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## CONTENTS

## Diversity of Disciplines, Viewpoints and Foci: Contemporary Research in Linguistics and Methodology in English

The editors of Hradec Králové Journal of Anglophone Studies are proud to claim that the tradition of a separate linguistics and methodology issue of every year's volume of the journal has been firmly established as the current issue of our fifth volume, presenting a wide variety of fields and topics, proves.

The present issue opens with the paper by Aleš Klégr, a keynote speaker at the Hradec Králové Anglophone Conference 2018, discussing the word-formation of nonce-words that usually receive only minor attention from lexicologists as they are relatively short-lived and "intended for immediate consumption". Drawing on the findings of two case studies, the author regards the study of nonce-formations as a piece of a mosaic that would enable us to "capture the whole of word-formation output to an unprecedented degree".

The following paper by Andrea Černíková and Jan Suk addresses the urgent topic of critical thinking as a crucial part of contemporary education. Establishing the background of critical thinking as a concept, the authors go on to offer specific methods of teaching critical thinking in ELT. The paper highlights the necessity of critical thinking for the lives of students as future "leaders of society" as even more pressing in the current post-truth society.

Khalid El Asri's paper investigates the conceptualization of emotions in English and Moroccan Arabic, studying the way happiness and anger-related concepts are expressed in both languages. The findings manifest clearly how deeply culture-dependent the conceptualization of emotions is. This corpus-based study is an interesting contribution to research into language as a means of intercultural communication in general.

English –er verb derivations are reviewed by Joseph Emonds who points at the dual nature of these formations, whose mixing results in ungrammatical usage, as richly exemplified. Drawing on the author's previous research into this field, the study offers a deep and detailed insight into the properties of these formations.

Taxation terminology in English and Slovak is the theme of the next paper by Juliana Fecušová. Her study mirrors the fact that although globalization and the usage of English as a Lingua Franca is inevitable, translating specific terminology from Slovak to English encounters hardships resulting from discrepant systems of taxation. However, as the earlier quantitative research and present qualitative research proves, the vast majority of English translation solutions is comprehensible even to non-expert English-speakers.

Inter-cultural communication is what connects the two following papers: whereas the paper by Šárka Hastrdlová focuses on applying politeness and impoliteness theories in the context of Internet chatting, discussing differences between computer-mediated and face-to-face communication, with special reference to opening strategies, Božena Horvátová's paper accentuates background knowledge of the culture in question as well as a well-developed culture strategy that would help "compensate for the linguistic or cultural gaps that may arise in intercultural exchanges." Based on the research data of 70 students who have taken part in Erasmus programmes, the paper explores various culture strategies that would help students improve their intercultural skills such as "the competence of achieving and managing new cultural beliefs and values."

Tomáš Hostýnek was inspired by the mutual relationship of popular culture and the English language. Written from a linguist's perspective, his paper explores the way "musical, cinematographic and videogame landscapes" have influenced the English lexicon as recorded in OED. Special attention is paid to videogames as their language is considered to be "one of today`s most fruitful fields for language analysis".

A research project focusing on the effective acquisition of idiomatic expressions related to Business English has been carried out at the University of Economics in Bratislava. In her paper, Zuzana Hrdličková publishes results of testing the project participants' mental lexicon, comparing its capacity before and after studying selected idioms, drawing on a solid linguistic background of concepts like lexicon, mental lexicon and language acquisition.

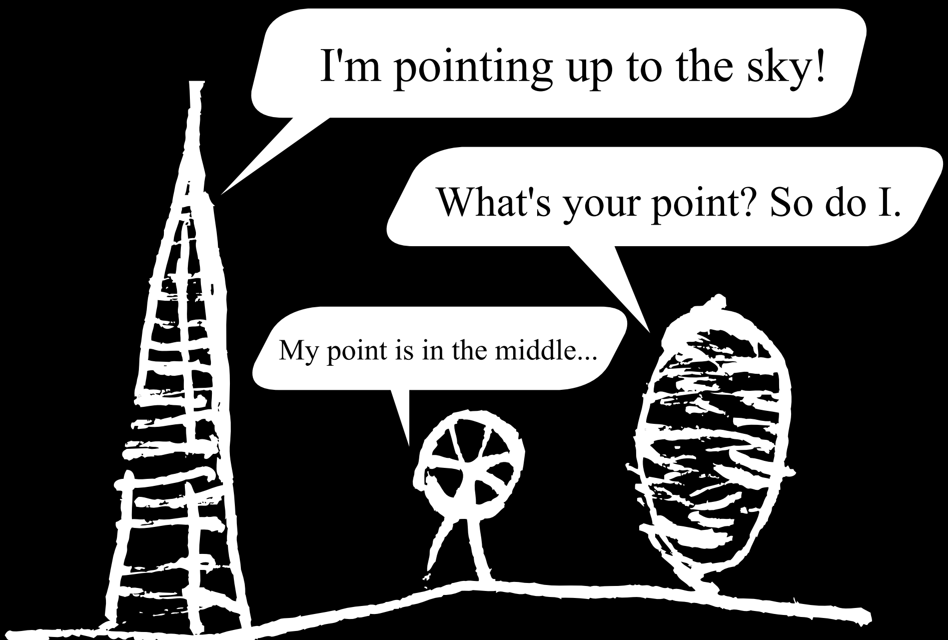
Lexicogrammatical patterns are analysed by Petra Peldová. Her paper examines the frequency of graded adjectival patterns and their function in newspaper discourse. She offers a detailed analysis of the adjectives exploited, exploring the differences within the corpus of three broadsheets and three tabloids. Her research draws on and exemplifies the theoretical theme of evaluation.

Libor Práger and Václav Řeřicha attempt to view the widening gap of misunderstanding between teachers and students in the contemporary schooling environment in the Czech Republic through the prism of a 1967 essay on the future of education. The first part of the paper interprets an international survey in which nearly 40,000 students and experienced teachers from the Czech Republic participated, the closing part examines the effect of the social media environment on ways of learning, stating that traditional literacy-based education can no longer satisfy the needs of contemporary social media-based students.

The volume closes with the topic of creativity and critical thinking addressed by Eva Reid and Elena Kováčiková from the Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra. Based on the revised Bloom's taxonomy of thinking processes, their paper contributes to the general search for practices that can help develop students' critical thinking and encourage and strengthen their creativity. A cookery-book full of teaching techniques and tips, the paper presents the foci, procedures, outcomes and advantages of concrete activities, followed by some tips for adapting the activities to different language proficiency levels.

As the review of papers proves, much like the last year's issue, the current one presents diverse topics and approaches under the umbrella term of Linguistics and Methodology of English. We would like to express our thanks to our contributors for their inspiring research, innovative strategies and the energy they were willing to share. Let us wish you a good read through the papers of our present issue.

*Helena Polehlová*




Kateřina Štěpánová

**Aleš Klégr**

# Self-presentation Function of Word-Formation

Abstract: *The majority view that new words come into existence to enrich the lexicon is at odds with evidence that many words created on a daily basis are intended mainly, if not exclusively, for immediate consumption. The fact that this type of word-formation is given little attention follows from the focus on productive morphological patterns at the expense of marginal creative processes. The paper discusses one-off nonce words with the presumed self-presentation function against the background of the prevalent approach to word-formation and its functions, referring to two case studies, and offers a list of lexical processes prone to nonce-formation.*

## Introduction

The production of new words is an integral part of language use. But the reasons why new words are produced, i.e. the function(s) of word-formation (WF in the following), appear to be more complex than is often assumed. The idea of self-presentation as one of the functions of word-formation relates to the underresearched area of nonce-formations which in turn relates to the broader issue of the conceptualization of word-formation and its scope. Before presenting the concept of self-presentation, it may be useful to provide a brief background, starting with an outline of two prevalent approaches to describing processes of word production and relevant terminology, followed by an overview of the functions of word-formation and a summary of two case studies of nonce-formations illustrating and supporting the idea of self-presentation function. The discussion of the self-presentation function is concluded by a provisional list of lexical processes that, in varying degrees, produce nonce-formations which seem to perform this function.

## Different approaches to word-formation

Word-formation (construction of new lexemes) is related to both lexis (it ensures the expansion of the lexicon, lexical enrichment) and morphology (a substantial number of new lexemes are formed using morphological patterns). Aronoff and Anshen (1998: 237) argue that although morphology and the lexicon are interdependent, they constitute two different sources of words and a theory of word-formation should reflect this.

As a matter of fact this dual relationship has resulted in two different views of word-formation. In the first, it is seen as part of morphology, in the other it is a study in its own right which on the Continent is part of lexicology. Accordingly we may distinguish between two perspectives on word-formation: morphological and lexicological. The two perspectives are present even in the Czech tradition. Miloš Dokulil (1972) in his review of Šmilauer's (1971) Novočeské tvoření slov says that the most interesting difference between his and Šmilauer's approach to word-formation is that Šmilauer goes beyond the word-formation proper (i.e. derivation and compounding).

In English word-formation the morphological perspective is the prevailing approach. In addition, it is not the same as the Czech one due to theoretical differences. The Czech position is structuralist in the vein of classical Prague School structuralism. By contrast the origins of contemporary Anglophone morphology are generative and the prominent approach among the variety of others (such as Distributed Morphology) is lexicalist morphology which derives from Lexicalism. Upon the arrival of transformational-generative grammar in the mid-1950s, morphology was ignored for close to twenty years and seen as part of syntax and phonology. Lexicalism which appeared only in the early 1970s spurred by Chomsky`s and Halle`s ideas was a return to the traditional modularization of the grammar in which morphology and syntax are held to be distinct. According to Lexicalism, morphology produces words by a set of Lexical Rules, independent of and different from the syntactic rules of the grammar, and is integrated in the lexicon, hence the term Lexicalism. The Lexical Rules are assumed to be operational in a presyntactic component, the Lexicon. Lexicalist morphology, unlike Prague School structuralism, typically uses a great deal of formal apparatus.

In lexicalist terms, word-formation, or derivational morphology, is a component part of morphology together with inflectional morphology. The two are closely interrelated (the distinction between them is one of the key issues in this approach). Thus Bauer, Lieber and Plag`s (2013) recent monograph Oxford Reference Guide to English Morphology is basically a description of English word-formation with inflection thrown in for good measure, while in the Czech morphological approach, word-formation (slovotvorba) and morphology (funkční tvarosloví), though acknowledged to be related, are kept well apart and treated separately. This is the case with Mluvnice češtiny I, II (1986) and Příruční mluvnice češtiny (1995).

**The scope of word-formation**

The adoption of either the morphological or the lexicological perspective on WF has important implications for the definition of its scope. Since English morphology is predominantly concatenative (i.e., it orders morphemes continuously, one after another), English derivational morphology also centres primarily on concatenative patterns, derivation and compounding, as the major word-formation processes, productive and rule-governed. On the other hand, non-concatenative (or discontinuous) morphology is less common in English and so non-concatenative WF patterns, such as truncation or reduction processes (sometimes called prosodic morphology, cf. Lappe 2007, Bauer et al. 2013), but also conversion, back-formation, reduplication, and others, are less easy to fit in with the mainly concatenative lexicalist morphology concept of English WF, and therefore mostly dismissed.

Non-concatenative WF processes are likewise regarded as less rule-governed than concatenative, less predictable and verging on non-rule-governed unpredictable creation such as idiosyncratic wordplay. Word-formation is thus seen in terms of the productive-creativity cline and, more attention is focused on concatenative morphology rather than non-concatenative morphology, cf. the explicit definition of word-formation as „a rule-based process for producing new words" (ten Hacken and Thomas, 2013, 1). The creative end of the spectrum is largely ignored. Another aspect of concatenative derivational morphology is that productivity is usually understood as closely linked to lexicalization, i.e. as dealing with listed items. So much for the morphological view of WF.

The lexicological concept of word-formation, by contrast, is equally interested in all resources available to a language for producing new naming units. A case in point is Vilém Mathesius's (1961: 38-39;

1976: 36-37) outline of word-formation as part of his functional onomatology. In addition to derivation and compounding, his list of naming devices strives to be all-encompassing:

In forming new naming units the following means are employed:

- 1. A change in the meaning of a word without any change in its form: Czech *branka* (*goal*. originally a *gate*) in football, *letka* (*squadron*, originally *a bird's wing*) in aviation; English *crawl* in swimming, *squadron* in aviation.
- 2. Alternation (in our languages, this device appears to be unproductive).
- 3. Derivation: Czech *letec* (*airman* from *let* ,flight'), similarly *letiště* (airport), *letoun* (aircraft); English *fighter*, *bomber*.
- 4. Composition: some examples are found even in Czech, though they are rare (*Československo* (Czechoslovakia)); in English, composition occurs mainly in long words (*ferro-concrete*).
- 5. A fixed combination of independent words: in Czech *Národni banka československá* (The National Bank of Czechoslovakia), *ministerstvo národní obrany* (the Ministry of National Defence); in English *The British Commonwealth of Nations, The Westminster Statute*.
- 6. Processes that are somehow related to derivation or composition: shortening and back-formations, discussed above. Of special interest are the so-called blendings, i. e. words formed by fusing the elements of two different words, in order to indicate the blending of their meaning, e. g. Czech *Čechomedáni* (Czechs + Mohammedans ,Czech people proceeding in a slow impractical way') or the colloquial expression *šloupnout* (step on something) (stoupnout (step) + šlápnout (tread)). Expressions of this kind are common in English: brunch – something between breakfast and lunch. All the six types of word formation described so far are based on existing naming units. In this respect the next three types are different.
- 7. The so-called Urbildung, i. e. a process by which an entirely new naming is formed. According to some scholars this type of word formation does not exist at all: a commonly adduced example of such an entirely new naming unit is *kodak*.
- 8. Borrowing from some other language: Czech *hydroplán, traktor, fotbal*; the source of the borrowing may also be a regional dialect (Czech *čakan, valaška* (kinds of sticks that may be used as weapons)).
- 9. The so-called calques linguistiques. They are especially common in Czech. Calques translate the foreign expression literally part by part: těžký průmysl was formed according to schwere Industrie, (cf. heavy industry in English), velmoc according to Grossmacht (great power in English). In Czech some calques have existed for centuries, cf. milosrdenstvi = misericordia, svědomi = conscientia.

What is remarkable about the list is Mathesius's inclusion of fixed combinations of independent words among the means of forming new naming units. Mathesius thus effectively links word-formation and phraseology.

