyzed from the perspective of visible and invisible levels. The first level is presented with artifacts, which reflect visible assets associated with an organization. These are visible and invisible assets that a person unfamiliar with the culture can perceive and analyze. In particular, it may be presented by a special language or acronyms used in the company, dress code or physical environment. These principles form the next level of culture model and refer to espoused beliefs and values, i.e. “sense of what ought to be, as distinct from what is” (Schein, 1992). It’s clear that beliefs and values of an organization are embedded by someone who has a strong influence on employees. In most cases, it’s a leader or a founder of the company, who has his own vision of what the company should be. According to Schein, espoused beliefs and values are formed when a company faces new challenges and issues it has never met before. When a belief or value achieves the status of being taken for granted, it enters the next level, the level of basic underlying assumptions. Basic assumptions are so deeply ingrained into employees' behavior that any other behavior different from it is considered inappropriate and wrong. These “nonconfrontable and nondebatable” ideas, as Schein states, are very difficult to change as people need stability and consistency in what they are doing.

Another perspective is introduced by Tom Peters and Robert Waterman in the 1970s. The experience of being former consultants at McKinsey & Company allowed them to formulate seven elements of corporate culture called the McKinsey 7s model (Peters & Waterman, 1982). According to this model, culture of an organization consists of two groups of elements: “hard” elements and “soft” elements. Both hard and soft elements reinforce and balance each other for the best performance possible. The first group is easy to identify as it is transparent to managers and employees:

- strategy — a plan to achieve a well-defined and long-term goal as well as maintain a competitive advantage;
 - structure — the way an organization is structured and relationships between departments;
 - systems — daily processes and operations that happen in a company.
- “Soft” elements, on the contrary, are not that obvious for managers and require extra work to be identified. This group consists of:
- style — the way an organization is managed by a leader;

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- staff — type and number of employees that are required;
- skills — abilities and competencies of an employee;
- shared values — a core element of the model, formed by basic norms and values of an organization which guide the behavior of employees.

Deal and Kennedy's Cultural Model suggests other six cultural elements, which combine with each other to form a corporate culture. Based on these elements, they also suggested classification to distinguish cultures of different companies (Deal, Kennedy, 1982):

- history — a narrative story of past events of the company reflected through core values and traditions that are actively practiced in the company.
- values and beliefs — principles that determine what is important in the company and shape behavior of employees.
- rituals and ceremonies — employee behavior, which bonds them together and brings a sense of community. Rituals exist on the team-level and are reflected through daily activities and communication between employees. Ceremonies happen on an organizational level to celebrate success or reinforce communication between different levels of workers.
- stories — narratives that include main beliefs and values of an organization and provide an example of expected behavior. Stories let employees understand corporate culture and what is needed from them.
- heroic figures — managers, who serve as role models for people working for a company. Heroic figures are embodiments of all beliefs and values practiced in the organization, so their influence is high.
- the cultural network — the informal framework in a company, which provides employees with all information regarding the organization.

Three models presented in the chapter have different elements to analyze corporate culture. The next chapter focuses on cultural peculiarities of American and Chinese corporate culture models.

In the early 1990s, Robert House suggested using Hofstede's research for further studies on cultural differences and established the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project. The project is a large international study among 62 countries with 170 country co-investigators which aims at establishing interrelations between societal culture and organizational effectiveness. Having gathered information from 17,300 middle managers in 951 organizations, the research devised nine dimensions to analyze cultures and introduced culturally endorsed leadership theory (House et al., 2004). The introduced dimensions include performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance. As it can be seen, some dimensions are new while some of them are taken from Hofstede's research (power distance, uncertainty avoidance). All countries that have been analysed during the research obtained ranks from A to C, where A indicates high rates.

Performance orientation is defined as “the extent to which a community encourages and rewards innovation, high standards, and performance improvement” (House et al., 2004). The attitude to work differs in many cultures, which is partly influenced by religious systems dominant in society. While some religions (e.g. Catholic) consider work as the only way to salvation, other religions (e.g. Protestant) view work as a calling. Catholic religions actively encourage prayers and confessions to ensure eternal peace. In contrast to this approach, the Protestant doctrine views work as a personal choice, as one is responsible for his or her own salvation. These two approaches to work are further reflected in daily life and business as well. Both American and Chinese cultures represent high performance-oriented societies with rank A: the USA scores 4.49 and China scores 4.45.

Future orientation is “the extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification” (House et al., 2004). There are three temporal frames used in all societies: past, present and future. Some cultures tend to use some frames more actively than others, which indicates their values, attitudes to life and goals. As a result, cultures differ in their attitude toward the future. Cultures with low levels of future orientation focus on the present more, which leads to immediate spontaneous actions and unwillingness to plan and schedule events. Cultures with high levels of future orientation usually clearly formulate their goals and plan events on a daily basis. American culture scores 4.15 with rank B, which indicates high future-oriented culture. Chinese culture score 3.75 with rank C, which is relatively lower than the American score.

Gender egalitarianism is “the degree to which a collective minimizes gender inequality” (House et al., 2004). In contrast to Hofstede's division of masculine and feminine, GLOBE research introduced a different approach to the notion of gender inequality in society. Apart from the attitudinal domain used by Hofstede, gender egalitarianism also includes behavioral manifestations. The attitudinal domain consists of gender stereotypes and gender-role ideology, which are reflected through masculinity and femininity. Behavioral manifestations include gender discrimination and gender equality. The larger context of gender egalitarianism anticipates the causes and consequences of human behavior. Both the USA and China perform relatively low on this dimension with rank B: 3.34 and 3.05 respectively. Such scores indicate that societies are not likely to minimize gender inequality.

Assertiveness is “the degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationship with others” (House et al., 2004). Despite little attention to this aspect of human activity in the cross-cultural sphere, assertiveness receives abundant attention in psychology. Although assertiveness is believed to be a

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personal trait, House argues that it is culturally determined. While Hofstede suggests viewing assertiveness as a trait of masculine societies, a series of experiments provide data that both men and women express assertive behavior. What should be studied is the attitude of the society towards assertive behavior: whether it is perceived as appropriate or not. While some cultures encourage children to be assertive, other cultures view assertiveness as a negative pattern of behavior. American culture scores higher on this dimension with 4.55 (rank A). In contrast to American society, Chinese culture scores lower with 3.76 and rank B.

Humane orientation is “the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others” (House et al., 2004). The way people treat each other distinguish cultures into two groups: high humane-oriented cultures and low humane-oriented cultures. The quality of life and social relationships also differ according to the type of culture. Both the USA and China have almost similar scores on the humane orientation dimension: 4.17 and 4.36 respectively.

Institutional collectivism is “the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action” (House et al., 2004). In-group collectivism is “the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families” (House et al., 2004). Both dimensions examine the notion of collectivism from different perspectives, although they are based on the common idea of collectivism. The difference between the two dimensions is the paradigms of collectivism that are described. Institutional collectivism refers to external efforts of the society or the group to achieve goals by collective efforts, as the government or other groups try to establish a collective mechanism of work. In-group collectivism refers to the internal efforts of the groups to collectively solve problems by emphasizing in-group ties. Being an individualistic culture, American culture scores low in the collectivistic dimensions. In particular, the USA scores 4.25 for the in-group collectivism dimension (rank C). Chinese culture is characterized by high institutional collectivism (4.77 and rank A) and high in-group collectivism (5.8 and rank A).

Despite the thorough analysis of uncertainty avoidance in Hofstede’s research, GLOBE presents new findings concerning the societal attitude to the unknown. The essence of the cultural dimension has not changed throughout the years, uncertainty avoidance is “the extent to which members of collectives seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formalized procedures, and laws to cover situations in their daily lives” (House et al., 2004). The difference between Hofstede’s research and GLOBE’s findings is based on the variables that were examined. Hofstede measured the dimensions using three items (employment stability, rule orientation and stress). The GLOBE study used a more profound approach with four consistency variables, which were different from ones proposed by Hofstede (orderliness, structured lifestyles, explicit specification of societal requirements, and societal regulations). Moreover, the results were measured on a 7-point scale to devise a more precise Uncertainty Avoidance Index. China scores high on uncertainty avoidance with 4.94 (rank A) while the USA scores are lower with 4.15 and rank B.

The power distance dimension is also different in Hofstede’s research and GLOBE research. While in Hofstede’s findings the USA scored low in power distance, the GLOBE research considers the USA a high power distance country. The reason for this difference lies in the different approaches that the studies use. The GLOBE implements two scales: country score and country values. The Hofstede’s results are valid for the practices, but not fully valid for the values. This gap may cause discrepancies, which further influence the overall country score. Thus, the GLOBE research views their score as more accurate, as two scales provide a more profound view on the issue. Both the USA and China score high on the dimension 4.88 (rank B) and 5.04 (rank B) respectively.

Based on the results of the study, American and Chinese cultures are different in 6 dimensions out of 9, which is expected to be reflected in corporate practices as well. We hypothesize that cultural peculiarities directly influence corporate culture and corporate communication. Our research is still ongoing, but the preliminary results reveal that our hypothesis is likely to be confirmed. These cultural differences are reflected in corporate cultures and corporate communication and shape corporate cultures of companies. Thus, organizations need to take into consideration the cultural peculiarities of regions during the expansion. This would ensure that their corporate identities are transmitted accurately.

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Part VI

DIALOGUE OF CULTURES IN FICTION

Veronika Agamova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
agamovaveronika@gmail.com

Conventional and Creative Metaphors of Time in Contemporary English Prose

Time is deeply intertwined with all the aspects of human life. However, the concept itself remains rather elusive as it is difficult to pinpoint. The role of social time is vital: it organizes the society and shapes the mind; hence the perception of time drastically differs not only between cultures but also amongst individuals. To describe their temporal experience people often employ expressive means of language, metaphors being one of them. Over the years, a number of primary conceptual metaphorical models of time have emerged that are used to denote different aspects of the temporal experience, e.g. the flow of time, its value, etc. However, it is crucial to personify individual experience and the way we transmit it to other people. That is why creative metaphors that reconsider and reimagine the conventions of time have gained popularity. The purpose of this research is to select and analyze creative metaphors of time and categorize them according to the models they represent. The research is aimed at analyzing conventional metaphorical models and exploring how individuals engage in the process of linguistic creativity while describing personal temporal experience using creative metaphors. The chosen qualitative method of research is the selection of creative metaphors in contemporary English prose using the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and research engine Google Scholar. This research demonstrates that temporal experience is vital and creative metaphors of time are a crucial tool to describe one’s interactions with the concept of time.

concept of time, temporal mentality, metaphor, conventional metaphors, creative metaphors, metaphorical creativity

The phenomenon of time has been intriguing the greatest minds for centuries, however, researchers still have not come to a consensus on the matter. Due to its elusive nature, the notion of time remains rather difficult to pinpoint and define while encompassing the complexity of its aspects. As people were striving to comprehend the essence of time and harness its course, several understandings of the phenomenon have been proposed and acquired in different scientific fields. Time remains a philosophical conundrum, as researchers discover more nuances of how deeply the concept is intertwined with society and culture. With the increasing interest in intercultural studies, closer attention has been given to the concept of time among different cultures, and how it shapes the language people use while describing the temporal experience.

Time as we know it is a social construct, created to control, direct, and facilitate human activity. It is crucial to note that due to its vague nature time cannot be objectively experienced with the human organs of perception; hence it was necessary to establish new ways to visually represent the flow of time – first clocks and calendars. Time is regarded not only as a moving force of society but as a prerequisite for the formation of the society itself. The idea of time being a social phenomenon was pioneered by E. T. Hall (1983), who considered it to be the invisible force underlining all human interactions. The idea of time-dependency was further advanced by a Soviet scholar V. Yakovlev (1980) who studied the juxtaposition of natural and social time. Natural time is linear and one-dimensional, whereas social time operates within multiple dimensions surrounding people.

To provide a wider background on the topic we shall briefly describe the historical context formed around time-person relations in the Western countries. Time as a cultural tradition goes back to the Catholic Church, the main enlightener of the era, which held monopolistic control over time and explained the phenomenon to people (Greenhouse, 1983). Thus, time was seen as a God-given power that the human mind cannot comprehend. However, further technological breakthroughs paved the way for the slow secularization of time, a person now could not only watch the flow of time but carry it inside their pocket. Newly established temporal relations were also heavily influenced by the changes in the economy, and the formation of the capitalistic society turned time into a monetary resource. The artificial division between working hours and free time created a new life regiment; common workers understood the correlation between the wages and the working time. Analyzing this dynamic, J. Urry (2000) states that economic development is one of the crucial factors that influenced the shift in time perception.

As was stated before, time is a social phenomenon, hence we shall consider various understandings of this concept in different cultures to analyze how the perception of time influences the worldview, cultural traditions, and language representation. The concept of time influences all aspects of social life, including interpersonal and intrapersonal communication. We shall note that these categories do not exist separately but add up to each other, creating unique cultural patterns.

Key cultural categories of time are:

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- Polychronic or Monochronic time. P-time is prevalent in the Eastern and Arabic countries, it manifests itself in the preference to be involved in multiple activities simultaneously. People with this type of time perception value involvement and completion of a task rather than strict adherence to the plan. Whereas people with M-time, which dominates the West and is most noticeable in the United States and Scandinavia, prefer to stick to the schedule and sequence activities. Moreover, representatives of this culture see time as a tangible asset that can be budgeted, spent, and wasted. (E. T. Hall, 1983)
- Time orientation. It is seen as a cultural predisposition to ascribe more importance to one time period – past, present, or future. This factor determines rituals and traditions practiced in the country. For instance, past-oriented Eastern countries pay respect to the wise elders and carefully protect traditions, whereas people on the West are focused on the “nowness”, presence in the moment, and getting quick results.
- Linear or cyclic time models. The two main ways of visually representing the flow of time are a line and a circle. The Timeline concept dominating the Western societies depicts time as a sequence of events, happening one after another with a clear division between the past, the present, and the future, whereas Eastern nations see time as a never-ending cycle of repetitive events that seamlessly flow into each other. Moreover, the future is seen as something already experienced, which mitigated possible worries.
- Clock-time and event-time. There are certain temporal markers used by groups of people. While Western countries count time using the clock as an objective measure, the East leans towards measuring time by the events a person lived through.

Describing modern temporal practices, J. Urry (2002) coins the term “instantaneous time”. The emergence of the term is connected with the drastic advancements in the technology of the 20th century. New ways of communication, which no longer require waiting to get a result, formed a unique time-space continuum allowing people across the globe to exist in a synchronized temporal space being connected by the continual broadcasts of events. This cultural shift drastically changed the perception of time; now a person is out of sync with the natural time and has gained autonomy over their temporal experience. Russian scholar T. A. Alexina (2013) identifies this process as “demassification of time” highlighting the personification of time experience. There appears a certain temporal freedom that allows one to live on their unique time regiment. All the aforementioned factors have given rise to the phenomenon of temporal mentality – the complex of time perception ways inherent to a culture that shape and determine attitudes and value of time. In the Western temporal mentality, the linear view of time became the prerequisite for the cult of productivity, as the social standard for higher performance was acquired after the Industrial Revolution. Ascribing more value to time leads to a culturally preconditioned fixation of spending time productively and filling every second with activities as reluctance to constantly do something is deemed unprofessional and is frowned upon.

The modern research environment enables us to delve deeper into the personified perception of time and analyze the patterns of its verbalization. Personal temporal experienced can be influenced by such factors as social status, access to education, gender, and age. According to American psychologist R. Levine (1997), there are five crucial factors that reflect on time perception: pleasantness of activity, degree of urgency, amount of activity, variety, and time-free tasks. Another crucial factor to consider is the psychological clock – the inner time measuring system that is formed by both cultural and unique personal characteristics.

Giving space to the analysis of personal temporal experience creates a landscape for productive research. According to previous research (Fulmer, 2014; Nagornaya, 2017; Paprotté, 1985), such an intangible phenomenon as time is usually verbalized using expressive means of language, the main of them being metaphors. The attitude towards metaphor in scientific context and its overall appropriateness has drastically changed over the course of time, as some philosophers considered it trickery and a way to conceal one’s true intentions, while others praised it for its expressiveness and ability to encompass emotion and reason. Metaphor, being an intrinsic part of the Humanities discourse, gained a new dimension with the emergence of the Cognitive Metaphor Theory of G. Lakoff and M. Johnson (1980). Now metaphor is considered to be a tool of exploring and conceptualizing the world. Understanding one concept in terms of another allows establishing new cognitive links that help to comprehend new ideas and express one’s attitudes. It is crucial to note that the conceptual metaphor is not always represented as “A is B” pattern as there are many more verbal representations of the model.

Over the course of time, several primary metaphorical models depicting time have emerged, forming certain discursive conventions around talking of time. Conventional metaphors of time represent certain noticeable temporal aspects and describe them in a way that is easy to comprehend and transmit. Another class of conventional metaphors is dead metaphors – expressions that used to be original and vibrant but lost any expressiveness due to excessive use. Nonetheless, researchers argue that dead metaphors are a valid field of study, as they can provide an insight into culture and society. Conventional metaphors of time reflect both modern and historic ideas of time.

The system presented below was devised by George Lakoff and Mark Turner (1989), as these metaphors characterize the view of time in Western cultures:

- Space metaphors. TIME IS A LANDSCAPE WE MOVE THROUGH; TIME IS A MOVING ENTITY (*to move ahead of time, to look into the future, the end of time*). These metaphors reflect the linear perception of time and the way people move along the line of their life from the past to the future.

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- Object metaphors. TIME IS MONEY; TIME IS A RESOURCE (*to budget time, to waste time, time is up*). This metaphorical model came with the advancements in the economy and still dominates the language in all spheres of life.
- Person metaphors. TIME IS A CHANGER; TIME IS A PURSUER; TIME IS A THIEF (*time heals, time will catch you, the time has stolen his youth*). Ascribing different social roles to the concept of time allows us to personify the intangible phenomenon we interact with.

Thus we can conclude that the concept of time is one of the most active metaphorical attractors in the English language, and different conventional metaphors are crucial to describe many sides of the concept.

Deeply intertwined cultural and social contexts of time create an enabling environment for self-expression by using conventional metaphors, modifying them, or creating new unique personal metaphorical expressions to verbalize individual experience. However, conventional metaphors are often inadequate in depicting the nuances of personal temporal experience, in this case, one may tap into metaphorical creativity. Linguistic creativity is one of the most frequently used ways of self-expression, as it regularly occurs in speech without even being noticed, R. Carter (2016) names this phenomenon “everyday creativity”. There are numerous stimuli that contribute to linguistic creativity, including strong emotions, neutralizing verbal conflict, or expressing personality. Nonetheless, to be creative one shall have sufficient knowledge of conventions and general cultural-historic background. K. Negus and M. J. Pickering (2004) call this “creative competence”, defined as structured knowledge of the cultural background, social and language conventions, and the appropriateness of their use acquired by personal experience. According to R. Carter (2016), creativity is a “special capacity of all people” which represents the essence of the postmodern approach to creativity, as a tool everyone can use and not a God-given special power.

One of the main assets of linguistic creativity is metaphorical creativity. According to Z. Kövecses (2002), metaphorical creativity is the creation or employment of new conceptual metaphors and/or their verbal representations that can be characterized as unique and new. Creativity can exist in both parts of the conceptual metaphor – in the source domain and in the target domain. It can be presented as updating and changing conventional metaphors on the verbal level, their transformation, and additions, or can turn into the creation of completely new metaphors that represent previously hidden aspects of a concept. The author regards metaphorical creativity as a contextual phenomenon that can solely exist in the process of communication.

The main objective of this research is to discover and perform further analysis of creative metaphors of time in contemporary English prose. The primary source of information was literature of different genres from which we have extracted 100 representative examples of creative temporal metaphors that verbalize different aspects of the concept TIME. After rebuilding the cognitive process behind said metaphors, selected examples were categorized into seven groups according to the conceptual aspect they represent.

- Metaphorical model “TIME IS A PERSON”
Personification is the most popular way of describing time, as a person can separate time from themselves and visualize it as a new entity. Description of time as a social figure often revolves around the idea of time having control over a person: *clock time is our bank manager, tax collector, police inspector; this time is our wife* (J. B. Priestley, *Man and Time*). The author metaphorically grants time power by putting it in a dominant social position. Time gains control over human resources: *time is like a creditor, who allows ample space to make up accounts, but is inexorable at last* (*Scientific American: N.S. 6. 1862*). However, time can also appear as someone inferior, providing service: *time is the almost invisible servant, not the master, of this drama* (J. B. Priestly, *Man and time*). Time can also be seen as an enemy: *time is my greatest enemy* (Evita Peron). Especially interesting are metaphors depicting time as a monstrous creature: *time is like some balked monster, waiting outside the valley, to pounce on the slackers who have managed to evade him longer than they should* (James Hilton, *Lost Horizon*). We shall note that personification does not always mean equation of notions, as time can be portrayed as “performing” human activities: *time has fallen asleep in the afternoon sunshine* (Ray Bradbury, *Fahrenheit 451*); *time was in a hurry and wished to make one year do for twenty* (J.R. Tolkien, *Lord of The Rings, The Return of The King*). Time can be put onto different levels of the social pyramid, gaining or losing control over its subject – people. Time is given its own age, temper, and manners, thus it can act independently and influence our life.

- Metaphorical model “TIME IS A NATURAL PHENOMENON”
Nature is an active metaphorical source domain in the English language tradition. Time can be compared to natural forces: *time is like fire: first it dashes forward in an impetuous flare, then it lurks hidden in the slow carbonization of the epochs, and then it twists and darts away in lightninglike and unpredictable zigzags* (Joseph Francese, *Narrating Postmodern Time and Space*); or as a concept associated with seasons: *time is a snowball with the past in the center while ever new presents accrete around in, as it rolls down the hill of history* (Paul Nahin, *Time machines : time travel in physics, metaphysics, and science fiction*). The flow of time itself becomes a metaphor, comparing it to the bodies of water: *time is like flowing stream and once it flows, it will never come back and no one can stop it too.* (Abinash Rai, *You Deserve Success: Ordinary Discipline Makes You Extraordinary*). These metaphors are created on the basis of empirical experience of the world and visual associations.

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— Metaphorical model “TIME IS A SUBSTANCE”

The uniqueness of the time flow enables people to create metaphors describing its physical characteristics: texture, smell, sound, and taste. Time can be seen as a substance: *aside from velcro, time is the most mysterious substance in the universe. You can't see it or touch it, yet a plumber can charge you upwards of seventy-five dollars per hour for it, without necessarily fixing anything (Dave Burry)*. It can stretch, flow like liquid and interact with surfaces: *he imagined time as something that pooled and puddled, wondered if there were places where time hung heavy, places where it was heaped and held – cities, he thought, must be filled with time: all the places where people congregated, where they came and brought time with them (Neil Gaiman, The Monarch of The Glen)*. One can describe the sound of time: *and if you wondered what Time sounded like it sounded like water running in a dark cave and voices crying and dirt dropping down upon hollow box lids, and rain. (Ray Bradbury, The Martian Cornicles)*. Thus, time possesses its own physical qualities which make it more tangible.

— Metaphorical model “TIME IS A RESOURCE”

The conceptual base of this model is the conventional metaphor “TIME IS MONEY”. However, by employing new source domains the metaphor gains expressiveness: *time is like a talent that we all have been given to invest and trade with in order to make profits in life (Noah I. Mushet, Speed up your success in times of crisis)*. Time may not be equated to money and be just a resource: *maybe time is like money, having no meaning on its own, but acting as a convenient means of exchange (George Musser, The Complete Idiot's Guide to String Theory: Take Your Understanding of Physics into a Whole New Dimension!)*; the resource can also be limited: *so far as the gunslinger could see, time was something they had a lot of (Stephen King, The Dark Tower)*. Thus, the majority of metaphors in this group renew the conventional model.

— Metaphorical model “TIME IS A MECHANISM”

This model is firmly based on the main way of experiencing time – using the mechanical clock. However, the source domain can be reimaged and another object that is similar in shape and is functionally based on rotation can be employed: *time is like the dial on a radio. Most people like to settle on a station with a clear signal and no interference... (Marcelo Figueras, Kamchatka)*; *because time is like a marry-go-round within a marry-go-round, it moves but it is somehow the same even if you're riding on an iron tiger (Ralph Ellison, Juneteenth: A Novel)*. The mechanical movement in a circle remains the same but the verbalization is new and different. Another sub-category of this model is transport metaphors, the main element of which is the train, as the railway system is a crucial element of Western culture: *time is like a crushing machine ruining our structured high quality work (Richard Fox, Creating a purposeful life)*, *time is like standing on a railway platform when a non-stop express train rushes past – it is gone in a flash (Richard Fox, Creating a purposeful life)*. Transport metaphors combine two ways of interacting with time – either by being an outside observant, or an active participant following its course.

— Metaphorical model “TIME IS AN OBJECT”

Representing time as an object is crucial to provide easier ways of understanding it. The linear idea of time is represented in such metaphors as: *the passage of time is like the unrolling of a rug whose pattern has long been established (Thomas V. Morris, Our idea of God: an introduction to philosophical theology)*; *the flow of time is like as long, thin tube stuffed with everything imaginable and calling out to be seen (Ryuho Okawa, The golden Laws: History through the eyes of the eternal Buddha)*. The concept can also be represented as a system of objects being in or out of harmony: *time is like a palette of colors, and the whole society is focused on one narrow range of those colors, represented by the clock (Bill Viola's Video Art Display, New York City's Whitney Museum)*; *time is like a melody – play it in tune and you journey in harmony. Play it out of tune and you get a bumpy ride (Richard Fox, Creating a purposeful life)*. Comparing time with ordinary objects enables us to visualize and better understand such a complex phenomenon.

— Metaphorical model “TIME IS A PLACE”

The conventional metaphor TIME IS A LANDSCAPE can be verbalized by an array of different creative ways. Time can become a space that is hard to leave: *time is the worst place, so to speak, to get lost in, as Arthur Dent could testify, having been lost in both time and space a good deal. At least being lost in space kept you busy (Douglas Adams, The hitchhiker's guide to the galaxy)*; *in the Land of Memory, the time is always Now (Stephen King, The Dark Tower VI, Song of Susannah)*. Employing cultural traditions and folklore allows authors to create unique time-space locations: *time is like a vast, shimmering Shangri-la that is accessed when we leave the manufactured, regimented world behind (Marie Sherlock, Living simply with children)*. To create new metaphors, speakers often choose unique locations, giving time physical space and territory one can leave or even get lost in.

Current Humanities discourse is concerned with studying personal aspects of human experience, and interactions with the concept of time remain one of the crucial aspects of the postmodern research environment. Despite multiple studies conducted on the temporal metaphors, creative metaphorical expressions still lack academic attention. This research is aimed at addressing the gap and starting the discussion around creativity within the temporal discourse. As conventional metaphors may seem bleak and lack particular expressiveness, engaging in the process of metaphorical creativity allows finding unique personal ways to verbalize one's experience. Creative

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temporal metaphors not only widen the corpus of the modern English language but highlight previously hidden aspects of the concept of time. Proving validity and research importance of the personified expressions enhance our understanding of the complexity of human cognition. The results of the current study may pave the way for further linguistic discoveries in the field and enrich the discourse of temporal language.

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Lucio Giuliodori
Department of Foreign Languages
Rudn University, Russia
luciojuliodori@gmail.com

Povera patria: Il sociale nei brani di Battiato

Franco Battiato does not usually concern himself with social issues. During his long career, he has mainly dealt with philosophical and esoteric matters, his closeness to Gurdjieff cannot but confirm it. However, even he eventually ended up grappling with the troubled nature of Italian politics and society. This short paper concentrates on two specific songs: *Povera patria* and *Innere auge*.

Even subjects which are not in his main repertoire eventually gain conceptual and emotional strength - we can attribute this to his uniquely communicative style, at times both poetical and philosophical yet also concrete - thus, social-political issues also come to the fore. This short contribution on Battiato's output aims at casting light on the alleged dichotomy between minor social issues and their actual relevance

Franco Battiato, Italian Studies, Aesthetics, Contemporary Italian music, Italian society and culture.

Un artista profondo, colto e impegnato in un percorso evolutivo può non essere avvezzo a denunciare le problematiche sociali, tanto egli ne è distante, non certo per disinteresse quanto per struttura interiore, sapendo bene che il mondo esterno lo si anticipa (costruisce) in quello interno: «La forza non serve a niente. Ci vuole una presa di posizione seria dell'individuo uomo all'interno del suo essere, della sua vita»¹⁰. Nella canzone *New frontiers* è lapidario nell'affermare: «L'evoluzione sociale non serve al popolo se non è preceduta da un'evoluzione di

¹⁰ F. BATTIATO, *Tecnica mista su tappeto, Conversazioni autobiografiche con Franco Pulcini*, EDT, Torino 1992., p. 95.

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pensiero»¹¹. Non possiamo pensare di riparare la carrozzeria di una macchina (che Gurdjieff chiama «biologica») di cui non conosciamo nemmeno il motore.

In ogni modo lungo gli anni della sua carriera, l'eccelso musicista si cimenta anche in una sorta di «critica sociale» e come sostiene Zingales, con *Povera Patria* egli piange e sono lacrime d'arte: «Se ho scritto *Povera Patria* è perché sono coinvolto. Ogni sera guardare il telegiornale è una sofferenza, a meno che non si resti indifferenti a questo passare, che so, da Riccardo Muti ai morti ammazzati»¹². Lo spessore di *Povera Patria* evidenzia la ferita nel cuore di un uomo che dall'alto della poesia ci restituisce l'immagine di un paese che è sprofondata nel male, anche il male dell'indifferenza, è tale «omnitudine» ciò che più spaventa: l'assassino può sempre redimersi, l'indifferente rimane tale.

Ciò ovviamente non salva né giustifica chi il male lo compie davvero, chi garantisce e legalizza questo stato di cose. In un'intervista Battiato ha dichiarato che questi politici non sono umani: «Credo che siano un po' diversi dagli esseri umani, sì, perché non c'è rimorso, né pietà. Questa classe politica ha lasciato la corruzione intatta, com'era vent'anni fa, com'era trent'anni fa. Come fanno a guardarsi allo specchio? Sono orgogliosi del fatto che rubano, questo è insopportabile, sono orgogliosi»¹³. E ancora: «La stessa totale estraneità oggi (e questa volta però c'è solo disgusto) la provo per certi uomini di «potere». Anche qui il mistero è fitto. Sono uomini o subumani?»¹⁴.

Da *Povera patria a Inneres Auge*.

L'impegno politico di Battiato è una questione davvero rilevante¹⁵: le due canzoni scelte e analizzate in questo breve contributo¹⁶ sono un termometro del momento sociale che attraversava il paese (1991 e 2009), due campanelli d'allarme, un allarme che sa di catastrofe: «A me non piace scrivere questo tipo di canzoni. [...] Lo faccio come cittadino, è un dovere per me»¹⁷. C'è differenza tra i due brani perché se il primo rimane su tinte generali, il secondo dipinge il ritratto del colpevole: Berlusconi¹⁸. E' davvero singolare che un personaggio quale Battiato arrivi addirittura a «dedicare» l'apertura di un brano ad un singolo politico, ciò è eloquente riguardo al culmine dello sdegno raggiunto¹⁹. Lo schifo è tale che va denunciato e per farlo si usa perfino ciò che si ha di più prezioso, l'arte, la si arriva a contaminare addirittura, a infettarla. Il valore simbolico di *Inneres Auge* è pertanto illimitato riguardo al tema in questione.