Another example of a lexicological conception of WF is provided by Jean Tournier's well-known lexicogenic matrices. Tournier objected, among other things, to the exclusion of semantic neologisms, onomatopoia and external matrices (borrowing) from word-formation and insisted that an adequate description has to include all lexical processes. He distinguished three large categories, or macromechanisms, in which the two aspects (form-meaning) of the linguistic sign are variously involved.

| LEXICOGENIC MATRICES OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| INTERNAL MATRICES | MORPHO-SEMANTIC NEOLOGY | CONSTRUCTION | AFFIXATION | 1. PREFIXATION | : *antinuclear, body* > *embody* > *disembody* |
| | | | | 2. SUFFIXATION | : *kitchenette; grace* > *graceful* > *gracefulness* |
| | | | | 3. BACKDERIVATION | : *(to) burgle* < *burglar; (to) laze* < *lazy*<br>: *flammable* < *inflammable* |
| | | | COMPOSITION | 4. JUXTAPOSITION | : *sheepdog, armchair, statesman, master's degree, point of view, honeymoon trip, hand-made, give up* |
| | | | | 5. AMALGAMATION | : *smoke + fog* > *smog, transfer resistor* > *transistor*<br>*fantastic + fabulous* > *fantabulous* |
| | | PHONETIC IMITATION | | 6. ONOMATOPOIA | : *quack, splash, bang, slush buzz, zizz* |
| | SEMANTIC NEOLOGY | CHANGE OF FUNCTION | | 7. CONVERSION | : a) Total: *funnel*, N > *funnel*, V<br>b) Partial: *French*, A > *the French*, N |
| | | CHANGE OF SENSE | | 8. METAPHOR | : *(she is) a cat, a peach*<br>*(he is) a bear, an iceberg* |
| | | | | 9. METONYMY | : *the press, an iron, the Crown, paperback* |
| | MORPHOLOGICAL NEOLOGY | REDUCTION OF FORM | | 10. TRUNCATION | : a) Foreclipping: omnibus > bus, *telephone* > *phone*<br>b) Backclipping: *veterinary surgeon*>*vet, public house* > *pub* |
| | | | | 11. ABBREVIATION | : *VIP (very important person),*<br>*laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation)* |
| **EXTERNAL MATRICES** | | | | 12. BORROWING | : *tutu* (fr.), *blitz* (all.), *fiasco* (ital.), *hacienda* (esp.), *bungalow* (hindi), *coyote* (aztèque), *bonsai* (japonais) |

Table 1  Tournier`s lexicogenic matrices

The refusal or reluctance of lexicalist morphology to include non-morphological (non-rule-governed) processes in word-formation has led in Elsevier Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics (2006) to the introduction of two separate entries, one for „Word Formation" and the other for „Nonmorphological Word Formation". The latter covers shortening (clipping, acronyms, etc.) and word manufacture. However, it does not mention semantic shift, borrowing, or multiple unit formation.

**Relevant terminology**

Since the paper is basically about nonce-formations, it is useful to say that they are defined as new words created ad-hoc to serve some immediate need and characterized by context dependence and short life. In this respect, they differ from neologisms, which „are not simply ‚new words`", but may be regarded as words „which have lost their status as nonce-formations and are in the process of becoming or already have become part of the norm of the language ... but are still considered new by most members of the  speech community" (Schmid, 2008: 1).

Bauer, Lieber and Plag (2013: 30) observe that „Lexicographers like to distinguish between nonce words (new words which are used but do not become institutionalized or widely established in community use) and neologisms which eventually become part of the community`s norm. From a morphological point of view it is not clear that the two processes are distinct. Both deal with the creation of a new word using the available resources of the language of the community; the difference is merely a matter of whether speakers pick up the new word, something which is a sociological phenomenon as much as a linguistic one."

The journey from neologisms to established words, that is words that are listed in the lexicon, is called institutionalization. To quote Hohenhaus (2005: 359), it „refers to the stage in the life of a word at (or from) the transitional point between the status of ex-nonce-formation-turned-neologism (...) and that of generally available vocabulary item, i.e. a formation that is listed but not (necessarily) lexicalized" in the permanent lexicon. Once the meaning of a neologism is established in the speech community, it is said to be institutionalised. The next stage is lexicalization.

Lexicalization consists in formal and semantic changes which words undergo over time. The process of formal lexicalization results in the word becoming less transparent and fused into an unanalysable form. Becoming lexicalized is defined as acquiring a form that would not be produced by currently productive rules. The semantic aspect of lexicalization is idiomatization, acquiring idiomatic meaning.

There are two more useful dichotomous terms ‚item-familiar' vs. ‚type-familiar'. A word is item-familiar to speakers if they know this word, it is already part of their lexicon (institutionalised), whereas a type-familiar word is a word the speaker does not know but he knows other words constructed according to the same pattern.

The term lexicalizability employed by Hohenhaus (2005: 365) describes the potential of a word to become listed, i.e. integrated into the permanent vocabulary of a speech community. He points out that not all new formations (and especially nonce-formations) are potentially lexicalizable.

**Functions of word-formation**

In the literature we may find several functions of WF, i.e., reasons for which new words are coined. In the first place it is the naming function. The naming or labelling of new concepts is explicitly or implicitly acknowledged to be the most fundamental of functions. Some authors distinguish several aspects of it, such as classification, categorization, or hypostatization. Hypostatization (we might call it ‚fictitious naming') means that the creation of a name suggests that there is, or must be, a single ‚thing' or clearly delimited concept in the real world corresponding to the word (even if there isn't). Interestingly, Gabriele Stein (2000: 286) questions whether naming should be singled out as a particular word-formation function at all inasmuch as all common words fill a naming gap. In other words, it is a default component of all other functions which a lexical item may have.

The next function often mentioned is textual, since a morphologically complex word may provide anaphoric, cohesive linkage between segments of text as in Some people call me an idealist. Well that is the way I know I am an American. America is the only idealistic nation in the world. In the sentences Father drove the car and The police questioned him as the driver, the suffix –er replaces father – this is described as pronominalization. Pronominalization is also a cohesive device though obviously not all instances of cohesion are cases of pronominalization.

Another function which many authors refer to is that of condensation through nominalization. In the example I know an alleged discoverer of time-travel, the underlined words are action nominalizations. All these functions are mostly illustrated with established lexicalized words.

Syntactic recategorization is the next widely acknowledged word-formation function closely related to the condensation of information. A switch from one word-class to another by derivation may condense longer phrases and even whole clauses: puzzle changes to puzzler, discover to discoverer, etc.

Ingo Plag (2002: 59-60) adds one more function, which is not mentioned very often, and although he refers to it very briefly it is quite important to the subject at hand. Unlike other authors who usually consider functions of established complex words, Plag asks specifically about the „usefulness of a newly coined word for the speakers of the language. ... what are new words good for anyway? Why would speakers want to make up new words in the first place?" He concludes that „(b)asically, we can distinguish three major functions of word-formation". The first two have already been mentioned: the naming function and syntactic recategroization. He calls the former a labelling or referential function, a new word is created in order to give a name to a new concept or thing. However, we may notice that with some new words, although they are labelling a concept, such as the verbs ungive, unthrow, and undraw which are clearly type-familiar nonce-formations, the likelihood of their becoming lexicalized is very small. Finally, using the examples Come here, sweetie, let me kiss you and Did you bring your wonderful doggie, my darling? Plag argues that „speakers coin words to express an attitude (in this case fondness of the person or animal referred to by the derivative)". I will return to the expression-of-attitude notion later on. He concludes by observing that „No matter which function a particular derivative serves in a particular situation, intended usefulness is a necessary prerequisite for the emergence of productively formed derivatives."

While many authors are quite happy with the naming function, Peter Hohenhaus, who specializes in nonce-formations, claims that there are nonce-formations which are not meant to be „kept" as parts of longer-term vocabulary, which perform other functions than naming. The category of nonce-formations which was effectively excluded, for instance, by Marchand (1969) in his famous monograph on word-formation seems to have been brought to notice by Pamela Downing (1977), whose paper is acknowledged by Hohenhaus as one of his sources of inspiration. In his article (2007) How to do (even more) things with nonce words (other than naming), Hohenahus shows that the functional side of WF is significantly more complex than simple ‚naming` or ‚syntactic recategorization`. He lists a range of textual and pragmatic context-dependent uses which ad-hoc nonce-formations and their specific types are put to. These formations are not and sometimes cannot be listed because of their dependence on the context of occurrence.

The uses include textual deixis exemplified by Downing`s „deictic compounds" such as apple-juice seat (i.e. seat identifiable by a nearby glass of apple-juice in the given context) and by Hohenhaus`s „dummy compounds" with (shell) words like thing, affair, business, the computer stuff, or the tax fellow. Another type of deixis is realized by what he calls „episodic compounds" (like ‚mice bible` used by the family members for ‚the bible they once found in a barn and which had teeth marks from mice").

He then goes on to discuss the „foregrounding or more specifically attention-seeking" function of WF, the use of ad-hoc formations and other unusual complex lexemes in headlines as attention--seeking devices to create cataphoric expectations for which „all sorts of wordplay and deliberate breaking/bending of rules are employed". These devices are closer to the creativity end of the productivity-creativity scale. By metacommunicative function he means that nonce-formations serve as comments on linguistic material or speech acts in the given context, and he singles out several such devices: contrastive reduplicatives such as friend-friend (‚a true friend`), job-job (‚not just any`, but

‚a proper, 9-to-5 job'); specifying compounds – He's daft, but not stupid-daft; direct analogical correction – instead of health inspector > rat inspector; delocutive conversion in the typical imperative clause frame (Don't madam/sir/brother me!) and finally emoting nonce-formations, functioning in social media as indicators of emotions, e.g. reduplicatives („Molly pokepoke fur inna eye").

In another article, Anti-naming through non-word-formation (2015), Hohenhaus goes even further and claims that some nonce words not only do not name, they actually do the opposite. Taking an example from the British sitcom Fawlty Towers, which goes „That's a laugh, easier to find a packet of sliced hippopotamus in suitcase sauce than a walnut in this bloody kitchen", he points out that suitcase sauce is not only non-referential and semantically deviant, it is also deliberately ‚naming' something that is non-existent or even conceptually impossible. Instead of his original term ‚negative hypostatization' he calls it ‚anti-naming'. He finds more examples in a TV quiz ‚Who Wants to be a Millionaire' in which answers to multiple-choice questions contain deliberately misleading coinages.

**Two relevant case studies**

What is called a self-presentation function in this paper is well documented by two case studies. The first one, Klégr (2018), deals with the English transpositional verb-forming pattern en-ADJ-en known in Modern English from three verbs, enlighten, embolden, and enliven. What makes this pattern interesting is the fact that it is often quoted in the literature as a rare example of an English circumfix because the two affixes are applied simultaneously, rather than continuously, and surround the base from both sides, which makes it a non-concatenative pattern (synaffixation).

I call this pattern a circumfix, although opinions whether it is or not a circumfix differ. However, contemporary English dictionaries list only the three verbs. The contrast between the attention paid to it in the literature and the negligible number of actual words formed by this pattern that dictionaries list was intriguing, so I started looking for other examples. When I checked three corpora, the BNC, Araneum Anglicum Maius and the NOW (News of the World) corpus, I found only 12 more en-ADJ-en verbs, although the total size of these corpora ran to more than 4.4 billion words.

As a next step, a different method was adopted. Using the adjectives on which the verbs enlighten, embolden, and enliven are based as a model, I selected 126 monosyllabic seed adjectives on a frequency and random basis (e.g. bad, coarse, drunk, fierce, fresh, glad, gruff, huge, low, mild, poor, quick, rude, safe, tall, vague, weird, young) and used them to form fictitious verb forms on the en-ADJ-en pattern. When these fictitious verb forms were looked for on the Web, quite surprisingly 108 (86 per cent) out of the 126 potential verbs, were found to have been used at one time or another. Together with the 12 verbs found in the corpora, a total of 120 verbal lexemes other than the original three verbs listed in dictionaries were discovered which suggests that this pattern, however rare, is far from defunct.

The contrast between this large number of attested verbs and their notable absence in standard dictionaries leads to the conclusion that at least some of the native speakers actively employ this pattern. These verbs are obviously ad hoc contextual nonce-formations and in keeping with Hohenhaus's theory, they do not become lexicalized, they are not meant for listing in the permanent lexicon, and therefore do not enter dictionaries. However, the speakers produce them purposely for pragmatic and stylistic reasons, either to achieve elevated style or, conversely, to express mock formality, irony, ridicule, etc. as the following examples make clear: I`m enkindening in my decline / Don`t be embarened by shabby, shalty car / are you enblindened by your fury / I am Enwettened by Their Presence / stop sitting so enwrongened / enhighened mental focus.

The results of the circumfix investigation correspond to Gabriele Stein`s (2000) findings about the informal compound pattern Noun-cum-Noun: grammarian-cum-lexicographer, pueblo-cum-Hollywood--shtetl, etc. Apparently, these compounds were coined because, in a specific situation of communication, they were adequate to what the speakers wanted to say. They differ from standard compounds like fighter-bomber, deaf-mute (coordinative, appositional, copulative) in that standard coordinative compounds refer to a well attested recurrent entities existing in the world while cum compounds describe only temporary ad hoc linkages between objects. She relates this to their stylistic effects and exploitation and describes them as deliberate, often humorous or slightly ironic, creations or tours de force by their coiners.

**Self-presentation function of word-formation**

Self-presentation is a term borrowed from social psychology where the concept goes as far back as the early 1980s. Baumeister and Hutton (1987: 71) define self-presentation as „behaviour that attempts to convey some information about oneself or some image of oneself to other people". It denotes a class of motivations in human behaviour. Two types of self-presentational motivations are distinguished. One (pleasing the audience) is to match one`s self-presentation to the audience`s expectations and preferences. The other (self-construction) is to match one`s self-presentation to one`s own ideal self.

We can self-present ourselves in various ways: the way we dress, through our hair-style, make-up, piercing, tattoo, etc., and of course through the way we speak. What nonce-formations such as to engrossen, or gambler-cum-casino owner, or friend-friend and many others have in common is that speakers stylize the utterance and present themselves through them in a particular way. I apply the term self-presentation to a range of pragmatic and stylistic uses. Speakers coin them to show their positive or negative feelings, attitudes, judgements, amusement, irony, sarcasm, resentment, impatience, etc. The words are coined to fit in with or achieve particular stylistic goals and effects. In contrast to words which label nameworthy categories (a term introduced by Pamela Downing 1977), i.e. categories of entities for which a society needs a name, self-presenting nonce-formations are often variants or modifications of names which already exist and in this sense they are strictly speaking unnecessary.

These occasion-specific unnecessary names will, in an overwhelming majority of cases, disappear with the text and be forgotten (the only people who will cherish and quote them long afterwards are, not surprisingly, linguists). As often as not these formations will not be item-familiar (people do not know this particular word), but they will be type-familiar, i.e., people will have seen other words constructed by means of the same pattern and will have no problem understanding them.

Hohenhaus`s theory of non-lexicalizability predicts for certain nonce word-formations that they cannot enter the lexicon. I would rephrase this from a functional point of view. Certain word-formation processes are predisposed for certain pragmatic functions such as self-presentation. Due to the nature of these functions certain nonce-formations tend not to be lexicalized, in fact in Hohenhaus` opinion, they are non-lexicalizable. This explains why the circumfix en-ADJ-en or the cum-compound pattern produce relatively many words which, however, will never appear in dictionaries.

**Candidate processes for self-presentation and non-lexicalizability**

The two case studies, Plag`s examples of attitude expressing function, those given by Hohenhaus and many others, indicate that the most likely processes to produce non-lexicalizing nonce-formations, whether with self-presentation function or not, can be found among non-concatenative word-formation processes. However, the candidate processes include not only truncation (clipping and blending), but also conversion, back-formation, reduplication, circumfixation, infixation and others, not to mention various instances of base modification and wordplay. Even concatenative morphology (and not just some of its special subtypes) may occasionally produce nonce words. Here are examples of some of the processes and the respective nonce words:

clipping: posish (position), illegit (illegitimate), univ (university), discip (disciplinary), collabo (collaborator) (However, some clippings have become so frequent and widespread that they have been institutionalized and entered in dictionaries: exec (executive), prelim(s) (preliminary), celeb (celebirity), info (information).)

suffixed clipping (‚embellished` clipping, hypocoristics): octy (octopus), subby (sub lieutenant), reso (residential), dexo (dexamphetamine), combo (combination), congratters (congratulations)

blending: The five laws of Maybotics, rendered vaguely for Brexit (The Guardian), dogopus (dog-octopus), cakemaggedon (cake-armaggedon), precariat (precarious-proletariat), frenemy (friend-enemy), staycation (stay home-vacation), astrocity (astronaut-atrocity), breastivist (breast-activist) (Again, some blendings may enjoy a period of vogue or even become listed, such as smog.)

circumfixation: I am *enfullened* with jealiosity; endeaden, enFrenchen, engooden, enhighen, embiggen, ensmallen, enbluen; beflowered, bestrapped, betoweled, bekilted, bescarfed

expletive insertion (infixation): abso-bloody-lutely, imfuckingplausible, *unfuckingreasonable, nonfuckingconformist, posifuckingtively. catefuckingorically*

reduplication: I mean not just emotional pain, but pain-pain. / This one is upset that his opponent, rated over 150 points higher than he, refused his draw offer in a „*dead-dead* draw" / In the FUNimation dub, it is called the *Hot-Hot Fruit*.

reduplication with prefixal modification: *theory shmeory, confirmation shmonfirmation, introspector shmintrospector, renaissance shmenaissance, corroboration shmorroboration* (Taleb, The Black Swan)

cum-compounds: *reading-cum-book-signing, takeover bidder-cum-asset-stripper, pueblo-cum-Hollywood-shtetl*

phrasal (quotational) compounds: Donald ‚I don`t take vacations` Trump takes vacation (newspaper title); First of all, that I-only-did-it-because-you-left-and-I-missed-you-and-wanted-to-feel-special-even-if-for-a-moment line is a crock of shit. Christ, I hope you didn`t fall for that. (The Prague Pill newspaper); Let`s just try on the not-believing-in-God glasses for a moment, just for a second. (Dawkins, God Delusion); „Dark Energy" is just the name we have given to whatever the we-don`t-know-what is causing this. (newspaper title) conversion: Don't ‚*dearie*' me! Don't ‚*my boy*' me! / I like to verb words. Verbing weirds language. (comic strip)

back-formation: flappable from unflappable, free-associate from free association, mottle from motley, spectate from spectator, tase from Taser

With most of these examples it is not difficult to see why they will not reach wide circulation and become part of the lexicon. The fact that they are mostly context-bound appears to go hand in hand with their being pragmatically and stylistically marked, which incidentally allows even a clipped variant of the same word (temp-temperature) to be viewed as a separate lexeme.

**Conclusions**

It is generally assumed that the function of word-formation is to name, to label new concepts, and by the same token it is implicitly assumed that the purpose of word-formation is to expand the vocabulary of a given language, to add new items to its word stock. This paper is meant as a reminder that there are processes which may produce a large number of new words, contextual ad hoc nonce-formations, which however, are ephemeral, type-familiar and never become part of the lexicon. Rather than enrich the lexicon, their purpose is simply and clearly to enrich the utterance at hand. They fulfil textual, stylistic and pragmatic functions such as the one called self-presentation here. In other words, there seem to be lexical processes that typically produce lexicalizable neologisms, and there are processes that specialize in non-lexicalizable nonce words.

We may only speculate about the ratio of lexicalizable to non-lexicalizable items among the new words coming into existence every minute, but we should not be surprised if the number of nonce-formations were much higher than assumed and thus making the role of nonce-formations in language greater than assumed. Accordingly, it is essential that word-formation be not only the study of neologisms and lexicalized words, but also that of non-lexicalizable nonce-formations. Similarly, the concept of productivity should not be confined only to rule-governed patterns producing numerous neologisms. By using big data it could be extended even to processes which are available but yield infrequent non--lexicalizable formations, as big data makes it possible to capture the whole of word-formation output to an unprecedented degree.

The distinction between lexicalizable neologisms and non-lexicalizable nonce-formations (and the cases in between them) has potentially important theoretical and practical implications for the approach to and the study of word-formation. Lexicalization of neologisms is a matter of langue, nonce-formation is related to parole. The recognition that word-formation may play an active role in text production makes nonce-formation relevant to such areas as discourse analysis and may call for a different type of methodology and data collection.

Finally, although the splitting of lexeme-formation processes between morphology and lexicology may be theoretically justified and convenient, from the speakers' perspective both morphological and non-morphological processes variously placed on the productivity-creativity continuum serve equally important needs, and hence it would make sense to treat them under one heading. A similar idea, for that matter, is behind Miller's (2014) use of the term lexicogenesis which in turn he borrowed from Tournier (1988).

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**Andrea Černíková, Jan Suk**

# Prolegomena & Rationale for Critical Thinking Implementation

Abstract: *The possibilities of developing critical thinking (CT) skills during English language lessons are part of a larger research endeavor aiming to bring CT enhanced instruction closer to EFL teachers in the Czech Republic and to reintroduce methodology that is both easy to use and effective. The authors recognize that the current discourse on the much needed reform of the Czech educational system has a tough time agreeing on its exact talking points and establishing priorities; yet, the development of critical thinking skills in students across the public education system certainly seems to be one of the less controversial. In the current era of fast and often deceptive news, the ability to make sense of the world and work through the informational overload to reach independent conclusions becomes especially relevant to the education of the future leaders of society. This paper presents a short re--introduction to the topic as well as maps the easiest current entrypoints for educators aiming to boost their reach.*

## Genesis

The idea of critical thinking being an essential pre-requisite to becoming an educated individual dates to the Socratic era of Greek philosophy. Socratic questioning even survives to this day as one of the methods that can be used to bring thinking processes to the forefront. While Critical thinking is by no means a new idea, one of the possible originating trajectories falls back to the 1980s USA and the works of John Dewey, who campaigned for teachers to stop focusing solely on deepening subject specific knowledge, but also on improving their students' interpersonal and metacognitive skills. Having elaborated upon Dewey, the topic was picked up by scholars like Robert Ennis, Richard Paul, Linda Elder, Daniel T. Willingham, Keith J. Holyoak, Richard E. Nisbett, and numerous others. Among notable experts studying CT in the Czech Republic are Helena Grecmanová or Jarmila Novotná. Yet, even after more than 30 years the need for a multi-faceted approach to the issue of implementation is still very much alive, and perhaps more topical than ever. OECD's most recent Survey of Adult Skills (published a part of PIAAC) notes that individuals who showed lower levels of proficiency in information-processing skills (literacy, problem solving, etc.) were more likely to have reported poor health, than those with higher test scores. Interestingly, they were also believed to have little impact on the political processes, were less likely participate in associative or volunteer activities, and reported less trust in others than those, with higher proficiency (18).

The path to a successful implementation of critical thinking enhanced instruction and the actual and intentional development of critical thinkers during a regular lesson/seminar is a highly complex issue. Research teams, appointed by governments, institutions and employers alike try to raise the awareness of the lack of attention pointed towards building the what is now referred to as "21st century skills". A comprehensive review of different frameworks and approaches is provided by, for example, Defining Twenty-First Century Skills (Binkley et al., 2012). For a regular teacher interested in bringing these latest findings to a local school environment, the task of infusing a lesson with CT may understandably seem daunting, if not downright impossible. Academics who challenge teachers to "actually start teaching thinking" and adding that "yesterday was already too late" often then leave teachers to navigate the actual implementation, application and evaluation on their own. All those individuals, undertaking the Herculean feat to make students into independent thinkers, face numerous challenges right from the outset - there is a lack of appropriate materials, especially at the secondary level, teachers from non-English speaking countries being severely limited in their access to current research, manuals and materials and even in some cases dealing with discouragement and distrust from colleagues. The haziness of the field and the abundance of CT definitions, approaches, methods and theories then discourages the majority of teachers.

**Is Critical Thinking Good Thinking?**

When taken in its broadest form critical thinking is a way of thinking and therefore it is not subject--specific: it is essentially a toolkit helping individuals to lead more complex lives by teaching them how to think things through. To think critically is to make sure that one has good reasons for thinking one way or another. One of the foremost examples in contemporary philosophical discourse is the Canadian Brian Massumi who identifies the function of thinking by recalling the image of thought as advocated by Gilles Deleuze; thinking is a concept, which is not that of a brick to build from, but a "tool box." an open system which enables the application of thinking in various ways in the plethora of concepts. In this respect, critical thinking, like the anything-goesness of Deleuzian thought, becomes an apparatus for changes achieved via one's thinking. (Deleuze and Guattari, 2006)

However, contrary to the authors' wishes, critical thinking does not occur naturally in humans. People are creatures of habit rather than spontaneity, and so most of our actions are based on a combination of various habits, impulses and cognitive biases. However, to practice critical thinking is not to fight human nature but rather fully explore the potential of the human mind for improvement and reign in some of its more destructive impulses. The aim is to avoid false illusions, learn to recognise one's own and others' biases and be able to reason and argue through most life situations.

Critical thinking is a topic so abundant in academic journals yet also strangely devoid of any particular form and content, so it is often left on the shoulders of teachers to define and conceptualize their way through as best as they can. To establish at least a vast, yet a common ground we present a few select definitions of critical thinking, picked from among hundreds suitable for the sake of our argument.

When considering critical thinking, probably the most referenced are the works of Paul and Elder, according to whom CT is "The art of analyzing and evaluating thinking with a view to improving it" (4). A similarly worded observation comes from Ennis and states that "Critical thinking is reasonable and reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do" (10.) To these thoughts, Paul and Elder add a highly important maxim that any successful critical thinker is able to independently self-direct, self-assess, self-monitor and self-improve. What is perhaps missing in the definition is provided by Willingham, who points out that a critical thinker is yes, very logical, but also compassionate, being able to see "...both sides of an issue, being open to new evidence that disconfirms young ideas ..." (21). After reading such varied responses to the central question, anyone would surely feel like asking themselves:

*Who, then, is this being? This critical thinker? Is it even possible to become one?*

For our purposes, we shall consider a critical thinker to be a person who is familiar with the wide variety of critical thinking skills available to them and uses them appropriately or in more words "Critical thinkers are clear as to the purpose at hand and the question at issue. They question information, conclusions and point of view. They strive to be clear, accurate, precise, and relevant. They seek to think beneath the surface, to be logical and fair. They apply these skills to their reading and writing as well as to their speaking and listening." (Paul, Elder 2) The pressing need for such individuals is equally described by Jordan Peterson, in his series of lectures, recorded and shared on YouTube. Peterson, when asked about the importance of teaching writing skills to college students, concludes with the thought that "If you can think and speak and write you are absolutely deadly, nothing can get in your way" and thus sums up the main draw of employing or even better, becoming a critical thinker.

While cognitive science and the theory of good thinking are clear on very few things, both have come very far in the past few years. Perhaps the most important observation to be carried over to the applicational side of the matter is that yes, the human brain can be trained and developed in myriad ways and under proper care; its limits are virtually nonexistent. The bad news is that any detrimental habits and ways of thinking are often as likely to internalize as the habits of mind that are desirable and productive (Ariely, 2010 or Duhigg, 2012).

**Metacognition**

One of the most important tasks crucial to becoming a critical thinker is to develop the ability to distinguish good thinking from bad thinking, and to learn how to recognize and work against common biases - such as overconfidence, anchoring, confirmation bias or sunk-cost fallacy. To combat those missteps in critical thinking and to translate some more advanced skills to pre-teen and teen learners, teachers can start off with teaching metacognition.

The science of metacognition aligns with common critical thinking teaching goals and it can serve as a perfect stepping stone to developing a working ability to use higher order thinking skills in professional as well as daily life. Metacognition is "thinking about thinking" or "being mindful about one's thinking."

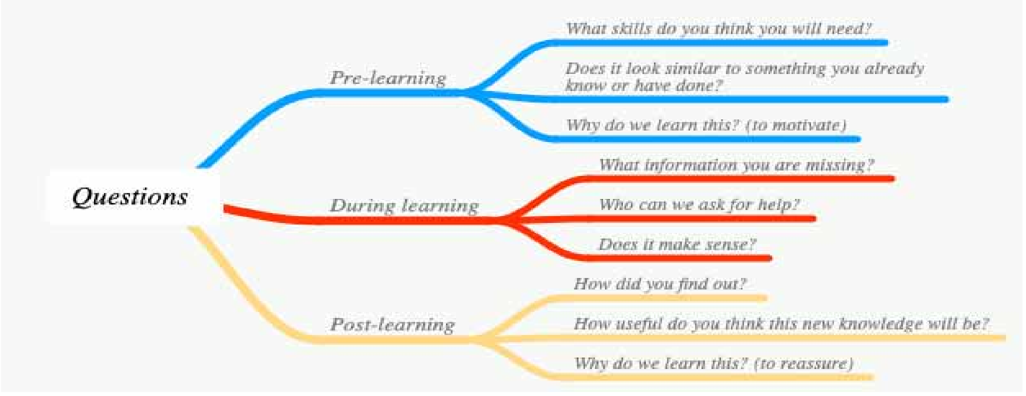


Fig. 1 - Metacognition by questioning.

The fastest way to raise awareness of thinking processes is to constantly ask procedural questions that do not test factual knowledge but rather make students mindful of how their brains work and how their thoughts and opinions are generated inside (Dignath, Buettner, Langfeldt, 2008). Science shows that simple questions like: How do you know this? Why do you think so? or How did you figure this out? have a positive cost-benefit score and work well by being direct, understandable and universal to both sciences and humanities (Pintrich, 2002). Students are simply asked to narrate their thought processes - may it about the photosynthesis's effect on the life on Earth or the use of continuous tenses in the English language. Questions (Fig. 1) can be inserted in all stages of learning - planning, monitoring and assessing.

Similarly, appropriate questions could be: What evidence can you call on to support your answer? How would you explain your thought process to someone who does not understand yet? Can you find any similarities in your personal life? What part was most difficult to grasp? How would you rate your knowledge of the subject before this lesson and how would you rate it now? What was the most challenging part when understanding this new concept? In hindsight, what would help you to understand faster?