Seppur sporcata, la canzone riesce alla fine a purificarsi e lo fa tramite un epilogo filosofico tanto icastico quanto eloquente: Battiato dopo aver denunciato la depravazione, l'assenza di pudore sfoggiata e lanciata in faccia agli italiani, torna in sé: ecco che la sua arte torna alla sua funzione precipua, torna su quel livello «salvifico», terapeutico e iniziatico che accompagna il maestro in ogni sua creazione: «Ma quando ritorno in me/Sulla mia Via/A leggere e studiare/Ascoltando i grandi del passato/Mi basta una sonata di Corelli/Perché mi meravigli del creato»²⁰. L'artista siciliano, come afferma nel brano *L'ombrello e la macchina da cucire*, dall'omonimo album del 1995²¹, a mio avviso il più filosofico, è un «contemporaneo della fine del mondo», quest'epoca infatti non è semplicemente

¹¹ F. BATTIATO, *L'arca di Noè*, Emi 1982. In un orizzonte di pensiero come quello perennialista (a cui Battiato è ovviamente vicino, basti pensare che *Fetus* è dedicato a Huxley), in cui centrale è il concetto di evoluzione (e dunque disuguaglianza), ciò che conta è la «salvezza» dell'individuo, del saggio, non della massa - a «salvezza» di quest'ultima è solo un intento velleitario e demagogico.

¹² Citato in C. ZINGALES, *Battiato on the beach*, Arcana, Roma 2010, p. 43.

¹³ *Ivi*, p. 62.

¹⁴ F. BATTIATO, *In fondo sono contento di aver fatto la mia conoscenza*, Bompiani, Milano 2007, p. 8

¹⁵ D'altronde lo stesso breve ingresso in politica con la nomina ad Assessore fu già di per sé un fatto piuttosto eloquente. L'artista, che rinunciò allo stipendio, diceva comunque che l'appellativo Assessore lo offendeva e preferiva farsi chiamare Franco. Spendere parole sull'esito della sua breve parentesi politica non credo sia nemmeno opportuno, semmai imbarazzante. Che il Moralismo abbia condannato Battiato per una parolaccia, proprio lui sublime paroliere, fa tornare alla mente la denuncia (e quindi l'arresto) di Bruno ad opera del Mocenigo. E' proprio vero che il destino di uomini superiori debba a volte venir umiliato da infine e nulle figure che nell'economia di quell'universo che risponde all'amore, ci si chiede quale funzione abbiano se non quella, beffarda appunto, di interferire, inspiegabilmente, platealmente, con i piani superiori. Potremmo davvero chiedere a chi *credette* di metterlo in punizione come una maestra di scuolona di campagna: «Ti sei mai Chiesto quale funzione hai? Quale funzione hai ti sei mai chiesto?». F. BATTIATO, *Il silenzio del rumore in Pollution*, Bla Bla 1972.

¹⁶ Non sono ovviamente gli unici due brani in cui il Maestro accenna a temi legati alla politica o alla società in generale, anche negli anni Ottanta a volte inseriva alcuni spunti, come non ricordare *Up patriots to arms* e la celebre frase: «Le barricate in piazza le fai per conto della borghesia che crea falsi miti di progresso». F. BATTIATO, *Patriots*, Emi, 1980. Nonostante il titolo dell'album, *Patriots* non è un disco che affronta temi politici, Battiato come al solito vuole creare giustapposizioni surrealiste e giocare col concetto di contraddizione, riuscendoci magistralmente, ome sempre. Rimanendo agli anni Ottanta infine va ricordato *L'esodo* in cui canta: «Prima che la terza Rivoluzione Industriale provochi l'ultima grande esplosione nucleare prepariamoci per l'esodo/Fine dell'imperialismo degli invasori russi e del colonialismo inglese e americano». F. BATTIATO, *L'arca di Noè*, Emi, 1982.

¹⁷ *Ivi*, p. 63.

¹⁸ Il riferimento è diretto e palese: «Uno dice che male c'è/A organizzare feste private con delle belle ragazze /Per allietare primari e servitori dello Stato/Non ci siamo capiti/E perché mai dovremmo pagare anche gli extra a dei rincoglioniti?». F. BATTIATO, *Inneres Auge*, Universal, 2009.

¹⁹ Anche se c'è da dire che il riferimento è solo limitato all'inizio del brano, nel ritornello tornano perentori i temi di sempre: «La linea orizzontale ci spinge verso la materia / Quella verticale verso lo spirito». *Ibidem*.

²⁰ *Ibidem*.

²¹ F. BATTIATO, *L'ombrello e la macchina da cucire*, Emi 1995.

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deplorable: è mortifera. Una società che produce morte (la *civitas diaboli* come la definiva Elémire Zolla²²), non può che innescare morte essa stessa, ed ecco la splendida associazione, sottile, elegante e profonda nel brano seguente, quasi a concludere un sillogismo, il brano è *Breve invito a rinviare il suicidio*. Siccome questa non è più nemmeno una società, allora questa non è più una vita quanto una parvenza di essa. Già nel 1983, in *Orizzonti perduti*²³ Battiato cantava: «ci vuole un'altra vita» ma è con *L'ombrello e la macchina da cucire* che l'appello si fa più grave, drammatico ma geniale: «Questa parvenza di vita ha» perfino «reso antiquato il suicidio/Questa parvenza di vita Signore, non lo merita/Solo una migliore».

Sembra riecheggiare quella *crisi del mondo moderno* di guenoniana memoria²⁴, d'altronde il filosofo francese non è citato solo in *Magic shop*²⁵, altra perla di genialità altissima, ma, «invisibilmente» - e quindi visibilmente ad un attento vedere («armonia invisibile della visibile è migliore» diceva Eraclito) - in gran parte del *corpus* della produzione battiatiana.

Tuttavia l'essere consapevoli del *tramonto occidentale* (in questo brano l'omaggio è rivolto a Spengler)²⁶, non significa esserne vittime – lo si sarebbe solo se *inconsapevoli* di tale tramonto. La denuncia della crisi è propedeutica al risveglio in quanto, come insegnava già Zolla, è proprio nel suo occultamento che il sacro risplende e inoltre, come afferma il Maestro in *Ermeneutica*: «solo quando il sacro parla l'eccezionale prende forma»²⁷. Come Zolla che nello svelare *che cos'è la Tradizione* non può non criticare l'anti Tradizione²⁸, così Battiato nel constatare le tenebre della fine del mondo non può non scorgervi *l'ombra della Luce*, e perfino la luce stessa: «Le sento più vicine le sacre sinfonie del tempo/con un'idea: che siamo esseri immortali/caduti nelle tenebre, destinati ad errare;/nei secoli dei secoli, fino a completa guarigione»²⁹. E' questa convinzione che reimposta l'artista Battiato nel suo *centro* ritraslandolo via dalla grettezza delle bassezze che comunque ha fatto bene a denunciare. E' il suo congenito esserne al di là che gli impedisce una possibile contaminazione, uno scendere a quel piano è impossibile *materialmente* in quanto per Battiato calza a pennello la definizione che da' Nietzsche del musicista: «un oracolo, un sacerdote, anzi più di un sacerdote, una specie di portavoce dell'«in sé» delle cose, un telefono dell'al di là»³⁰.

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²² «E' necessario infatti avvedersi (ciò che molti ancora ripugnano a fare) che la *civitas diaboli* non si avvale più delle vecchie armi, dall'oscurantismo reazionario al dogmatismo ecclesiastico all'astrattezza terroristica rivoluzionaria, ma per la sua persecuzione fanatica della libertà e dell'umano non ha più bisogno di chiedere soccorso a sofismi plausibili, ovvero a un'arma infida tra le sue mani, poiché ormai dispone di un apparato industriale, un'Alcina che quietamente seduce le sue vittime sussurrando: “io ammazzerò il vostro tempo”». E. ZOLLA, *Eclissi dell'intellettuale*, Bompiani, Milano 1959, p. 198.

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²⁴ Cfr. R. GUENON, *La crisi del mondo moderno*, Mediterranee, Roma 2003.

²⁵ F. BATTIATO, *Magic shop*, in *L'era del cinghiale bianco*, Emi 1979.

²⁶ Il brano, in cui viene citato lo stesso Nietzsche, è inserito nell'album dal titolo già indicativo *Orizzonti perduti*, cit. Cfr. O. SPENGLER, *Il tramonto dell'Occidente*, Guanda 1991.

²⁷ F. BATTIATO, *Ermeneutica in Dieci stratagemmi*, Sony 2004.

²⁸ Cfr. E. ZOLLA, *Che cos'è la tradizione*, (1971), Adelphi, Milano 1998,

Si veda in particolare il paragrafo “Civiltà della critica, civiltà del commento”. A tale proposito rimando anche al mio saggio *Verità metafisiche esposte in evidenza. Elémire Zolla e la Tradizione* in «Frammenti di Filosofia Contemporanea», Limina Mentis, Milano 2013, pp.329-349.

²⁹ E. BATTIATO, *Le sacre sinfonie del tempo* in *Come un cammello in una grondaia*, Emi 1991.

³⁰ F. NIETZSCHE, *Genealogia della morale*, tr. it. di S. Giametta, Bur, Milano 1997, p. 150

Part VII

PROBLEMS OF MODERN TRANSLATION STUDIES

Evgeniya Antonova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
evg.a@list.ru

Localization of English Advertisement Texts and Slogans for Russian Consumers

Over the past twenty years, the demand for localization of advertisement texts has grown significantly. Within the framework of various methodological approaches, there are currently a number of scientific papers focused on the problems of advertisement text. However, the area of localization of such texts is still insufficiently studied. The purpose of this research is to analyze advertisement texts and slogans in English and advertisement texts and slogans in Russian obtained in the process of localization, which will identify translation problems in the field of localization of English advertisement texts for Russian consumers, effective translation transformations, artistic means, and other translation techniques. The texts were selected through random sampling and subjected to a comparative analysis, which resulted in conclusions about the effectiveness of existing possible solutions to translation difficulties in the field of localization. The findings of this study may be useful for further research on localization issues, as well as in future practice of localization of English advertisement texts.

localization, translation, advertising, advertisement, advertisement text, slogan, translating, culture.

Modern society encounters advertisement texts on a regular basis. The epoch of globalization, which has formed today's consumer society, makes world-known brands create a large number of advertisement texts due to the fact that in highly competitive environment it is significant to organize efficient marketing campaign and attract target audience of the product. Advertisement text is considered to be one of the most difficult types of texts for a translator for the reason that communicative purpose of advertisement text cannot be accomplished in case recipients' cultural peculiarities are not taken into account. Different customs and traditions, holidays, worldviews, religions and, finally, expressive means (metaphors, idioms etc.) cause difficulties for specialists. In addition to that, it is extremely substantial to remember that communicative purpose of this text is to encourage the recipient to purchase the product. This means that in order to have an influence on the target audience, the text will be overloaded with expressive means.

As has been mentioned above, during the process of translation it is crucial to take language environment of target language into consideration. Otherwise, the advertisement text will not be able to fulfill its communicative function. It will seem incomprehensible and unclear for target audience. If a translator does not interpret the pun in the text, the advertisement will not attract the recipients. It should be highlighted that in case advertisement of global brand product is translated for a particular region, localization becomes a necessary stage of translation process. Cultural adaptation of product to regional peculiarities is called localization. Localization includes not only solving problems related to expressive means, but also those ones related to nation's culture and traditions. For instance, an advertisement text which encourages recipients to purchase a product for Thanksgiving Day will not be relevant in European countries. This means that such a text will require adaptation. It might happen that not only the name of holiday but a large part of text will be changed. Furthermore, neglecting such a stage as localization may lead to serious consequences. Some advertisement texts which are socially acceptable in one region turn out to be offensive in another region.

Localization can also be described as a complex form of pragmatic adaptation. Charles W. Morris defines pragmatics as a branch of semiotics that studies the relationship between sign systems and the participants of discourse who use them [11]. Pragmatics studies how the speaker is able to effectively transmit their intentions, which they express using words and various syntactic constructions, as well as how they are able to interpret the intentions of the interlocutor (the receptor). Moreover, the speaker (the source of information) can express intentions with an indirect speech act, because the speaker does not always use a direct speech act as a way to accomplish their communication purpose. Thus, pragmatics studies the relationship between the speaker, the speaker's utterance and context.

Since the advertisement text is intended to encourage the recipient to act, as well as cause a certain emotional reaction, it is important to consider the pragmatic aspects of the translation process. One of these aspects is the pragmatic potential of the text. The pragmatic potential of the text is called “the ability of the text to produce a communicative effect, to cause the receptor to have a pragmatic relationship to the reported message, in other words, to have a pragmatic influence on the recipient of information” [9]. Another aspect is the pragmatic meaning of lexical units in Source Language and Target Language. Pragmatic meaning is a “subjective attitude of people

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(language collectives) to the units of language, and through them to the objects and concepts designated by them, is often assigned to this sign, is included as a permanent component in its semantic structure and in this case becomes what we call the pragmatic meaning of the language sign” [9].

Linguists distinguish the following types of pragmatic meanings: the stylistic characteristics of the word, the emotional dimension of the word and the register of the word. Stylistic characteristics can be neutral (for those words that are used in any type of speech), terminological (if the word is used in an official scientific genre), literary (for words that are used in writing) and, finally, colloquial (for those words that are used in oral speech). Depending on the emotional dimension of the word, lexical units can be divided into the following groups: neutral-emotional, positive-emotional, and negative-emotional. Both in Russian and in English, there are words, one of the components of the semantic structure of which is the attitude of the source of information to the object or phenomenon. This attitude can be accompanied by both positive and negative emotions. Thus, we can say that the word has a positive or negative connotation. There are following registers: frozen, formal, casual, neutral and intimate. Obviously, the set of language units will differ depending on relationship between receptor and the source (who the receptor is for the source of information: a close person or a person with a higher social status, etc).

The pragmatic potential of a text can be described as a consequence of the process of selecting the content of his or her message by the source of information and selecting specific language means by which he or she expresses this message. Making recipients to produce a certain response to the advertisement text is one of the main translator’s tasks. Since the recipients of the source language and the recipients of target language have cultural, social and other differences, the translator compares the language systems and cultures and, as a result, makes certain changes to the text. In other words, the translator makes a pragmatic adaptation of the text. The pragmatic aspect is a crucial aspect of localization process of an advertisement text. In the process of localization the translator has to constantly choose what information to transmit in an explicit form and what information to transmit in an implicit form.

It is extremely important to mention the theory of speech acts, as it is a significant section of pragmatics. According to this theory, authored by John Langshaw Austin, communication is considered as a three-stage formation, divided into locution (directly the act of communication, uttering a statement), illocution (the implementation of a certain communicative purpose in the course of a speech act) and perlocution (influencing the thoughts, emotions and actions of the recipient and obtaining a certain result, which is an intentional or unintended effect of influence) [2]. Advertisement text always presupposes a particular perlocutionary effect that the translator should preserve. In order to achieve this goal, the translator often has to use various translation transformations.

It should also be mentioned that linguists still have different points of view as to whether localization ought to be considered as a stage of translation process or as a separate field. The reason for these discussions is the fact that localization deals not only with the text, but also with various extralinguistic factors. For example, world-known furniture brand Ikea had to change in its advertising campaign for Saudi Arabia both: advertisement text and advertisement photograph. The picture for this region illustrated only a man and his children. The woman was excluded from the original photograph. In Saudi Arabia women can be shown in advertising campaigns only in modest fashion style and heads covered.

Localization is a relatively new scientific realm. There is still no profound research in this sphere. Therefore, translators experience a wide range of problems in this field.

We have analyzed various advertisement texts and slogans which had been localized from English to Russian.

During the process of translation translators use various lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical transformations. This research is based on Komissarov’s classifications of translational transformations [7]. According to this classification, there are lexical transformations which include transliteration, transcription, concretization, generalization, calque, modulation (Cause and effect substitutions, metonymic substitutions, periphrasis), grammatical transformations which involve word-for-word translation, sentence integration, sentence fragmentation and grammatical substitutions, lexico-grammatical transformations which consist of antonymic translation, loss-of-meaning compensation, holistic transformation and explicatory translation.

We are going to analyze advertisement slogans and texts and identify those transformations which can be described as the most frequent ones used in the process of localization. Moreover, we will find out which expressive means and stylistic devices are prevalent in advertisement texts.

Translators used concretization transformation during the localization process of this slogan. The word “have“, which word “иметь“ is a variant matching for, was transformed in this case into imperative verb “сделай“ in the first part of the sentence and imperative verb “съешь“ (eat) in the second part of the sentence. It can be clearly explained. The combination of word “have“ and a noun in English often means an action. In addition to that, general lexical meaning, which is obtained from this collocation, is of direct relevance to the lexical meaning of noun in this word pair. For example: have a rest — отдохнуть; have breakfast (collocation) — завтракать. The combination of “have a“ and a noun often means a short-term action. For example: have a swim — поплавать. Furthermore, we should highlight the pun in original slogan: “have a break“ is used in ironical meaning “break off“. The advertisement is usually illustrated with a picture of a broken-down chocolate. The translators did not manage to preserve anaphora, however we can see alliteration in Russian version.

By Garnier, naturally! — От Гарньер, естественно!

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It is that rare case, when word-by-word translation does not make text sound less attractive or appealing. The success of this translation is based on polysemy of words “естественно” and “naturally”. Both words have two lexical meanings: “inartificially” and “typically” (“commonly”, “generally”). Garnier brand has also a slogan “Take care” which was localized as «Заботиться о себе». The translators used compensation transformation in this case. The collocation “take care” in English is not necessary followed by noun or pronoun and a preposition. However, in Russian word combination should involve coordination linking method. Otherwise, the advertisement text will not be understood by the recipient.

Because you’re worth it (L’oreal Paris). — Ведь ты этого достойна.

This slogan is significant to analyze due to the fact that the translator could have made a serious mistake during translation. If the specialist had translated word “worth” as “стоишь”, the word would have instantly obtained negative connotation as it may be associated with currency. In Russian this word is an homonym. This word can be translated both as “worth” and “costs”.

Max Factor. The make-up of make-up artists. — Max Factor. Советуют профессионалы.

Unfortunately, it is impossible to retain the same stylistic device which was used in original version (repetition of lexical unit “make-up”). Therefore, translators used such a translation method as modulation (cause and effect substitution) and generalization. Cause and effect substitution can be explained by the fact that in case even professionals use the product, they are sure about its quality and can recommend it. The choice of generalization transformation is explained by the fact that word “визажисты” (which is an equivalent for word “make-up artists”) was transformed into “профессионалы” (professionals) for better text perception by target audience. The word “визажисты” might have been quite unpopular and new at the time brand entered the Russian market.

Experience a new kind of urban mobility. (Smart car) — Потому что Москва не резиновая.

Translators retained the author’s idea that automobile has compact dimensions and it is easy to use in conditions of a modern metropolis. That is why a set expression which is popular among recipients of Russian version was used.

Shift Expectations. (Nissan) — Превосходя ожидания.

The translator used grammatical substitution. As we can see, in Russian version a participle became a part of a slogan.

In some cases advertisement slogans are not translated at all. Such slogans are used in source language in order to be widely recognized. Nevertheless, it is essential to be sure that unadapted versions fit language environment well. For example, Burger King advertising campaign, which took place in 2018 during World Cup in Saint Petersburg, became scandalous very soon. The advertisement text included a phrase “You won’t starve to death in this city!”. The advertisement was offensive for many people as it triggered an association with horrible tragedy residents experienced during World War II.

Translators sometimes create new advertisement texts for target audience, preserving only advertising concept. For instance, pizzeria Domino’s in its advertisement in 2017 used pun “top secret” to describe their sauce (The top secret sauce), stressing the quality of the sauce with the help of word “top”. Specialists created a new advertisement text for Russian region, which included word combination (Domino’s) secret agent. In other words, the advertisement texts were different, but the advertising concept was the same.

Now we will analyze complete advertisement texts.

<p>Get ready to bambify your lashes! New bambi eye false lash mascara by L’oreal. A wide-eyed almond brush with a velvet fiber texture lift up open up and fluff up every lash for an instant eye-opening bambified look. New Bambi eye false lash mascara by L’oreal Paris. We’re worth it! (Advertisement text of L’oreal company)</p>	<p>Приручать взглядом с новой тушью «Взгляд Бэмби эффект накладных ресниц» от Лореаль Париж! Миндалевидная щеточка, распахивающая взгляд и бархатная формула! Распахни, подкрути и придай объем каждой реснице для мгновенно распахнутого, бомбического взгляда! Новая тушь «Взгляд Бэмби» от Лореаль Париж. Мы этого достойны!</p>
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First of all, it should be mentioned, that recipients of source language and recipients of target language are supposed to have similar expectations from the product, possess similar preferences and needs which can be satisfied with the product. It is expected that recipients of source and target language are both familiar with Bambi (a small deer and Disney cartoon character who is famous for its big eyes and long eyelashes). Women are the target audience of these advertisement texts.

The authors of the original texts created an occasionalism by means of word contamination — lexical unit “beautify” and proper name Bambi. As a result, a new verb occurred which was formed with the help of typical for English language word-formation model with suffix *-fy*. Cause and effect substitution was used in Russian version (“decorated” eyelashes — gaining attention). In addition to that, transliteration and transcription were used (Bambi, L’oreal Paris). Adjective wide-eyed was transformed into participle clause “распахивающая взгляд” as word-formation models in source and target languages are different. Furthermore, sentence fragmentation was used.

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Imperative verbs in Russian version (распахни, подкрути, придай) are used in another sentence. The translator uses word combination «бархатная формула» (velvet formula), as words which mean “texture” (fabric, material) can be perceived by the recipients in a literal way (the texture is just being compared to velvet). In English version we can notice one more occasionalism which is based on contaminations of words “beautified” and “Bambi”. The translator made a decision to find an expressive mean in Russian language which could be used in this context. Colloquial word “бомбический” (which means incredible and derived from Russian word which is an equivalent for “bomb”) became a solution to the problem. This word also reminds us of a cartoon character.

Occasionalisms and epithets (“бомбический”) were used in the texts. Lexical repetition was also used.

Conclusion: the translator managed to retain advertising concept and perlocutionary effect of advertisement. The text accomplishes its communicative purpose. Epithets, occasionalisms, imperative mood, exclamatory sentences and eye-catching slogan have a strong influence on the recipient [1].

<p>She is for baby! He is for baby! That’s not for baby! But that’s for baby! Airplane goes zooooom for baby! Look what’s on that spoon for baby: Fig for baby, kale for baby. Even acai for baby! The whole organic farms for baby! New clean farming manure for baby! This higher standard set for baby! No GMOs for baby! Nothing but the best for baby! The new Gerber. Anything for baby. (Advertisement text of Gerber company, corporation Nestlé)</p>	<p>Мама – для малыша! Папа – для малыша! Первый Gerber – для малыша! Вся ваша любовь – для малыша! Соль и сахар – не для малыша! А вот специально выращенные овощи и фрукты – для малыша! Органические фермы – для малыша! Бренд № 1 в мире – для малыша! Стандарты качества еще выше. Идеально для первого прикорма. Gerber. Всё для малыша.</p>
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Parents who have small kids are the target audience of these advertisement texts. However, we can claim that advertisement is directed primarily at women. The specific feature of this advertisement is that it is quite different in different regions as it takes regional eating habits into consideration. As a result, products and, consequently, advertisement texts differ in various countries. In English version of advertisement text particular names of ingredients are named (fig, kale, acai). These ingredients are relatively exotic for Russian recipients. Moreover, babies in Russia have slightly different eating habits.

The translator uses method of concretization in target language several times. (She — mum, he —dad, that — salt and sugar). The names of ingredients were transformed into group of words “овощи и фрукты” (vegetables and fruit) by means of generalization method. The translator uses parallel syntactic constructions and word-for-word translation. Translator also makes changes to the content of original advertisement text, adding information about usage of the product as the first supplement and information about brand worldwide popularity. The translator decided not to include information about fertilizer into localized version as equivalent for word “manure” may cause negative associations among target language recipients.

A large number of lexical repetitions and exclamatory sentences are used in both advertisement texts. In addition to that, comparative and superlative adjectives are frequently used. In English version words anything and nothing are contrasted to each other. We can also see onomatopoeia in English version (sound of airplane) which cannot be transmitted in Russian version.

Conclusion: the translator localized the text successfully, having taken cultural differences of recipients into consideration [1].

To sum up, it should be highlighted that translator should possess high level of knowledge in linguistics and translation fields. Moreover, he or she should be well-aware of product’s features and advertising concept in order to create an effective advertisement text. The translator should remember that recipients of target and source languages have different habits, cultural features, traditions etc. as social and cultural environments may differ a lot. Language systems of source and target languages are also very dissimilar. Our research has shown that occasionalisms and lexical repetitions turned out to be the most popular amongst expressive means and stylistic devices. Word-for-word translation and cause and effect substitutions turned out to be the most frequent translation transformations. In addition, an effective localized advertisement text includes bright expressive means and stylistic devices in order to fully affect the emotions and feelings of the recipient. Moreover, the translator should use various translation transformations in order to create a successfully localized advertisement text. Finally, it is extremely important to preserve the advertising concept, key information contained in the source text, and ensure that the communicative purpose of the advertisement text is accomplished, as not preserving perlocutionary effect of advertisement results in target text disfunction.

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Olga Golubeva
Smolensk Military Academy, Russia
2016golubeva@mail.ru

The Issue of Representing Conceptual Content and Translating Anthroponyms

The paper is devoted to studying the opportunities of comprehending the anthroponym represented conceptual content and translating this onym on the whole and its gender peculiarities in particular. It is possible to take into consideration all explicit and implicit typical characteristics of a referent as well as the gender distinctions. A translator has to face a dilemma of specifying sense priorities or even changing the senses that are implied by linguistic means of gender in the source text.

Translator’s efforts aimed at maintaining senses of the text in translation are determined by a number of factors critical for translation process, such as background and linguistic knowledge, translator’s experience, his / her personal idiosyncrasy and internal knowledge. His / her goal is to face “professional challenges” and overcome various translation problems, if any. Such challenges in a translation process are proper names on the whole and anthroponyms in particular, for

“в них сконцентрированы как языковые, речевые, так и фоновые знания, особенности их восприятия с точки зрения психологии” (Суперанская 1973, 322);

they “suggest a concentration of the body of knowledge we have about language, situational and cultural contexts as well as peculiarities of gaining knowledge in the sense of psychology” (Суперанская 1973, 322. *Hereinafter the translation of quotes is ours – O.G.*).

Systematization of the conceptual content represented by a person’s name implies different ways of transmitting relevant information by linguistic means, which acquires significance in translation process. In general, the following techniques are distinguished for translating proper names, including anthroponyms, from English to Russian:

1) transcription and transliteration involve the introduction into the text using graphic means of the language, the translation of the corresponding piece of reality with the maximum possible phonetic approximation to the source phonetic form (*Bill Clinton – Билл Клинтон*). Transcribed forms make it possible to preserve national identity by means of a sound form (Комиссаров 2017, 160);

2) calque – an almost literal translation of the components of a word – allows to transfer a so-called “realia” or a product of the social environment into the target language while maintaining the semantics as fully as possible (*International Monetary Fund – Международный валютный фонд* (ibid, 161) (*Mezhdunarodny Valyutny Fond*));

3) semi-calque is a partial borrowing of words and expressions consisting of elements of the source language, as well as elements of the target language (*Frodo Baggins – Фродо Сумникс (Frodo Symniks)*);

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4) the creation of neologism is necessary if there is no equivalence in the target language, or if the translator wants to highlight one or another characteristic of the character (*Proudfeet - Большеног (Bolshenog)*);

5) approximate (functional) translation is associated with the selection of a functional equivalent, which causes the target reader the same associations as the reader of the source text (*Goodbody – Пузикс (Pusix)*);

6) a descriptive translation is used when it is impossible to use any other translation technique and a comment or comments should be added (*Pan-cake Week – масленичная неделя (Сдобников 2007, 127) (maslenichnaya nedelya)*).

A significant role in the process of anthroponym translating is played by socio-cultural universals (domains) that make up the translator’s view of the world and are subject to a wide range of ethnic stereotypical representations. One of these dominants is gender. Traditionally, gender is regarded as “a grammatical distinction according to which a noun or pronoun is classified as either masculine or feminine in some languages” (Baker 2011, 102) and is far from being an easy category for translation. If we apply a broader approach to the problem and analyze the senses implied by gender marked word-forms at the conceptual level we should point out that gender distinctions are determined by a combination of psychological, social, cultural stereotypical ideas about the image of the ideal / typical man or woman, their social and communicative behavior, which are represented by linguistic means.

So, widely-known names of famous people imply inherent or attributed to their referents characteristics, which allows you to provide the name with the appropriate interpretation. Sometimes the highlighted characteristics were assigned to the name of a particular referent, forming a kind of nickname: *Eric the Red (Eric Erickson)* – the legendary Icelandic discoverer of America (“Saga of Eric the Red”), *William the Conqueror, Alexander the Great, Elena the Beautiful*, etc. But sometimes the name is regarded as a token marking certain qualities: strength, courage, popularity for *Alexander* which was associated by Russian students as typically Russian as well (Супрун 2000, 33–37) or the social position for *John* or *Jack*: *John Bull – usu. derog.* a typical Englishman, esp. one considered to dislike foreigners; *Johnny – old fash. infml* a man; *Jack the Lad – BrE sl* a showily confident and successful young working class man (Longman 1992, 566; 562).

An anthroponyms-represented conceptual content marked with socio-cultural specificity allows the author to broadcast information about the nature of his characters implicitly. For example, in R. Kipling’s novel “William the Conqueror”, the male name *William* belongs to a girl (“... who answered indifferently to the name of William or Bill”), who should have male character traits a priori (in the Kipling’s story she looks like a tomboy, rides, uses swear words in the speech, keeps her brother’s household, plays the banjo and is indifferent to her admirers’ attention) (Kipling 1983, 263–293).

The knowledge about the basic semantic features (in this case, gender) is represented by a set of grammatical means (flections) and a number of word-formation formants: *John – Johna, Johnna; Anna – Annette*. When translating, the linguistic means necessary to display sexual differentiation are usually preserved (flection *-a*), and the name adapted in this way takes on the whole paradigm of national morphological forms. However, there are variants of female names in English that do not have flections, for example, *Joan*. In such cases, the translation does not include the feminine flection also: the Russian version of the name of the famous writer *Joan Rowling (Rowling J.K.)*, although in some cases the ending of the feminine is used to translate the name of the source language (*Alice – Алиса (Alisa)*), which points out the assimilation to the grammatical norms of the Russian language.