Clearly, this part of the instruction does not primarily aim to teach good thinking - students are still going to make the wrong conclusions, or their interpretations are going to be full of mistakes. Yet those errors in reasoning are not detrimental to our end-goal. The first aim of any teacher should be to make students aware of how they process and analyze information and make sense of the world in general. Listening to classmates name their own individual thought processes will also make our students aware of both similarities and differences in their approaches. To combat passivity and laziness, metacognition can serve as a bridge between complete novice and skilled critical thinker.

Similarly - Saundra McGuire, the Director Emerita of the Centre For Academic Success at LSU, mentions that developing better learning skills is a necessary precursor to developing better thinking skills. During her lecture, she argues that students who were instructed to employ metacognition in their university classes were able to recognise faulty thinking and slippery slopes in their argumentation and reasoning much more effectively than the test group, undergoing a more traditional form of lecturing (McGuire, 2011). Lastly, metacognitive strategies are also a much easier way to approach the task of teaching critical thinking to a class full of 12-year-olds.

Considering one's thinking from an outsider's perspective and learning to recognise, analyse and better one's thought processes according to the rules of logic and reasoning will mean that students will have a stepping stone to fall back to, even if they do not complete the whole course or if they are not as lucky in their next teachers as they are now. Simply naming out loud the process of generating an answer to questions such as "Why are polar bears white?" or "What was the main cause of the American Civil War?" is going to carry our students over the first hurdle and make them more familiar with the processes taking place inside their minds. Therefore, it is essential to start by teaching metacognition.

### Precursors to Critical Thinking - Socratic Questioning, Bloom's Taxonomy

As mentioned earlier, the roots of critical thinking come from ancient Greece and the philosopher Socrates who allegedly used an intricate system of questioning to raise his students' interest in the topic rather than lecture them on the topic upfront. This system has 6 types of question that are intended to draw the knowledge out, rather that pound it in. The theory of Socratic questioning is a time-tested method of teaching students to think, reason and argue through any issue - personal and professional. Given its theoretical emphasis in formal logic it is not especially useful for secondary education practice, but can still serve as inspiration for secondary teachers or as a tool for self-reflection. A valuable lesson can also be drawn from its emphasis of problem solving, where the breadth of the coverage is not as important as the depth of understanding.

Bloom's taxonomy, on the other hand, is still very much relevant. It is a precursor to many pedagogical theories currently taking roots in educational sciences, and while the theory came into light in the 1950s, it is still highly relevant for the purposes of teaching critical thinking today. We are using the Anderson and Krathwohl's 2001 version, which updated Bloom's taxonomy for the 21st century.

Both of Bloom's taxonomies (original and revised) work with six levels of cognitive understanding, each of those individual layers builds upon the previous one and differs in the thinking skill it requires. The revised Bloom's taxonomy has these six layers - Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analyzing, Evaluating, and Creating. The original had Evaluating at the very top and did not mention Creating at all.

Bloom may be used to guide the teacher to differentiate instruction, during scaffolding or when in evaluating student progress. The research presented by professor Saundra McGuire in her earlier mentioned lecture shows that students are hard wired to exploit the fact that secondary education teachers often settle on the lower order thinking skills. Most of the students then put only the minimal effort necessary to achieve their desired grade and will not aspire to deepen their understanding in order to progress on the metaphorical ladder of wisdom, when they are not forced to do so. This does not concern only students in compulsory education but also university students who, according to McGuire, study only to the sufficient requirement to earn the desired grade.

When considering that humans often tend to want the best result with the minimum of effort - a seminal part of the whole process of raising a generation of independent thinkers is the openness about the whole process. Teachers should be open about both about the their requirements and the didactic methods they are using. There is no benefit in keeping students in the dark when implementing a taxonomy to structure their learning. On the other hand - a clear purpose and visible and reasonable goal might serve as a very effective motivation.

### Critical Thinking in Language Learning

Secondary and tertiary education focuses on distributing knowledge and building and strengthening the skills of students, be they academic, or interpersonal. The aim of this research project is to encourage and map the specific field of English language teaching and its possible crossovers with critical thinking development that would be applicable to the Czech educational context.

The aim of educators is to prepare their students for the time when they have to deal with the world on their own and face its uncertainty. One way to elevate the students' chance is to turn away from the pedagogy of answers and move towards Freire's vision of a pedagogy of questions. It is tempting to teach EFL only by distributing answers, rules and definitions (and they are unavoidable when aspiring towards successful language acquisition) but they should not be the only aspiration of a successful graduate/teacher. Pedagogy of answers does very little to build quality thinkers in a primary language, much less in a secondary one. Teachers should not deny their students the opportunity to challenge their thinking by reasoning, doubting or rejecting ideas; they have been a vital part of the learning process ever since ancient times.

**Entrypoints = Ready to Use Methods to Teach Critical Thinking**

Critical thinking requires collaboration between the students and the teacher. The role of the teacher is to capture attention, set students on the right path and to introduce new concepts while encouraging practice and even mistakes. Traditionally, the teacher has most of the spotlight and gets to pour knowledge into the minds of students, rather than guide students to discover the knowledge for themselves. The ineffectivity of such an approach and the incessant emphasis on lecturing hinders the wider adoption of critical thinking techniques in places of education. Numerous methods exist to promote deeper thinking and 21st century skills' acquisition and every teacher has some time-tested personal favourites.

Some less structured methods to activate thinking skills are - brainstorming, mindmapping, freewriting or reading comprehension exercises. These are, however, too highly variable and subject specific to approach with a clear cut manual. To offer entryway methods for EFL teachers – considering the scope of the present project we selected four of the more structured methods that are easy to understand, quick to adopt and can be modified to most of the subjects taught at the secondary and tertiary levels. These methods are: WHW, KWL (or E-U-R), PBL. Even though there are numerous lists of other appropriate and innovative methods of deep learning, the paper will only consider these select few as representative ones.

**WHW (What? How? Why?)**

WHW, in business also known as the Golden Circle (although there it describes the long-term planning and branding of businesses) is a method in which a set of three very simple questions engage the learner in a particular topic. *What?* at first establishes a common ground, gets the learners onto a level playing field and as an introduction is generally more teacher-centered. *How?* can be approached in two different ways - in the traditional exposition-heavy classroom, the teacher would still take the center stage and explain the mechanics of application and the inner rules and workings of a concept. However, when developing thinking skills, that is not beneficial. Rather, the teachers may flip the responsibility towards the students and prepare materials and examples from which the students figure out the rules of *H*ow? themselves. *Why?* then naturally progresses the lesson and serves as a space for discussing finding, comparing conclusions, and most importantly drawing conclusions about the meaning and place of that particular knowledge in a set of rules and information previously acquired. This approach can be modified to teach a wide range of lessons, e.g. from Photosynthesis to Present Perfect Tense to the Gothic novel.

**KWL**

KWL is an abbreviation of the words Know, Want to know, and Learned and may be familiar to many teachers already. It uses simple graphic structure, usually printed on a single sheet of paper, which is then filled accordingly. At first students are asked to fill in the already familiar data. Secondly, when they have reflected on a topic and written as much information as they feel comfortable with, they continue to the second box. In the second box, they identify and write down gaps in their understanding. This is a key step combining the analytical approach and self-assessment. By engaging students' imagination in writing down the directions of their next research, teachers divide and share their power and engage learners further into the process. The third and final box is then filled in with the summary, after the students have finished their research. This synthesis can then serve as a basis for the next lesson.

The benefit of this system is its intuitiveness and adaptability to both individual and group-work. KWL can sometimes be encountered in modified versions with some new "steps," added. Some more frequent are: KWHL (added How do I find out?), KWLQ (added Do I have more Questions?) or KWHLAQ (Do I need to take Action?).

The E-U-R method will seem familiar to Czech teachers already interested in teaching critical thinking. The method was developed as a part of the RWCT project, designed to bring CT to schools. Promoted by the Kritické listy magazine and the subject of many studies, it divides a student's work into 3 steps. This method is very similar to the KWL method previously mentioned, in that its objectives are comparable. The first part is Evokace (evocation), where students recall previous lesson or their own individual experiences with the topic. The second part is Uvědomění (realization). Students in the second part work through new information and compartmentalize the new with the previously learned (and evoked) to create new synapses and reaffirm the old. In the third and final step – Reflexe (reflexion), students think about the whole process and its new implications. It is a space for discussion, further questioning, new resolutions and re-evaluation.

**PBL**

Problem Based Learning includes many different styles and approaches but at its core, it aims to build problem solving skills and promote independent thinking. Many Czech schools are currently trying to include some form of PBL into their curricula, some with more success than others. Management often tries to encourage teachers to dedicate classroom time to various projects. Alternative schools often have a week or two dedicated to large projects, where the regular schedule is suspended and students spend time only with their group and the group's supervisor to solve a problem, prepare a proposition or study some particular area in more depth. Usually there is also an element of competition or a final presentation involved. PBL is an excellent example of a holistic approach to student learning. It activates learning skills to build up knowledge as well as forces students to perform a variety of social tasks because they need to communicate within their group, find a compromise, collaborate with others and finally - present their finished product. PBL is the most complex method and also the most time-consuming for the teacher to prepare and supervise.

When building such a project, it is useful to visualize the desired outcome and then work backwards to identify the steps taken to get there. Prior to the PBL week, it is also beneficial to train some of these methods: mindmapping, brainstorming, skimming, storytelling, summarizing etc. They are great to teach thinking on their own but in this particular case, it helps when the students are familiar with the tools they should be using beforehand.

**The Issue of Transferability vs. Subject-Specificity and the Question of Longevity**

The question of subject specificity comes along during the instructional part of the debate, when some data and researchers, most notably Daniel Willingham, point to low levels of transferability of learned critical thinking skills from the academic environment to real-life situations. In his seminal essay "Critical Thinking, Why Is It So Hard to Teach?" Willingham describes teaching Critical Thinking as being unbeliavably frustrating for both parties but also points out that in its current form, it is often a complete waste of resources. According to Willingham, CT skills are largely domain specific. This quality means that a student who is a good critical thinker in the field of mathematics would not be any better in solving problems using previously learned critical thinking skills because they would internally connect these CT skills only with the field where they were trained to use them originally. While some studies seem to confirm Willingham's theory, it is important to point out that testing critical thinking skills is not an easy task given the variables affecting each result.(1) Most specialists seem to agree with Willingham partially that the original domain in which the skills were first trained will always be students' strongest but that the transfer to other subjects does happen. Larger research on this is currently being conducted by OECD's Centre for Educational Research and Innovation in several countries with expected results in 2021 - the research focuses on the ways in which CT skills manifest themselves, once they have been acquired. Common ground among researchers is that critical thinking should be a bonus, an extra layer of instruction and training that should follow only after a student reaches an appropriate level of expertise in a field.

Together with transferability, academic studies also map out the longevity of acquired skillsets. Most notably Lehman and Nisbett concluded that the long-term efficacy of CT skills acquisition depends largely on the quality of primary instruction, field in which they are given, cognitive abilities of the individual subject and on their willingness to create a habit out of critical thinking. Furthermore, researchers also agree that to transfer acquired CT skills outside the classroom setting, the training must be contextual, rigorous and repeated (Halpern, 1998 or Ennis, 1989). To become a critical thinker is to be lured by its promise to reveal the authentic from the deceitful, that sometimes means overcoming some of the mind's natural inclinations to favor simple truths. There is indeed a plethora of reality vs. fiction examples, where one may exercise the art of distinguishing fake news and the unbiased authenticity, which is a highly topical issue, e.g. see the case of Czech PM Andrej Babiš, his son and the project of Čapí Hnízdo. Analogously, the lure of the real is examined by Daniel Schulze, who identifies the authenticity friction, the territory of in-between as "an ontological limbo, neither here, nor there" (253). Similarly, Ivan Lacko examines such a "liminal state (which is, after all, a state of uncertainty) (as)a source of creative potential for the artist as well as a catalyst for social (perhaps even political) change" (32). To illustrate our project, the authors have opted to provide an infamous example of G. I. Joe Fallacy.

### G. I. Joe Fallacy

G.I Joe was a popular American TV show for children in which animated characters served as members of the armed forces and went on various adventures. What is interesting is the fact that after every episode, there was a "public announcement" section aimed at the show's young viewers. Using the children's affinity for the characters, the TV spots aimed to educate its young audience on various topics from road safety to rules of polite conduct. The educational skit always ended with a proclamation that "knowing is half the battle." This is relevant because decades later, two Yale psychologists Laurie Santos and Tamar Gengler remembered this part of the cartoon when trying to figure out why an increasing number of young people seem to live lives less happy than the generations before them. The fallacy created out of their research represents the idea that goes contrary to popular belief, when in reality knowing something does nothing for one's actual ability to implement advice or a rule.

To provide an example that most of us can relate to - it is generally advised that adults sleep between 7 to 9 hours every night, yet knowing that does very little for our actual ability to adhere to that rule. Similarly, it is generally understood among rational, educated people that social networks like Facebook or Instagram do not represent the truth of people's lives but rather an image they choose to put up. Knowing this, people should not experience additional sadness, agitation or depression when scrolling through their peers' seemingly perfect lives, yet that is exactly what happened when scientists tested this (e.g. Appel, Gerlach, Crusius, 2016). To give one last example, more relevant to the topic of this paper, the struggle described by this fallacy is that even if we spend hours forcing our students to memorize the steps of the I.N.S.E.R.T. method, they may not be any closer to becoming critical thinkers themselves. The G.I. Joe fallacy highlights the need for a change of mindset first, the need for knowledge internalization. Simply being aware of what critical thinking is, does not guarantee the ability to think critically when the need arises.

### CT and Post-Truth

Like Critical thinking, post-truth is a buzz word. The Cambridge dictionary defines it as an adjective "relating to a situation in which people are more likely to accept an argument based on their emotions and beliefs, rather than one based on facts." The Oxford dictionary even named it a "word of the year" in 2016 - somehow summing up the turbulence of that year's social, cultural and political developments all around the world. Sometimes it is hard to conceptualize the scientific breakthroughs, propelling the humanity collectively forward, with the fact that that it is us, who have come so far, that we also seemingly voluntarily entered the dark ages again in our relationship with objectivity, science, and facts.

In the growing uncertainty of the 21st century, one thing that seems to be universally beneficial is the ability to think independently and rationally, to be able to evaluate arguments and statements with clarity of mind and also with compassion in our hearts. The aim of educators is to prepare their students to deal with the world and its uncertainty.

For EFL teachers, the main focus of their instruction is on building up the four skills of language - listening, speaking, reading, and writing; but it is also crucial to teach them in context of other skills and abilities, without which the language, while formally correct, would be only an empty shell. As a carrier of thought and ideas, it has a tremendous power, if used well, to move crowds and influence lives. As language teachers, we face difficulties at every step, yet adding another struggle to our already tiring work schedule seems to be worth it for the sake of our learners and our shared future.

The present article presents a mere array of possible approaches to challenge the post-truth reality via CT. We have attempted to illustrate via the genesis and methods we selected that in the 21st century perhaps more than ever before there is a strong need for teachers to be able to learn and exercise critical thinking. Thinking can thus, to elaborate on Deleuze, become an ultimate toolbox and can thus enable one to navigate themselves within the labyrinthine structures of ontological state the lure of the real promises.

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**Notes**

(1) Assessing Critical Thinking in Higher Education: Current State and Directions for Next Generation Assessment

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**Khalid El Asri**

# A contrastive analysis of happiness and sadness terms in English and Moroccan Arabic

Abstract: *This corpus-based study attempts to investigate the conceptualization of emotions in English and Moroccan Arabic, focusing on joy and anger-related concepts. Using examples from the British National Corpus (BNC), I compared English joy and anger-related concepts with Moroccan Arabic ones. The semantic Analysis of these concepts in both varieties is carried out through the natural semantic metalanguage. This metalanguage is based on empirically established semantic primes such as feel, want, say, think, know, good, bad, that are shared by all human languages (Goddard 2010). The use of such universal semantic concepts can make it possible to identify the precise semantic and conceptual differences between languages. Results of this analysis reveal that there are similarities and differences in the conceptualization of happiness and anger-related concepts in English and Moroccan Arabic. The differences are associated with the prevalence of different models of social interaction in Anglo and Moroccan cultures, as well as different cultural attitudes towards emotional expression. Thus, this corpus-based study can contribute to the description and analysis of linguistic and cultural variation in the conceptualization of emotion concepts in two varieties that belong to different cultural dimensions.*

## Introduction

Human emotions have been studied from different perspectives in various fields including linguistics, psychology, philosophy, and anthropology. In linguistics, research on emotion has been of an interdisciplinary nature as linguists bring psychological, anthropological and philosophical insights in order to bear on our understanding of the way emotions are expressed and experienced in different cultures and languages (Wierzbicka 1999).

Cross-linguistic research on emotion investigates how human inner states are conceptualized in different cultures. It mainly investigates how terms of emotions are used to describe these inner states. Being informed from different disciplines, cross-linguistic research reveals that each language has a unique conceptual organization of emotions (Wierzbicka 1999). As explained by Wierzbicka, «Every language...has lexically encoded some scenarios involving both thoughts and feelings and serving as a reference point for the identification of what speakers of this language see as distinct kinds of feelings» (15). This difference in encoding emotions across languages is the result of distinct cultural norms that shape the expression of emotions in different societies. In particular, culture is claimed to influence different components of emotions, including causal antecedents, appraisals, regulations, and display rules (Mesquita & Frijda 1992). Hence, in some languages certain emotions cay be more salient, differentiated, and codable than in others.

Moreover, differences in the conceptualization of emotions are reflected in a culture's emphasis on particular emotional event. That is, certain categories of events are highly visible and accessible in particular cultures. Such categories, in Levy's (1983) terms are *hyper-cognized,* while an emotion for which a society possesses little knowledge *hypo-cognized*. One index of hyper-cognition is a large number of lexical entries for that emotion. Thus, emotion words may provide clues concerning which themes are important, which emotions are explicitly verbalized, and which are emphasized, valued, rejected, or suppressed in a society (Russell 1991).

This paper investigates the conceptualization of emotion concepts related to joy and anger in English and Moroccan Arabic. A semantic analysis of these terms in these two varieties would provide a better understating of how these contrasting emotion concepts are conceptualized in each variety, and thereby know which concepts are salient in each culture.

### Linguistic Data as Evidence in Emotion Research

This paper investigates the conceptualization of emotion concepts related to joy, and anger in English and Moroccan Arabic. To acquire a representative account of the use of these terms in both languages, examples involving all the suggested emotion concepts are taken from the British National corpus (BNC), which contains 100 million words of texts from a wide range of contemporary language use: written texts (including literary, academic, journalistic, and educational works) and transcripts of spoken language (television and radio broadcasts, interviews, and conversations). The semantic analysis of English emotion term, as well as Moroccan Arabic emotion terms is carried out through the natural semantic metalanguage (NSM) approach.

### The natural semantic metalanguage (NSM)

The NSM has been developed as a reaction against ethnocentrism in linguistic research, and specifically research on emotions across cultures. Some scholars in this area of research tend to take English as the metalanguage of human emotional experience, judging emotions of other cultures through their own language (Pavlenko 2005). According to Goddard (2010), almost all the words in the English lexicon of emotion are language and culture specific, i.e., they do not have exact meaning equivalents in many, perhaps most, other languages. But most cognitive scientists, Goddard adds, tend to take English for granted, "effectively absolutizing the English lexicon of emotion and cognition (for example, assuming that words such as sadness, anger, and surprise represent natural psychological categories, while denying the same privilege to the lexical categories of other languages" (57). Hence, there was a need for a metalanguage to avoid taking English-specific lexical categories as default models for human beings, because this language "does not offer us a better window on human nature than other languages. It is only universal features of human languages that can offer us access to human nature, not their idiosyncratic aspects" (Wierzbicka 1995: 8).

This metalanguage comprises of semantic primes such as *feel*, *want*, *say*, *think*, *know*, *good*, *bad*, that can be found in all human languages and indefinable themselves (Wierzbicka 1996). The process of experimental conceptual analysis of semantic primes across languages has been going on for 40 years. And the findings have changed over 40 years (Goddard & Wierzbicka 2014). Over this period of research, Wierzbicka and her colleagues have identified more than 60 semantic primes. The current proposed primes are represented, using their English exponents, in the table below.

Table 5: Semantic primes grouped into related categories (Goddard 2018)

| | |
|---|---|
| I, YOU, SOMEONE, SOMETHING-THING, PEOPLE, BODY, KIND, PART | **Substantives** |
| THIS, THE SAME, OTHER-ELSE | **Determiners** |
| ONE, TWO, MUCH-MANY, LITTLE-FEW, SOME, ALL | **Quantifiers** |
| GOOD, BAD, BIG, SMALL | **Evaluators and Descriptors** |
| THINK, KNOW, WANT, DON'T WANT, FEEL, SEE, HEAR | **Mental predicates** |
| SAY, WORDS, TRUE | **Speech** |
| DO, HAPPEN, MOVE | **Actions, movement** |
| BE (SOMEWHERE), THERE IS, BE (SOMEONE/SOMETHING) | **Location, existence, specification** |
| (IS) MINE | **Possession** |
| LIVE, DIE | **Life and death** |
| WHEN-TIME, NOW, BEFORE, AFTER, A LONG TIME, A SHORT TIME, FOR SOME TIME, MOMENT | **Time** |
| WHERE-PLACE, HERE, ABOVE, BELOW, FAR, NEAR, SIDE, INSIDE, TOUCH | **Space** |
| NOT, MAYBE, CAN, BECAUSE, IF, VERY, MORE, AS | **Logical concepts** |

Wierzbicka (1996) argues that semantic primes can yield a universal «grammar of human thoughts», composed of basic sentences that can be said in any language. By using such an independent meta-language, the meaning of a concept can be explained from an outsider's point of view rather than an insider's. In the domain of emotions, the NSM has been used to describe cognitive scenarios which give rise to a certain way of feeling. For example, the Chinese term 'bei' is considered as equivalent to sadness in English, but when defining both terms according to NSM, the difference between them can be noticed.

Someone X felt *sad*
Sad (X was sad) =
(a) X felt something
(b) sometimes a person thinks:
(c) "I know: something bad happened
(d) I don't want things like this to happen
(e) I can't think: I will do something because of it now
(f) I know I can't do anything" (Goddard 2002: 26)

Someone X felt *bei*

(a) someone X felt something very bad

(b) people can feel something like this when they think like this:

(c) "something bad happened now I know that after this good things will not happen anymore

I don't want things like this to happen because of this, I want to do something if I can

I know that I can't do anything because I know that no one can do anything when things like this happen"

(d) this someone felt something like this, because this someone thought like this (Ye, 2001)

Comparing the Chinese term 'bei' with sadness, it can be noted that both are bad feelings triggered by the recognition that something bad has happened; but after that the prototypical cognitive scenarios diverge markedly. *Bei* has a pessimistic tone (I know that after this, good things will not happen anymore), while sadness encompasses a dis-want of bad things. Moreover, feeling sad does not make the experiencer helpless as in feeling *bei* (I know that I can't do anything). Thus, what is considered basic to English speakers is quite different from what seems basic to Chinese people. Hence, the advantage of using NSM in conceptual analysis lies in the fact that it protects the researchers against any linguistic and cultural bias and makes it possible to capture the meaning of an emotion term of any language, including culture-specific emotions which do not have equivalents in other languages.

Nevertheless, this approach has some limitations. First, some of the differences between the meanings of emotion terms may be too local, specific, or context dependent to be captured in the abstract language of semantic primitives (Parkinson et al. 2005). Second, Wierzbicka (1999) calls for the creation of an independent language in terms of which any word in any language can be explained; but this language is not sometimes itself independent, since defining emotion terms with the use of semantic primes would result in confusion if the definitions are not accompanied by explanations and examples. Regardless of these limitations, the NSM approach will be used in defining Moroccan Arabic and English emotion concepts. However, for reason of space, instead of using full cognitive scenarios, as in the examples above, only components of the cognitive scenario that clearly display the meaning of words will be used.

### Anger and related concepts in English and Moroccan Arabic

According to Kövecses (2000), "Anger is perhaps the most studied emotion concept from a cognitive semantic point of view" (p. 21). In English, anger is expressed by various terms, indicating intensity and other aspects. Among the most frequent concepts related to anger are: anger, fury, rage, outrage, madness, annoyance, and irritation. The word anger for Johnson-laird & Oately (1989: 109) is a basic emotion term that includes all anger-related terms that may range in intensity from mild irritation to intense fury and rage. Wierzbicka (1999: 44), on the other hand, views anger as an emotion that, like other forms of anger, has a specific cognitive scenario that can be defined in NSM as follows:

X was angry (with Y)

(a) X felt something because X thought something

(b) sometimes a person thinks about someone:

(c) ''this person did something bad
(d) I don't want this person to do things like this
(e) I want to do something because of this''
(f) X felt something like this, because X thought like this.

Fury is usually defined as an intense variety of anger. According to Wierzbicka (1999), an *angry* person may simply slam the door and leave; but someone who is *furious* is more likely "to do something (bad) to the person involved and now" (91). Hence, fury is a concept that involves extended violent actions on the part of the person experiencing this emotion, as depicted in the following example:

(1) 'I don't know where I've gone wrong in your upbringing....' The door slammed behind Meredith Putt and, still **furious**, he headed for the stables.

Wierzbicka (1999) differentiates between fury and rage by explaining that fury, and also anger, focuses on things that happened in the past to the experiencer, while *rage* focuses on things that are happening now to the experiencer or to someone with whom one identifies: ''something very bad is happening to me now; I don't want this to be happening I have to do something now" (92). For instance, the extract 2 below shows that something very bad is happening to the woman, (she's being insulted); and she wants to do something because of this (she also insults the other person). Moreover, the word 'rage' can be used to describe the violent reactions of animals to something bad happening to them (being shot by field workers), as shown in example 3.

(2) People just get married or live together... there's only one area of my life that I can bring myself to share with you.' The insult **enraged** her.› Unfortunately, there isn›t a single square inch of my life I want to share with you,›

(3) ‹three field workers in Korup were trapped behind a tree by an enraged elephant after their tranquilliser dart missed its target›.

Outrage, on the other hand, indicates that "something very bad happened to SOME PEOPLE", rather than 'to me". The cognitive scenario associated with this concept is explained as follows:

Outrage (X was outraged) =
(a) X felt something because X thought something
(b) sometimes a person thinks:
(c) «I know now: something very bad happened to some people
(d) because some other people did something very bad
(e) I didn't think that these people could do something like this
(f) I don't want things like this to happen
(g) I want to do something because of this» (Goddard 2002: 28)

*Madness*, as Wierzbicka (1994) explains, does not imply a judgment about somebody else's action "this person did something bad", like the above concepts; rather it implies that "something happened that I don't want" (example 4). Additionally, *madness* implies an immediate and short-term reaction "something happened NOW". This is the full cognitive scenario of this concept, (based on Wierzbicka 1994: 443):

Mad X feels something

(a) sometimes a person thinks something like this:

(b) something happened now

(c) I don't want this

(d) because of this, I want to do something now

(e) I want to do something bad to someone

(f) I can't not do it

(g) This person felt something like this, because person thought like this

(4) Remember when you were delivering boots for me and that boy took them from you, how did you feel then, Will?'' Daro! I was mad with him, could have battered him into the ground I could if I was strong enough.››

*Annoyance* also implies that what the other person did was against the experiencer's wishes, but unlike being mad, the experiencer has no intention of reaction. For example, we can be annoyed with a visitor coming to see us at a time when we are very busy or when we are talking to somebody special and would rather be left alone with that special person, or just to be left alone, as in example 5 below. The related adjective, annoyed, can be explained as follows:

Annoyed X feels something

(a) sometimes a person thinks something like this:

(b) this person (Y) did something

(c) I didn't want this

(d) I would want: this person (Y) didn't do it

(e) X felt something like this, because X thought like this (Wierzbicka 1994: 443-444)

The example below shows that the experiencer's annoyance is the result of things against his wish (Nigel's wish to be left alone).

(5) Nigel felt ***annoyed*** by her manner and by the fact that she ... was assuming too much in taking on the role of possessive girlfriend.› Can't you leave me alone?'

*Irritation,* on the other hand, indicates that "something is happening; it has been happening for some time; I don't want this; I can't not think about it" (Wierzbicka 1994: 445). Hence, unlike annoyance, irritation can be the result of an on-going process. For example, the people in example 6 below used to experience a bad thing that had been happening for some time (Alex's coughing at night). They didn't want this (they were relieved when he was turned away).

(6) That evening ... four more people were turned away, including the Spaniard Alex ... This was a relief as his coughing at night had irritated us.

In Moroccan Arabic, the most frequent words related to anger include the following concepts: ġeḍban, mqelleq, fegʕan, mefequs, kaʕi, mʕaṣṣeb, menzaʕej, mjennen, jaʕer. In NSM lines, ġaḍab can be defined as follows:

X was ghadeb (with Y)

(a) X felt something because X thought something

(b) sometimes a person thinks about someone:

(c) ‹‹this person did something bad

(d) I don›t want this person to do things like this

(e) I feel bad because of this››

(e) X felt something like this, because X thought like this

Thus, unlike ‹angry›, the term *ġaḑ*ab involves no intention of reaction. Likewise, *mqelleq* is also a common word that expresses feeling of people who have no intention of reaction, but they want the person responsible for their anger to know about their feeling. Therefore, the word 'meqelleq' denotes unexpressed anger. It can be represented through the following cognitive scenario: ''something bad happened; because someone did something; I don't want things like this to happen; I don't want to do anything; I want this person to know this".