The comparison of national conceptual systems often leads to the creation of a calque or a semi-calque in translation, i.e. in fact, a literal or partially literal version of the anthroponyms. In this case, gender specificity and linguistic forms of the category of gender in the target language are taken into account. The example is the translation of surnames, representing etymologically marked concept which can serve as a conceptual basis. For instance, the main character of J. Tolkien’ book *Frodo Baggins (Tolkien 1990)* in the translation becomes *Frodo Sumniks (Tolkin 1992)* (*bag* in English corresponds to “сумка” (*sumka*) in Russian), though in several other Russian-language translations and in the Russian version of the famous film the transcription of this surname (*Бэггинс*), is proposed. In both cases the gender specificity is preserved.

“My dear Bagginses and Boffins”, he began again; “My dear Tookos and Brandybucks, and Grubbs, and Chubbs, and Burrowses, and Hornblowers, and Bolgers, Bracegirdles, Goodbodies, Brockhouses and Proudfoots.” - “Proudfeet!” shouted an elderly hobbit from the back of the pavilion. His name, of course, was Proudfoot, and well merited; his feet were large, exceptionally furry ... (Tolkien 1990, 41).

“Мои дорогие Сумниксы и Умниксы”, – начал он снова, – “дорогие мои Туки и Брендискоки, Рыглы и Хрюклы, Пузиксы и Кротты, Помочь-Лямниксы и Дудниксы, а также Сдобсы!” – “И Большеноги!” – заорал старый хоббит из глубины павильона. Конечно, это был Большеног, его огромные, редкостно шерстистые лапищи покоились на столе ... (Толкин 1992: 39).

Hence, the knowledge about gender represented by anthroponym, the referent of which is a human-being, generally does not cause difficulties. However, the transfer of ideas about typically female / male characteristics to an inanimate referent by means of a name can significantly complicate the understanding and work of a translator.

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In general, personification is a stylistic device, often used in fiction, where the name of the animated object determines its image and gender specificity: *Death* becomes a female creature with a scythe for the Russian-speaking community; In Russian the word *зпex* (*sin* in English) refers to masculine gender though the German equivalent *die Sünde* – to the female gender and in the literary text can be used as an allusion of women’s behavior (Кирилина 2004, 39).

In analytical languages, for example, in English, where there are no grammatical markers of gender, the attribution of gender characteristics depends both on socio-cultural traditions and on the individual worldview of the author. For example, *Darkness, Moon, Nature* in the poetry of J. Byron – the names of the female referents:

Darkness ... – **She** was the Universe;
While Nature makes that melancholy pause –
Her breathing moment on the bridge ...
The Moon, their **mistress**, had expired before;... (Byron 1979, 220–221)

Such a gender-marked personification corresponds to the ideas about these notions in the Russian literature. However, some differences can be identified. So, *Death* (*Смерть*, *Smert*), in the English linguistic and cultural tradition is the creature of the masculine gender, that is proved by personal and possessive pronouns. As it has been mentioned, for the Russian speaking community it is female that might cause certain difficulties in translation: They finger Death at their gloves’ end where they piece and repiece their living wires.

He rears against the gates they tend: they feed **him** hungry
behind their fires... (Byron 1979, 91).
Смерть сквозь перчатки им леденит пальцы, сплетающие провода,
Алчно за ними **она** следит, подстерегает везде и всегда.
(перевод Д. Закса) (http://poetry_pearls.tripod.com).

As a rule, endowed with strength and representing danger to human-beings totem animals are also attributed to brutal, male features:

Remember the Wolf is a hunter – go forth and get food of his own.
Keep peace with **the Lords** of the Jungle – the Tiger, the Panther, the Bear;
And trouble not Hathi the Silent, and mock not the Boar in his lair. (Kipling 1983, 140).

The imagery of a tiger, a bear, an elephant and a wild boar is similar in Russian and English cultures, but the word *panther* in the Russian language is of feminine gender, which can create certain conceptual deviations and difficulties in translation.

Уважь **Повелителей** Джунглей: Медведь то, Пантера ли, Тигр.
А Хатхи-Молчун и Вепрь дикий не повод для шуток и игр
(перевод Ю. Безугловой) (<http://www.stihi.ru>).
Ладь с **Властелинами** Джунглей – Пантера ль, Медведь или
Тигр, –
Не смущай ни безмолвия Хати, или Вепря семейственных
игр. ... (перевод С. Займовского) (Kipling 1983, 374).
Помни, что Волк – охотник
и сам добывай свой кус,
В Тигре, в Пантере, в Медведе
Хозяев Джунглей чти,
Не зли Кабана и Хати-Слона,
не стой у них на пути (перевод Е.Фельдмана).
С **владыками** – Тигром, Пантерой и Медведем не сорься, ни-ни!
Не тревожь молчащего Хати, Кабана в кустах не дразни!
(перевод А. Штейнберга).
Волк чужого не ищет, Волк довольствуется своим!
Тигр, Пантера, Медведь – **князья**; с ними – мир на века!
Не тревожь Слона, не дразни Кабана в зарослях тростника!
(перевод В. Топорова) (<http://eng-poetry.ru>).

In the above-mentioned examples the translators found the only appropriate way to overcome the translation difficulty – to use plural forms of nouns belonging to the category “Rulers”: *повелители, властелины, хозяева, владыки, князья*. Such approach helps solve the problem associated with the translation of words referring to both masculine and feminine gender. But an attentive reader knows that the word *Lords* in English refers to male representatives of the upper class, to which in Byron’s poem the *Panther* belongs as well.

A translator has to tackle a problem when translating the anthroponyms *Panther* (*пантера*) named *Bagheera* (*Багира*), one of the characters of Kipling’s tale. Here a change in the grammatical gender led to a change in gender features. In the *Jungle Book*, Bagheera is a male, a warrior who defends Mowgli from Sherkhan, their friendship is

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the friendship of men. The transformation of Bagheera into a female completely changes the content: a brutal warrior becomes an intelligent, cunning and charming big black she-cat that raises and teaches Mowgli as her cub, protects and cares for him (remember a famous Russian cartoon).

“Look at me”, said Bagheera. And Mowgli looked at **him** steadily between the eyes. The big panther turned **his** head away in half a minute.

“Посмотри на меня”, – сказала Багира. И Маугли взглянул **ей** прямо в глаза; пантера выдержала только половину минуты, потом отвернулась (http://poetry_pearls.tripod.com).

Changes in gender features, and, consequently, a rebuilding of the imagery of a character can be found in translations of L. Carroll's fairy tale “Alice in Wonderland”. As an example, we can name *Caterpillar*, *Mock Turtle*, *Dormouse* (translated by N. M. Demurova as *Гусеница*, *Черепаха Квази*, *Соня* или *Мышь-Соня* respectively (Carroll 1990)) who “survived” the gender transformation in the translation (changed gender from male to female due to grammatical gender distinctions in Russian).

Despite the fact that the name *Caterpillar* in the source text is replaced by “it” pronoun, which agrees with the rules of the English language, Alice refers to this character as a man using the formal address “*sir*”. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine a female in Carroll’s times, who would have smoked a hookah, behaved arrogantly, constantly given orders, ignoring any attempt to object. Many researchers noted that this character was consistent with the prototype of arrogant tutors in Oxford. The male-like appearance of the “Professor” is presented in J. Tenniel’s illustrations, where the Caterpillar smoked and philosophized, sitting on a large mushroom.

For some minutes **it** puffed away without speaking, but at last **it** unfolded **its** mouth again, and said, “So you think you’re changed, do you?”

“I’m afraid I am, **sir**,” said Alice (Кэрролл 2002, 55).

It is quite a challenge for a translator to find a Russian equivalent to the name *Caterpillar* because the word *гусеница* grammatically is of feminine gender despite whether a referent is male or female. According Russian cultural traditions the imagery of a caterpillar is likely to be female (in tales, cartoons, etc.). Carroll’s male-like caterpillar looks a bit exotic but it can be justified by the genre and individual specifics of the source text.

Сначала **та** долго сосала кальян, но наконец вынула его изо рта и сказала:

– Значит, по-твоему, ты изменилась?

– Да, **сударыня**, – отвечала Алиса... (Кэрролл 1990, 41).

Comparing the variants of translation *Caterpillar* and *Шелкопряд* (Shelkopryad, the word referred to the masculine gender in Russian and corresponding to *Silkworm* in English) N.M. Demurova noted that the translator chooses from two evils: whether to preserve the gender characteristics of the character’s imagery or be criticized by people who have background knowledge about silkworms (small worms) that are far different from the fairy tale referent – the big blue caterpillar (ibid, 327).

Consequently, gender specificity is important in generating a mental image of a character in literature, which explicitly and implicitly “is assigned” typical features that have become fixed in the minds of native speakers. One of the main linguistic means of transmitting these features is the anthroponym, acting as a realia. There are various ways of translating an anthroponym depending on the amount of knowledge represented by it. The greatest difficulty is the translation of the name in the case of personification of the character. The translator faces a difficult task of identifying semantic priorities and often “shift” or even “sacrifice” those attributes that are provided by the grammatical gender distinctions.

Thus, the choice of linguistic means and methods of translating the anthroponym are determined by the goal set by the translator: preserving the national cultural specifics or even foreignness, providing the name with the sense necessary in this context, adapting to the peculiarities of the target language and under the impact of the target culture as well as finding successful equivalents. The transmission of this information in an intercultural format can be carried out at the expense of the language means (gender attributes, in this case) of the referent, which are either preserved or neglected by a translator.

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Maria Ezhova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
mmezkhova@edu.hse.ru

**Effects of Language Transfer from Spanish language in acquisition of Italian language in
Translation Studies**

The phenomenon of language transfer is essential to consider in learning the second foreign language since the norms of the L1 may have a significant influence while acquiring a new language code. This study focuses on the impact of Spanish linguistic features on learning Italian language, investigates translation problems that are likely to arise on each level of language due to the alternating use of both communication systems. The vocabulary development of Spanish and Italian in the course of time, namely from the diachronic point of view, took separate paths as lexical units are different in morphemic structure and vary in pronunciation norms despite being Romance languages that can be traced back to Vulgar Latin. Given the fact that Spanish and Italian are etymologically related to each other, their affinity and structural resemblance may lead to language transfer or linguistic interference as it was coined in *Languages in Contact: Findings and Problems* by an American linguist Uriel Weinreich (1953) who analysed this process in conjunction with bilingualism. The scholar refers to interference as “deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of language contact” (Weinreich 1953, 1). Hence, language transfer is known to be the interaction of two language systems when certain habits or strategies of the mother tongue are applied to the target language which can pave the way for either the facilitation of the second language acquisition or the complication of its learning because of the L1 influence.

The interference of linguistic elements in translation is manifested on phonological, lexical, grammatical (morphological and syntactic) language levels and it can be either positive or negative. On the one hand, positive interference in translation process can be characterised by a beneficial impact of mastering the first language. It is revealed especially if a learner boasts a high language proficiency in both languages so that they are capable of implementing different linguistic features of the L1 in an adequate manner. That is to say a bilingual’s linguistic competence and confident skills of the native language allow to easily draw analogies, rely on prior knowledge that was gained when getting acquainted with a new language system. In addition to that, the influence of the native language can be traced by means of the rules of phonetics, grammar and lexis that have been studied previously by a language learner. For example, the correctness of translation can be positively affected by the equality of lexemes in both languages: *coraje (Spanish), coraggio (Italian) – courage; vecino (Spanish), vicino (Italian) – neighbour; conducta (Spanish), condotta (Italian) – behaviour*. On the other hand, the causes of negative interference stem mainly from an insufficient level of proficiency in the first language that subsequently results in the deviance from the language norm of the second language, erroneous borrowing of rules, their transfer or replacement on the basis of identity. The negative nature of interference can be traced primarily at the phonological and lexical levels of the language system when a native Spanish speaker makes mistakes in the pronunciation of sounds of the Italian language or vice versa, allows the blending of phonemes in written and oral communication and confuses meanings of lexical units respectively.

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In the phonological aspect interference occurs as a result of comparing Spanish sounds with Italian sounds or vice versa, which leads to the deviation of pronunciation rules and incorrect spelling of letter clusters, changes in the letter composition of the word as a whole, incorrect stress placement and the presence of a foreign accent. Thus, phonological interference becomes an obstacle for a high-quality translation as it negatively affects the spelling of words and can cause problems when conveying information. In order to demonstrate this phenomenon, the most common mistakes made when translating words from Spanish into Italian will be cited below. For example, in Spanish and Italian languages many lexical cognates are written almost identically so making errors in their spelling can negatively affect the quality of translation: *balcón-balcone*, *igual-uguale*, *amiga-amica*, *profesor-professore*, *curso-corso*, *mejor-migliore*, *propio-proprio*. A distinctive feature of Spanish and Italian languages is the norm of putting a diacritical mark over a letter. In Spanish, according to a number of orthoepic rules, only an acute accent is used when a mark goes from lower left to top right in words belonging to certain categories: *medicación*, *raíz*, *fácil*, *árbol*, *solución*, etc. Italian language differs in that it has two ways of putting a diacritical mark: “accento acuto” – acute accent, for example, in such words as *né*, *cosicché*, *purché*, *settantatrè*, *poiché*, and “accento grave” – grave accent that is put from lower right to top left in such words as *laggiù*, *sincere*, *ciò*, *possibilità*, *più*, etc. The fundamental difference between the phonetic norm of Spanish and Italian is the presence of double consonants in the latter. In Spanish language there are only a few consonant clusters, for example, *cc*, *ll*, *nn*, *rr* in such words as *acceso*, *llamada*, *innovador*, *perro*, while in Italian, double consonants can be found in the majority of words, e.g. *trattoria*, *successo*, *soprannome*, *raccolta*. Moreover, the voiceless dental fricative consonantal sound [θ] in Spanish language is pronounced with the letters *c* and *z*, which has no parallel in Italian. This sound is pronounced before the vowels *e* and *i*, for instance, in words *aceituna*, *cinematógrafo*, *accidente*, *maceta*, *cebolla*, *escena*, *consciencia*, *trascendencia*; and also after a letter *z*: *lápiz*, *zapatilla*, *mazapán*, *zoológico*, *calabaza*. Therefore, this spelling rule can lead to the mispronunciation of Italian words where a similar cluster may be detected, however, it should be pronounced in a different way, e.g. *palcoscenico*, *sciare*, *angoscia*. While in Italian, monosyllabic clusters *ce* and *ci* are pronounced palatally as [che] and [chi]: *crucivebra*, *bicicletta*, *cellulare*, *forbici*, *noce*; and the letter *z* as either voiceless or voiced alveolar affricate in such words as *colazione*, *piazza*, *ragazzi*, *pizzeria*, *mazzetto* and *organizzazione*, *zanzara*, *realizare*, *zucca*, *azzurro* respectively. When translating such Spanish words as *estación* (*station*), *esforzarse* (*to endeavor*), *escuela* (*school*), *estudiante* (*student*) into Italian language some difficulties might arise since their equivalents are the following lexical units: *stazione*, *sforzarsi*, *scuola*, *studente*. In this example, it is obvious that language transfer on Italian language can be expressed by adding a vowel *e* at the beginning of the words as they are extremely similar to those in Spanish, which will lead to the incorrect spelling of words and a lack of understanding of the meanings despite their similarity.

When lexical interference occurs between languages, words are introduced from one language to another, which causes incorrect associative relationships and confusion of lexical units in both languages. Lexical interference is a consequence of such generally recognized translation difficulties as accidental lexical gaps (realias – culture-specific elements or untranslatable vocabulary, for example, ethnographic Spanish words *quincena*, *duende* and Italian *graffiti*, *carabinieri*, *partigiani*), paronyms, phraseological units, and the so-called “false friends”. The phenomenon of “false friends” is characterized by a mismatch of the lexical meaning of the word with the similarity of its external form and plane of expression, that is to say words from two languages are similar in spelling but different in their meaning. Therefore, when translating words belonging to this group, the speaker may often mistakenly resort to literal word-for-word translation (a calque) without taking into consideration an actual meaning of the word. In translation from Spanish into Italian and vice versa such words may become the greatest problem and hinder the transfer of a correct meaning of a word since there are a large number of identical or virtually similar lexical units in spelling that have very few morphemic differences, but their plane of content is completely different. There are several examples of the most common “false friends” that complicate translation process and distort the meaning of an utterance when these words they are misused: *andar* (*Spanish*) – *to walk* / *andare* (*Italian*) – *to go*, *actuar* – *to act* / *attuare* – *to implement*, *aburrir* – *to tire* / *aborrir* – *to hate*, *cercar* – *to fence* / *cercare* – *to look for smth*, *éxito* – *a success* / *esito* – *an outcome*, *fiel* – *faithful* / *fiele* – *the hate*, *gamba* – *a shrimp* / *gamba* – *a leg*, etc. When translating phraseological units from Spanish into Italian bilinguals also resort to the use of loan translation (a calque) that is root-for-root reproduction of a foreign language pattern. For instance, a phraseological combination meaning “to be right” that in Spanish sounds as *tener razón*, when translated into Italian it corresponds to the phrase *avere ragione*; another phraseological combination “to take to bed” in Spanish language is translated as *hacer dormir* and in Italian it sounds as *far addormentare*; it should be noted that both verbs *hacer* and *fare* have a meaning “to make sb doing smth” in this context. From the point of view of lexical correspondences in both languages, it is worth alluding that their similarity is determined by their origin from classical Latin language although many words may have acquired different semantic development. For example, a Spanish verb *querer* and

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an Italian *chiedere* both words are derived from the Latin *quaerere*, however their contemporary meanings do not coincide: *querer* means *to love* and *chiedere* – *to ask*. Both languages contain borrowings from Greek such as *tema*, *problema*, *poema*, *panorama*, *monarca* that are masculine nouns and French *carpet*, *brioche* and *stage*. In addition, there are more than 4,000 words of Arabic origin in Spanish language which eventually received their analogues in Italian language. The borrowing of arabisms is associated with the centuries-old dominance of the Muslim Arabs on the territory of the Iberian Peninsula due to their expansion beyond the Arabia and, as a consequence, the Islamic Conquest of Iberia. As a testimony of this historical period are such appeared words *albaricoque*, *alcachofa*, *azúcar*, *azafrán* in Spanish language and subsequently *albicocca*, *carciofo*, *zucchero*, *zafferano* in Italian. Thus, most of the words in Spanish and Italian have a common etymology, and the main difference between lexical units is shown in their phonological structure, for example, *hombre-uomo* – *a man / a human*, *hijo-figlio* – *a son*. Consequently, a close relation between Spanish and Italian languages on the lexical level can be perceived either as a virtue or as a disadvantage due to the fact that many words illustrate the notorious phenomenon of “false friends” or have minimal morphemic differences.

Grammatical interference is characterized by the influence of the grammatical structure of one language on another when using prepositions in their various functions, coordinating the tenses of verbs and using the forms of the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods. Interference at the grammatical level can be divided into morphological and syntactic. Morphological interference is manifested at the level of minimal parts of the word and parts of speech, as well as while using articles and prepositions in different sets of meaning. The most significant difference between Spanish and Italian languages at the level of the word structure lies in the formation of the plural form of a noun. In order to make a singular noun plural in Spanish language, to a noun that ends in a vowel the ending -s should be added to the stem, for example, *gato-gatos*, *naranja-naranjas*, *nube-nubes*. In contrast, to pluralise a noun in Italian language the gender of a noun should be taken into account since for masculine nouns ending in -o or -e, the ending should be -i: *giorno-giorni*, *armadio-armadi*, *paese-paesi*, *cane-cani*, and for feminine nouns the ending -a or -e changes to -e or -i respectively: *studentessa-studentesse*, *penna-penne*, *classe-classi*, *nazione-nazioni*. At the initial stage of learning Italian, Spanish speakers are often prone to confuse the endings of similar nouns or mix up word forms. The use of articles in both languages can also become an obstacle of effortless learning since in Spanish the definite articles are *el*, *lo* *la*, *los*, *las* and the indefinite ones are *uno/a*, *unos/as* because in Italian language plural definite articles are *i*, *le*, *gli* and indefinite *dei*, *delle*, *degli*. However, the peculiarity of Italian language is the use of an apostrophe in words beginning with vowels and the use of an article *lo* before the letter *z*. This rule complicates the process of learning a second language at the very beginning because the usual form of writing articles in Spanish, due to its similarity to Italian, impedes a correct use. As an example, some Italian words with the definite article should be considered: *l'albero*, *l'ordine*, *lo zucchero*, *lo scherzo*; moreover, the indefinite article almost coincides with the Spanish singular: *un*, *una* (*un'*): *un'arancia*. Another notable rule in Italian is the use of merged forms of prepositions and articles with doubling consonants, for example, *nella camera*, *dello studente*, *all'estero*; in Spanish, the preposition is written separately from the article, with the exception of *a+el=al*, *de+el=del*, but without doubling consonants: *en la habitación*, *de la compra*. Another reason for mixing word units in both languages is the presence of similar suffixes -er in Spanish and -ier in Italian, as, for example, in the same meaning of them words *carrera-carriera*, *manera-maniera* and *frontera-frontiera*. The Spanish diphthong -ue- in the root of the word is replaced by a vowel -o- in Italian: *punte-ponte*, *fuerte-forte*, *muestra-mostra*. A different use of prepositions in Italian language also hinders a correct verbal and written speech of Spanish speakers since they most often rely on the norms of their native language. For example, in Spanish, the preposition *a* is always used before animate objects: *llamo a mi amiga*, *ven a sus padres*, *buscan al medico*, but in Italian there is no such rule, before animate objects the preposition is not used: *ho invitato la mia fidanzata a cenare*, *ha chiamato suo marito*. In addition to that, in Spanish language phraseological units with the preposition *de* are translated into Italian by means of other prepositions: *ir de paseo*, *ir de viaje* (Spanish) / *andare a passeggio*, *andare in viaggio* (Italian) – *to go for a walk / to go on a trip*, *fácil de decir* (Spanish) / *facile a dirsi* (Italian) – *easy to say*, *de todas formas* (Spanish) / *ad ogni modo* (Italian) – *in any case*, *de memoria* (Spanish) / *a memoria* (Italian) – *by heart*. In Spanish and Italian, the Subjunctive Mood (Modo Subjuntivo and Modo Congiuntivo) are used in verbal and written forms of communication in order to express the speaker's attitude, their emotions and feelings with regard to some phenomena and the possibility or uncertainty of occurring events. In both languages one of the ways of forming the Subjunctive Mood is to use an impersonal construction form using the verb “to be”– *ser* (Spanish) / *essere* (Italian) in third-person singular, but the rules of the use in some cases differ. For example, the sentence “I think you are right” is translated into Spanish using the Indicative Mood *creo que tienes razón*, while in Italian, after verbs expressing an opinion or doubt (*credere*, *pensare*), regardless of the presence of a negative form, the Subjunctive Mood *credo che abbia ragione* will be used. The next step is to make a comparison when using the auxiliary verbs

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haber in Spanish and *avere* and *essere* in Italian in order to form past tenses Pretérito Perfecto and Passato Prossimo respectively. In Italian, the choice of auxiliary verbs depends on the transitivity and intransitivity of notional verbs, for example: *sono andato, ho mangiato, abbiamo letto*. This rule does not apply to Spanish language, and the main difficulty is related to the similarity of auxiliary verb forms with those used in Italian: *he recibido / ho ricevuto, han comprado / hanno fatto, etc.*

At the syntax level, there are few cases of linguistic interference since both languages use a free word order in a sentence, and narrative sentences are constructed according to the usual structure: subject, predicate, complement, circumstance. Both in Spanish and in Italian, there are regular cases of ellipsis of personal pronouns, since the verb form indicates the number of the noun, emphatic constructions are used for the emotional and logical stress of an utterance or a sentence, for example: “son ellos que han faltado a la clase” – “they were late for class”, “è in treno che andiamo a Padova” – “we will go to Padua by train”.

The present research has highlighted the direct effect of Spanish language on Italian that was investigated at all language levels that are phonology, lexicon, morphology and syntax. It allows to conclude that language transfer based on the role that L1 plays in acquisition of the second language has both positive and negative consequences. When mastering Italian language after a closely related to it Spanish language, the similarity between two language codes may lead to either the simplification of L2 learning or the deviation of language norms in translation studies. Therefore, linguistic interference may help language learners to transfer their L1 knowledge while studying Italian or it may result in errors in both verbal and written communications. As an example, the interaction of languages which has a negative impact on translation is demonstrated by such patterns in phonetics as the similarity of sound composition of a word in both languages, the overlap of accent placements, a mismatch of the meaning of lexemes, features of translation of “false friends”, phraseological units, borrowings in lexicology and morphological word structures and mood forms of verbs in grammar. Difficulties in translation arise due to the high degree of influence of the first language on the second foreign language, which forces a speaker to rely on linguistics habits and rules used in the mother tongue. In addition to that, the problem of a considerable impact of Spanish language on Italian in translation process is explained by the close relationship of the two language systems and therefore frequent similarities in word structure. A diachronic comparison of Spanish and Italian language features depicts that their common etymological roots, namely the ascent to Vulgar Latin language acknowledges the coincidence of the meaning of lexical units. Thus, linguistic interference in the majority of cases of Italian language acquisition having Spanish language as a native one causes confusion of language norm and use; nevertheless, errors in oral and written production are not absolute and do not impede communication.

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Irina Musaeva
Higher School of Economics, Russia
imusaeva99@gmail.com

**Peculiarities of Representation of Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis
through a Comparative Analysis of Translations of Japanese Literature**

This research looks into linguistic relativity hypothesis and attempts to establish a link between language and mind. The first part of the research addresses Sapir-Whorf hypothesis and overviews the studies made in this field

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concerning both positions: relativistic and generative approaches. Special attention is paid to color terminology and different theories of color naming. The second part of the research is centered around Haruki Murakami’s novel “Colorless Tsukuru Tazaki and His Years of Pilgrimage” and its translations into Russian and Japanese. It seems that color has an important part in character development but being termed slightly differently in the three languages those color names might have altered the way readers perceive the events happening in the novel. By comparing translations with the original text, I attempt to see if there really is a link between language and mind.

A link between language and mind has long been the focus of research of many scientists. Ancient philosophers speculated on the topic, proposing different views on the role of language in education and in our lives in general. Later, in the 19th century Wilhelm von Humboldt addressed the issue again and introduced it to the linguistic academic community. Since then on, the problem of language-mind relationship has been widely discussed. Despite numerous studies being conducted, it is not quite clear whether language influences our thought or not. The lack of agreement between different studies is the ground for the relevance of the present study. Recently, a lot of linguists have been studying color lexicon, discovering the relationship between color vision, color names and cognition. In this paper I will address the issue of linguistic relativity as well and try to see how Japanese color terms are translated into Russian and English and whether or not the differences in linguistic and cultural backgrounds influence the reception of these colors.

I will be looking at the way colors function in English and Russian translations of Haruki Murakami’s novel “Colorless Tsukuru Tazaki and his years of pilgrimage”. I will try to discover whether color categorization is relative or universal by looking at Japanese, English and Russian color terminology, their translations and their possible implied meanings. Besides, this research aims to test linguistic relativity hypothesis.

The first linguist to address the problem of the relationship between language and mind was Wilhelm von Humboldt, who concluded that language shapes people’s thought to a certain extent. In the 20th century Benjamin Lee Whorf introduced the term “linguistic relativity” and, following Edward Sapir’s idea that languages conceptualize cultural experience and as a result reality in general in fundamentally different ways, went further and specified this theory by saying that our notions of time, space and matter are determined by the structure of the language we speak. This led to what is now known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis; that the language we speak somehow influences the way we perceive reality. (Sapir, 1921; Whorf, 1956)

His findings gave rise to a heated debate in the scientific community, some criticizing the hypothesis, others drawing new evidence to support it. Even now the discussion is still alive. Phillip Wolff and Kevin J. Holmes (2011) conducted a comprehensive review of all major studies in linguistic relativity and concluded that recent investigations have been centered around the idea that thought and language represent parallel structures, the relation between which can be one of the following:

1. Thought processes happen before the production of speech and thus thought influences language.
2. Thought processes happen after language: certain categories of language might influence the way we categorize reality. E. g. by means of language some properties become more apparent in thinking.
3. Thought processes happen at the same time as language production. This means that linguistic processes are activated together with nonlinguistic ones. In this case language may act either as “meddler” or as “augmenter”. That is, either linguistic processes interfere with nonlinguistic ones or they extend them.

I would like to pay special attention to this last point where language is seen as incorporating thinking. One of the ways this interaction between thinking and language is actualized is through color cognition. The fact that color categorization differs across languages given that the physiology of color vision is the same in all human beings gave rise to several theories trying to explain this contradiction.

A universal approach was proposed by Berlin and Kay (1969). The survey revealed that basic color terms (BCT) arise in a language in a universal sequence, this sequence has 8 evolutionary stages and generally 11 BCT. Later this theory was reconceptualized and the sequence transformed into a more complex system of categories and megacategories.

James Stanlaw (2010) argued that Japanese color terms did not arise in the universal sequence. Still, Stanlaw argues that these findings do not contradict Berlin and Kay model, but rather pose new questions for future research.

Kuriki et al. (2017) discovered that Japanese BCT differ from the universal model. In Japanese language there seem to be 19 distinct lexical color categories. 12 of them are the so-called BCT, 10 of which correspond to the English counterparts, the other 2 are *ao* (dark blue) and *mizu* (light blue). *Mizu* was not recognized as a BCT by previous studies, however, Kuriki et al. revealed the opposite. The same difference can be seen in Russian, with a word for *dark blue* and *light blue* each, ‘*sinii*’ and ‘*goluboi*’ both being BCT (Winawer et al., 2007). The research

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also concluded that *midori* (green) is not a sub-category of *ao*, as was previously suggested, but is in fact a distinct BCT. Therefore, it would be wrong to say that Japanese is a ‘*grue*’ language.

In translation theory, Humboldt’s concept of a culture specific worldview reflected in a language gave rise to a debate on whether or not translation is even possible. Humboldt thought that, given that linguistic structures do not correspond to each other, translation as such is impossible. I. e., words with their semantical and connotational meanings, cultural and historical context, etc. cannot be expressed in a different language in such a way that reflects all of those components of a word, a phrase, or a text. However, modern translation stands on the idea that while there are some meanings that cannot be translated into a different language in the same form, we can try and either explain those meanings expressly, or we can simply look for a similar lexical or syntactic unit that will bring about the same reaction and response in the recipient as intended by the author. In this paper, I will look at Russian and English translations of a Japanese novel “Colorless Tsukuru Tazaki and His Years of Pilgrimage” by Haruki Murakami and analyze the way in which characters are described with colors and whether the difference in categorizing colors themselves might affect the readers of the translated novel and thus change the connotational meaning in some way.

As we can see, the debate between universalist and relativistic points of view has been going on for decades, yet there is still no agreement on whether or not language influences thought. What is more, there have been few comparative studies of Russian, English and Japanese languages in the domain of relativity of color categorization. The present study might fill this gap in the existing research.

First, I will give a brief plot review of the novel for the context. Second, I will establish the role of colors in character description. Specifically, I will outline character description of each of the five main characters, paying special attention to the role of colors that are applied to certain people. Finally, I will compare the English and Russian translations with the original Japanese text to see whether the difference in color categorization might affect the readers of the translated novel and thus change the meaning in some way.