'fegʕan' is another word that also denotes unexpressed anger. It differs from the word 'mqelleq' in that the person causing this emotion may not know if he/she did anything wrong to the experiencer. Feqsa or the adjective mefqus indicates delayed intense anger that is not expressed instantly. The following cognitive scenario portrays this concept as follows: "Something very bad happened; because someone did something; I want to do something because of this, but I can't do it now". On the other hand, *kaʕi* imply that "something bad has happened; I don't want this to happen; I have to do something now''. *jaʕer* refers to intense anger*: "*something very bad is happening to me; I don't want this to happen; I have to do something now; I can't not do it"

The word *tʕaṣṣeb* means that "someone has been doing something; I feel bad because of this, now I want to do something because of this". *Tʕaṣṣeb* also has another meaning in that what is happening to the experiencer doesn't have to be due to any human actions: "I want to do something; but I can't. I feel very bad because of this".

**Joy and related concepts**

The most common terms associated with joy include gladness, happiness, delight, pleasure, contentment, excitement, and enthusiasm. According to Wierzbicka (1999), we are *happy* when something good has happened to us that we have wanted to happen (e.g. when we pass an exam). The concept of happiness, therefore, is related to the achievement of goals and the fulfilment of wishes. The cognitive scenario associated with this concept is as follows:

Happy (X was happy).

(a) X felt something (because X thought something)

(b) sometimes a person thinks:

(c) ''some good things happened to me

(d) I wanted things like this to happen

(e) I don't want anything else now''

(f) when this person thinks this this person feels something very good

(g) X felt something like this because X thought something like this (Wierzbicka 1999: 50).

*Glad* can sometimes be used interchangeably with happy, but it differs from happy in being less personal and focuses on good news related to others: "something has just happened; I feel good because of this"; hence it is usually used in this structure: 'glad to see, glad to hear, etc.', as in this example:

(1) She was **glad to see that he had decided to remove the untidy growth of beard.**

Joy differs from ‹happy› in that it is more intense, more thrilling, and more likely to be a short-term emotion. Hence, joy is defined by Johnson-Laird & Oately (1989) as a state of being "intensely happy" (116). The fact that joy has a short-term duration makes it related to the present. Thus, while *happy* implies that ''some good things happened to me'', joy means ''something very good is happening'' (Wierzbicka 1999: 50-52).

*Delight* refers to very good news that surprises the experiencer. It differs from happiness which can be felt without a specific reason, while the reason that makes a person delighted has happened now and surprised the experiencer. The full cognitive scenario of this concept is explicated by Wierzbicka (1999: 57) as follows:

Delighted (X was delighted)

(a) X felt something because X thought something

(b) sometimes a person thinks:

(c) ''I know now: something very good happened

(d) I didn't know that this would happen''

(g) X felt something like this because X thought something like this

*Contented indicates being happy and satisfied: ''some good events happened to me before* now. I don't want other things now'' (Wierzbicka 1999: 55-57). Similarly, *pleased* also refers to being satisfied and happy, but it differs from contented in that it is less personal and has a sharper focus, because it refers to one particular event ''something good happened", rather than to ''some good events happened''. The cognitive scenario associated with concept is as follows:

Pleased (X was pleased)

(a) X felt something because X thought something

(b) sometimes a person thinks:

(c) ''something good happened

(d) I wanted this to happen''

(e) when this person thinks this this person feels something good

(f) X felt something like this because X thought something like this

*Relieved* implies that something expected - and bad – is not going to happen. For example, the extract 7 below shows that something bad is not going to happen (the speaker's irritation at the Spaniard's coughing). The speaker felt relieved as s/he knows that this bad thing will not happen (four more people were turned away, including the Spaniard Alex).

(7) That evening ... four more people were turned away, including the Spaniard Alex ... This was a relief as his coughing at night had irritated us

Unlike the concepts above, which are related to "something good happened/is happening", excitement is linked with future events: "something good will happen". The full cognitive scenario related to this concept can be represented in NSM as follows:

Excited (X was excited)

(a) X felt something because X thought something

(b) sometimes a person thinks:

(c) "I know now: something very good will happen

(d) I want it to happen

(e) I can't think about other things now''

(f) X felt something like this because X thought something like this.

*Enthusiasm* is closely related to excitement as they both have future orientation. It implies the thought that one is going to do something and knows this will be very good. Hence, excitement differs from enthusiasm in that the former is sparked by external attractions, which will make the experiencer feel very good (example 8), while enthusiasm is triggered by inner and personal motivations that also will make the experiencer feel very good (example 9). The fact that the word 'excited' can be used to refer to animals' behavior indicates that this emotion is triggered by external attractions, as in example (10).

(8) When we were kids,' she says,' Dad promised to take us to Disneyland. 'I got so ***excited***. It was like going to the Holy Land

(9) "Paul knew the Lake District well from his mountaineering days at university, so he was ***enthusiastic*** about the idea of living there".

(10) As a whole, body outline and tone show a horse's level of excitement, while other cues indicate the reasons. An excited horse has an exciting outline: he raises his head and tail, his movements are elevated.

Thus, the linguistic field of happiness in English includes words referring to «something good happened (happy, delighted, glad, contented, pleased); ‹something good is happening (joy); ‹something bad didn›t happen» (relief); and ‹something good will happen (excitement, enthusiasm).

In MA, common emotion words that indicate «something good happened include: ‹farħan, nasheṭ, saʕid›, tsheffa, and ‹mesrur›. Just as the English term ‹happy› the word ‹saʕid› refers to some good events that happened. Similarly, *nashe*ṭ is also used in the same context, but it is more frequent than 'saʕid'. The noun farħa or the verb freħ indicates "something very good has just happened", not necessarily "to me". Tsheffa implies that "something bad happened to this person; I feel good because of this". The final MA term in this list is 'mesrur'. It indicates being happy and satisfied with a particular thing or situation.

Moreover, just like 'enjoyment' and the verb 'to enjoy', the noun 'stimtaʕ' and the verb 'stemteʕ' in MA refer to "something good is happening". Similarly, the adjective "nasheṭ" is also included in this category. The difference between 'mestmteʕ' and 'nasheṭ' is that the former refers to "something good that I like makes me feel good"; while the latter refers to "something is happening that makes me feel good". On the other hand, emotion terms in MA that refer to "something good will happen" are 'metħammes' and 'metšuwweq'. The word 'metħammes, like enthusiastic, refers to something I want to do that will make me feel very good. The word 'mteshuwweq refers to "something good I didn't do since a long time; I will do it; and I know it will make me feel very good".

**Comparison of the Anger-Translational Equivalents**

Analysis of the anger-related terms in English and MA shows that there are different degrees of equivalence between the two varieties. The English terms that have near equivalents in MA are 'rage' (equivalent to jaʕer and kaʕi, as in example 11), and 'mad' (equivalent to tjennen, as in example 12):

(11) «Gail flew into a *rage* when she learned her husband was leaving her for a younger woman".

'Gail jeʕrati/ kʕat melli ʕerfat ana rajlha bġa ytxalla ʕliha...›.

(literally: Gail got enraged when she knew that her husband wanted to leave her ....)

(12) I got mad when the key broke while I was opening the door

tjennent melli tharress li sarut fach kunt kanħul bih lbab

(literally: got mad-I when broke the key while was I opening with-it the door)

The analysis of the anger-related terms also shows that there are some MA terms that have partial equivalence in English. The concept of ‹anger› is very common in English. Its equivalent in Arabic dictionaries is 'ġaḍab›. Nevertheless, 'ġaḍab› is not a common word in MA, and if used, it has a different meaning from anger because a person who is ġeḍban may not show any reaction. The most common word that Moroccans use to express ‹anger› is ‹kaʕi›, which implies intensity and some lack of control; and therefore, this makes it closer to ‹rage› than to ‹anger›. Moreover, the word menzaʕej (and also its French equivalent, *déranger*, on whom MA morphological rules are applied, and thus becomes mderonji) can be an equivalent to both annoyed, as in example 13, and irritated, as in example 14).

(13) Philip knew that she was *irritated* by his being there... she wanted to be on her own.

'Philip ʕraf belli kaanet menzaʕja mn lwujud dialo temma...'

(literally: Philip knew that she was irritated from existence his there...).

(14) 'But what really *annoys* me is when I'm stuck in a traffic jam.' Elaine's feelings are echoed by many women.

'Walakin shnu felħaqiqa li kayzʕejni huwa melli kanħṣal fe zħaam'

(but what really annoys me is when I got stuck in the traffic jam).

On the other hand, 'outraged' which means that «something very bad happened to SOME PEOPLE», has no equivalent in MA. Also, the word 'furious' has no equivalent in MA. In other word, there is no lexical item that describes extended violent actions of a person; therefore, the only word that can be used to describe the feeling of a 'furious' person is the word *ʕanif* (literally; violent).

The overall analysis of anger-related terms shows that these emotion terms arise either due to something bad happened or due to something that goes against the wishes of the experiencer in both English and Moroccan Arabic. Nevertheless, there is another anger-related category in MA that encompasses unexpressed anger words, namely fegʕan mefqus, gheḍban, and mqelleq. The existence of such concepts in Moroccan Arabic is typical of a collectivist culture that emphasizes connection to others and promotes hiding conflict.

**Comparison of the joy-Translational Equivalents**

Analysis of the field of joy in both varieties reveals that there are words which have near equivalents, partial equivalents and no equivalents in Moroccan Arabic. To start with, English emotion words that have near equivalents in Moroccan Arabic include happy 'said/nasheṭ', relief 'irtiah', enjoy 'stemteʕ' and 'enjoyment' stimtaʕ. The word 'irtiaħ' denotes feelings when "something bad didn't happen" in Moroccan Arabic. For example, the sentence 'This was a relief as his coughing at night had irritated us' in example (1) above can be translated into Moroccan Arabic as follows: '**ħessina** b l- irtiaħ **ħit** kaan kayzʕejna bi lkoħba dialu› (literally: felt we with relief because he irritated us with his coughing). The word ‹**ħamaas**› in Moroccan Arabic can be an equivalent to enthusiasm, as in example 15; and *Mesrur* can be a near equivalent to 'pleasure', as in example 16.

(15) "Paul knew the Lake District well from his mountaineering days at university, so he was enthusiastic about the idea of living there".

'...kaan metħammes yskun temma' (lietrally: he was enthusiastic to live there'

(16) I want you to know I'm well pleased with your work.

Bġitek tʕraf belli ana mesrur bi l-xedma dialk'

(literally: I want you to know that I am pleased with the work of you)

As far as English emotion terms with partial equivalents in Moroccan Arabic are concerned, the Moroccan Arabic term 'farha' (including its lexemes "farha/freh/farhan') can be an equivalent to 'delight, gladness, happiness, and joy'. But when describing people's feelings regarding their general interest, as in 'joy of life, joy ride, joy of painting, etc., the only Moroccan Arabic equivalent term that can be used in this context is the word 'mutʕa', as in example 17 below. Nevertheless, this word is not used, among many suggested equivalents of 'joy' in the English/Arabic dictionary Al-Mawrid (Al-Ba labakki 2005).

(17) I have found joy in the poetry of many races.

Lqit lmutʕa f **šiʕr** dial ajnas ktira (literally: I found joy in poetry of races many)

On the other hand, English emotion terms which have no equivalents in Moroccan Arabic include ‹contented› and ‹excitement›. These terms can only be translated with words that have closer meanings. For example, ‹contented› can be translated with ‹qaaneʕ› (literally: satisfied) in example 18 below, while in example 20, the word **ħamas** is the only appropriate equivalent that can be used in contexts indicating ‹excitement›.

(18) ‹He was a contented **man for he had a good wife, a prosperous farm...**›.

‹kaan rajl qaaneʕ **ħit** kaant **ʕandu** zawja mziana...›

(literally: he was man happy for he had a wife good...›

«The problems tonight were totally because of the new laws of the game.› Both teams got excited, as did the crowd»

‹... l- fraqi bzuj jahum lħamas...› (literally: the teams came to them enthusiasm).

Thus, joy-related concepts in both varieties can refer to something happened (happy, delighted, contented, glad); and something good is happening (joy), and something good will happen (excited). Nevertheless, in Moroccan Arabic there are concepts related to joy which are felt because of something bad happened to others. This indicates that emotions are socially constructed phenomena in collectivist cultures such as the Moroccan culture.

**Concluding remarks**

Throughout this paper we have investigated how joy and anger-related concepts are conceptualized in English and Moroccan Arabic. The semantic analysis of emotion terms related to these concepts reveal that there are similarities between the two varieties, as well as differences. The differences are associated with the prevalence of different models of social interaction in Anglo and Moroccan cultures. The present study, therefore, contributes to the description and analysis of linguistic and cultural variation in the conceptualization of emotions across cultures by exploring the emotion lexicon of Moroccan Arabic, a variety that has not been investigated yet as far as this area of research is concerned. Nevertheless, the study of emotions needs input from a variety of languages in order to understand human emotions in general. This is because an emotion term is not any word referring to a single entity in the world, rather it encompasses a whole scenario, a way of feeling in a culture and, therefore, a way of thinking about feeling is revealed about that culture.

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**Joseph Emonds**

# The Dual Nature of Derivational Morphology: English Agentive –er[1]

Abstract**:** *English formations with derivational suffixes, as for example in adjectival passives (shaken, written) and derived nominals (development, writing), often exhibit two types of syntax, one where the suffix heads fully lexicalized forms (very shaken, bad writing) and another where the stem has some head properties. The agentive suffix –er is of this type: the mixers in our drinks must be freshly opened (lexicalized Noun, -Animate) vs. the mixers of our drinks must be well-trained (the Verb mix selects a Noun object). The paper shows distinct properties for each type of agent noun, and that mixing these properties leads to ungrammaticality. Relating these contrasts to previous work on passives and nominalizations, it then describes how the productive non-lexicalized derived forms result from inserting -er into syntactic derivations at a post-lexical level, one that feeds semantic interpretation but is incompatible with idiomatic meanings not associated with the stem itself. Finally, the paper proposes a formal explanation for why the Animate nominals in –er must have an external argument that is both understood as an Agent and yet null, i.e. present in interpretation and but unexpressed in any overt phrase.*

## 1. Expected contrasts for identical surface forms

English formations with de-verbal derivational suffixes, as seen for example in adjectival passives (*shaken)* and derived nominals (*writing*), often exhibit two types of syntax:

- one where the suffix heads fully lexicalized forms of the derived category, as in (1).
- another productive variant where the verb stem has some head properties as in (2):

Diagnostics for derived adjectives underlined in (1) include grading adverbs, the negative suffix *un-,* and occurring as complements of verbs that select adjectival predicates (e.g., *seem, remain, look, feel,* etc. as exemplified and explained in Wasow 1977):

**(1**) **Fully lexicalized forms of derived adjectives.**[2]
*The patient seemed very shaken.*
*No one was more shaken than the driver himself.*
*An unwritten rule prohibited my departure.*
*The poem sounded hastily written.*

Diagnostics for constructions with verbal heads underlined in (2) include the ability to take directional Prepositional Phrases, progressive aspect, productive use of agent *by*-phrases, and indirect objects as subjects of passive forms. All these contrasts are observable in (2), which can be contrasted with those of (1). For additional contrasts, see Emonds (2000: Ch. 5).