In high school Tsukuru was friends with four people who had a color in their names. Two boys: Akamatsu 赤松 (red pine), Oumi 青海 (blue sea); and two girls: Shirane 白根 (white root) and Kurono 黒埜 (black field). When Tsukuru left his hometown to study engineering in Tokyo, the friends drew apart, ending with the four “color” friends banishing “colorless” Tsukuru from the group. For many years Tsukuru was wondering why his best high school friends had suddenly cut him off. All this time he thought of himself as colorless and unimportant. Later, Tsukuru’s girlfriend noticed that he was unable to move on from this traumatic experience and suggested he visit his old friends and confront them about this. He followed the advice. As it turned out, the reason why they cut ties with Tsukuru was because Shirane claimed he raped her (which did not actually happen). Still, it was an excuse for the group to break up with Tsukuru. After talking to the three friends Tsukuru felt baffled but relieved about knowing the truth and ready to move on.

I will base my analysis on the first chapter of the novel, which gives a brief account of all significant character traits. *Table 1* shows the words and phrases used to describe the characters, their distinguishable features, hobbies, etc. in English, Russian and Japanese texts.

Table 3.2-1. Character description

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	En	Rus	Jp
Ака Красный アカ	Best grades, embarrassed to be smart, short, never backed down, hated to lose, didn't act out, became quiet, short temper, break down and laugh	Талант в учебе, стеснялся того, что умный, низкорослый, от идеи своей не отступался почти никогда, перфекционист, ходил надутый и молчаливый, угрюмость	成績が図抜けて優秀、トップクラス、気を配る、頭脳が優秀、小柄、簡単には譲らない、腹を立てる、負けず嫌い、不機嫌になった、笑い出した
Ао Синий アオ	Impressively built, wide shoulders, barrel chest, broad forehead, generous mouth, imposing nose, rugby team, team captain, cheerful, popular, looked straight in the eye, clear and strong voice, amazing appetite, good listener, born leader, pep talk, clever, athletic	Безупречно сложен, капитан команды, плечистый, грудь колесом, скулы широкие, голос громкий, нос картошкой, агрессивный игрок, жизнелюбие, разговаривал внятно, глядя в глаза; идеальный обжора; больше слушал других, чем говорил сам, прирожденный атлет, умный	体格は申し分なかった、チームのキャプテン、肩幅、胸が分厚い、額が広い、口が大きい、鼻がどっしり、ハッスルプレーヤー、性格が明るい、多くの人に好きかれた、人の目を見て話をした、大食漢、人の話を聞く、激を飛ばす、能力に恵まれた、クレバーな選手
Shiro Белая シロ	Tall, slim, model's body, graceful features of a traditional Japanese doll, silky long black hair, serious, disliked drawing attention, skilled pianist, teaching piano to children, relaxed, quiet, loved animals, dream to become a veterinarian	Круглолицая, точно старинная японская кукла; высокая, стройная, вылитая фотомодель, длинные черные волосы блестели, тяготилась своей красотой, серьезная девушка, прекрасная пианистка, смиренная, просветленная, обожала животных, мечтает стать ветеринаром	古い日本人形を思わせる端正な顔立ち、ほっそり、モデルのような体型 髪は長く美しく、艶のある漆黒 自分の美しさを持って余す、生真面目、巧みにピアノを弾く、幸福そう、無口、生き物が好き、獣医になるのは夢だ
Куро Черная クロ	Wasn't beautiful, eager, charming, curious, large-boned, full-bodied, well-developed bust, independent, tough, mind as quick as a tongue, sarcastic, unique and refreshing sense of humor, fun, stimulating, great reader	В любой толпе выделялась ростом, приятное лицо, теплый взгляд, вся крупная, полноватая, пышногрудая, нравом круга, независима в суждениях, быстро говорит, острый язык (разговаривать с ней было – все равно что кататься на американских горках), без книги в руках никогда не видели	上というところ、表情が生き生き、大柄、ふっくら、胸が大きい、自立心が強い、タフ、早口、頭の回転も同じくらい速い、きつい皮肉、独特のさっぱりしたユーモア、読書家
Tsukuru Цкуру つくる	Nothing special, do the minimum, passed his classes with ease, didn't mind sports, pretty good-looking, had no particular defects to speak of, incurable boredom, no hobby or special skill, taciturn, blushed easily, wasn't especially outgoing, affluent family, middling, pallid, lacking in color, average, the middle of the road	Не отличался ничем особенным, крепкий середнячок, сдавал все так, чтобы не выпасть из обоймы, спорта не избегал, правильное лицо, непреходящая скука, хобби не было, особенными умениями не блистал, скуп на слова, часто краснел от неумения общаться, солидный доход семьи, нечего похвалить, средний во всем, бесцветный, ничем не выдающийся	特徴なり個性を持ち合わせない、成績も中の上、運動は嫌いではない、顔立ちは整っていた、取り立てて破綻がない、退屈、趣味や特技もない、口が重い、よく顔が赤くなる、社交が苦手、家が裕福、すべてにおいて中庸、色彩が希薄

If we were to describe the connotational meanings of the given color terms by ascribing certain character traits to them, we could infer that in Japanese colors could be associated with the following characteristics:

- Red – success, persistence, knowledge;
- Blue – strength, appeal, charisma;
- White – grace, art, peace and quiet;
- Black – charm, uniqueness, warmth.

Reflecting on these inferred associations, I can see the similarities and differences between Russian and Japanese color conceptualization. In Russian, for example, red is often associated with power and strength, or love and passion. Russian word *красный* also means “beautiful”. White, however, is quite similar, it is associated with peace, calm, and grace both in English and Russian languages.

I should note here that the main character mentions himself that colors don't have much to do with the personalities of the characters. Still, the fact that he had no color in his name made him feel left out. Let us analyze the following examples.

そのことをつくるは最初から微妙な疎外感を感じるようになった。もちろん名前に色がついているかいないかなんて、人格とは何の関係もない問題だ。それはよくわかる。しかし彼はそのことを残念に思ったし、自分でも驚いたことに、少なからず傷つきさえした。 ([18]: p. 8)
From the very beginning this fact made him feel a little bit left out. Of course, whether or not you had a color as part of your name had nothing to do with your personality. Tsukuru understood this. But still, it disappointed him, and he surprised himself by feeling hurt. ([11]: p. 6)
Из-за этого он всегда ощущал себя не таким, как все. Разумеется, характер человека не зависит от того, есть ли в его имени какой-нибудь цвет. Это понятно. Но Цкуру собственная «бесцветность» огорчала и даже злила. ([3]: p. 10)

Moreover, in Japanese the nicknames are contracted not to the kanji denoting colors, but to kana. In English translation, the names remain as they sound in Japanese, the translation method being transcription. In Russian, however, the names are translated into the corresponding Russian color terms, capitalized. For example, *アカ* – *Ака* – *Красный*.

他のみんなは当然のこのようにすぐ、お互いを色で呼び合うようになった。「アカ」「アオ」「シロ」「クロ」というように。 ([18]: p.8)
Soon, the other four friends began to use nicknames : the boys were called <i>Aka</i> (red) and <i>Ao</i> (blue); and the

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girls were Shiro (white) and Kuro (black). ([11]: p. 6)

Остальные же четверо, не сговариваясь, стали называть друг друга просто по цветам — Красный и Синий, Белая и Черная. ([3]: p. 10)

In Japanese and Russian the focus is on the color, while in English this aspect might not seem as strong. Further in the novel, the usage of explicit color terms for names in Russian, partially explicit in Japanese, and nicknames having no direct link to color terms in English might affect the readers in different ways. To summarize, in Japanese and Russian texts character description is augmented by the color semantics of the names. That is one way in which colors function in character development.

シロとクロの二人は中学校の時にもクラスが同じで、五人がグループを形成する前から、お互いをよく知っていた。彼女たち二人が並んでいるところは、なかなか素敵な眺めだった。芸術的才能を具えた、しかし内気なとびっきりの美人と、聡明で皮肉屋のコメディアン。ユニークな、そして魅力的な組み合わせだ。 ([18]: p. 12)

Shiro and Kuro had been in the same class in junior high and knew each other well, even before the five of them became friends. To see them together was a wonderful sight: a unique and captivating combination of a beautiful, shy artist and a clever, sarcastic comedian. ([11]: p. 9)

Черная с Белой учились вместе еще в средней школе и хорошо знали друг дружку задолго до того, как сложилась «неразлучная пятерка». Наблюдать их вместе было удовольствием особым. Муза и комедиантка. Головокружительное сочетание. ([3]: с. 14)

This extract focuses on the relationship between Shiro and Kuro and underlines their strong bond. This could imply the compatibility of black and white colors, which constitute a spectrum of monochrome colors. In Russian translation the contrast between the two seems to me the most striking. A sort of parallel syntax can be traced in the first and third sentences: Kuro and Shiro were like a comedian and a muse. Here, white symbolizes art and grace, while black could stand for wit and black humor.

In this section attempts to identify whether or not translations differ from the original and from each other, and if so, whether or not those differences alter the perception of characters and thus conceptualization of colors. I will compare the three texts on the criteria of translation quality assessment by Russian translator and specialist S. V. Tyulenev:

- a) Accuracy of translation of factual information: Facts and meaningful information are transferred to a full extent. The order in which this information is presented is also retained from the original and consistent in all translations.
- b) Accuracy of transferring the main aim of the text (pragmatics): As far as I can judge, the communicative goal is successfully transferred in English and Russian translations. Having read both of the books, I can say that I found the texts equally engaging and thought-provoking.
- c) Accuracy of translating into the same style: The style is very much the same. For example, 大食漢 which means “great eater”, is rendered into English as “had a great appetite” and into Russian as “идеальный обжора”, which are both emotionally expressive and have a positive connotation.
- d) Accuracy of transferring the author’s point of view: The events and the characters are treated similarly in all three texts, so the translations seem to represent the original appropriately and rather accurately.

The research has shown that the English and Russian translations are very similar to the original Japanese text. First, they manage to convey the cognitive information pretty accurately. Second, the stylistic means are retained as well. That being said, the translations represent the original text in its fullest extent, thus supporting the modern view in translation theory: the one stating that while there are some culture-specific words, the meaning, both denotational and connotational, can be translated into another language. The losses are unavoidable, but the emotions and the ideas that the text will evoke in the readers is the same, i. e. the author’s message reaches readers of any language, which is the most important task.

The role of colors in the novel is vague. The main character in the first chapter speculates that colors have nothing to do with personality, yet he always thought of himself as colorless, i. e. boring and average. It is interesting, though, that in Russian the names are translated with the corresponding color terms, yet in English the names are rendered phonetically. For one thing, colors may help to remember the characters and differentiate

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between them better. For another, colors do not really bring anything else. Hence, the perception of colors is universal.

The fact that Japanese nicknames were translated in two different ways – transcription and direct translation, – could signify the two-faceted nature of the Japanese nicknames. On the one hand, the sound form of the name does not stand for anything other than a name. On the other hand, it bears color semantics.

That being said, we have noticed that the perception of color terms does not differ from language to language, thus is universal. What is different, though, is color conceptualization and the connotational meanings ascribed to them. I have concluded that while there are some culture-specific connotations to colors, they do not alter the perception of the characters.

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Timofey Shilov,
Ekaterina Kamarzina
Russian State University of Cinematography named after S. Gerasimov, Sergiev Posad, Russia
tshil19@inbox.ru, kaekvi_star@mail.ru

**Identification of the main features and differences in the American and European localization
of video games as a product of the audiovisual genre**

Imagine that you would like to buy an old-school video-game for your attic game console and think “Why not buying some classic games that I have missed?” You prompt online and find the “Super-duper Game” of your dream but in two versions: for the US and the EU. The only reason to choose between those items is your game console region type, isn’t it? There will not be many differences between the specifications of those versions: both games are in English, both have the same system requirements – so it shouldn’t matter which one to choose. But this conclusion is completely wrong: it does matter which version to buy. Those versions may be completely different games: the first one tells you a story of the brave warriors fighting against space invaders while the other is about a

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hi-tech cyborg-puppy bringing freedom to cute little space turtles. Whatever has happened to the game between the EU and the US? The answer is localization.

Before getting started, let us make it clear that in this article we exclusively address console video games, but not PC games; moreover, we mainly consider the games released not earlier than 1985 (because the earlier released games do not have much to translate and localize).

The main reason of the division between the EU and the US video game markets is neither logistics nor cultural differences, but technical incompatibility of electro grids. In American and some Asian countries, the current frequency is 60 Hz, while in Europe and Australia the frequency is 50 Hz. Japanese game consoles couldn't work correctly with European electro grid without modification, so it was necessary to produce different game devices for European and American markets and it forced video game companies to open their European branches.

It turns out that the American console video game market produced more revenues than the European. For example, Super Nintendo (Super Famicom in Japan) sold 23.35 million units in North America, 17.17 million units in Japan and just 8.58 million units in the rest of the world including Europe. However, there are few opposite examples, e.g. Sega Master System was more popular in Europe than in America and Japan. This market situation determined the subsidiary role of the European branches of Japanese video game tycoons. Because of this, European game and console releases were almost always delayed – usually for a couple of years, sometimes for a decade or even forever. This has led to one of the most prominent differences in the EU and US game versions: the EU ones have less language mistakes due to the fact that the vendors have a time gap to find and fix the detected errors.

Besides fixing the language mistakes, the EU versions also had fixed bugs and semantic errors and were supplied with additional content to compensate the supply delays. For example, *Metroid Prime* US release (November 2002) had some narrative discontinuities which were later fixed in the European release (March 2003).

Furthermore, hardware differences and smaller revenues in Europe were accompanied by complicated and non-transparent ratings. Some European countries (especially Germany) had their own vision of censorship in video games. Because of this, vendors and developers had to meet specific requirements for the European game release. Sometimes these requirements were so difficult that the video game could have changed completely. For example, the European game *Probotector* where hi-tech robots fight against other robots and space invaders is a version of the American game *Contra: Hard Corps* where brave marines fight against terrorists. Another notable example: in Europe all the *Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles* franchise was censored and early video games were renamed as *Teenage Mutant HERO Turtles* due to tabooing the ninja theme. For the same reason the most famous ninja-themed video game series *Ninja Gaiden* was localized as *Shadow Warriors*.

By the early 2000 the European rating system had been established and most localizers finally breathed a sigh of relief. Fortunately, there was no need to meet the individual country requirements! But some of them automatically continued to erase every mention of casinos, alcohol and profanity for no actual reason. For example, in *Metroid Prime 3* released in 2007 the localization team found the one and only swear word "Damn!" and changed it to "No!".

In the example above the censorship is almost non-visible for the end-user. But sometimes the result of the localizers' work is a complete nonsense and causes some confuse or even nothing but laugh. The American version of *Fire Emblem: Awakening* released in 2012 contained a slight erotic moment where a female character praised another one's curvy body, while the European version replaced these words with the praising of her silky hair but didn't change the erotic footage at all.

American releases have some censorship features, too. For instance, any details and moments connected to September 11 attacks were censored in many games released in the US. The World Trading Center buildings were removed from the game *Max Payne*. A big amount of levels, cut scenes and even the ending were redone in *Spider-Man 2: Enter Electro* in order to avoid any hints of the Twin Towers. *Twisted Metal Black* was originally supposed to include a scene of a plane crashing in the city but this scene was removed; only the consequences of the crash were left. In *Eternal Darkness: Sanity's Requiem* the textures that included Arabian texts were removed.

The distinction between the slang and polysemantic words can also be the reason for the censorship changes. For example, in *Kirby's Epic Yarn* Kirby's thoughts contained the word *pants*. (The original phrase was "This grass feels funny," Kirby thought. "It feels like... pants.") It was replaced with *trousers* to avoid misunderstanding and indecent subtext as in British English *pants* means underwear, while in American English it means trousers. The word *spastic* was used in the American *Mario Party* but it is an extremely discredit swear word in British English.

It happens to be problematic to keep the character's distinctive manner of speech in localization, too. For instance, a European “tough” guy speaks americanisms very actively, but American localizers have to either use jargon (which leads to the age limits raise) or simply omit this character's trait (which actually happens in most cases).

However, major localization differences refer to names, location titles, etc., such as the mass renaming of locations and tracks in *Mario Kart*, a great amount of changes in *Advance Wars: Days of Ruin* where both characters' names and location titles differ in American and European versions and so on. Also, the names of the

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games were changed. *Star Fox* (USA) turned in *Lylat Wars* in Europe, *Quest 64*—in *Holy Magic Century*, *River City Ransom*—in *Street Gangs*.

As a matter of fact, the names of the games are a separate kind of headache for gamers all over the world. Video games are a commercial product. Everything—graphics, music, game play—must sell the game. Including the title. If the localizers have the opportunity to join a famous brand (or, in specific cases, to reject it), they will do it. In 2000 the original game *Metal Gear: Ghost Babel* was released. Everywhere, except for Japan, the game got the name *Metal Gear Solid*, which literally copied the title of the hit game *Metal Gear Solid* released in 1998. This caused a huge confusion, especially considering the fact that *Metal Gear: Ghost Babel* wasn't even a part of the canon game series. *Final Fantasy Adventure* (American version of the title) turned into *Mystic Quest* in Europe and lost the connection with the famous *Final Fantasy* series.

To sum it up, we can say that the most discreet differences are formal, grammar and lexical. The most common example is the replacement of letters *s* and *z* in British English words: *realize* instead of *realise*, *localization* instead of *localisation*; extra *u* in words: *colours* instead of *colors*, *favourite* instead of *favorite*, etc. In the British version of *Final Fantasy 12* the spelling of many words was corrected, for example, “*Mum Bomb*” instead of “*Mom Bomb*”. As for the lexical features, we can mention *elevators* (British) instead of *lifts* (American), *apartment* (British) instead of *flat* (American), etc. In *Mario Kart 8* “I'm using tilt controls!” (USA) was changed into “I'm using motion controls!”. Such are the basic differences between the European and North American video game localization versions.

Today, the Golden Age of localization differences has already passed—almost all developers have rejected the region-lock (software or technical devices that did not allow you to run games from other regions on your console), so localizations have become almost identical. Does this mean that all the problems are now left in the past? No. The thing is that nearly all the developers of the 80s, 90s and 2000s weren't interested in the Russian market, so Russian gamers have missed most real legends of the video game world—*Shin Megami Tensei*, *Final Fantasy*, *Dragon Quest*... Now the question is which version should be used as basis to make the Russian translation?

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7. A comparison between the censored UK PAL version and the uncensored American NTSC version of Twisted Metal: Black: <https://www.movie-censorship.com/report.php?ID=4514>
8. Examples of the games that were changed in British localizations in comparison with their American versions: <https://www.giantbomb.com/forums/general-discussion-30/american-to-british-english-translation-in-video-g-556365/>
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10. Examples of video game localization differences between UK PAL versions and American NTSC versions: <https://www.neogaf.com/threads/ntsc-vs-pal-what-are-some-localization-differences.1051731/>
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13. A multidisciplinary study of the translation and localisation of video games: <https://books.google.ru/books?id=RYcQBAAAQBAJ&pg=PA184&lpg=PA184&dq=differences+between+usa+and+uk+game+localisations&source=bl&ots=BrGtTXCvjy&sig=ACfU3U2bOriwaN6Hf2tzRZyoSVIIF2bktg&hl=ru&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwi5q-PVssfqAhU1wsQBHaCLCC4Q6AEwAnoECAQQAQ#v=onepage&q=differencesbetweenusaandukgamelocalisations&f=false>

Part VIII

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC ISSUES OF MODERN WORLD

Montoya Quiroga Angela Liliana
Higher School of Economics, Russia
angelamontoyaquiroga@gmail.com

El modelo de maternidad en las sociedades occidentales desde el siglo XVII hasta inicios del siglo XXI

The concept of motherhood throughout history is defined as a combination of beliefs and meanings in constant change, influenced by cultural and social factors that emphasize the image of women, childbearing and parenting. The present article contains a historical review of the concept of the development of motherhood from the origin of the term «maternitas» to the present day, taking into account the participation of women in society, as well as factors like the development of philosophical, literary, scientific and finally, political concepts. These dynamics evidence the great transformation of the ideal model of motherhood as well as the role of women in Western society, making clear that motherhood does not occur innately, it is a result of the progress and sociocultural influence of Western society.

maternidad, modelo ideal de maternidad, función maternal, rol de la mujer.

A lo largo de los años el concepto de maternidad ha cambiado de acuerdo con los cambios socioculturales que han surgido en occidente. Este término se encuentra en constante evolución debido a factores culturales y sociales en torno a la mujer, la procreación y a la crianza³¹.

El término «maternidad» no ha existido desde siempre, en la antigüedad este concepto no estaba presente ni en el griego ni en el latín, no obstante, las actividades realizadas por la madre entendidas hoy en día como maternidad, ya existían en la mitología.

El término «maternitas» se acuñó por primera vez en el siglo XII durante la expansión del culto mariano, los clérigos utilizaron este término con el fin de fortalecer la imagen de la iglesia desde una dimensión espiritual sin negar el desprecio a la maternidad carnal de Eva.³²

La sociedad en el siglo XVII se caracterizaba por seguir un modelo socio-económico piramidal, en la cúspide de la esta organización se encontraba el rey, mientras que en el último grado se ubicaban los campesinos, el poder económico recaía en las altas esferas sociales. La economía de este se siglo se basaba en actividades agrarias y el comercio entre países, existía una considerable carencia de grandes avances tecnológicos por lo tanto la industria dependía de condiciones medio ambientales y la fuerza de trabajo del campesinado.

El siglo XVII fue una época azotada por guerras civiles y conflictos político-religiosos, los cuales provocaron hambrunas, epidemias, factores que afectaron a toda la población que en su mayoría se componía por campesinos los cuales vivían en zonas rurales dedicadas a la agricultura, de igual modo, las nefastas condiciones de salubridad provocaron un grave descenso en la población.

En lo que respecta a la maternidad, a causa de las deplorables condiciones de vida, el analfabetismo, la superstición entre otros factores, se consideró a la maternidad como una actividad de poca importancia, no existió un modelo de madre ideal, además, las madres no se ocupaban de sus propios hijos, por el contrario esta actividad se relegaba a las nodrizas, en efecto, las mujeres fueron valoradas como seres humanos por su capacidad de dar a luz y no por sus capacidades de crianza, esto se debe en gran medida al estilo de vida de la época. La maternidad pasa a un segundo plano puesto que las prioridades de la sociedad se enfocaron a la supervivencia a través de actividades esencialmente agrarias.

En el siglo XVIII gracias al crecimiento económico y al movimiento cultural e intelectual denominado como la Ilustración las prioridades de la sociedad cambiaron ya que, se creía que a través de la búsqueda del conocimiento el ser humano dejaría de lado la superstición, la tiranía y las ideas arcaicas impuestas por las instituciones eclesiásticas.

³¹ María Elisa Molina, Transformaciones Histórico Culturales del Concepto de Maternidad y sus Repercusiones en la Identidad de la Mujer, 2006 (Santiago, Psykhe), 93-103.

³² Palomar Vereá, Cristina, Maternidad: Historia y Cultura, 2005, Revista de Estudios de Género. La ventana, 35-67.

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En la ilustración la perspectiva que se tiene sobre la maternidad estuvo influenciada por el desarrollo de carácter filosófico, literario, científico y, por último, político. Uno de los mayores cambios fue el cuidado de la mujer durante el periodo de la gestación, en 1806 Napoleón fundó la primera cátedra de obstetricia. Los avances en este campo de la medicina permitieron crear conciencia sobre los cuidados que debería tener la madre y el feto.

La estructura familiar se utilizó como base para la construcción de la sociedad, los hombres asumieron el rol paterno y proveedor de recursos, mientras que las mujeres debían ocuparse personalmente de la educación de sus hijos, con el fin de crear lazos familiares entre madres e hijos, los cuales a su vez formarían vínculos entre todos los miembros de la familia, convirtiendo a la figura materna en el eje central de la estructura familiar.

El tratado Emilio escrito por Rousseau contrapuso la idea de maldad innata del hombre concedida por San Agustín y apoyada por Descartes en siglos anteriores. El autor sostiene fehacientemente “El hombre es bueno por naturaleza, pero se hace malo por culpa de las instituciones sociales”. En este siglo cambia la concepción del niño, se abandona la idea del niño como un ser incomprendido y maléfico, el cual actúa por capricho. Desde el punto de vista expuesto por Rousseau el niño es un ser necesitado de afecto y de cuidados provistos por su madre desde su nacimiento.

En el transcurso del siglo XVIII a la mujer se le atribuyeron capacidades innatas de empatía y cuidado, de este modo se originó la idea del amor maternal entendida como el amor que nace instintivamente en las mujeres durante el periodo de gestación producto de la incapacidad de la mujer para actuar racionalmente.

La maternidad se convirtió en un asunto de vital importancia para la humanidad, motivo por el cual los padres, la iglesia y la comunidad en general definirían el modelo de maternidad ideal, sin tener en cuenta la postura de las mujeres, aun cuando, las madres eran responsables del proceso de crianza.

El modelo ideal de maternidad se afianzó a través de instituciones educativas las niñas, futuras mujeres y madres se educaban por separado en escuelas femeninas orientadas a la preparación de las niñas para su vida futura en la cual debían ejercer el papel de madre. En consecuencia, si una madre no seguía el modelo ideal de maternidad aceptado por la sociedad, se determinaba que la mujer no es apta para ser madre y que no cumplía con sus deberes sociales sino también con sus deberes con el estado.

En los inicios de este siglo la participación en la sociedad estaba condicionada por el sexo, el hombre hizo cargo del ámbito público y en tomar parte en actividades relacionadas al desarrollo económico e intelectual, mientras que la mujer se encargó del ámbito privado más específicamente el doméstico, la función de las mujeres se centraría en cumplir sus deberes como buena esposa y madre. No obstante, este orden social se alteró debido a los cambios producidos por la industrialización, los cuales obligaron a la mayoría de la población rural a migrar a las grandes ciudades, en efecto, las multitudinarias migraciones y el reemplazo del modelo económico agrario a un modelo industrial provocó un aumento en la brecha entre ricos y pobres.

En consecuencia, las madres pertenecientes a las clases más bajas de la sociedad se vieron obligadas a trabajar ante la imposibilidad del sostenimiento económico de la familia, aunque se considerase que el lugar de la mujer era el hogar.

La madre proletaria no poseía el tiempo necesario para cumplir una doble función en la sociedad, es decir las mujeres no podían llevar a cabo su rol de maternidad y trabajar al mismo tiempo, hecho que generó la creación de espacios dedicados al cuidado de sus hijos, estos espacios se conocerían bajo el nombre de «guarderías», de este modo el cuidado de los niños en sus primeras etapas de vida se relegaría a terceros como sucedió en siglos anteriores.

En el siglo XIX la maternidad se convirtió en un asunto de estado, en vista de que las madres pertenecientes a las clases más bajas de la sociedad se vieron en la obligación de trabajar durante más de 14 horas diarias, organismos gubernamentales establecieron leyes proteccionistas otorgando beneficios para las mujeres trabajadoras como: licencias y subsidios de maternidad, sin embargo, los estados proteccionistas constituyeron leyes en las cuales se pretendían castigar la anticoncepción y los abortos, dejando a las mujeres sin la oportunidad de decisión sobre sus propios cuerpos.

A mediados del siglo XX, en las sociedades de la postguerra surgió un fenómeno denominado como «Baby boom» periodo durante el cual surgió un alza inusual de la natalidad debido a las numerosas pérdidas civiles causadas por el conflicto armado durante la segunda guerra mundial. En el transcurso de los años 50's y 60's las mujeres fueron instadas a convertirse en madres, independientemente si trabajasen o no debían cumplir con su deber como ciudadana y se le otorgó primacía a la función que ejercían las mujeres en la maternidad. Este fenómeno causó grandes críticas, ya que las mujeres eran impulsadas a tener hijos por presión de la sociedad y la propaganda de los medios de comunicación, y no por el deseo natural e innato de ser madre, demostrando una vez más que la maternidad está ligada a la cultura y no es un hecho que se produzca de forma innata.

La maternidad comenzó a ser un hecho de interés para la sociedad en general, dejando de ser un asunto que solo les compete a las instituciones o a la crítica religiosa, desde este nuevo punto de vista los movimientos feministas comenzaron a tomar fuerza y a ver a la maternidad ya no desde el punto de vista natural sino un hecho que puede asumir la mujer por elección.

La pionera de este nuevo repensar de la maternidad fue la filósofa existencialista y feminista Simone de Beauvoir, en su obra *El Segundo Sexo*, reflexionó sobre el significado de ser mujer y reivindica la función maternal

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de la mujer argumentando que la posición de la mujer en la sociedad ha dependido del estatus de inferioridad que se le ha otorgado desde épocas primitivas, puesto que en tiempos de supervivencia como las guerras o enfrentamientos bélicos se otorga un grado de superioridad al sexo encargado de la muerte mas no el sexo encargado de engendrar, en efecto, el origen de la opresión de la mujer no se debe a cuestiones biológicas sino a la significación que culturalmente se le da a la reproducción desde tiempos remotos.

En la modernidad según la autora la mujer se debate entre la «naturaleza» y el semejante masculino a través de la maternidad, al suponerse que la naturaleza es opuesta a la razón, Beauvoir propone que no se debe entender la maternidad como un hecho meramente natural, rechazando la idea de la realización plena de la mujer a través de la experiencia de ser madre y negando los sentimientos de satisfacción que la mujer alcanza una vez se convierte en madre.

La feminista francesa fue la primera en desmitificar el «*instinto maternal*» e interpretarlo como instrumento de dominación. Señalando que, paradójicamente, a mujeres a las que se había obligado a ser madres, encerrado en el ámbito doméstico y frustrado en sus deseos de realización personal, se les confiaba niños, es decir seres frágiles, vulnerables y dependientes que quedaban librados a la ambivalencia de sus sentimientos, Beauvoir consideraba que la maternidad no debe convertirse en el proyecto de vida de una mujer, por el contrario, la maternidad debe ser elegida de manera consiente y libre.

Otra de las precursoras de la libre elección de la maternidad fue Betty Friedan en su obra «*La mística de la feminidad*» la autora investiga sobre las insatisfacciones de las mujeres en Estados Unidos y sus diversas patologías autodestructivas. En su obra Friedan propone que el origen del problema de las mujeres radica en la sumisión y aceptación de la mujer como madre y esposa, convirtiéndose en limitante para desarrollo personal de la mujer. Friedan considera que la institución familiar es perfectamente coherente con los deseos de las mujeres, no obstante, considera de vital importancia la participación de la mujer en el ámbito privado, sin cuestionar el papel de la maternidad y la familia.

A pesar de, los aportes de Beauvoir y Friedan se logró verdaderamente la emancipación femenina por medio de la «*pastilla anticonceptiva*», por primera vez en la historia, las mujeres podían planificar un embarazo, y podían hacerlo de forma independiente y cómoda. Este cambio fue un hito en la vida de millones de mujeres porque podían planificar, y no solo la cantidad de hijos, sino que además podían pensar en estudiar y trabajar.

A finales del siglo XX y comienzos del siglo XXI en las sociedades posmodernistas se logró suplir las necesidades básicas de los ciudadanos. Los métodos anticonceptivos y el acceso a la educación de las mujeres permitieron transformar la maternidad en una elección de vida. Motivo por el cual, las mujeres han cambiado la escala jerárquica de prioridades, postergando la maternidad para desarrollarse como profesional; el desarrollo y los nuevos roles que asumen las mujeres establecieron distintas formas de familia, dentro de los cuales se encuentran las familias de acogida, monoparentales, homoparentales, ensamblada, etc.

El modelo de madre tradicional, en el cual la madre se hacía cargo de la crianza de sus hijos sin la partición en el ámbito público dentro del cual su única responsabilidad correspondía actividades relacionadas con el hogar ha quedado en el olvido, creando nuevas formas de vivir la maternidad donde generalmente la madre se ve en la necesidad de combinar su rol materno con actividades relacionadas a su trabajo.

El artículo establece que si bien el modelo de maternidad desde el siglo XVII hasta inicios hasta inicios del siglo XXI, esta intrínsecamente ligado a la condición femenina, si evaluamos sus inicios, cuando las mujeres fueron valoradas como seres humanos por su capacidad de dar a luz, junto con el avance del campo de la medicina que permitieron crear conciencia sobre los cuidados que debería tener la madre y el feto; la creación de escuelas para formar a futuras madres ideales y finalmente como consecuencia de la segunda guerra mundial, el movimiento baby boom, que básicamente el objetivo es que como mujer tienes un llamado para tener hijos debido a la disminución de la población como resultado de las muertes y así hasta llegar a la emancipación femenina por medio de la pastilla anticonceptiva.

Los anterior permite afirmar que las sociedades occidentales han evolucionado sujeto a los cambios de los movimientos culturales, tecnológicos, religiosos y los avances científicos que han sido un factor determinante puesto que, el camino del progreso se ha forjado de la mano de la ciencia, es decir, una sociedad netamente agraria tiene necesidades totalmente distintas a las de una sociedad posmodernista.

Con respecto a la transición de la participación de la mujer en el ámbito de las obligaciones relacionadas con la crianza y el funcionamiento del hogar, se ha demostrado una vez más que la maternidad está ligada a la cultura y no es un hecho que se produzca de forma innata, desde este nuevo punto de vista los movimientos feministas comenzaron a tomar fuerza y a ver a la maternidad ya no desde el punto de vista natural sino un hecho que puede asumir la mujer por elección.

finalmente decidir sobre su propia maternidad ha cambiado no solo la condición de la mujer, sino que también ha puesto en tela de juicio el ideal maternal en la construcción de la sociedad.

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Natalia Mirolyubova
Higher School of Economics, Russia
nemiolyubova@gmail.com

Umweltschutzorganisationen und Umweltsituation in Deutschland

Heute steht das Thema “Umweltschutz” weltweit auf der Agenda. Viele Staaten, die die Folgen der Industrialisierung erlebten, begannen, aktive Maßnahmen zur Verringerung der negativen Auswirkungen auf die

Umwelt zu ergreifen. Umweltfreundlichkeit wird immer modischer und nimmt nicht den letzten Platz im Leben der Menschen auf der ganzen Welt ein. Deutschland – das bevölkerungsreichste und industrialisierteste Land in Europa, ist sich der Notwendigkeit des Umweltschutzes sehr bewusst (Smith, 2015). So wurden im 20. Jahrhundert in Deutschland “grüne” Organisationen gegründet, die verschiedene Kampagnen initiierten, um die Menschen auf dieses Problem aufmerksam zu machen. In dieser Arbeit werden drei große Umweltschutzorganisationen behandelt: NABU, Greenpeace Deutschland und die politische Partei Die Grünen. Dieser Artikel zeigt die Auswirkungen solcher Organisationen auf den Zustand der Umwelt in Deutschland. Darüber hinaus werden bestehende Probleme, die noch zu lösen sind, aufgedeckt.

In dieser Sektion werden die drei großen Umweltschutzorganisationen in Deutschland überprüft, die zur Verbesserung der Ökologie Deutschlands und zur Lösung von Umweltproblemen gegründet wurden. Außerdem werden die Aktionen dieser Organisationen und ihre Auswirkungen auf die Umweltsituation des Landes und die Politik der Regierung untersucht.

Die deutsche Wirtschaft ist durch einen hohen Industrialisierungsgrad gekennzeichnet. Nach der verstärkten industriellen Entwicklung des Landes geschah das deutsche Wirtschaftswunder zu Beginn des 20. Jahrhunderts, so dass Deutschland 1913 alle europäischen Märkte beherrschte und 1914 war Deutschland einer der größten Exporteure der Welt (Smith, 2015, S. 24). Gleichzeitig zeigte sich die Sorge, dass Industrialisierung die natürliche Umwelt schädigen könnte. In der Ära der deutschen Industrialisierung beklagten Naturschützer die gefährlichen Auswirkungen chemischer Abwässer auf Wasser und Luft. Nach 1914 bildete die Ära der Weltkriege und der Wirtschaftskrise jedoch keinen günstigen Rahmen für das weitere Wachstum des Umweltbewusstseins. Nach dem Ende des Zweiten Weltkriegs konzentrierten sich die Deutschen mehr auf die wirtschaftliche Erholung und den Wiederaufbau ihres Landes als auf die Lösung der Umweltprobleme (Cameron, 1967, S. 151–182).

Das Erreichen eines weit verbreiteten Wohlstands führte zu einem Interesse an dem Umweltschutz. Die Erneuerung einer breiteren Umweltbewegung wurde auch durch eine wachsende Zahl von Verschmutzungsvorfällen angeregt. In den 60er Jahren war Deutschland eines der verschmutzten Länder der Welt. Der Rhein wurde als "Rinne Europas" bezeichnet. In Ostdeutschland wurde mehr als 70% der Energie aus der braunen Spule – dem schmutzigsten Brennstoff, erzeugt. Mit der zunehmenden Beliebtheit von Autos stand auch Deutschland vor einem Problem der Abgase. In den 70er Jahren gab es in einem großen Teil der deutschen Bevölkerung zunehmende Umweltbedenken, wie die Wahl von den Grünen in den Bundestag 1983 zeigte (De-Web, 2008).

Mit dem erhöhten Bedarf an Umweltschutz begannen die Deutschen, Umweltschutzorganisationen zu gründen, die die Menschen auf diese Probleme aufmerksam machen und Vorschläge unterbreiten würden.

Eine der ältesten Umweltschutzorganisationen in Deutschland ist der NABU, eine deutsche nichtstaatliche Organisation, die sich auf bestimmte Erhaltungsziele wie den Schutz von Flüssen, Wäldern oder einzelnen Arten im Land und auf der ganzen Welt konzentriert. Die Organisation kombiniert ihr Engagement für eine intakte Natur und eine gesunde Umwelt mit einem verstärkten Einsatz für eine nachhaltige Energiepolitik (NABU, 2012).

Greenpeace ist eine transnationale politische Organisation, die sich auf die Umwelt konzentriert. Es war für seine Kampagnen gegen Atomwaffentests und gegen den Walfang bekannt. Später konzentrierte sich die Organisation auch auf andere Themen wie Überfischung, globale Erwärmung, Zerstörung der Urwälder, Atomenergie und Gentechnik (Greenpeace Energy eG, n.d).

Bündnis 90/Die Grünen ist eine politische Partei in Deutschland. Sie wurde 1980 in Karlsruhe als Zusammenschluss eines breiten Spektrums politischer und sozialer Bewegungen gegründet. Die Gründung der Partei wurde weitgehend von der Umwelt-, der Anti-Atomkraft-, des Friedens- und der Frauenbewegung unterstützt (Bündnis 90/Die Grünen, 2009). Zu den bemerkenswertesten Maßnahmen von den Grünen gehört die Einführung eines Einwegpfands der Mehrwegflaschen und die aktive Verkehrspolitik (Bündnis 90/Die Grünen, 2017).

Die Maßnahmen der oben genannten Organisationen zusammen mit den staatlichen Beschränkungen beeinflussten die Umweltsituation in Deutschland bis zum Ende des 20. Jahrhunderts drastisch. Einige seiner Kampagnen und Projekten führten zu erheblichen Verbesserungen der Ökologie des Landes. So wurden Mülldeponien am Stadtrand entfernt, das Recycling von Abfällen wurde erfolgreich umgesetzt. Das bereits erwähnte Pfandsystem verbesserte sich. Die Wasserqualität in den Flüssen verbesserte sich so, dass der populäre Umweltminister Klaus Töpfer 1988 im Rhein badete (Jones and Lubinski, 2013).

Es gibt jedoch immer noch Probleme. Die Deutschen sind nicht bereit, auf die Verwendung von Autos zu verzichten, da ihre Automobilindustrie floriert. Aber der öffentliche Verkehr ist hoch entwickelt und gefragt, was sicherlich ein Vorteil ist. Mit der Schließung von Kernkraftwerken ist der Steinkohlenbergbau immer noch weit verbreitet, insbesondere in Ostdeutschland, wo nach wie vor Schadstoffemissionen entstehen.

2. Beziehung zwischen den Aktivitäten der Organisationen und den Veränderungen der Umweltsituation in Deutschland

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In dieser Sektion werden einige Aspekte ausgewählt, die sich auf die Ökologie beziehen, und die Veränderungen werden verfolgt, die sich vollzogen. Solche Aspekte sind die Anzahl der Naturschutzgebiete, der Anteil erneuerbarer Energie, die Wasserverschmutzung, die Anzahl der Benzin- und Dieselaautos und die Menge des recycelten Mülls.

Naturschutzgebiete sind rechtsverbindlich festgesetzte Gebiete, in denen ein besonderer Schutz von Natur erforderlich ist. Dank der aktiven Arbeit der Umweltschützer und insbesondere der NABU-Organisation ist ein deutlicher Anstieg der Naturschutzgebiete in Deutschland zu verzeichnen. Aus den statistischen Angaben des Bundesamtes für Naturschutz konnte eine Tabelle erstellt werden (Tab. 2-1) (Sherfose, 2011, S. 9). Die Tabelle zeigt das Wachstum der Anzahl der Naturschutzgebiete in Deutschland, die von ihnen bedeckte Fläche und den Flächenanteil dieser Reserven von der Fläche des gesamten Landes. Außerdem können wir in der letzten Spalte sehen, wie die Anzahl der Naturschutzgebiete 2009 im Vergleich zu 1995 stieg.

Naturschutzgebiete	1995	2004	2008	12/2009	Zunahme
Anzahl	5314	7278	8413	8483	3169
Fläche, ha	684 500	1 047 363	1 271 582	1 301 485	616 985
Flächenanteil, %	1,9	2,9	3,6	3,6	1,7

Tab. 2-1. Ausweisung von Naturschutzgebieten im Zeitraum 1995 bis 2009 (Sherfose, 2011, S. 9)

Es sollte hingewiesen werden, dass die Zahl der Naturschutzgebiete um 60% stieg und sich die Fläche der Naturschutzgebiete fast verdoppelte.

Es ist festzuhalten, dass das vom NABU unterstützte Nationalparkprogramm dazu führte, dass die Anzahl der Naturschutzgebiete in Deutschland stieg und viele andere Programme umgesetzt wurden, beispielsweise die Arbeit an Schutzgebieten der Biodiversitätskonvention (Nationale Naturlandschaften, n.d.).

Zusammen mit den drei Wassersportverbänden des Deutschen Olympischen Sportbundes startete der NABU das Projekt "Meere ohne Plastik" im Jahr 2010 (Gewässerretter, n.d.). Sie organisieren Reinigungsarbeiten an Stränden und Flussufern und unterstützen die Umweltüberwachung an der Nord- und Ostseeküste.

In der Grafik unten (Bild 2-1) sehen wir statistische Daten über die Anzahl der Eissturmvögel an den Nordseeküsten mit über 0,1g Plastik im Magen (5-Jahres-Durchschnitt).

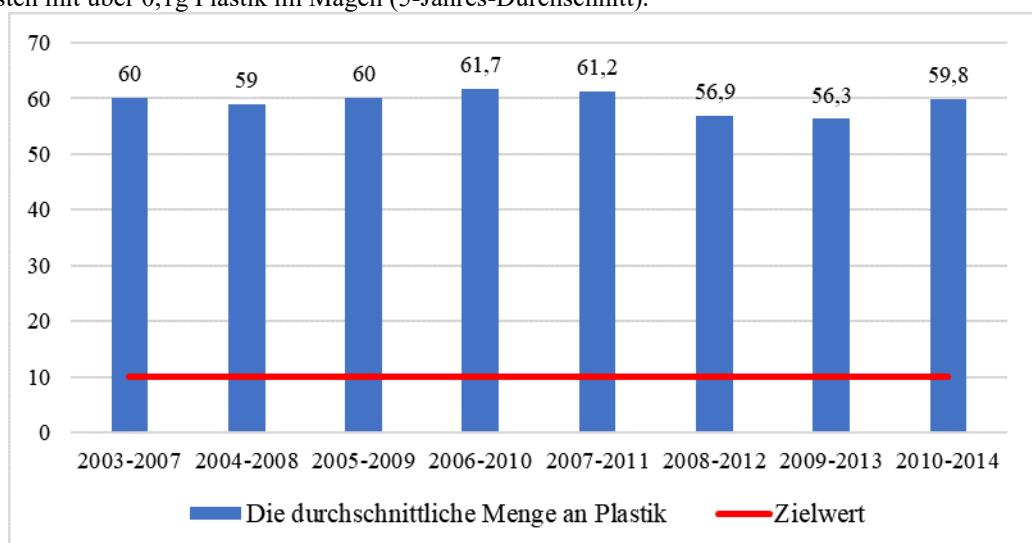


Bild 2-1. Anteil der Eissturmvogel-Totfunde an der deutschen Nordsee-Küste, % (Research and Technology Centre West Coast, 2014)

Wie wir sehen können, sind die Ergebnisse weit von dem Zielwert von 10% entfernt. Obwohl der durchschnittliche Prozentsatz von Eissturmvögeln mit mehr als 0,1g Plastik in den Körpern in den Jahren 2008-2012 und 2009-2013 zurückging, wurde noch immer ein Zeuge beobachtet Zunahme dieser Arten im Zeitraum 2010-2014.

Wir können daraus schließen, dass noch weitere Reinigungsmaßnahmen und Bildungsprogramme erforderlich sind, da die Meere in Deutschland immer noch nicht sauber sind.

Der nächste Aspekt ist erneuerbare Energie. Greenpeace Deutschland gründete das Projekt Greenpeace Energy, dessen Hauptziel die Herstellung von Strom und Gas aus den umweltfreundlichen Ressourcen ist. Sie erreichen dieses Ziel durch die Nutzung erneuerbarer Energien, wodurch CO₂-Emissionen und der Verbrauch natürlicher Ressourcen vermieden werden.

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In der folgenden Grafik (Bild 2-2) sehen wir den Wind- und Wasseranteil im Strommix für den Tarif *Ökostrom plus* von 2015 bis 2018.

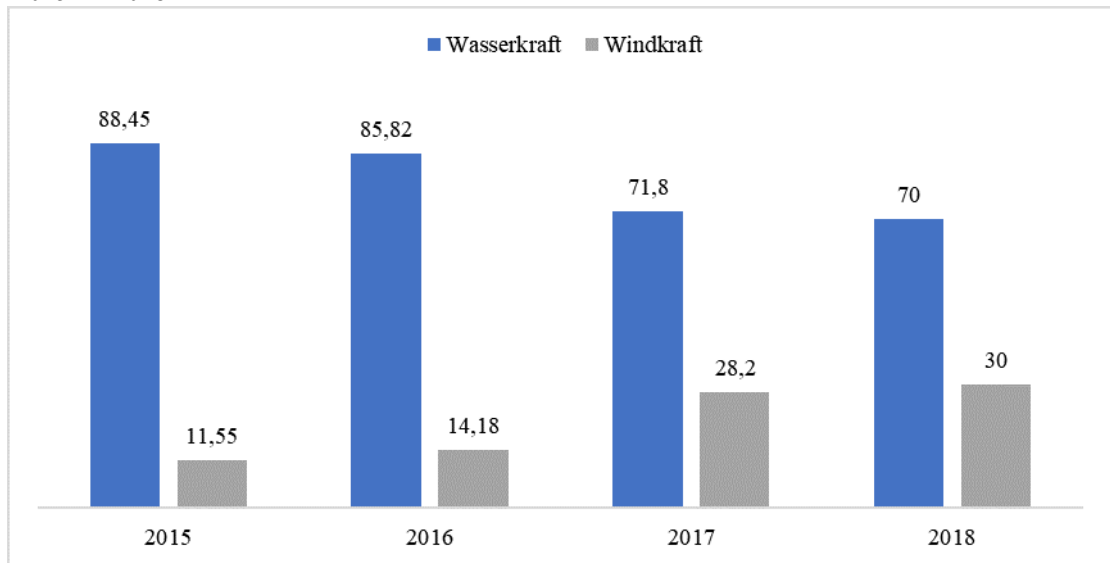


Bild 1-2. Wind- und Wasseranteil im Strommix für *Ökostrom plus* 2015-2018, % (Greenpeace Energy eG, 2017, S. 17)

Seit 2017 nutzt Greenpeace Energy Solarstrom zur Stromerzeugung und hat den Tarif *Solarstrom plus* eingeführt, dessen Hauptziel ist, eine saubere und erneuerbare Alternative zur Braunkohleproduktion zu unterstützen. Das Balkendiagramm (Bild 2-4) zeigt den Wind-, Wasser- und Solaranteil im Strommix für den Tarif *Solarstrom plus* von 2017 bis 2018.

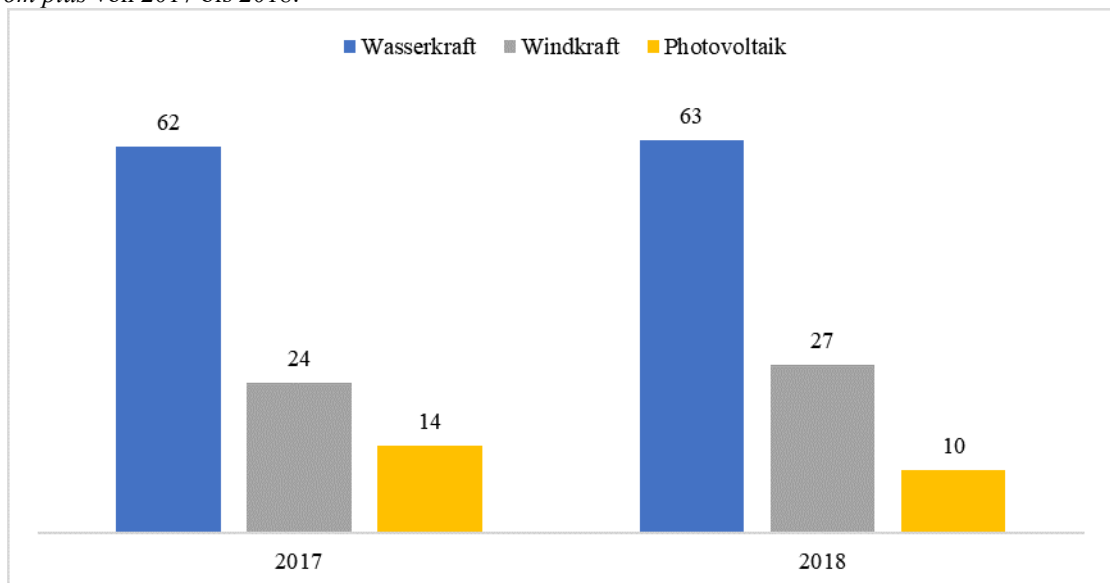


Bild 2-2. Zusammensetzung 2017-2018 von Greenpeace Energy an Endkunden gelieferten Stroms für den Tariff *Solarstrom plus*, % (Greenpeace Energy eG, 2017, S. 17)

Wir können feststellen, dass in beiden Fällen der Windanteil jedes Jahr wächst. Das Wachstum von Windkraftanlagen erklärt sich aus der Notwendigkeit, bestehende Windparks in Betrieb zu halten. Im Gegenteil, der Photovoltaikanteil nahm leicht ab. Dies kann mit hohen Kosten für Solarkraftwerke verbunden sein.

Greenpeace Energy folgte dem Erneuerbare-Energien-Gesetz (Deutsches Bundesrecht, 2009) zur Schaffung umweltfreundlicher Stromsysteme und Energieträgermische, im Gegensatz zum bundesdeutschen Durchschnittsmix, der Verschmutzung und radioaktive Abfälle verursacht. Es wird behauptet, dass sich immer mehr Menschen für Strom und Gas entscheiden, die von Greenpeace Energy bereitgestellt werden. Außerdem werden mit wachsender Nachfrage immer mehr Menschen bei Greenpeace Energy beschäftigt. Die folgende Grafik (Bild 2-6) zeigt dieses Wachstum von 2008 bis 2018.

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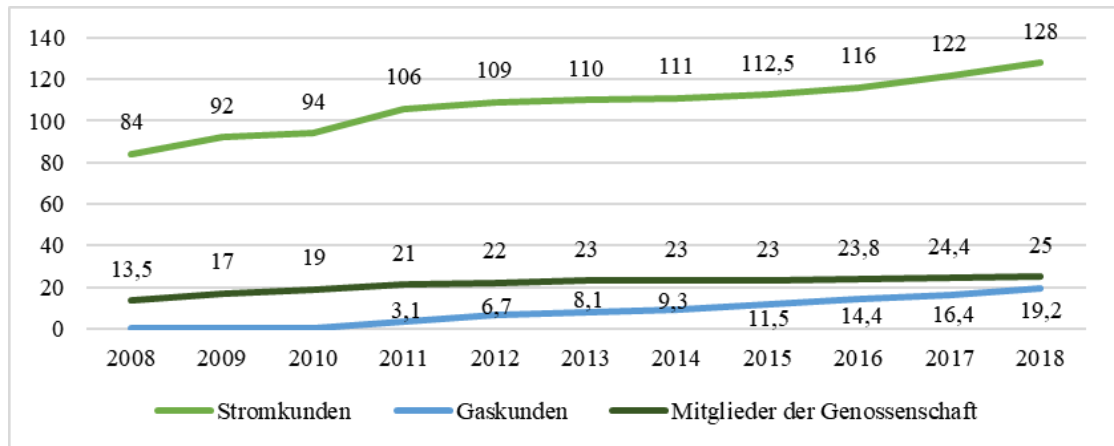


Bild 2-4. Entwicklung der Kunden- und Mitgliederzahlen (zum 31. Dezember des Jahres), Tsd. von Menschen (Greenpeace Energy eG, n.d.)

Greenpeace erreichte viel durch die Gründung von Greenpeace Energy. Sie nutzt erneuerbare Energien rationell und beugt so Verschmutzung vor. Es sollte hervorgehoben werden, dass das Projekt nicht nur für die Umwelt positiv ist, sondern es schuf auch viele Arbeitsplätze für die Menschen.

Es ist eines der Hauptziele der Grünen, umweltfreundliche Transportmittel zu entwickeln und so den CO₂-Emissionen zu reduzieren (Bündnis 90/Die Grünen, 2017). In der Balkengrafik unten (Bild 2-7) können wir die Anzahl der umweltfreundlichen Personenbeförderungen sowie der Fußgänger in Deutschland von 1976 bis 2015 verfolgen.

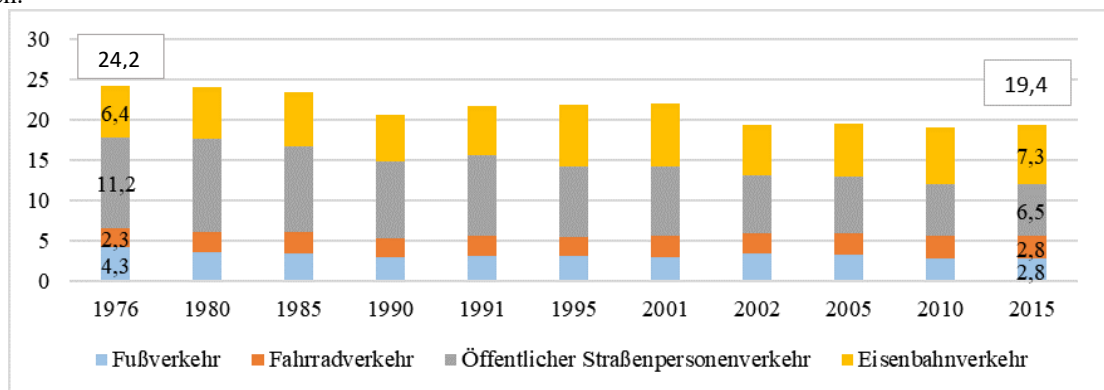


Bild 2-5. Anteil von Verkehr am Personenverkehrsaufwand, % (Bündnis 90/Die Grünen, 2017)

Seit 1976 sank der Anteil des umweltfreundlichen Personenverkehrs deutlich von 24,2% auf 19,4%. In den letzten Jahren veränderte sich dies jedoch kaum. Weniger Leute ziehen es vor, zu Fuß zu gehen, stattdessen Fahrräder oder Züge zu wählen.

Es ist auch wichtig, sich die Anzahl der Autos anzusehen, die Benzin und Diesel verwenden. Laut Destatis (2018) steigt die Zahl solcher Autos ständig an, was zeigt, dass die Maßnahmen zur Verringerung der Anzahl nicht ökologischer Verkehrsmittel nicht wirksam sind (Bild 2-8).

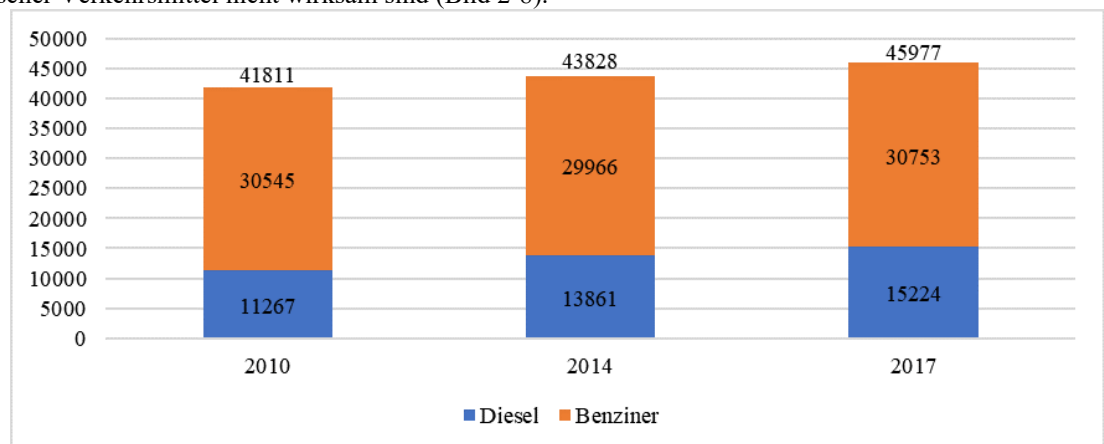


Bild 2-6. Bestände der Pkw, Tsd. von Autos (Destatis, 2018)

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Die Zunahme der Anzahl der Dieselaautos verursachte einen leichten Anstieg der CO₂-Emissionen. Deswegen muss es unterstrichen werden, dass für die breite Einführung umweltfreundlicher Verkehrsmittel noch viel Arbeit erforderlich ist.

Die Grünen schlugen verschiedene Initiativen zur getrennten Sammlung und Wiederverwertung von Abfällen vor. Diese Aktivitäten führten zu einem erhöhten Bewusstsein der Öffentlichkeit für das Problem und zu deutlichen Verbesserungen des Systems der getrennten Müllsammlung.

Recycling ist ein wichtiges Thema bei Abfall. Siedlungsabfälle decken ein breites Spektrum verschiedener Arten von Abfällen ab, wie Haushaltsabfälle, Sammeln von getrenntem Papier, Glas, usw. Diese machen zwar nur rund 15% des jährlichen Gesamtabfalls aus, sind jedoch im Vergleich zu anderen Abfallarten sehr ressourcenrelevant (Umwelt Bundesamt, 2018).

Recycling von Siedlungsabfällen ist in Deutschland seit langem relativ hoch und wird immer höher. Wir können diese Tendenz in der nachstehenden Grafik (Bild 2-11) nachvollziehen.

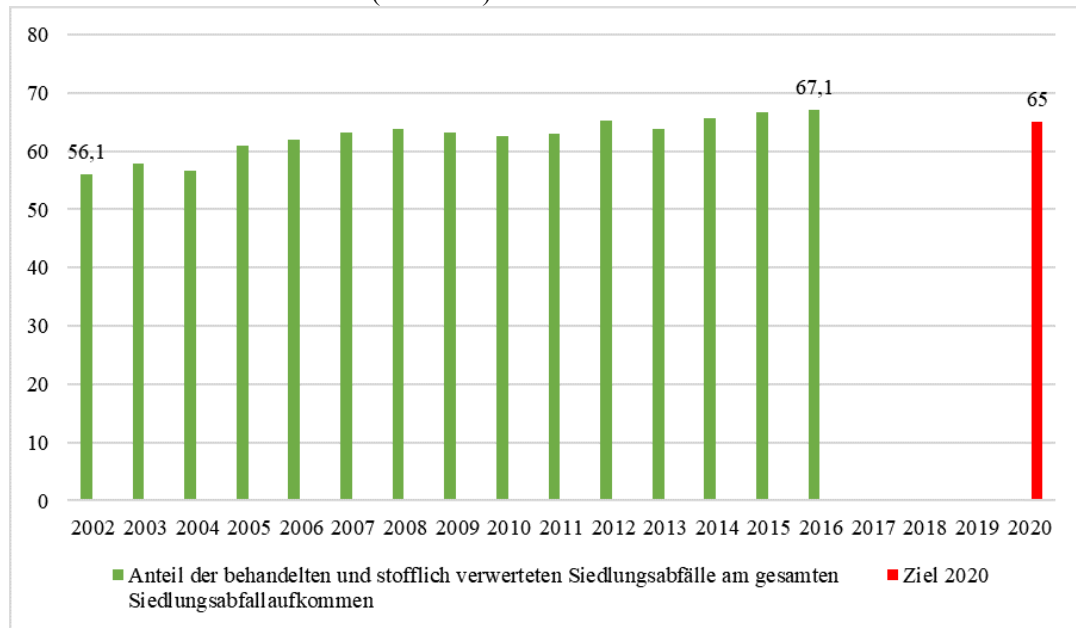


Bild 2-7. Anteil der Siedlungsabfälle am gesamten Siedlungsabfallaufkommen, % (Destatis, 2018)

Das von der Bundesregierung gesetzte Ziel, den Recyclinganteil für Siedlungsabfälle bis 2020 auf 65% zu erhöhen, wurde damit erreicht. Für einzelne Teilgruppen von Siedlungsabfällen besteht jedoch noch Handlungsbedarf.

Es besteht ein eindeutiger Zusammenhang zwischen der Rate der getrennten gesammelten Abfälle und der Menge des recycelten Abfalls. Daher können höhere Recyclingraten nur durch verstärkte Maßnahmen zur Verteilung des separaten Sammelsystems erreicht werden.