**(2)** **Productive derivational variants of verb stems:**
*The bystanders were shaken into action.*
*An unconscious passenger was being violently shaken.*
*These rules were written by last year's supervisor.*
*Mary was written a letter about owing more money.*

Many of these properties are determined by the category of the morpheme that is the "head" of a word, in these cases either the category A(djective) of the suffix or the category Verb of the stem. Heads of a constituent are the items that determine what a constituent selects and how it is itself selected. Usually:

**(3) Word-internal heads. The suffix of a derived word is its head (Williams 1981).**

This paper treats the English agentive suffix –*er* as in: *driver, loader, recorder, seller, speaker, stapler,* etc. This suffixal head of derived forms is a (unmarked) Count Noun, and so has a regular plural –*ers.* The head characteristics of this suffix are not uniformly present in all its uses, however, since, like –*en* above, it can be the basis of both fully lexicalized forms (4) and also productive derivational variants (5).

**(4) Characteristics of fully lexicalized derived forms (the suffix is the sole head)**

a. Functional modifiers of a word depend on the *suffix's category.*

b. No functional modifiers depend on *the stem's category.*

c. Semantic roles of modifying phrases are not those of the lexical (here verb) stem.

**(5) Characteristics of productive derived forms (stems can retain some head properties)**

a. Some functional modifiers depend on the suffix's category, e.g. *free morphemes.*

b. Some functional modifiers depend on the stem's category, especially its *prefixes*.

c. Semantic roles ("theta roles") of modifying phrases can be those of the verb stem.

Numerous languages have agentive nominal suffixes with parallels to English –*er.* For analyses of a representative sample of such nominals, along with accounts of differences from their English counterpart, see Baker and Vinokurova (2009).

## 2. Functional modifiers in the agent nominals

All the functional modifiers of Agent Nominals as in (6a-b) that are free morphemes depend on the Noun head, just as do those of Grimshaw's (1991) Complex Event Nominals such as *no rapid development, such close observation, this constant asking,* etc.

| **(6)** ***a. Productive Syntactic V-er*** | ***b. Idiomatic Lexical V-er*** |
|---|---|
| *that reckless driver of the stolen car* | *those new drivers of polished wood* (golf) |
| *the careless unloaders of fragile cargo* | *some undependable front end loaders* |
| *a quick re-seller of speculative property* | *a best seller of that author* |
| *the helpful stapler of these handouts* | *the electric carpet stapler of the store* |

Free morphemes for verb–modifying functional modifiers are excluded with both Agent and Event nominals in the (a-b) examples below, in contrast for example to what is allowed with Gerunds in the (c) examples:

**(7)** *a. That (*not) developer of the south side made a big mistake.*

*b. That (*not) development of the south side would be a foolish decision.*

*c. Not developing the south side would be a foolish decision.*

**(8)** *a. They discussed some close { observers /*havers observed } of mental breakdowns.*
*b. They discussed some close { observation /*having observed } of mental breakdowns.*
*c. They discussed having closely observed mental breakdowns.*

**(9)** *a. The constant { askers/ *getters asked } of more questions embarrasses her.*
*b. The constant { asking /*getting asked } of more questions embarrasses her.*
*c. Constantly getting asked more questions embarrasses her.*

On the other hand, *bound morphemes* expressing V-stem modification (e.g. *re-* expressing an adverbial *again* and the verbal *–un* expressing reversal of an action) are possible on productive derived forms (10a). In contrast, they can't relate to the V-stem in fully lexicalized forms (10b).

**(10)** *a. The re-seller of those donated books has made a good profit.*
*b. The cargo unloaders/ The unloaders of cargo hardly worked at all.*
*c. We considered John the best un-stapler/ re-stapler in the office.*
*a. *The author's best re-seller has again been reviewed.*
*b. *The front end unloaders on the ship hardly worked at all.*
*c. *Somebody should invent a good un-stapler/ re-stapler.*

The sharp empirical contrast in co-occurrence properties between the two types of Agent nominals in (6a-b) can be readily seen by comparing the acceptability of the productive nominals in the contexts in (10a) to the unacceptability of the lexical nominals in the similar contexts of (10b).

These examples have illustrated the difference between free morpheme modifiers (5a) and bound morpheme modifiers (5b), as to whether the stem category or the suffixal category acts as the derived nominal's selecting head. How to express this difference poses a non-trivial problem in designing an explanatory derivational model of word formation, but on this point, this paper does not go beyond stating the descriptive generalizations in (4b) and (5b).[3]

## 3. Semantic roles of phrases modifying the verb stem, including "theta roles"

### Understood Agents

As seen in (6b), fully lexicalized derived nominals V + *er* need not be Animate. However:

**(11) Animate Agents.** *Productive syntactic derived nominals in V +* er_always imply Animate Agents*.*

An independent confirmation of (11) is provided by the fact that most verbs whose syntactic subjects are *not* agents do not allow the suffix *–er:*

**(12)** **(dis)liker, *exister, *haver, *knower, *needer, *ower, *preferer, *seemer, *wanter,...*

**(13)** *The users/ *hearers/ *knowers/ *lackers of Afrikaans interpreters strongly protested.*
*The park is open only to ?takers/ *havers /*likers/ *needers of walks on marked trails.*
*He was a lover/ *disliker /*preferer/ *wanter of unusual dishes.*

An Animate feature on agent nominals not deriving from (11) can result from a lexical specification for individual words. Thus Animate Nouns like *owner* and *lover* can be listed like other idiomatic Animate nominals such as *back–slapper*, *free–loader* , and *gold–digger*.

The question now arises, where in trees with Animate *–er* nominals is the location of the NP that is assigned this obligatory Agent semantic role? We return to a solution of this problem in the last section of this essay.

**Direct Objects in of–phrases and Manner Adverbials**

We have already observed some data that supports the next two empirical generalizations, and following the statement of each, we provide further contrasts.

**(14) Verb stem objects.** Only productive syntactic derived nominals can express the direct object of the verb stem in an *of*–phrase modifier.

**(15) *a. Objects with Productive Syntactic V–er***

*We need fluent speakers of Chinese for the conference.*
*The young unloaders of the cargo were badly paid.*
*I noticed the cute mixer of the drinks.*
*They gave a scholarship to the recorder of those old ballads.*
*All the copiers of last month's assignment should fail the course.*
*That shooter of the park's rabbits was arrested.*

b. **Excluded objects with Idiomatic Lexical V–*er*** [(4)]

*We need more (loud) speakers (*of foreign languages) for the conference.*
*The front end loaders (*of the heavy cargo) worked poorly.*
*I noticed the bitter mixer in the drinks/ *of the drinks.*
*They paid for the purchase of a tape recorder for/ *of those ballads.*
*The copier for/ *of last month's assignments made big ink smudges.*
*That six shooter (*of the park's rabbits) was confiscated.*

**(16) Manner Adverbials.** Only productive syntactic derived nominals can express an adverb of manner in a modifying adjective phrase.

Thus, the adjectives in (17a) report the manner of the verbal action*: speaking fluently, cleaning thoroughly, selling quickly, polishing carefully*. The agent individuals involved are not necessarily implied to be in general fluent, thorough, quick or careful people. In contrast the corresponding adjectives in (17b) cannot modify the verbal actions of speaking, cleaning, selling and polishing, and it is difficult or clumsy to speak of machines, at least in these contexts, as *fluent, thorough, quick* or *careful*.

**(17) a. Adverbial A with Productive Syntactic V–*er***

*We need fluent speakers for the conference.*
*A thorough house cleaner is rarely inexpensive.*
*We found Bill to be a quick seller of stolen goods.*
*Jane considers our son to be a careful polisher of antique furniture.*
*They hire good outdoor speakers for conferences.*
i.e., they speak outdoors well; the action of speaking is done in a good manner.

*Those illegal shooters in the street terrified me.*
i.e., the shooting is illegal, but not the people.
**b. No adverbial A with Idiomatic Lexical V-*er***
**We need fluent loud speakers for the audio system.*
**A thorough vacuum cleaner is rarely inexpensive.*
**We bought a quick book seller.*
**Jane purchased a careful floor polisher.*
*They rent good outdoor speakers for the audio system.*
i.e., the speaking may well be done indoors.
*Those illegal six shooters in the desk terrified me.*
i.e. the guns are illegal; perhaps there is no shooting.

These systematic contrasts strongly suggest that the two types of nominals have different syntactic derivations. In one derivation, the verb stem assigns theta roles and can be modified by manner adverbials, and in the other one, the verb stems are not accessible to any direct syntactic modification.

## 4. Theoretical treatment: inserting/ merging morphologically complex heads

### 4.1 Analysis of Fully Lexicalized Nominals

My task now is to explain why adverbials and semantic roles of the arguments of the verb stem can be expressed with Productive Syntactic Agent Nominals as in (15a) and (17a) but not with Fully Lexicalized Nominals as in (15b) and (17b). I begin by proposing a very simple lexical entry for the suffix, using word–internal subcategorization frames of Lieber (1980).

**(18) General lexical entry for the suffix:** –-*er,* V___, COUNT, (ANIM)

This entry does not specify *how the suffix is semantically related to the stem*. So in itself the entry does not satisfy a general condition on syntactic derivations (19).[5]

**(19) Full Interpretation.** All constituents in a single sentence must be interpreted as *related to some other.*[6]

For the lexicalised –*er* forms, (19) is satisfied rather by the meanings for -*er* specified (here only schematically) in lexical entries of the open class verb stems that select it:

**(20) Lexical entries for stems that accept the suffix:**
*load***,** V, ..., ( __–*er,* Vehicle, Instrument )
*shoot,* V, .... ( __–*er,* Weapon, Instrument)
*mix,* V, .... ( __–*er,* Non-alcohol drink, Accompaniment)
*speak,* V, .... ( __–*er,* Audio machine, Instrument)
*staple,* V, .... ( __–*er,* Office tool, Instrument)
. . .

These open class entries, as in Chomsky's (1965) early lexical model, satisfy their selection features (only) at the *beginning of* a syntactic derivation of a domain (i.e. a "cyclic domain" or more recently a "derivational phase"):

**(21) Deep (Phase–initial) Insertion.** Lexical entries containing *purely semantic features* are inserted in a tree at the start of a derivational phase (Emonds 2000: Ch. 4).

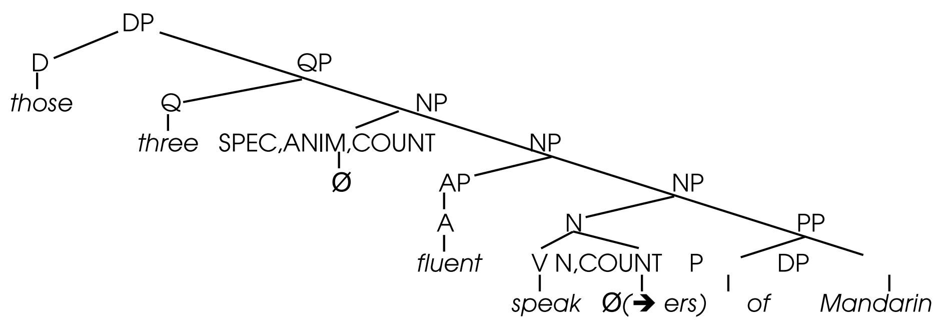
Thus, when an idiomatic noun, e.g. ($_N$ *loud*($_V$ *speak*) ($_N$ *er*)) enters a tree as a head, its Verb is internal to it and hence *not visible* during the syntax, like verbs in compound nouns such as *buy back, come down, die–hard, go–kart, sell order, tell–tale*.

So it follows that a V with a suffix inserted at the "deep" level *cannot assign semantic roles or an adverbial interpretation* to any noun-modifying expressions in noun phrases like **three fluent loud speakers of Mandarin* or **a quick book seller of old manuscripts.* The same goes for the other examples in (15*b)* and (17b).

### 4.2 Analysis of Productive Syntactic Nominals

In these nominals, e.g. (15a) and (17a), the situation is quite different. A typical tree in which the suffix –*er* in (18) is inserted has the structure (22); Q = Quantifier/ Numeral.

**(22)**




From what has been said so far, the only problematic aspect of this tree is the nature of the empty Specifier in the highest NP. In much, probably most current work in formal syntax, clauses (IP) are taken to project from a functional head I, and the sister of I is VP. In VPs headed by Activity Verbs, the Agent theta role is assigned to an NP that enters the tree in the highest SPEC of this VP. This is the "VP-internal Subject Hypothesis" of Zagona (1988).

I propose that the SPEC(NP) in (22) is the direct and isomorphic counterpart of the highest Specifier in VPs. It is widely accepted that when the head of a VP is an Activity Verb, an Agent theta role is assigned to a nominal phrase in the highest SPEC of VP. The same account can be given here for an NP whose head Noun expresses Activity, parallel to its clausal counterpart. (L. Veselovská, pers. comm.)

This Spec(NP) then represents a verb stem's Understood Agent, because it satisfies a cross-linguistic principle for interpreting noun phrases as Agents (23).[(7)]

**(23) Agent Specification.** "...one rule (probably universal) will stipulate that for verbs of action, the animate subject may be interpreted as the agent." (Chomsky 1972: 75)

Structure (22) crucially uses the idea that Agent Theta Roles of Verbs are assigned to subjects located in the Specifier of one of their high (perhaps highest) functional projections. Spec(NP) in (22) is the Subject of the Predicate Phrase *fluent speak Mandarin*.

In order for (23) to apply, a stem V must be *a head that is visible in syntax,* i.e. when theta roles of its Verb host are determined, the N suffix *–er* cannot yet be inserted. This suggests that in a productive Agent nominal, the suffix *–er* enters a tree as an instance of "late lexical insertion." Such operations are permitted only for grammatical items that lack purely semantic features (for extensive arguments, see Emonds 2000: Ch. 4). Since there are no purely semantic features in entry (18),[8] in contrast to the open class entries (20), non-idiomatic, productive syntactic *–er* can enter a tree according to (24).

**(24) Surface (Phase-final) Insertion**. Lexical entries without any purely semantic features are inserted in a tree at *the end of a derivational phase* (Emonds 2000: Ch. 4).

This late insertion of *–er* at the *end* of a DP phase in Productive Syntactic Nominals like (22) implies that *during* this phase *the domain's visible head is V*. And it is precisely in V-headed domains, i.e. clauses, that (i) Direct Objects are realized and interpreted with appropriate theta roles (14), and (ii) APs function as Manner Adverbials (16). This analysis, based on late lexical insertion of grammatical items, thus successfully predicts the empirical generalizations of Section 3.2. For a more general theoretical overview of a present day model that distinguishes three distinct levels of lexical insertion, see Veselovská (2018).

For a revealing, predictive, and at first glance complex analysis based on multi-level insertion of Czech passive morphology, which encompasses several variants of passives, consult the study of Veselovská and Karlík (2004).