Basierend auf der Analyse der Forschungsergebnisse wurden folgende Schlussfolgerungen gezogen:

1. Das Ziel von NABU, neue Naturschutzgebiete zu schaffen, wurde erreicht. In der Zeit von 1995 bis 2009 wurden in Deutschland 3169 neue Reserven gebildet.
2. Das Ziel der Greenpeace Energy eG – Steigerung der Nutzung erneuerbarer Energien – wurde ebenfalls erreicht. Dies zeigt sich in der positiven Wachstumsdynamik der Bewohner, die auf umweltfreundliche Tarife umsteigen, und der zunehmenden Nutzung von Wasserkraft- und Windkraftanlagen und Solarenergie für die Erzeugung von Strom und Gas.
3. Die Verschmutzung der Meere durch Plastik konnte nur um 0,2% reduziert werden. Dies reicht nicht aus, um das Ziel des Projektes zu erreichen. In der Nordsee macht Plastik immer noch einen großen Anteil (88,6%) des gesamten Mülls aus. Daher zeigte das Projekt der Organisation NABU keine signifikanten Ergebnisse.
4. Trotz eines leichten Anstiegs der Anzahl der Personen, die mit dem Fahrrad oder der Bahn Entfernungen zurücklegen, steigt die Anzahl der Benzin- und Dieselaautos weiter an. Wir können daher den Schluss ziehen, dass das Ziel der Grünen Partei, den Fahrradvertrieb zu fördern und die Anzahl der Autos zu reduzieren, nur teilweise erreicht wurde.
5. Ein weiteres Ziel der Grünen Partei – die Anzahl der recycelten Abfälle zu erhöhen, – wurde vollständig erreicht. Die Anzahl der recycelten Abfälle übertraf die Zielmarke von 65%. Es ist jedoch notwendig, in dieser Richtung weiterzuarbeiten, um eine bessere Leistung zu erzielen.

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Im modernen Deutschland ist der Umweltschutz ein dringendes Problem, daher ziehen die Aktivitäten von Öko-Organisationen mehr Aufmerksamkeit auf sich und bestimmen maßgeblich die weitere Entwicklung des Landes. Aus der Analyse der Aktivitäten von Organisationen können wir schließen, dass viele ihrer Ziele erreicht wurden. Wir haben jedoch festgestellt, dass einige Probleme wie Wasserverschmutzung und die Zunahme der Anzahl der Autos nicht gelöst wurden. Darüber hinaus ist das Erreichen von Zielen in den kommenden Jahren offensichtlich unmöglich. Von uns können aber einige Vorschläge gemacht werden, um diese Probleme zu lösen, wie z.B. die zunehmende Anzahl von Radwegen und verfügbaren öffentlichen Verkehrsmitteln, der Anstieg der Preise für nicht ökologische Kraftstoffe und Parkplätze, die Verstärkung der Küstenschutz und die Erhöhung der Geldbußen für die Abfallentsorgung.

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Yana Kozlovskaya
Higher School of Economics, Moscow
yavkozlovskaya@edu.hse.ru

Rational Choice and Behavioral Economics

As is known, behavioral economics originates in economic psychology which was introduced to the society by French sociologist Gabriel Tarde in 1903. Initially, it was a branch of study closely related to psychology and chiefly had the same theoretical foundation. Since then behavioral economics has developed into an independent branch of study which can be fruitfully applied while analyzing human actions and choices. Therefore, it is essential to understand its theoretical and practical aspects fully and correctly. This study investigates particular relation between behavioral economics and the rational choice theories. The author analyzes the interaction of rationality and behavioral economics in theory and real life. The analysis showed that economics of rational choice is not suppressed by behavioral economics and that the rational theories maintain their relevance despite behavioral economics being more corresponding to real conditions.

Introduction

The rational choice theory, which is first of all a normative theory, rests on the following concept: an individual acts in order to maximize his wealth and gain more benefit from his actions. Thereby, he considers available information, calculates probabilities of possible outcomes, and evaluates potential costs and benefits in determining preferences. Such individuals are aimed to operate consistently and rationally with their preferences and constraints upon them. In simpler terms, this theory claims that every person before making a decision performs cost and benefit analysis to determine whether the act is worth committing. This way of action is called rational “calculation”. Thus, the theory of rational choice indicates to economic actors how to achieve their goals at least costs, so the actors are likely to choose the optimum in every case. In general, the rational choice theory studies behavior of RREEMM - Resourceful Restricted Expecting Evaluative Maximizing Man.

As for behavioral economics, it analyses the impact of social, cognitive and emotional factors on economic behavior, decision making and market variables. So it denies the assumption that people are rational maximizers of their satisfactions and therefore it challenges the main idea of the rational action theory. In addition, the main assumptions of behavioral economics contain a hint at its inconsistency with rational choices: bounded rationality, bounded self-interest, bounded willpower – the three “bounders” of people’s behavior.

The first assumption reflects limited cognitive abilities which constrain decision-making process. This mental constraint is caused by existence of cognitive quirks which are regular deviations in human behavior caused by prejudices, stereotypes, emotional reasons. The influence of cognitive quirks may result into biased assessments, imprecise predictions, illogical interpretations and irrational behavior in general. The second assumption of behavioral economics is about bounded self-interest which often makes people act on behalf of someone else regardless of their own welfare. The last assumption is about weak willpower which prevents people from optimizing their behavior and deriving benefits from it in future. For example, some people cannot imagine possible ways to save money for prospective consumption or lead a healthy lifestyle because they are careless of their future wealth (Posner, 1998).

However, it is fundamentally wrong to conclude that behavioral economics does not interact with rationality and related theories. Moreover, this relation cannot be described as suppressive or inconsistent.

The aim of this paper is to provide a theoretical framework that clarifies the relation between behavioral economics and the choice theory (and related theories).

Correspondingly, the purposes of the research are the following:

1. to identify the ways in which behavioral economics interacts with the rational choice theory;
2. to deepen the comprehension of the main behavioral assumptions;
3. to determine if some of behavioral phenomena include rational elements;
4. to estimate the prospects of development of behavioral economics and its relevance;
5. to clear up if we need both behavioral economics and the rational action theory in economic analysis.

The originality of this study can be evaluated by the fact that nowadays one can still give invalid estimations of people’s behavior due to incorrect insight of their incentives. Some phenomena, commonly related to behavioral economics, actually have rational background. In this case, it is essential to shed some light on the bonds between behavioral economics and rationality.

The significance of the paper lies in the deep investigation of the background of the three “bounders” of behavioral economics and determining the ways of interaction with the rational choice theory.

Literature review

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The majority of empirical sources that investigate the rational choice model and behavioral economics emphasize that the picture of decision making presented by the rational action theory is unrealistic for it provides erroneous impression of human behavior. The relevance of the decision-making theory was for the first time seriously questioned in 1950-s when its two critical aspects were brought out. Firstly, the extreme complexity of many optimization models made it impossible for them to be applied in most cases; secondly, the amount of calculation, required to obtain an optimal solution, was enormously high. In addition, the exploration of the word “decision” revealed its objective definition which emphasized its two main elements. Decision was defined as a final act of complex process that precedes it and through which the relevant information is gathered and appropriate knowledge is structured (Egidi, 2006). Herbert Simon was one of the pioneer scientists to analyze and identify constraints under which decisions are made. He used this notion about the decision-making process by introducing the theory of bounded rationality. Simon argued that the rational decision was actually constrained by the need to assess its context. To manage it, individuals must search for all the relevant information to construct a “mental model” representing the context of decision. The difficulty of the described process marked out the bounds of rationality (Simon, 1955).

Moreover, Simon initiated a new research strategy to reveal the secrets of human cognition. He started with the analysis of the game of chess which Simon explored closely from both theoretical and experimental viewpoints. The chess game drew researches’ attention to the question of sophistication and bounds of mental calculation. The experiment was aimed at comprehending the cognitive processes induced by the chess game by taking down and analyzing verbal ideas expressed by players during the game. Problem solving turned out to be one of the crucial aspects of the players’ mental activity. The analysis revealed that players’ mental activity systematically violates rational choice for chess strategies imply intertemporal choices which require players to elaborate their analysis and retrace their rivals’ steps (Simon, 1955).

Simon’s concept of “bounded rationality” was a precursor to plenty of the later behavioral theories. Eventually, the number of scientists who supported this current of thought increased significantly during the 20th century. Some of the further developers of new related approaches were Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky who using insights of psychology showed how human decisions may systematically diverge from those predicted by a standard economic theory (Kahneman, et al., 1974).

Thus, it can be considered that behavioral economics suppresses the rational choice model and related theories. Yet, according to Richard Posner, the fact that people are irrational most of the time is not itself a challenge to economics of rational choice (Posner, 1998). Virtually, irrational behavior does not even affect economic analysis because preferences (including irrational preferences) can be taken as given and analysis will proceed as always. Still, considering the facts, it is not entirely clear why it is invalid to state that rational theories are completely redundant.

Posner examined multiple phenomena commonly related to behavioral economics. For instance, he investigated a case when a person, who usually enjoys eating lobsters, loses his appetite after seeing a living one. This situation can be fallaciously referred to availability heuristic and, consequently, to irrational behavior. Actually, this case demonstrates that a person can have varying preferences over two different goods: a lobster seen only after being cooked and a lobster seen in his living state, as well as cooked. This situation has nothing to do with irrationality: though these preferences may seem senseless they are consistent in this situation. The following phenomena is connected with weak willpower. Some people live without thinking of consequences of their behavior, for example, they may be drug addicted or inclined to doing extreme sports. People tend to believe that this self-destructive behavior must be irrational. In fact, self-destructive behavior can be modeled in rational choice terms if one abandons the assumption that aggregate social behavior results from individual human behavior in favor of concept of a person as a locus of different selves. All the selves are rational but their preferences are inconsistent. In case of pernicious habits, one self is future-oriented, another is present-oriented and exists for present pleasures regardless of consequences and future welfare.

Human’s altruistic behavior is also commonly considered to be irrational. Some behavioral economists used to explain existence of altruism regarding the concept of fairness meaning that some people sacrifice self-interest to help others, if they consider it fair and just (Jolls, et al., 1998). However, this position does not explain entirely the essence of altruistic behavior. The insights of evolutionary biology can explain people’s inclination to help others, particularly their relatives, by the fact that aiding other people has evolved as an adaptive mechanism and almost a custom (Hamilton, 1963) (Hamilton, 1964). For instance, voting, making contributions to charities and refraining from littering, when there are no visible sanctions for this cooperative behavior, may illustrate an instinctual global cooperation based on genetically incorporated altruism. Negative altruism exists when a person feels indignation with infringement of his/ her rights. The simplest form of negative altruism is desire for vengeance.

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Revenge often leads to harmful and devastating consequences for both the object of vengeance and the vengeful person himself/ herself. Naturally, people neglect the probability of their revenge being more costly than beneficial which makes them behave irrationally. Nevertheless, proneness to vengeance originates in prehistoric epoch when people’s lives and prosperity were dependent on their revenge instincts and their ability to make convincing threats. These facts shed some light on the origin and the nature of people’s altruism. Hence, revolutionary biology expands the concept of rational choice so that it covers some behavioral phenomena that are commonly related to irrational behavior (sunk cost fallacy, concept of fairness, some cognitive quirks).

People’s reluctance to give away their possessions in exchange for something more valuable is known as endowment effect. Kahneman, Knetsch, Thaler demonstrated the action of this effect. It turned out that owners of some goods value them approximately twice as high as potential owners of this good (Kahneman, et al., 1990). Though this effect may induce irrational behavior, it can be viewed in straightforward rational-choice terms: particularly, it shows the operation of habit which is not irrational. Habitual behavior occurs when cost and benefit are time-dependent: benefit is positively related to time and cost is negatively related to it. Basically, doing something by force of habit saves time and efforts while getting used to a new good and weaning yourself from a habit is costly for breaking a habit, like breaking an addiction, causes withdrawal symptoms. From this view, owners behave quite rationally when they refuse to part with their possessions and change their habitual behavior. American science writer Michael Shermer investigated evolutionary roots of endowment effect and established that this effect stems from evolutionary survival mechanism. Simply stated, endowment effect arose from animals’ instinct of protecting their territory (Shermer, 2011). This instinct evolved into tendency to protect and enhance one’s own property or lifestyle instead of gaining new possessions and developing new habits. Additionally, the analysis of the endowment effect has made use of the economics of information and of habit which is an accepted element of rational choice models.

Endowment effect is a distinctive element of the ultimatum game and its modified version – the dictator game. These experimental games have traditionally been viewed as the main examples of the empirical failures of rational-choice economics. The dictator game’s rules are the following. Player 1 (dictator) is offered a sum of money, which he has to share with Player 2. Player 1 can offer the second participant as much as he wishes, while Player 2 cannot reject his proposal. The obtained results show that 70% of dictators tend to share money with Player 2. This outcome has been generally considered to be representing people’s proclivity to altruism. However, this viewpoint was refuted by an American economist John List who presented altered versions of the dictator game in order to show that people’s behavior depends on the context (Levitt, et al., 2009). In the first version Player 1 (dictator) was given 10\$ while Player 2 received only 1\$. The dictator had an opportunity of either sharing his money with the other player or withdrawing 1\$ from him/ her. The outcome diverged from the one obtained in the original version of the game: only 35% of dictators shared their money with other participants, 45% of dictators preferred to keep 10\$ to themselves and 20% of dictators took 1\$ from their opponents. List proceeded to adding new features to the dictator game. In the third version players had to earn their money first (to fill in the envelopes) and then dictators could either take the opponents’ money or share their own wages with them. The results were different again: 28% of dictators withdrew opponents’ wages and 78% neither shared their money nor took anything from other players. Admittedly, John’s List experiments changed the general view that people are inclined to altruistic behavior regardless of the context. Thus, it is wrong to assume that people are naturally altruistic.

Evaluating the prospects of behavioral economics, Richard Posner asserted that there is at least one normative application of this direction, which is behavioral therapy, namely, educating people out of some cognitive quirks and weakness of will. Posner believes that it is possible to partially get rid of irrationality, especially overcome some fears and prejudices which lower the quality of people’s life.

Massimo Egidi expressed his opinion about global perspectives of behavioral economics: “the evolution of analytical tools and experimental outcomes is shifting the focus of attention from the coherence/incoherence of choices to the representation and editing of problems” (Egidi, 2006). Human behavior arises as the mutual outcome of two cognitive processes: the effortful process of deliberate reasoning and the automatic process of unconscious intuition. These two processes will jointly provide a different map to explain deviations from rational behavior which involves both behavioral economics and the choice theory.

Methods

Total analysis of fundamental researches and assessing the validity of information were used as the main methods of achieving the objectives. Since some researches could have become irrelevant it was essential to find possible counter arguments to the central idea or search for contradicting studies.

The final results agree with existing data on behavioral economics and the rational choice theory.

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Conclusion

This study provides the research into the nature of the relation between behavioral economics and the rational choice theory. The background of behavioral economics and the framework of the choice theory were examined closely. The way behavioral economics interacts with rationality and the rational choice model was also analyzed.

The main result of the study is that despite inevitability of irrational behavior one can not exclude rationality from analysis. Rationality and behavioral economics are bound: rationality is a start and a stimulus and irrational behavior is a middle phase which is meant to lead to the expected result. In fact, people are more rational than they are assumed to be. Human actions, led by unconscious intuition, usually have biological roots, therefore, this behavior cannot be considered entirely irrational. Examining one's actions, it is essential to take into account preferences involved and their influence on the behavior. Preference is an inherent reason for an action and, therefore, human behavior is rational if it is, first of all, consistent with his/ her preferences. Moreover, estimating people's behavior by means of behavioral experiments one should consider that experimental conditions should be close to reality.

Behavioral economics is connected strongly with human psychology and social factors, thus, the domain of its application will expand in direct proportion to social progress. From this it can be inferred that behavioral economics will develop concurrently with humanity and, thereby, will not lose its relevance.

The irrationalities that form the subject of behavioral economics are unalterable elements of human personality. Although it is possible to get rid of some irrational habits or phobias, human behavior will remain generally irrational. So it is more important to manage to solve the problems arising from irrational behavior than to improve it. Yet achieving this goal requires the joint application of behavioral economics and the choice theory.

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Alexandr Mikhailov
Higher School of Economics, Russia
sasha.mikh2000@mail.ru

**Gradient Descent Class of Numerical Optimization Methods and its Implementation to MSE
Optimization in Linear Regression**

**National Research University “Higher School of Economics”
School of Foreign Languages**

In the modern world, mathematical analysis with the help of programming is becoming an essential tool of solving various problems connected with real life at an alarming rate. One of such issues is optimization. The optimal price, quantity of goods, amount of consumed energy – this all matters for technology and business. Suboptimal allocation of scarce resources leads to losses of billions of dollars. Therefore, the aim to find optimum is a crucial issue not only for this study, but also for the whole planet.

This research overviews gradient descent class of numerical optimization methods and shows how it can be applied to the linear regression problem. There is found a place of this optimization method in the field of optimization algorithms. In other words, gradient descent class of numerical optimization is a part of continuous multidimensional unconstrained programming. There are realized and described in details several popular algorithms based on this optimization method: Two-point step size method, stochastic gradient descent, and simple gradient descent. The fastest of them is Stochastic gradient descent in terms of big data problems. Nevertheless, in other cases the most optimal algorithm is two-point step size method. Moreover, there is shown the way of applying gradient descent to the linear regression problem. After giving an explanation to this machine learning problem the linear regression is described and realized to predict the number of people who suffer from COVID-19.

Gradient descent; optimization; Two-point step size method; stochastic gradient descent; MSE; linear regression; COVID-19.

This research is devoted to analyzing mathematical basis of the numerical optimization problems and implementing several of the optimization algorithms on Python. The main issue is to observe types of optimization, consider the ways in which they are used and apply this knowledge to the solution of the real problem. The first step of the study is to classify optimization problems and select one class of algorithms to be investigated deeper. There were found 2 main parameters of optimization algorithms separation – a set of numbers and types of limitations. These parameters split up algorithms into discrete programming, continuous unconstrained programming, continuous programming with limitations of the 1st and 2nd kind and constrained continuous programming.

Secondly, the issue was to search for pros and cons of the chosen class of the optimization algorithms – gradient descent (GD) allocation. Overall, there were found 2 main problems with this class of algorithms – the hyperparameters problem and the problem of global optimum. The first one means that such exogenous parameters as the number of iterations, the starting point coordinates and the length of one step in GD should be chosen correctly. The second problem postulates that the function optimized by Gradient Descent should have only one optimum. In other words, the global optimum of the function should coincide with the local one.

Thirdly, there were realized two potentially fastest methods based on gradient descent optimization. The first method is two-point step size method. This optimization algorithm achieves optimum in just two iterations, when for usual GD (gradient decent) it takes a lot more steps to score a goal. The second method is SGD or stochastic gradient descent. This method is used in deep learning and big data problems. This optimization algorithm finds the optimum a lot faster than the simple GD when there is too much data to be analyzed.

Finally, gradient descent was used to minimize MSE (mean squared error) in the linear regression problem. The issue was to find a trend of COVID-19 diseases all over the world using data provided by Johns Hopkins University. This was achieved by applying a simple linear regression to the logarithm of total diseases.

Literature and other tools of the analyses

During the major part of the research there was used programming on Python. With the help of “numpy”, “pandas”, “matplotlib” and “math” libraries there were realized such algorithms as simple gradient decent, two-point step size method and stochastic gradient decent. Moreover, these libraries paved the way to the analysis of COVID-19 data. All the results and graphs presented in this research were obtained due to programming on Python.

In “Theory and methods of optimization” Elena Kochegurova observes classification of optimization algorithms and methods of the optimum search. The author finds the historical basis of the optimization, overlooks linear and non-linear programming, reviews methods of one-dimensional optimization. Moreover, the way of creating optimization algorithms is described in her work.

Mathematical basis of the research is “Numerical optimization” by Jeorge Nocedal and Stephen J. Wright. In this work, there are overviewed continuous, discrete, constrained, unconstrained, stochastic, deterministic, global and local optimization. There are presented mathematical models for such optimization algorithms in this study.

Simple gradient descent algorithm was mainly taken from the article “Projective approximation based gradient descent modification” by A. Senow and O. Granichin. Modeling of the algorithms according to the authors requires several steps such as problem statement, algorithm description and modeling of the algorithm. Proposing a novel modification, the researchers observe the original algorithm in detail.

One of the models used in this research is SGD optimization. This method of the optimum search is depicted in “Stochastic Gradient Descent tricks” by Leon Bottou. This article provides useful recommendations for boosting SGD and shows why this learning algorithm is effective when the training set is large.

Two-point step size method was invented by J. Barzilai and J. Borwein in 1988. Since then this algorithm has not changed, nevertheless, there have been created numerous methods based on this algorithm. In “Spectral projected gradient methods: Review and perspectives” J.Martinez, M.Raydan and E.Birgin offer one of such optimization methods.

The data of Johns Hopkins University depicts the situation with the COVID-19 disease. Every day there is published the number of people who are ill, got well or died in each country where the coronavirus was found.

Classes of the numerical optimization algorithms

To begin with, there is a must to divide an optimum search into 2 main types: discrete and continuous programming Fig. 1. The first type of the problem is usually simpler, however, could not be tackled with usual methods of search for minimum and maximum. This type of the optimization problem can deal only with natural numbers. Therefore, in such problems MSE or another continuous error function cannot be used. On the contrary, continuous programming allows the researcher to approximate the error in machine learning as a mathematical function. As continuous programming relies on real numbers, after the error function selection there comes out an opportunity to analyze the function with a help of other theoretical tools of mathematics. For example, find the optimum of the function with by applying Gradient Descent [1, p. 14].

Secondly, continuous programming can be either one-dimensional or multidimensional. One-dimensional optimization means that the researcher needs to optimize only one element, while multidimensional function requires an optimization of many parameters. In other words, if there is a need to find an optimum of the function, optimization problems can be divided into one-dimensional and multidimensional according to the number of variables of this function. This research is based on multidimensional programming, as linear regression problem has at least 2 variables to be optimized. All the algorithms will be shown in 3-D dimension.

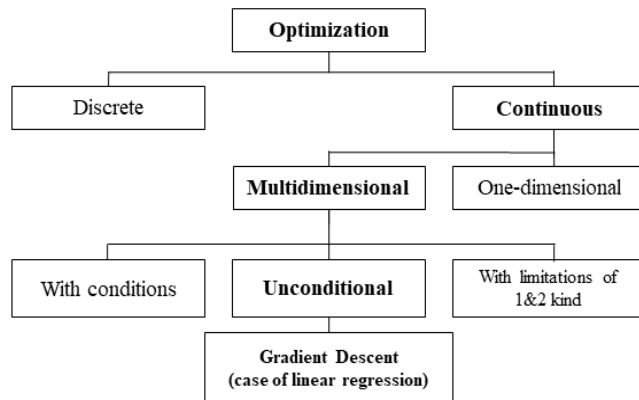


Figure 1. Classification of optimization algorithms

Finally, continuous optimization problems (in our case continuous multi-dimensional) are split into 3 more types: unconditional optimization, conditional optimization, and optimization with limitations of the 1st and 2nd kind Fig. 1. In practice conditions help to find feasible combinations of required parameters. For example, minus 3 bottles of water cannot exist in real life. A constraint which helps to avoid such ridiculous mistake is “bottles of water > 0”. Such constraints are widely used in economics to calculate the optimum choice of buyer and seller of the products. As for the limitations of the 1st and 2nd kind, they impose restrictions to the function being its part. For example, hyperbola function does not exist in origin. For GD, it does not matter which type of constraints will be chosen. If the algorithm achieves the border of the function, it just stops. In this research the final problem will be solved with a help of unconstrained optimization.

Simple gradient descent allocation algorithm

Gradient Descent allocation being a part of continuous multi-dimensional unconstrained (or constrained in some cases) programming, has recommended itself as one of the most stable, simple and fast working class of the optimization methods. It can be used for every differentiable function without any special requirements for the running program [2, p. 103]. The mechanism of simple gradient decent is the following:

1. Assume there is a convex or a concave function with one optimum. Let it be a quadratic function of 2 variables in our example. The function is presented in Fig. 2.

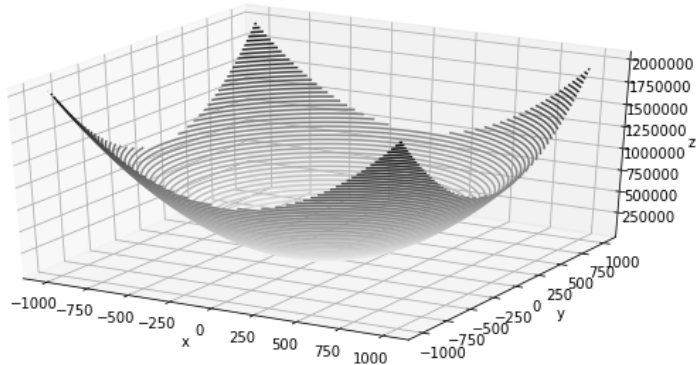
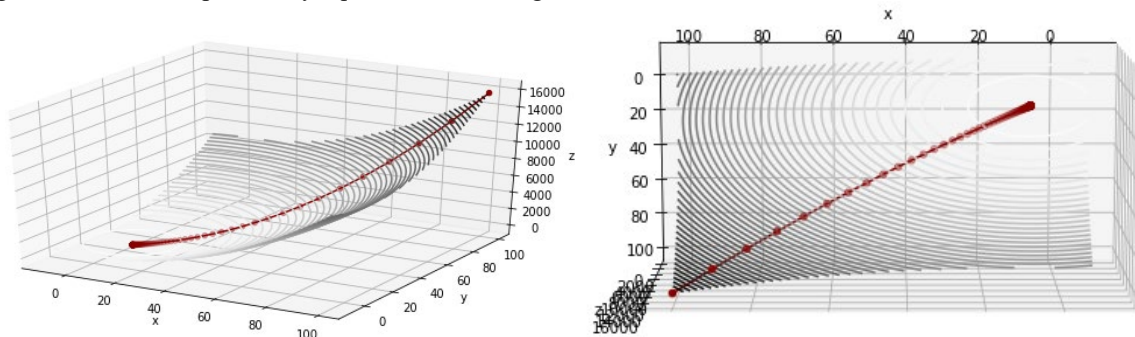


Figure 2. A convex quadratic function of two variables

2. The researcher chooses hyper-parameters of the algorithm, they are: the starting point, the number of iterations and the length of one step. The starting point is a random point of the function where the algorithm is going to start performing its calculations. This point should change every iteration until will coincide with the optimum. Iteration is one step during which the algorithm performs some calculations. The more the number of iterations is, the higher a probability to achieve the optimum is. The length of one step is a constant which is going to be used during the 4th step of the mechanism.
3. The algorithm finds a gradient vector in the starting point by taking a derivative. The gradient vector shows the fastest way to achieve the optimum. Moreover, the further the starting point is from the real optimum, the higher the values of the gradient vector are [3, p. 3901].
4. Finally, the starting point updates by decreasing or increasing in its dimensions by the values of the gradient vector multiplied by the length of one step. The values decrease if the goal is to find the minimum of the function and increases if there is an aim to find the maximum. The length of one step in this formula decreases the values of the gradient vector to make the result more precise.
5. The algorithm runs repeating steps 3 and 4 up to the moment all the iterations are not finished or the stopping criterion breaks the algorithm. Iterations in form of red bullets connected by red lines are presented in Fig. 3 & Fig. 4. The stopping criterion can be various in different Gradient descent models. In simple model if the values of gradient vector are practically equal to zero, the algorithm breaks.

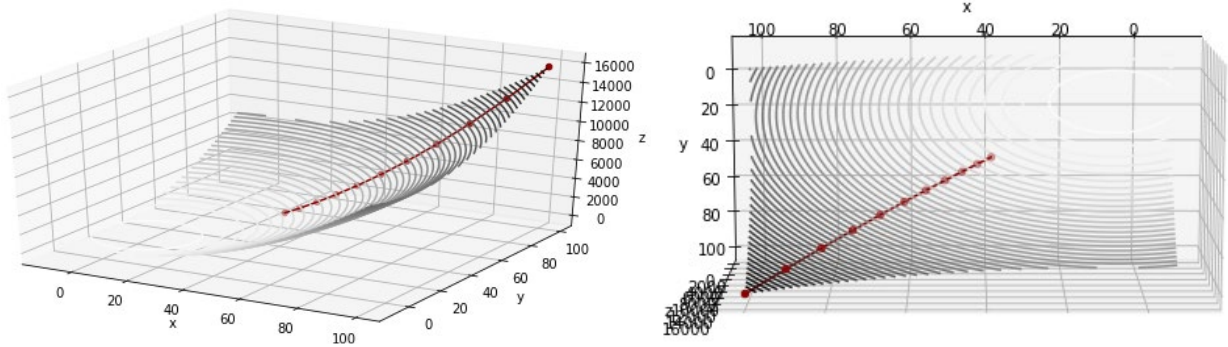


Figures 3 & 4. Simple gradient descent

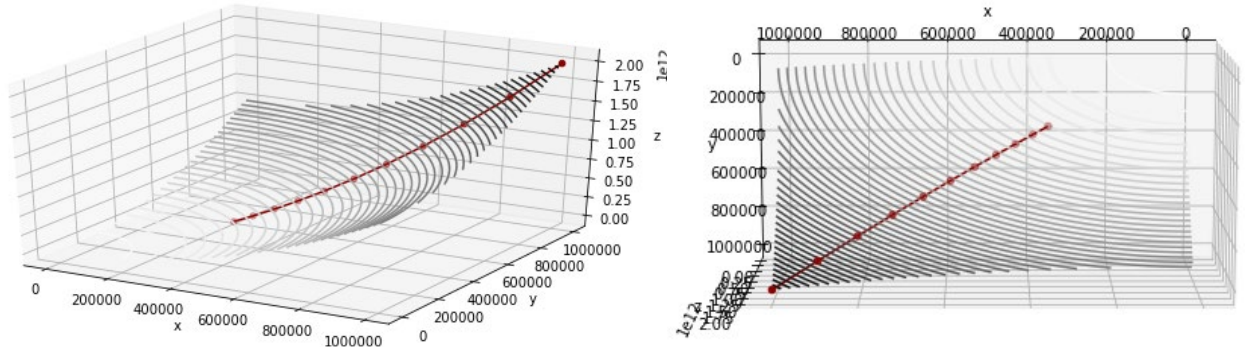
In the given example (Fig.3 & Fig. 4) is represented simple gradient descent. The starting point is equal to (100; 100; 15 000) the number of iterations is 100 and the length of one step is 0.1. The red bullets represent the starting points in each iteration. They seem to be a smooth line after being connected with red lines. During the 20th iteration the optimum is practically achieved, therefore, while the starting point is getting closer to the optimum, the values of gradient vector become smaller and the result becomes more precise.

Problems of simple gradient descent

The apparent advantage of GD is that the optimum can be achieved very fast without complex formulae, if the length of the steps and their number are chosen correctly. But correctly is a crucial word. If hyperparameters are chosen incorrectly, the optimum will not be achieved, or the result will not be precise. For example, assume that the number of iterations is too small: it can be seen at Fig. 5 & 6 that if the number of steps in the example is equal to 10, the optimum is not achieved. Another case: the starting point is too far from the optimum – the optimum is not achieved again (Fig. 7 & 8).



Figures 5 & 6. Small number of iterations in simple gradient descent



Figures 7 & 8. Starting point is too far from the optimum in simple gradient descent

As for the step length, there are several cases possible if this hyperparameter is chosen incorrectly. A big step length leads to divergence (Fig. 9). Instead of making steps towards the optimum the algorithm will rush about it leaving the optimum more and more with each iteration. On the contrary, if the step length is too small, the optimum will not be achieved (pic.6).

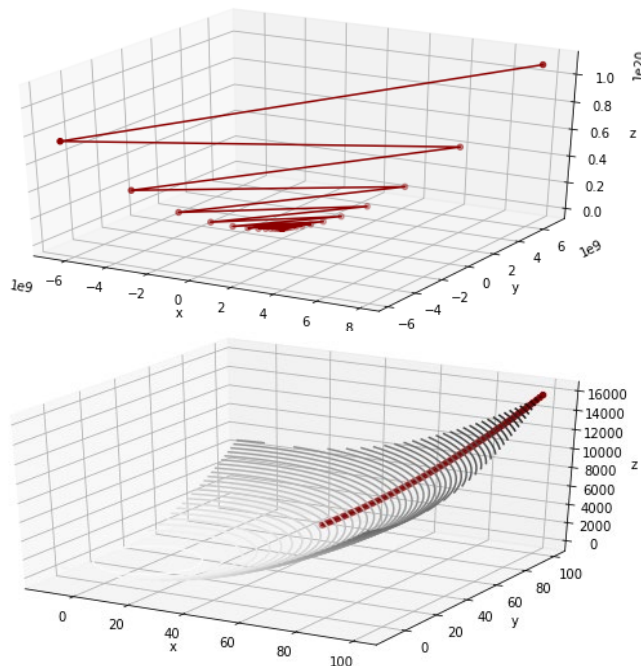


Figure 9. Too big step length in simple GD & Figure 10. Too small step length in simple GD

The second major problem of the algorithm is that it can find only local optimum. If the function is not smooth or has several maximum and minimum points, the Gradient Descent can find only one of them, which is the nearest to the starting point. Here is an example in Fig. 11: The gradient vector in point A shows that the nearest optimum is C, so the iterations will lead the algorithm to that optimum. But, in fact the global optimum is B.

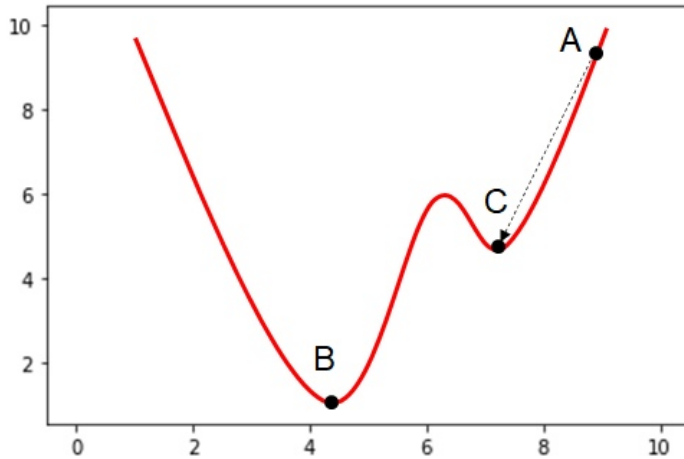


Figure 11. GD finds local optimum instead of global one

Gradient vector calculation always shows only one optimum and there is no way to avoid this problem making something with gradient descent itself. Instead, the way to cope with this problem is to either use GD as a part of a larger algorithm or make sure that the optimum is unique. MSE is a quadratic function of several variables, so it has one optimum. So, GD can and should be used for the model where it is necessary to minimize MSE or another function with single optimum.

As for the previous problems connected with hyperparameters, they can be solved. All the methods based on gradient descent class of optimization algorithms cope with this problem in different ways. For example, the number of iterations can be giant if the stopping criterion breaks the algorithm when the starting point achieves a small vicinity of the optimum. The starting point can be chosen everywhere if the final hyperparameter – the length of one step – is optimized too. In the next part of the research there will be supervised two methods based on GD class of algorithms which cope with these problems extremely well.

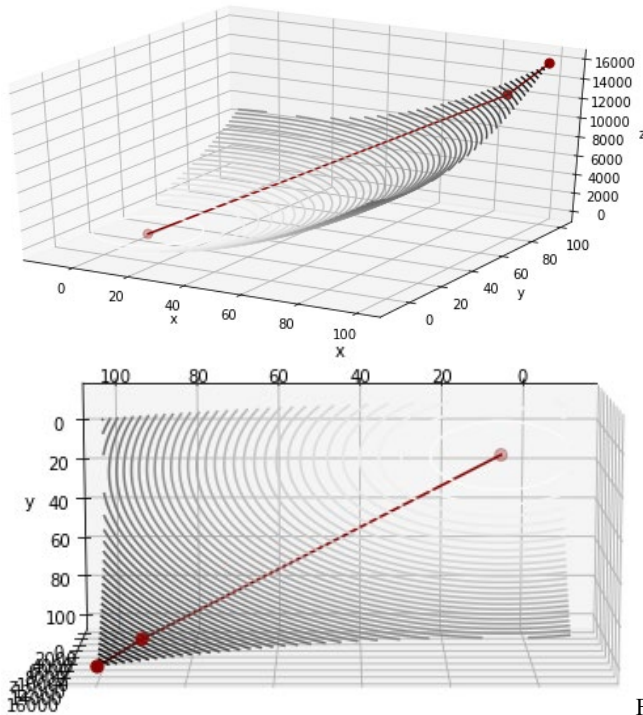
Two-point step size method

1. In simple words, two-point step size method is aimed at achieving the optimum of the function in just 2 iterations [4, p. 14]. It is required to optimize the length of one step after the first iteration to do so:
2. The function and hyperparameters are chosen as in a simple gradient descent.
3. The first iteration runs as in a simple gradient descent, but the algorithm remembers the first starting point and values of gradient vector in it.
4. After the second starting point and values of gradient vector in it are obtained, the length of one step (a_k) is optimized [5, p. 1]:

$$\lambda_k = \frac{s_{k-1}^T s_{k-1}}{s_{k-1}^T y_{k-1}},$$

5. where $s_{k-1} = x^k - x^{k-1}$ and $y_{k-1} = \nabla f(x^k) - \nabla f(x^{k-1})$

- 6.
7. During the second iteration, the new optimized step length is used.
8. The 3rd starting point is the optimum.



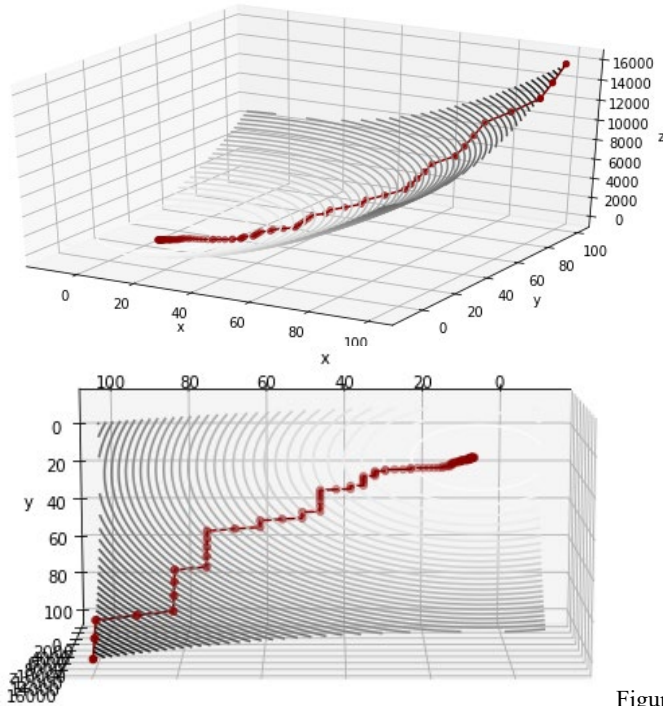
Figures 12 & 13. Two-step point size GD

The algorithm presented in Fig. 12 & 13 confirms that instead of 100 iterations as in simple GD there are performed only two. This method was created by Jonathan Barzilai and Jonathan Borwein in 1988. An apparent advantage of this algorithm is that the gradient vector calculations should be performed only two times. So, if there is not too much data, it is a lot faster to apply this method to the optimum search. However, this method as well as each GD which calculates the whole gradient vector, has a drawback. If the data are extremely large, the gradient vector for all variables cannot be calculated fast. The next algorithm can deal with this problem.

Stochastic gradient descent

Stochastic gradient descent or SGD was created for minimization of error functions for giant data (training set) that cannot be stored on a computer. The idea of the algorithm is find gradient vector for one variable each time [6, p. 422]. The SGD algorithm is the following:

1. The function and hyperparameters are chosen as in a simple gradient descent.
2. A variable by which the algorithm will be optimized is chosen randomly.
3. Instead of normal gradient vector calculation gradient vector is found for only one variable. For other variables, the gradient vector is equal to zero.
4. The starting point increases or decreases in its dimensions by values of gradient vector multiplies by the length of one step.
5. The algorithm runs repeating steps 2, 3 and 4 up to the moment all the iterations are not finished, or the stopping criterion breaks the algorithm.



Figures 14 & 15. SGD

It is quite easy to detect some differences between the simple GD graph and stochastic gradient descent presented in Fig. 14 & 15. The graph of SGD starting points connected by lines is a broken curve, while the graph of simple GD is a straight line. These inconsistencies appeared due to the random choice of variables while computing gradient vector in SGD mechanism.

Overall, as it can be seen in Fig. 16 Two-point step size method is the fastest, while simple GD is faster than stochastic gradient descent. Nevertheless, if the training set is large, everything is vice versa. SGD is the fastest one, while simple gradient descent loses in speed. Moreover, SGD becomes faster than Two-point step size method in a case of deep learning.

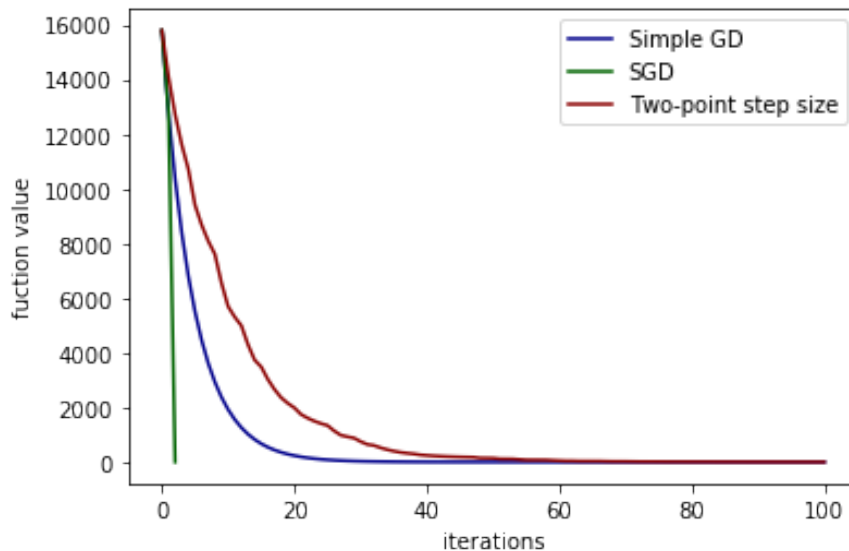


Figure 16. Speed of the optimization algorithms for small training set

Gradient descent in linear regression

The aim of linear regression as well as the target of every regression mechanism is to predict some value as a function of one or more parameters correlated with this value. For example, the issue can be to find out the height of a man using his weight. In the linear regression problem, the value can be represented as a linear function of parameters. In other words, if the parameters are marked as (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) , the value (y) will be described as $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = w_1 * x_1 + w_2 * x_2 + \dots + w_n * x_n + w_0$, where $(w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ are constants (weights).

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The linear regression problem is to find out these coefficients ($w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n$) during the process of algorithm learning. It is necessary to know the pairs of parameters (X) and answers (Y) to do so. So, the full algorithm is the following:

1. Assume that the answer to the problem (y) depends on some parameters (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) as a linear function with weights ($w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n$). Then the function should be $y = w_0 + w_1 * x_1 + w_2 * x_2 + \dots + w_n * x_n$.
2. There is known a set of parameters and answers for the problem: they are vector of answers Y and matrix (or vector) of parameters X. In Fig. 17 they are presented as black dots.
3. Set an error function of the algorithm as a convex function with one optimum, for example:

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$
4. Using the known X and Y find the optimum of the function with a help of gradient descent. The optimum will be the vector of weights ($w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n$).
5. Plug the vector of weights into the function $y(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ and get an approximate answer for every set of variable.

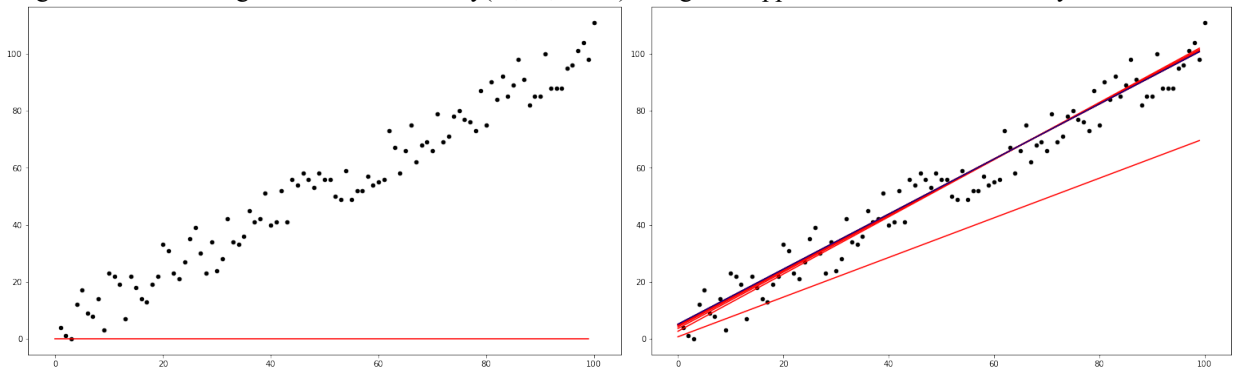


Figure 17. Initialization of linear regression parameters & Figure 18. Linear regression mechanism

The visual interpretation of the algorithm can be seen Fig. 18. The points describe a set of parameters and answers for the issue. The red lines depict the process of the GD optimum search. Finally, the found vector of weights is depicted as a dark blue linear function. It describes an approximate result for each possible parameter.

Can linear regression predict the COVID-19 spreading?

With the help of data published by Johns Hopkins University there was found an opportunity to use linear regression for predicting the number of people who got a coronavirus all over the world. The data is known: the number of days since the start of pandemic can be interpreted as parameters while the number of people who got COVID-19 as values [7]. The issue is to predict the number of people who are ill with a help of linear regression.

The result of the algorithm can be seen in the Fig. 19. Is this a good algorithm? Of course, no. It can be seen that the actual answers stand-alone from the predictions made by the algorithm in many cases, especially for days 50-73.

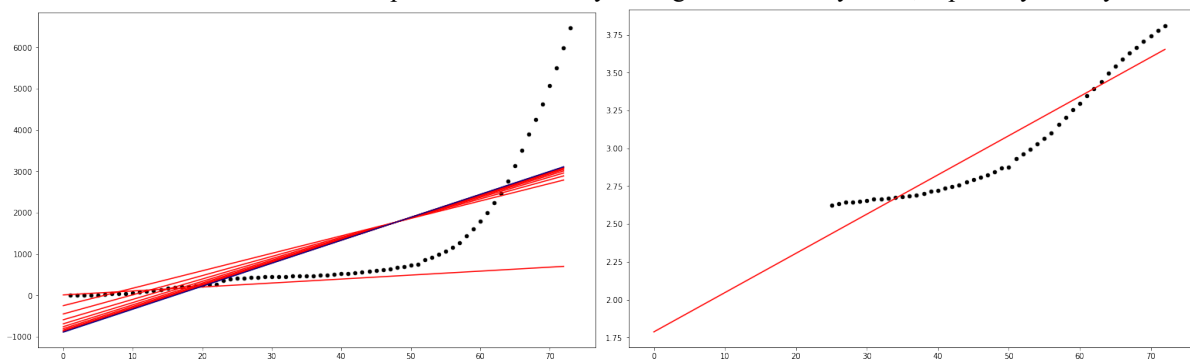


Figure 19. Linear regression for COVID-19 & Figure 20. Linear regression for logarithm of COVID-19

Nevertheless, this algorithm can be improved. Firstly, it is crucial to use just one part of all data (60% of the oldest ones). It is done to avoid the bend in data and make the parameters and the answers set more homogenous. The aim is to predict the trend, not to approximate the past results. Therefore, the decision is good. After that the answers are turned into logarithm of answers. This measure simplifies the problem of MSE minimization by Gradient Descent. After that the linear regression is boosted. The result is shown in the Fig. 20.

Conclusion

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In conclusion, gradient descent is a strong algorithm which is widely used in machine learning. Being a part of continuous unconstrained programming gradient descent class of algorithms has recommended itself as one of the most stable, simple, and fast working optimization methods. It can achieve the optimum of the function without any complex formulae. However, this class of algorithms has several drawbacks. Some of them relate to a must to set hyperparameters correctly, while the major problem does not allow GD to find the global optimum of a function.

All the models created on the base of gradient descent consider various ways to solve the hyperparameters problem. For example, Two-point step size method optimizes the step length and finds the optimum of the function in just 2 iterations. On the contrary, a partly random method stochastic gradient descent can optimize the error function when there is too much data to be analyzed.

There was given an example how gradient descent can become a great tool of optimization. The situation with coronavirus in the world is extremely dangerous, but even this algorithm used as a part of the linear regression mechanism can predict the future situation with this global threat.

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Artyom Ponomaryov
Higher School of Economics, Russia
echinkova@hse.ru

The Theory of Limit Cycles and Its Use for the Analysis of the Real Estate Market

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between economic cycles and periodic fluctuations in prices in the real estate market. It is also necessary to determine whether prices in the real estate market are subject to the global trend or whether they have some special period of ups and downs.

In addition, as tasks, I considered the following aspects: trace the dynamics of prices in the real estate market, identify the correlation between the characteristic manufacturing sectors of our country and GDP, real estate, ultimately, to analyze all kinds of articles on the relationship of the above cycles and make my own calculations, summarize identify the model and make a forecast for prices for a period of 3-4 years.

The ability to predict prices is an investment attraction. Also the following article gives the possibility to assess the likelihood of a crisis in the country, based on indicators of prices in the real estate market.

The latest work, which was carried out on the topic of cyclical prices in the real estate market, was made publicly available in 2017, it is going to be discussed lately. After this, many events took place, some data were outdated, and the forecasts were partially not confirmed, therefore, taking into account the mistakes made, it is necessary to formulate more accurate predictions and draw up relevant conclusions.

Research Methods:

- Statistical estimation of distribution parameters (interval estimates).
- Graphical visual and tabular spot analysis.
- Highlighting the trend component of a time series.
- Methods of correlation analysis.

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- Index analysis method.
- Analysis of the dynamics of statistical indicators.
Information Database:
- IRN.RU - real estate price data
- EMISS, SCS, WORLD BANK– official statistical indicators

Economic cycles – “A type of oscillation of aggregate economic activity. The cycle consists of a period of expansion (expansion), which manifests itself almost at the same time in many areas of economic activity, followed by a period of general recession, reduction and revival with the transition to the expansion phase of the next cycle: this sequence of changes is repeated, but with different intervals...” (Abel’s textbook p. 362);

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) - is the total monetary or market value of all the finished goods and services produced within a country's borders in a specific time period.

A trend - is the main tendency for something to change: for example, in mathematics, a time series. Trends can be described by various equations - linear, logarithmic and so on. The actual type of trend is established based on the selection of its functional model by statistical methods or by smoothing the initial time series.

A time series - is a sequence of numerical data points in successive order.

Correlation - is a term that is a measure of the strength of a linear relationship between two quantitative variables (e.g., age, gender).

Index (in this work) - a statistical measure for tracking economic data. Aggregate indicator that shows the dynamic changes on the financial market.

The first sample we consider an example of performance cycles website irn.ru in the article from 2017. Analysis of price changes, according to Oleg Repchenko, until 2008, had the structure of the 10-year cycle, which includes 7 years of growth and 3 years – fall, stagnation. Using this analysis for the period including the crisis of 1998 the author was able to predict the sharp drop of prices in 2008. However, this forecast did not quite justify itself on real data, since 3-year-old stagnant after 2008-2009 did not come, on the contrary, the price started to recover, most likely due to the inertia of growth, given before. Therefore, the concept had to be reconsidered. A 7-year period had to be split into three waves of growth (pic.3).

The first two waves of growth take 3 years and the price level increased by about two times, both over the first wave of a small stagnation. The third wave of growth is only a year and a significant price increase is not observed, according to Oleg Repchenko: "in fact, it's not so much the next wave of growth, how much "pull" of the market before the trend reversal from growth to decline" (irn.ru article). And it all ends with a three-year period of stagnation or decline. Therefore, the formula cycle turned into: 3+3+1+3=10.

Further, in the framework of this model it is assumed that such a change may be only a part of the supercycle, which is interpreted as follows: the growth period of 1991-1998 in the supercycle can be viewed as an analogue of growth 2001-2003 normal cycle 2001-2011 the 1998 Crisis and subsequent recovery in 1998-2001, similar to the stagnation of 2004, the growth Period 2001-2008, similar to the growth 2005-2006 regular cycle 2001-2011 Crisis of 2008 and subsequent recovery in 2008-2011 are analogues of stagnation in 2007. Third, a small wave of growth, like the first two turned into 1/3 of a 10-year growth. That is, the formula becomes: $10+10+3,3+10 = 33,3$. This analogy, as the author writes, could be made only on the basis of the principle of similarity, which also widely used in the financial markets. The essence of this principle is the following. If on the chart, regardless of time period emerges some kind of pattern fluctuations, it is likely that it will be applicable for a longer period of time.

Proceeding from this hypothesis, presumably, property prices in 2014 has entered a phase of 10-year-old crisis. And according to Repchenko is a new reality, that is the next stage of development of pricing: “the Third crisis – a crisis not in the usual sense, but the end of one era and the beginning is quite different, as has from the beginning noted IRN.RU” (irn.ru article). Also in this article, a forecast was made on when the bottom will be reached. The author of the article noted that apartment prices in Moscow will lose about 20-30% and by 2020, that is, relevant, and the price per square meter will be 120,000 rubles. Moreover, in this article, it was noted that such a price level corresponds to \$ 2,000 and an exchange rate of 60 and a price per barrel of oil at \$ 50 (most likely, the price of futures BR-4.20 was meant).

The main fundamental reasons noted in this article were: excessively high real estate prices, that is, revaluation of value. Inconsistency in the average cost per sq. meters of the average salary of a Muscovite, compared with other developed countries. Increase in the number of houses put into operation or market overtaking with new buildings. Thus, can we say that Oleg Repchenko turned out to be completely right, or are there any inaccuracies that were not taken into account by him?

First of all, it must be said that the author’s forecast turned out to be only partially true. In my opinion, the principle of similarity is not very justified. It does not use the mathematical apparatus, but in fact is based on visual analysis. The article also did not mention the correlation with any historical event or correlations with other industries, which can also affect real estate prices. In general, visual analysis can be a tool for forecasting, and, as we saw earlier, it

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helped to predict the 2008 crisis, nevertheless, this could be just a deviation, while a much larger amount of information is needed to fully predict recessions. For example, it is necessary to monitor the economic situation abroad, monitor key rates, apply news analysis, technical analysis, monitor the conditions of mortgage loans, as well as other tools that could facilitate the very visual presentation.

The next article, which was also examined by me, is called *Analysis of the cyclical nature of the residential real estate market*, by V.V. Pechenkin and E.A. Ivanov. It also describes the phases of the real estate cycle market in the form of dynamics of the main indicators. That is, demand, supply and value reflect the phases of the cycle. For example: during the expansion, on the demand side, the number of transactions increases, the cost of housing and rent increases, and the volume of the real estate fund decreases. During a recession, the opposite is true. Oversaturation and restoration are characterized by characteristic features of the critical values of these indicators, that is, during the recovery the number of transactions grows, but the volume of construction can both remain constant and demonstrate growth. Of the main aspects that I highlighted earlier, it also mentions the number of mortgages issued. This is really an indicator of how prices on the real estate market can behave, because there is a certain time lag between the increase in the number of mortgages and the acceleration of the construction of new residential blocks. In addition, this article describes the mechanism of cycles as dynamic time segments. That is, the idea is developing that prices somehow go through all the stages of the cycle only with different periodicities depending on external factors, for example, state policy or the severity of the economic shock. In general, the closest thing to me is the concept of this particular idea.

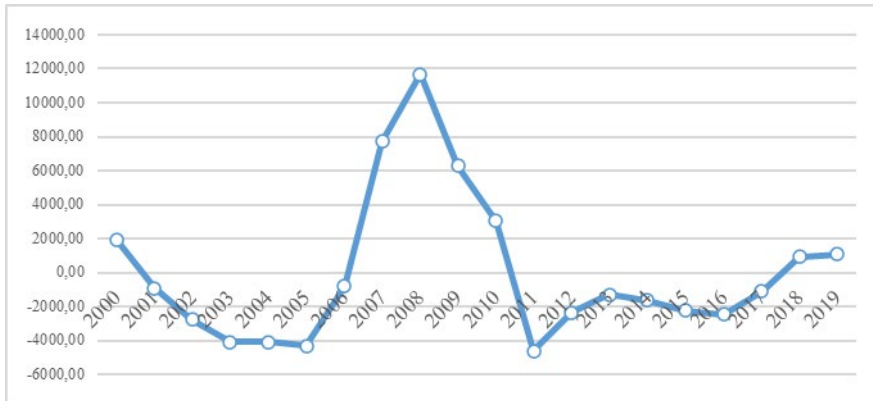
After requesting Russian articles, my research took me to *millionacres*, the web page, on which I found the Liz Brumer-Smith work *Understanding Real Estate Cycles to Find Profitable Investments in Any Market*. This work helped me to put several dots in my own research. The most valuable thing in the following article is that Liz Brumer-Smith showed the indicators of each phase. For example: we can understand that we are on the second Phase (expansion) according to such lighthouses as: 1) Home sales and leasing have increased greatly. 2) There is a balanced or high demand for housing, and prices for both rentals and houses are rapidly rising. 3) New construction begins again and there is flipping activity in the single-family market. 4) A stable or modestly increasing interest rate environment. 5) GDP returns to ideal, “healthy” levels, around 2% - 3%. 6) Emotions tend to steer toward optimism, confidence, and excitement.” We the help of those tips, I managed to convert them into my own indicators, which are going to be presented later. (<https://www.fool.com/millionacres/>)

From that point, I decided to find more mathematical, than empiric models to describe indicators. Author: Kat in his article: *Where Are We in the Real Estate Cycle in 2019?* helped me in that, he described a Case-Shiller Index which, due to the pace of increasing can predict the following phases. All in all, it's a cost-weighted arithmetic index of repeat sales, which allows you to track the selling prices of the same houses in order to avoid changes in average prices that would be the result of a general tendency to increase the size and improve the quality of houses over time. Unfortunately, Russia does not use this index to assess the risks of the crisis in the real estate market. There are also no alternatives to it, so one of the prospects for my research is to create a similar index, which I could later integrate into my next work on creating a single indicator of recessions in the Russian economy.

To analyze the current trends in the real estate market, assess the dynamics of indicators, first of all used a visual analysis of the charts based on data for a 20-year period. Also, to assess whether prices tend to some kind of stationary state, I resorted to using the interval variational series according to Sturgess. I used the equal-interval grouping of the width, and to be more precise $h = \frac{x_{\max} - x_{\min}}{1 + 3,22 \lg n}$. After building a histogram of frequencies, it immediately became more clear how prices are distributed. Also, using statistical estimation of distribution parameters, for this sample, I found the selected standard deviation, mode and median, which once again confirmed the hypothesis that prices on the Russian real estate market (excluding Moscow) tend to their stationary state adjusted for price level.

Also, to analyze the time series and build the trend component of prices in the real estate market, I used the Hodrick-Prescott filter. I have chosen this tool to build a potential trend, since it can be adjusted using the alpha parameter. It also more clearly demonstrates cyclicity in contrast to linear. Among other things, it was used in the work: *Comparative analysis filters of Hodrick - Prescott and Hamilton in assessing the turning points of the business cycle of the Belarusian economy* and is currently the recommended method for identifying long-term cycles in the framework of the OECD methodology.

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Pic. 3-1. The difference between the real estate prices and HP potential trend.

Source: Author's calculations.

Of course, I also often used the methods of correlation analysis to assess the relationship of various industries with each other. An analysis of the dynamics of statistical indicators in order to demonstrate the growth of GDP and the difference in price increases of various industries, also to highlight trend composites. In addition, volatility was found using standard deviation and an HP filter. That is, the deviation of price changes divided by the change in GDP. The volatility was 1.1525, then we will consider what this means.

Thanks to the above analysis methods, I was able to construct a cycle model for the real estate market in Russia. A characteristic feature of this model is that it is dynamic. Like all the disassembled works, it has 4 phases, however, it does not have a specific transit time through these phases. The HP filter showed deviations from the potential trend with a frequency of 5-8 years. Nevertheless, if you look in retrospect, we will see that the time taken for the full cycle to go down has been decreasing since 1933. This can be explained by the development of technology and the reduction in time lag. The time lag is that real estate market prices change some time after the change in GDP. Of course, this does not negate the fact that at the time of shock t , prices change, we previously found out that they are a little more volatile of the GDP itself, now let's say that they are procyclical, since the correlation is more than 0.9. We also introduce the premise that they are a lagging indicator. Using these results, we can predict how prices in the real estate market will behave, knowing changes in the country's GDP.

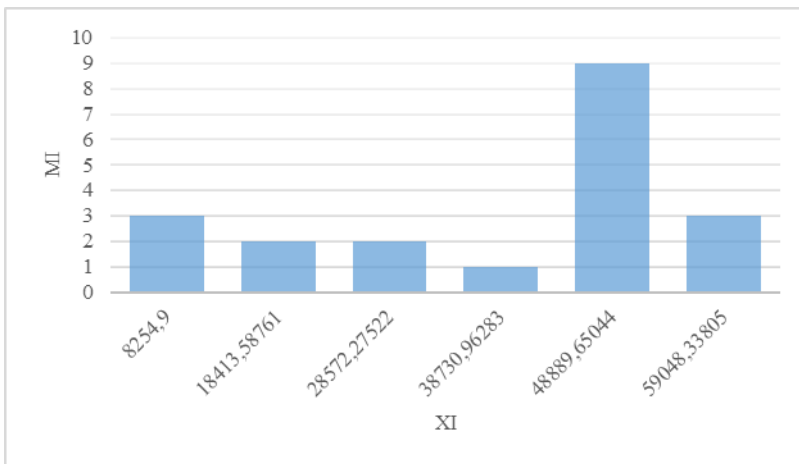
Summarizing all the circumstances and the fact that the 8-year cycle in the real estate market is coming to an end, we can conclude that by the end of 2020 it will be possible to observe an approximately 8-10% drop in prices compared to the previous year. The next year is likely to be recovery and further decline, with the right monetary policy will not be observed, there will also be no sharp increase in prices, the increase will be about 1-2%, with a subsequent increase.

In conclusion, I would like to say that I have achieved all of my goals - I have analyzed the dynamics of prices in the real estate market in dynamics, identified phase indicators, determined the cycle model of the real estate market, nevertheless, there is still a need to explain the reduction in the time lag, which the queue depends on the parameter - A , that is, technology. This kind of information is quite difficult to collect, so you have to look at the historical gap, which particular innovations have accelerated the process of building a new residential complex.

Reference

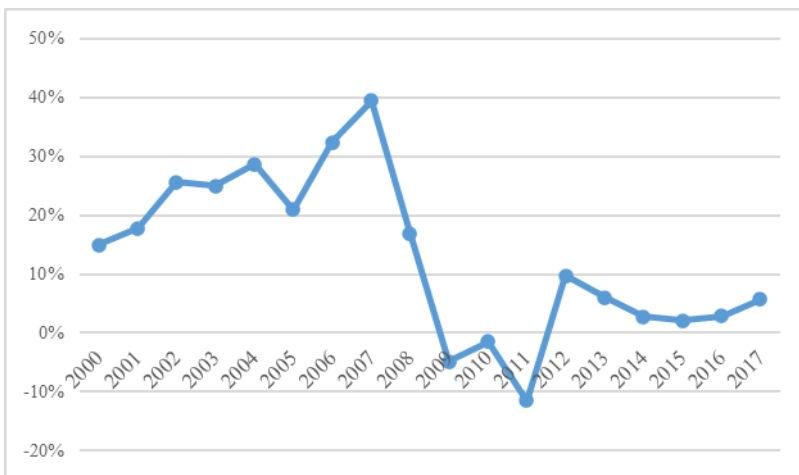
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Appendices



Pic. 1. Histogram of the distribution of prices per square meter, meter in the Russian Federation. Source: Author's calculations.

Database: <https://www.gks.ru/dbscripts/cbsd/DBInet.cgi?pl=1905001>

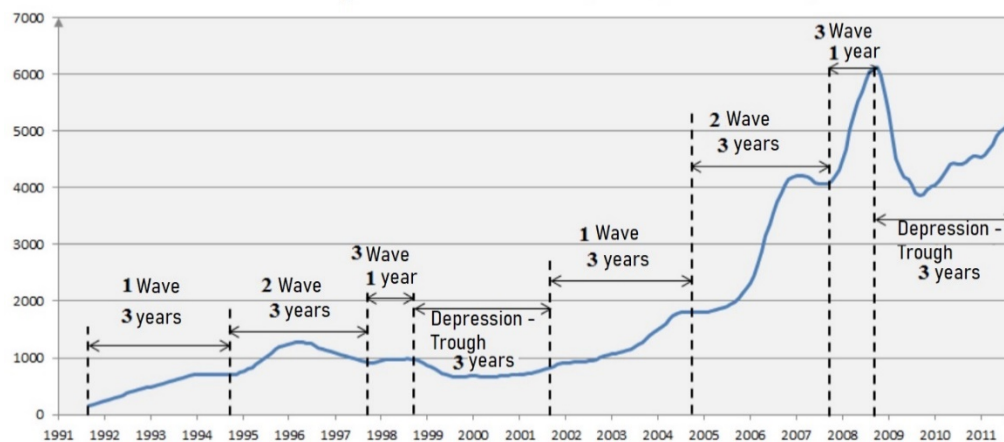


Pic. 2. Changes in the growth of the average price of 1 sq. m of the total area of apartments on the housing market, ruble, primary housing market, Russian Federation

Source: Author's calculations

Database: <https://www.gks.ru/dbscripts/cbsd/DBInet.cgi?pl=1905001>

Prices for apartments in Moscow, \$/M² (www.IRN.ru)



Pic. 3. Prices for apartments in Moscow.

Source: <https://www.irn.ru/articles/39948.html>

Reviewer tip

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This article contains the concept of term paper, considering current issues. Coursework is devoted to the study of the relationship between economic cycles and periodic fluctuations in property prices in Russia. To conduct the study, the main methods of statistical analysis are used: estimation of distribution parameters, correlation analysis methods, index method, time series trend analysis. As an information base, the research uses up-to-date information from leading real estate sites and data from the World Bank.

In the practical part of the research, the results of our own research are obtained. An analysis is made of the parameters of the distribution of prices for residential real estate, a study is conducted of the correlation of macroeconomic indicators and the real estate market.

The results are of interest for further research on trends in the Russian real estate market.

Ivan Serov
Higher School of Economics, Russia
ioserov@edu.hse.ru

Export Platforms

The article considers the main approaches to multinational firms’ decision-making processes in order to clarify the significance of export platforms (EP) in the modern trade. Firstly, it is a proximity-concentration trade-off concept that makes the most productive firms perform a Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) rather than exporting goods. Secondly, FDI that companies engage in nowadays is mainly of a horizontal type rather than of a vertical one, as their main driver is a distant demand that cannot be satisfied with a simple FDI due to high fixed costs at a plant level. However, firms’ strategies are not limited by that simple classification and seem to be far more complex. Finally, most of those complex strategies might be observed as export platforms. Export platforms are a particular case of multinational production and are close to the horizontal type of foreign direct investment, as their main driver is a distant demand that cannot be satisfied with a simple FDI due to high fixed costs at a plant level. Firms might engage in EP investment either to serve themselves via a platform or reach other markets conditional on the cost structure of the global trade. In addition, as bilateral trade between multinationals engaging in EP and the rest of the world is not independent, the third-party effects might substantially change firms’ strategies.

International Trade; Export Platforms; Multinational Production; FDI; Multinational Enterprise.

This paper reviews the basic principles of multinational firms’ strategies in terms of exporting and foreign direct investment. Today the multinational production plays a major role in the international trade. By 2018, the sales of foreign affiliates of the world’s top 100 multinational firms accounted for 60% of their total sales, which was roughly \$5.6 trillion [9, p. 20]. A special occasion of the foreign investment is the export platform production, which refers to locating production facilities in other countries and allowing them to export on their own. Fig. 1-1 shows the proportion of the export platform sales of the US affiliates in Europe for 2004. One can notice that about a half of the countries are served predominantly by the affiliates. Moreover, Switzerland and Ireland stand out from other countries significantly. This instance might be explained by the fact that these countries are large financial centers so that many firms prefer having subordinates on their territory. Furthermore, the average share of export platforms in the total American world trade is 43% (Tintelnot, 2017), which is substantial.

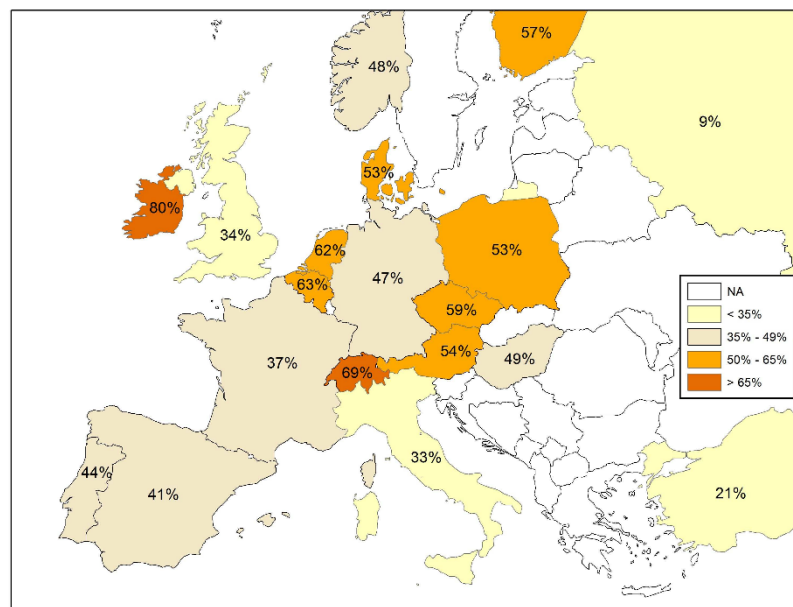


Fig. 1-1 Export platform shares for the U.S. multinationals in Europe // F. Tintelnot (2017)

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What is more, export platforms significantly change the reaction of firms to some trade policy changes due to so-called “third-country effects”. In fact, as export platforms, unlike non-exporting affiliates, are able to switch trade flows between countries simply, trade liberalization may seriously affect their trade patterns. Such changes are both positively affecting liberalized markets and causing either negative or positive spillovers in other ones that offer worse conditions. The character and features of those spillovers will be covered further in this paper.

Despite the importance of the topic, export-platform production is infrequently discussed from the scope of the modern trade. While the fundamental theory related to various types of FDI has been developed for several decades, papers fully dedicated to the EP topic are mostly published during the latest years. The main goal of this study is to provide a path that consequently proves the significance of theoretical research on export platforms via observing the related studies. Furthermore, it structures the literature on EP in order to summarize the knowledge that already exists. Finally, the article attempts to make some predictions of the subtopics and branches that can be covered in future studies.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II performs a brief dive into the proximity-concentration trade-off principle and its practical implication, discussing the models of Brainard (1997) and Helpman et al. (2004), which are classical examples of the horizontal approach. Section III proceeds to articles on the vertical FDI and assesses its value in global trade description. Section IV goes beyond the scope of traditional approaches and leads to the theory of export platforms. Section V concentrates on the EP production, description of the product-location choice and the conditions, which create incentives for switching to export platform strategies. The emphasis is also put on various models, which explain EPs behavior. Section VI concludes.

Proximity-concentration trade-off has become a topic for several seminal papers during the last decades. These articles have introduced a new approach to the research of firms’ decision-making process in terms of the international trade. The topic itself states a research problem of choice between the two alternative ways of serving foreign markets: a firm might either decide on simple exporting to the host, or engage in FDI and set a plant overseas. The following articles explore the conditions which affect the firm’s strategy.

The work of Brainard (1997) makes the major contribution to the research field by introducing the very basic principles of firms’ reaction to various circumstances. The author develops a two-country model with a number of firms; the aim of the former is to discover whether there is a robust relation between the trade decisions and the costs associated with each of them. The trade-off in general consists in choosing between a high level of proximity to consumers, which might be reached by the creation of a new facility abroad, and the scale economy, taking place when the firm decides to concentrate the production processes in the home country and to export. Henceforth, the variable transportation costs and those associated with trade barriers, along with the fixed costs of installing a new plant are the major determinants of the trade-off itself. The author defines three possible equilibria dependent on the expenditure relative size: if the fixed costs are relatively low, while transportation and market entry are expensive, the firm is better off by performing a horizontal FDI and creating production facilities in host countries. Contrariwise, a case when variable expenditure is low and the plant installment is costly, companies avoid engaging in FDI and switch to exporting altogether. Finally, if the fixed and the variable costs imply similar advantages, the market is divided into two types of firms, either exporting or investing. Hence, companies might either all possess plants in both countries, or all have a plant in the home country and export to the host one, or, finally, represent a mixture of the two scenarios mentioned above.

The author considers the third case separately. The emphasis is placed on the distinction from the previous studies which pay too little attention to the problem of simultaneity between exports and FDI. In the current model, the share of firms that perform foreign investment in relation to total firms that participate in international trade is also taken into account, being positively correlated with the variable costs and barriers and negatively with the costs of investment.

The empirical evidence provided in the article confirms the predictions on the character of relations between distinct costs and firms’ strategies. A main limitation of the model is that it does not incorporate firms’ heterogeneity, which implies restrictions on the research results. Other important questions such as the impact of productivity of companies remain unanswered, leaving a vast scientific ground for the further research.

The next step of the overview is to focus on the paper of Helpman et al. (2004). This article provides a further investigation on the problem of firm-level choice between exporting and a horizontal FDI. Opposite to the previous paper, this research introduces heterogeneous firms, in fact expanding the model of Melitz (2003) towards multinational production. The process of starting manufacturing is divided into three steps. Firstly, a firm pays some fixed costs to enter the industry, and receives a labor-per-unit-of-output coefficient from some distribution, which points to the efficiency of production; the reverse indicator to this coefficient measures the productivity of a firm. Secondly, the company decides on whether to serve a domestic market, which implies extra fixed costs. An important notion is that ones with low productivity levels will decide to exit the industry, as they have negative surplus over the variable expenditure. Lastly, a firm has a chance to launch international operations by either exports or a horizontal FDI. The model implies that cutoffs, specified by productivity, determine the firm’s decision: as long as efficiency arises, firm switches from the domestic trade to exporting and, in its order, from exporting to a FDI.

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This shows that the authors consider the productivity level of a firm as a key factor for strategic decisions at the level of firms. In other words, unless the productivity level is higher than a cutoff for FDI, the engagement in multinational production will certainly bring a negative profit, so firms deliberately choose not to do so. The same logic is applicable to home production and export decision.

A significant argument of the article is the dependence of the share of FDI-performers on the heterogeneity of the industry in firms. The domestic sales' dispersion is used as a measure of differences between companies' sizes, and, as a productivity level is Pareto-distributed, sales also have Pareto distribution. Therefore, the more differentiated are the firms of an industry, the higher is the proportion of FDI in the foreign trade structure.

The main goal of this section is to present an opposite approach to multinational production and to look at it in terms of the vertical FDI. It is important to distinguish kinds of foreign direct investment by the incentives that each of them provide. While the horizontal FDI is demand-driven, as firms perform it in order to better satisfy the need in goods in distant regions and so to acquire a larger market share, the vertical kind is supply-driven, which means that firms perform it to optimize a production process and to supply more goods with less costs. Hence, a vertical FDI assumes installing plants in various regions, which are distinct in factor prices, in order to reduce costs. It might depend both on expenses associated with production factors and on costs that affect intermediate goods flows. The first step of understanding this branch is to determine the general terms which motivate firms to prefer either a vertical or horizontal FDI, and this is exactly what the work discussed below is aimed at.

A paper of Carr, Markusen, Maskus (2001) is a fundamental study, which was one of the first to combine a horizontal and vertical investment in a single framework. The authors present a two-country Knowledge-Capital (KK) model, in which firms consist of headquarters, which require high-skilled workers, and production facilities, served by those unskilled. In order to make the model applicable, they also suggest that the cost of separation between headquarters and plants are relatively low, and that the affiliates might simultaneously use knowledge-based services of headquarters. Given this, six possible types of firms appear—a company might both perform knowledge-intensive activities and produce at home, have affiliates in both countries (a horizontal type), or have different subsidiaries in distinct countries. Each kind is also specified by the headquarters' location.

By performing econometric simulations, the authors explore that if one of the countries is both large and has more high-skilled workforce, then almost every company chooses being local and simply exporting goods. The same happens when the countries are similar, provided by small trade costs, making exports quite inexpensive. However, the rise of these costs leads to a particular case of proximity-concentration trade-off, which is explained in previously observed work of Helpman et al. (2004). Thereby, such increase enlarges the proportion of horizontal FDI performers, so that affiliate sales are equal to home sales. Finally, when one of the countries is smaller and has more skilled-labor abundance, the incentive to install solely headquarters there appears, so a vertical FDI takes place. In this case, the sales by affiliates gradually strive for 100%.

The theoretical suggestions generally fit in the data on US-R/o/W countries trade flows for 1986-1994 period. The authors also gain results, which show that the sales by the US and other countries' affiliates increase with income convergence, trade costs of the host and the abundance of high-qualified labor force. One might notice that these conclusions are mostly connected with the horizontal FDI, so the role of the vertical type has to be weighted further.

While the Knowledge-Capital model reviews the conditions that influence firms' strategic decisions, the more general question is the role of a horizontal and vertical FDI in the global trade. This problem is contained in the work of Markusen et al. (2002), which compares various approaches to the multinational trade. The article summarizes papers that develop a horizontal FDI model, those devoted to the vertical type, and the knowledge-capital models. As it was previously said, the authors assess the influence of different factors on affiliate sales. The major conclusion of the study is that most of the modern international trade happens between the countries of similar-level factor endowments and of a similar size, which significantly reduces the role of vertically integrated firms in the world. Thus, a horizontal model limitation is not so significant, while the vertical one might be used only to describe particular industries or firms; therefore, the KK and the horizontal approach are quite familiar. The authors prove the given facts by empirical tests on the same data as in the work of Carr (2001), showing that unlike the vertical approach, the horizontal FDI theory is able to fit the global trade evidence in the world.

The derivations made above raise a question on the role of vertically integrated systems in the modern trade. Ramondo et al. (2011) have the goal to find an answer to this question, overviewing the US multinationals' data from the US Bureau of Economic Analysis. The research showed that intrafirm trade is concentrated in a small number of very large multinationals; the trade flows of the parent firm to the affiliate is on average extremely small, and so are the flows from the host to the home country. Such pattern is robust across almost all the industries observed. This leads to the conclusion that most US firms engage mostly in the horizontal FDI in order to serve the local markets.

However, large multinational firms still possess the vertical systems mentioned above. As far as the movement of physical goods between the subsidiaries is approximately zero, the authors' target is to discover for what purposes these chains are utilized. The data show that the flows between affiliates and the original firm in this

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case consist of intangibles, such as knowledge, technologies, management etc. This finding is the most essential idea of the article, whereas it contradicts with the traditional theory of the vertical production, which is based on factor economies; the current thesis more accurately indicates the place of vertical FDI in the modern trade.

As long as the distinction between major types of foreign investment, its role and significance have already been observed, the next step of developing the topic is to discuss the multinational production in general, paying attention to alternative ways of engaging in FDI.

The previous sections discussed two classical approaches to multinationals' strategies. However, the real-world evidence as well as the science show that a large proportion of companies and their trade patterns do not fit in the basic theory. This section makes an overview of works that extend the analysis beyond the particular concepts and concentrates mostly on the factors that shape firms' actions. In this vast framework most of companies' decisions are driven by their wish to reduce costs, so that supply management plays the dominating role in setting up strategies. Thanks to this, multinational production is closer to the vertical than to the horizontal type of FDI, but has different factors that influence manufacturing. The current step of this study underlines the importance of a broad category of multinationals performing EP activities and makes a connection between them and a fundamental theory.

The work of Grossman et al. (2006) attempts to observe the decision-making process of a firm without references to the well-known forms of FDI, reviewing “complex integration strategies” instead. The authors introduce a model with three countries, two of which are large, developed and situated in the North, each containing a single multinational firm, and the third is in the South, assumed to be small and have low costs; the relative size of a southern market is significantly lower than of those in the North. The main goal of the research is to estimate the influence that fixed costs of installing plants and variable transportation costs have on firms' decisions. The firms perform two different activities: they produce intermediate goods and assemble them. They can perform both of them in any location independent of the company's country of origin.

The most important contribution of the article is the development of so-called “complementarities” concept, which estimates how changes in the cost structure of the international trade affect firms' strategies. The authors refer to Yeaple (2003), who establishes the unit-cost type of complementarity, and introduce two additional kinds-source-of components and agglomeration complementarities. The application of these is intuitively simple. The first case is when transportation costs are negligible and, having one of the activities, say, intermediate production, are done at the low-cost South, a firm increases its sales and receives a motivation to shift the assembly to the same place. The other two complementarities refer to existing shipping costs: firstly, as final goods shipping price increases, firms tend to transfer their assembly facilities closer to the markets. Secondly, the rise of intermediate goods transportation costs imply company's aspiration to reduce the distance between the two intermediate and assembly plants in order to reduce expenditure.

The authors conclude their study by admitting the limitation of the model, which is the fact that outsourcing of intermediate goods production falls beyond the scope of the research. They suggest uniting their research and this outsourcing case in a single framework in future works. As one can notice, the complex integration strategies observed by the author mostly consist in using the third country in order to serve a broad range of markets, which is simply the export-platform production. The latter is the main subject of the following section.

Export platforms are a specific way of performing foreign direct investments. One may define an EP as a firm, which invested in foreign affiliates and endowed them with an ability to engage in exporting autonomously. As follows from the previous statement, these companies are observed mostly as a particular case of horizontal FDI, as such activities require each platform to be able to produce final goods. Thus, the firms are demand-oriented, although paying attention to optimization of the manufacturing process, as the strategies are more complex. The literature below demonstrates significant progress that was made in exploring the analyzed phenomenon.

The paper of Tintelnot (2017) is one of the most detailed works dedicated to the topic. The author evaluates the impact that export platforms make on the FDI process, the advantages carried out by firms that engage in EP investment, and the companies' influence on the host countries. Two main subjects are investigated in the article. The first is the relative size and effect that fixed and variable costs have on multinational production in general. This part is aimed at preparing the ground for further discussion on export platforms. The author uses German firm-level data and uncovers that while variable costs are moderately larger in foreign countries, fixed are even more significant, so that multinationals always strive to concentrate the production facilities in few locations. These theses also support the empirical data on German multinationals; the latter show that they perform a huge share of production in the home country.

The second part accurately arrives from the previous section: as far as cost minimization requires multinational firms having affiliates in a small number of places, a fine way to reach the rest of the markets is to engage in EP sales. To describe the decision-making process of such firms, the author develops a general-equilibrium model, which is an extended one of Helpman et al. (2004) with some technical assumptions and modifications to allow export platforms. Firms choose how to serve each market by weighting both fixed and

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variable costs, and then pick out the plant, imports from which are of the lowest cost possible. This procedure significantly reduces the expenditure of these multinationals. However, it also creates so-called “third-country effects”: firms might transfer production facilities in order to reduce costs, taking into account the opportunity to perform EP sales to the original host, which results in substantial losses of the latter. The given argument is demonstrated by the EU-Canadian instance: if the countries manage to sign a contract, which lowers trade expenditure, EU firms might shift production from the US to Canada and serve the American market by EP activities. As in the most part of the literature sources that ignore export platforms the decisions to establish plants in distinct countries are independent, the article brings many innovations in the theoretical field.

Along with a broad practical application, the model itself is a large contribution to science, as less strict assumptions and a wider variety of firms’ possible strategies create greater maneuver for research.

While the previous article provides the arguments for the existence of third-country effects of export platforms, the paper of Conteduca and Kazakova (2018) dives deeper and concentrates on the decomposition of those effects in the presence of demand risk. The authors claim that if a trade liberalization occurs between the home country of an affiliate and the host country, various spillovers for third parties may take place. Those spillovers are positive if the correlation between the liberalized market and the third country market is negative, and vice versa. Such effects might be explained by the risk aversion of the firm: in the presence of the demand risk, firms prefer to reach high diversification of sales destinations. When an affiliate starts to sell more to a liberalized market, it selects other locations to serve based on the hedging opportunities they provide. Therefore, third-country effects can seriously strike economies that are highly correlated with liberalizing markets.

Whereas works in the previous section concentrate primarily on firms’ choice of the way to serve foreign markets, articles dedicated to Export-platform FDI bring more complex questions to the table. The article of Ekholm et al. (2007) discusses the environment, which shapes multinationals’ decisions on whether to set a platform, its potential location and trade patterns to use. The authors establish a classic model close to the one of Grossman et al. (2006) with three countries, two northern and one southern. They consider the model under the two sets of circumstances: the first is symmetric, where the variable transportation costs are similar between any pair of countries, and the fixed fragmentation costs are larger for the foreign production. The second set is characterized by an appearance of a free-trade area between one of the northern countries and the southern one, which reduces variable costs of trade between them to zero; what is more, the fixed expenditure of producing in the South is the same as in the home country.

In the first symmetric case, firms usually tend to serve their market by the home production, and another northern market by a so-called “third-country” export platform situated in the South. However, if the expense advantage of producing in the South is relatively high, provided that fixed costs are high and variable costs are low, firms can switch to serving both markets via Southern EPs. The intuition there is quite simple: multinationals endeavor to avoid fragmentation of production if the entry itself costs a lot. In case of a free trade zone there exists a robust tendency for an insider to perform a horizontal FDI to the overseas market and to sell to the home country through the export platform in the South; An outsider maintains the third-country EP strategy in relation to the insider’s market, serving its own country by the home production. In this scenario, both firms strive to benefit from the agreement and concentrate as much flows in the zone as possible, reducing transportation costs substantially.

The article gives a broad understanding of strategic interaction between multinationals performing EP sales, accompanying theory with relevant empirical evidence. The third-country export platforms concept is crucially important as it is in line with the strategies of North American and European affiliates of US firms. The data described was taken from the Bureau of Economic Analysis for 39 affiliates for the period of 1984-2003. It also shows that the membership of EU or NAFTA itself was not the igniting source for the third-country EP, but the location of a plant was. The main explanation that the authors give are the relations that developed before the entry to these organizations.

This article surveys the main approaches to multinational firm’s strategy and focuses on the significance of export platform FDI in the modern trade. What is more, it provides an idea of how the firms came up to such kind of FDI through revising various studies on multinational production. Firstly, most efficient companies prefer engaging in FDI rather than simply exporting goods. However, the proximity-concentration trade-off concept claims that such a way of international trade requires low scale diseconomies and takes place in case of high transport costs. Secondly, this decision is mostly demand-driven and is closer to so-called horizontal FDI, which means that firms’ affiliates produce similar final goods in order to expand sales geography. Thirdly, companies under various circumstances have a wide range of ways to perform production depending on the cost structure, trade advantages or disadvantages; in other words, their strategies have a high degree of complexity. Finally, those strategies mostly fit under the idea of export platforms, a particular case of FDI.

That specific kind of foreign investment is closer to the horizontal type of FDI rather than to the vertical one and is driven by demand. It provides sufficient advantage in comparison to simple FDI as helps spreading fixed expenditure over exporting to various locations. What is more, there are different types of export platform FDI: a company may use it either to serve itself via a platform in order to minimize production costs, or to perform a third-

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country EP and reach distant markets. The firm that decides on engaging in export platform sales has to consider various patterns of serving each location, assessing each by weighting total fixed and variable costs. An important notion is that export platforms can not only affect the countries necessarily participating in such form of trade, but also cause third-party effects: a firm might easily transfer its production facilities from a particular country in order to reduce production expenditure, keeping in mind that the original host will still be served via export platforms.

However, such third-country effects of export platforms might be influenced by some other factors. One of them is negative spillovers that appear in the case of substantial demand risk. If an affiliate sells to highly correlated markets, trade liberalization in one of them results in increases in trade with this one and strong reduction with others, provided by both worse conditions and a firm’s wish to hedge its sales. Still, there is a lot of space for research of the features of those effects. Further studies will be concentrated on the quantitative analysis of their aforementioned decomposition.

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AUTHORS		
Part I PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF RUSSIAN AND FOREIGN LINGUISTICS		
Arina Galeyeva	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	arinagaleyeva@gmail.com
Irina Novikova	Voronezh State University, Russia	Supernovikova1999vrn@mail.ru
Anastasia Grigoryeva	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	aagrigoreva_4@edu.hse.ru
Natalya Klyacheva	Moscow City University, Russia	natasha.klyacheva@mail.ru
Albina Prikhodina	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	aaprihodina@edu.hse.ru
Mikhail Tseytlin	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	mishazeit@gmail.com
Tatiana Chechel'nitskaya	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	tvchechel'nitskaya@edu.hse.ru
Anastasia Kozlova	Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia	nastyakoz@bk.ru
Elida Emiralieva Uliana Eremeeva	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	elidaemiralieva@gmail.com useremeeva@edu.hse.ru
Evelia Mamedova Maria Yusifova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	eveliyamamedova15@gmail.com marayajonson38@gmail.com
Polina Kuznetsova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	pakuznetsova@edu.hse.ru
Sergei Fedorinov	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	sergeysuperfan@gmail.com
Part II MODERN APPROACHES AND TOPICAL ISSUES OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE		
Ekaterina Nazarova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	nazarovakate14@gmail.com
Liana Ozerova	Moscow Pedagogical State University, Moscow	velardil@gmail.com
Iuliana Levina	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	juliana.lewina@gmail.com
Anastasia Mitrofanova	Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia	asya-mitrofanova@yandex.ru
Yanina Tukmakova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	yaniyari@yandex.ru
Yulia Chigareva, Natalia Onushenko	State university of humanity and social sciences, Russia	jlasrgvn@gmail.com
Anastasia Sidorova, Elena Soldátova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	nsidorova9836@gmail.com soldalena@mail.ru
Ekaterina Pestrikova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	eapestrikova@edu.hse.ru
Anna Fedorova	Moscow State Institute of International Relations (University) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Russian Federation, Russia	a.fedorova@my.mgimo.ru
Part III CURRENT METHODS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING		
Yuliana Galyamova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	yuigalyamova@edu.hse.ru
Anastasia Berendeeva	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	asberendeeva@edu.hse.ru
Arina Karaseva	State Social and Humanitarian University Kolomna, Russia	rishik.karasik@gmail.com
Alina Liapota	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	alinaliapota@gmail.com

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Part IV LANGUAGE AS A MEANS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION		
Valeriya Bogorodskaya	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	lerabogorodskaya@yandex.ru
Polina Bylova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	pdbylova@gmail.com
Evgeniya Vlasova	VGIK, Sergiev Posad	ulitka68@yandex.ru
Elizaveta Kryukova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	liza.kryukova1998@gmail.com
Goar Avagyan	Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia	goar24@yandex.ru
Alexandra Filimonova	Moscow State Linguistic University, Moscow	sasha.filimonova98@yandex.ru
Part V BUSINESS COMMUNICATION: CURRENT AND FUTURE RESEARCH CHALLENGES		
Elina Amineva	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	elina.amineva@bk.ru
Daria Mirzaeva	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	damirzaeva@gmail.com
Part VI DIALOGUE OF CULTURES IN FICTION		
Veronika Agamova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	agamovaveronika@gmail.com
Lucio Giuliodori	Department of Foreign Languages Rudn University, Russia	luciojuliodori@gmail.com
Part VII PROBLEMS OF MODERN TRANSLATION STUDIES		
Evgeniya Antonova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	evg.a@list.ru
Olga Golubeva	Smolensk Military Academy, Russia	2016golubeva@mail.ru
Maria Ezhova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	mmezkhova@edu.hse.ru
Irina Musaeva	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	imusaeva99@gmail.com
Timofey Shilov, Ekaterina Kamarzina	Russian State University of Cinematography named after S. Gerasimov, Sergiev Posad, Russia	tshil19@inbox.ru, kaekvi_star@mail.ru
Part VIII SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC ISSUES OF MODERN WORLD		
Montoya Quiroga Angela Liliana	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	angelamontoyaquiroga@gmail.com
Natalia Mirolyubova	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	nemiroyubova@gmail.com
Yana Kozlovskaya	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	yavkozlovskaya@edu.hse.ru
Alexandr Mikhailov	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	sasha.mikh2000@mail.ru
Artyom Ponomaryov	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	echinkova@hse.ru
Ivan Serov	Higher School of Economics, Moscow	ioserov@edu.hse.ru