### 4.3 Dissociation/ Alternative Realization

There remain two issues about structure (22).

- ISSUE A. The suffixal Noun *–er* cannot satisfy Full Interpretation (19) unless something assigns it relational content.
- ISSUE B. The Agent DP in SPEC(NP) needed for nouns like *speaker* must be null. Why?

These issues *can both be resolved by a single syntactic principle* justified by its cross-linguistic applicability. Embick and Noyer (2001) observe that purely grammatical constituents can often be interpreted in trees in one position while being pronounced "nearby" in a different position. They call this rather common phenomenon "Dissociation"; familiar examples are agreement features, doubling of negation features, object pronouns in Romance languages prefixed or suffixed to verbs as clitics, etc. Thus, the underlined 3rd plural features of the demonstrative and the verb in (25a) are dissociated from the (bold and zeroed) subject noun position where they are interpreted, and the negative particle in (25b) is dissociated from its (bold) interpreted position on the quantifier (by itself, *any* is not negative: *I like any James Bond movies*). A third example of Dissociation is provided by the underlined form *are* pronounced in the invertible Modal position in (25c), but interpreted in the bold position of the auxiliary Verb (typically *be),* which is obligatory for the required passive interpretation.

**(25)** a. *Those other two Ø from New York usually were seen together.*
b. *She doesn't usually want to see* ***any*** *James Bond movies.*
c. *Those precious glasses aren't usually merely Ø shaken dry and put away.*

A fully formalized local Dissociation principle, justified across languages for many constructions based on bound morphemes and even several free morphemes, is "Alternative Realization" (Emonds 2000: Ch. 4).

**(26) Alternative Realization**. A feature F with an interpreted (Logical Form) position $\alpha^0$ can be realized outside $\alpha^0$ *by a closed class item* $\gamma$ under $\beta^0$ only if *some projections of* $\alpha$ *and* $\beta$ *are sisters.*

The interpreted positions $\alpha^0$ are exemplified in (25) by bold elements, while the alternatively realized features are located on the other underlined closed class items (*those, were, n't, are*).

In tree (22), Alternative Realization works as follows. The features COUNT and ANIMATE are interpreted in a position $\alpha^0$, i.e. a subject position SPEC(NP), but are realized outside this SPEC by a closed class item –*er* under N (=$\beta^0$). Condition (26) is satisfied because SPEC(NP) is a sister of another NP, which in turn is a projection of N. Consequently, the principle of Alternative Realization now solves the two outstanding issues:

- ISSUE A. The pronounced position $\beta^0$ of –*er* is assigned the Agent interpretation of SPEC(NP) in $\alpha^0$, and so –*er* satisfies Full Interpretation (19).
- ISSUE B. In unmarked instances of Alternative Realization, the interpreted position $\alpha^0$ is null, as in (25a) and (25c). This accounts for why the same holds here.

In conclusion, this paper has shown how the productive, non–lexicalized derived forms of English Agent Nominals result from their insertion into syntactic derivations at a post–lexical level, a level that feeds semantic interpretation. Due to its late insertion, –*er* is invisible in syntax proper, so Adjectival modifiers of the head noun function as adverbials and noun phrases acquire semantic roles assigned by the (visible) verbal stem. This late insertion of –*er* contrasts with its deep insertion in open class idiomatic and lexicalized nouns, where its status as nominal head prevents the verb stem from acting like a selecting head.

**Notes**

(1) I am grateful to an anonymous reader for helpful clarifying comments. The acceptability judgments for the examples in this paper are in accord with the native Standard American English of both the author and a second informant.

(2) The diagnostics (underlined) for differentiating lexical adjectives as in (1) from partially verbal productive formations as in (2) are given in detail in sources such as Wasow (1977) and Emonds (2012). In both constructions, the two types of adjectives share the same surface morphological inflections, though in English there is no agreement to share.

(3) To repeat, the examples (10) illustrate that specifically verbal prefixes (*re-* meaning 'again', *un-*

with the sense of reversal) can occur with productive syntactic agent nominals (5b) but not with fully lexicalized ones (4b).

(4) My informant had less strict acceptability on some examples I constructed for this set, but on these given here we agreed.

(5) The lexical entry of the suffix may be further specified semantically, as for example –Loc or –Patient, since the fully lexicalized (idiomatic) words using it never seem to be interpreted as Locations or Affected Objects. Thus, a sleeper is not really a "place" in a train, nor is a milker so much an (affected) cow that one milks as an (agent) cow that makes milk.

(6) This formulation is a variant of the original statement of this principle in Chomsky (1981). Notice that a similar condition does not hold for constituents in connected discourse: *Mary doesn't want to eat inside. But today it is awfully cold in the garden.* The underlined PP is not related to any constituent in the first clause.

(7) We will account just below for why the nominal phrase in SPEC(NP) must be null.

(8) The COUNT and ANIMATE features both play important roles *in syntax, and so are syntactic* (Chomsky 1965).

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**Juliana Fecušová**

# Sociolinguistic Approach to Special Language Terminology Based on Pragmatic Equivalence

Abstract: *The present paper offers the results of the sociolinguistic research conducted with the aim to discover the comprehension of the translated Slovak taxation terminology in the target language. Based on the applied comparative and contrastive analysis of the degree of equivalence between the Slovak taxation terminology and the British taxation terminology (as used by the HMRC), the method of experimental multiple-choice questionnaire provides the Slovak translation equivalents not occurring in the British taxation terminology. The respondents are non-expert citizens of the UK and the USA. The qualitative analysis of English and Slovak taxation terminology has discovered that even though some translated Slovak terms from this field have been adapted to Slovak culture and conventions regarding their conceptualization, they do not highly impede the comprehension of the mentioned terminology in English.*

## Introduction

With the world becoming a "global village" and with the global nature of science and technology, communication within the scientific community goes beyond the borders of one country or one cultural and/or linguistic community (Dolník 2008). The cumulative need for global communication and the importance of an international language of communication (Lingua Franca) have resulted in the need for translating texts from one language into a Lingua Franca (Dolník 2008). The major language of international communication is currently English, and so the new achievements in science and technology are chiefly mediated through English written academic and professional texts.

Academic and professional texts provide an accurate and objective description and interpretation of facts and thus high-quality translations of such texts may be regarded as transfer of accurate and objective information from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL). The focus of translating academic and professional texts is specific terminology, style and typical genre features (abstract, study, synopsis, etc.) (cf. Newmark 1988; Bilá 2016; Bilá, Kačmárová, and Vaňková 2017).

## Research aims

The fundamental aim of the present study is to discover whether the non-expert citizens could understand the translated taxation terminology. There may have been three main reasons, why the translated solutions have been misinterpreted:

1) The term reflects a very specific phenomenon in the Slovak reality e.g. the term *doplnkové dôchodkové sporenie – supplementary pension insurance schemes* which mean a client´s voluntary form of long term saving with the possibility of the employer's contributions. Supplementary pension insurance company is an institution, which is not known to the respondents, thus they do not understand the principle of the supplementary pension insurance scheme and the employee benefits from it.

2) The translation solution has not been appropriately chosen, e.g. *suma zrazená na zabezpečenie dane – tax security withholdings* is considered as a *tax advance*. However, nobody of the respondents has chosen the appropriate answer, as the term *security*, means *zabezpečenie*, has been wrongly understood as *securities – cenné papiere* or *to secure a tax income – zaistiť daň z príjmu.*

3) The respondents have mistaken the naming *civic – mestský, občiansky* for the English term *občianske združenia – civic associations*, which means the result of the association with citizens (an organization), which is a legal entity and it is neither a political party nor a political movement.

**Quantitative research**

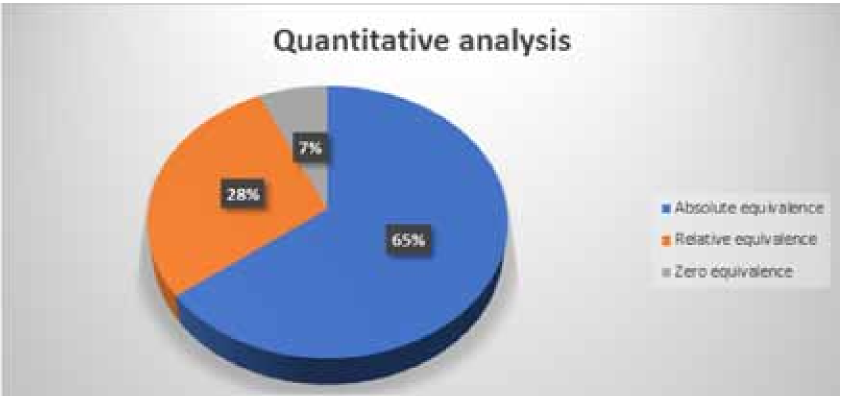
The preceding quantitative approach (Fecušová 2017) deals with the applied comparative and contrastive analysis in order to assert the degree of equivalence between the Slovak taxation terminology and the British taxation terminology. In the process of translation, the relations between language and culture are commonly taken into consideration. Translating is a process of making decisions; a translator may have a variety of options. However, the choice of an appropriate TL term may be a strenuous task, especially if the SL term denotes a concept for which an exact equivalent cannot be found. The Slovak equivalents of the English taxation terms are adapted to Slovak culture and conventions; some concepts or institution related to taxation system may exist in the UK, some may be different and some may not exist at all (Kačmárová and Bilá 2016; Kačmárová et al. 2008).

The quantitative approach provides a deeper analysis and receives more detailed information of terminological differences. Furthermore, the analysed terms represent absolute, relative and zero equivalence in the terminology of income tax and reflect two different institutional systems. In the mentioned analysis, the terms are divided into three subgroups, namely absolute equivalence (T) found in the specialized HMRC terminology; relative equivalence (NT) found in the British National Corpus and zero equivalence (NE) without any correspondence with any English terms. The results with their descriptions are shown below.

Table 1 Overview of the Slovak translation equivalents

| **Type of equivalence** | | | | | | **Terms in total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Absolute (T)** | | **Relative (NT)** | | **Zero (NE)** | | |
| **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | **Number** | **%** | |
| 1,907 | 64.62 | 651 | 28.59 | 232 | 6.79 | 2,790 |

Chart 1 Results of quantitative analysis




Even though English as a Lingua Franca globally mediates written scholastic and specialised texts in specialized subject fields, some English equivalents of the Slovak taxation system are absent. The subgroup of zero equivalence reflects subtle deficiencies in the English professional terminology. Furthermore, the demand of the precise and objective information transfer from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL) enables to create newly formed professional vocabulary that may make no sense for English native speakers. This fact raises the question whether the translated English equivalents are straightforwardly comprehensible in the divergent English taxation system. Additional inquiry is what degree of compatibility of both culturally and institutionally disparate systems may be found in the qualitative research.

**Qualitative research**

Founded on the hypotheses that the Slovak taxation system is different from the British taxation system, there exist institutional differences and differences in the specialized terminology of both countries, I have created a multiple-choice questionnaire comprising terminology that does not occur in the specialized taxation terminology of the institution Her Majesty´s Revenue and Customs (HMRC). The aim of the questionnaire research was to discover the comprehension of the translated Slovak taxation terminology in the target language with the target group consisting of the citizens of the UK and the USA. The terms that do not exist in the technical terminology of HMRC, are searched for in the British National Corpus. Consequently, the terms without any correspondence with any English terms have been applied in the multiple-choice questionnaires. They comprise of three multi-choice questions with one correct option. Altogether there have been created 128 questions included in 5 questionnaires were realized. The questionnaires are composed of the terms from fields of taxation, employment, accountancy and institution and organization names. Derived from the definitions and characterizations of particular multi-word expressions the respondents should take a stand and mark the most appropriate option. The filling of online questionnaires has been realized since October 2016 until March 2017. The complete recoverability of the questionnaire research represents 77 respondents living in the English speaking countries.

Based on the results of findings and comparisons the questionnaires consist of the translated English solutions from the Slovak taxation terminology. The English translation solutions of the Slovak terms have been compared, namely with the terminology of Her Majesty´s Revenue and Customs (HMRC).

**Origins of institutional differences**

The tax system of Anglophone countries has developed independently from the tax systems in Europe, which resulted in the terminological differences (Hrehovčík and Bázlik 2014). There are a few reasons for this special character of taxation system. According to Bázlik and Ambrus (2008), "one of them is the history of law in the British Isles, where Roman law has not been adopted in contrast to many countries in continental Europe, where it still forms one of the sources of the law" (11-12). Looking back, retrospectively from the ancient times to the Middle Ages, taxes as the oldest financial institutions came into existence together with the state development as a necessity to finance state functions. Firstly, taxes were occasionally and irregularly paid to fund war needs, lately with the rise of state expenses they had the character of regular financial means (Grúň and Paulíčková 2003). Generally, tax system has been gradually developing according to stated circumstances, thus, the development of tax system has not been in parallel progress with neighbouring countries.

Contrariwise, in the post-1918 Czechoslovakia the tax system was adopted from the former Austria-Hungary (Lenártová 2004). Broadly speaking, there were three tax reforms in the former Czechoslovakia. The first tax reform in 1927 meant the legal unification on the whole territory of Czechoslovakia; the second reform in 1952 was related to the tax system of the then tax practice of the former Soviet Union (Paulíčková 2002). After 1989 representatives of West European integration structures required to simplify the tax system and embed tax-legal institutions in it. Thus, after the split of Czechoslovakia in 1993 the third tax reform determined two criteria of taxes, i.e. direct and indirect taxes. Since then the tax legislation has been amended several times due to the commitments arising from the integration process within the EU. Therefore, the Slovak republic passed new laws in the tax system and changed structures of tax system to create highly effective and transparent system, which has been effective from May 1, 2004.

**Research: Materials and Methods**

Translation is a process of making decisions with regard to the translation solutions, when we have many options to choose from. However, the choice of an appropriate translation solution may be challenging if the term in the SL expresses a concept which cannot be substituted by the exact term existent in another language. Bearing these facts in mind, the Slovak text does not always reflect the situation in the Slovak taxation system and the English text in the English taxation system (Hrehovčík and Bázlik 2014). It is more likely that the situation of the source language (SL) is reflected in the target language (TL). Therefore, some concepts used in the Slovak language may not correspond to the circumstances in the Slovak tax legalese and vice versa. Consequently, the translator is obliged to settle these differences so that they may provide the English recipient with the meaning of the Slovak text (Hrehovčík and Bázlik 2014). Primarily it relates more to the options of selecting a translation solution and presenting formulations to the recipient than searching for equivalents in both taxation systems.

An inevitable component of a translator´s competence when dealing with specialized terminology is their ability to understand the conceptualization of the term in the SL, to comprehend the perspective applied in such conceptualization (Kačmárová and Bilá 2016), to identify the use of culturally or historically-related metaphors in the SL, to select appropriate conceptualization in the TL (if necessary, in collaboration with the experts in the field in question) and to opt for the appropriate formal expression in accordance with the linguistic requirements for the TL terms (Furdík 1990). Thus, the appropriate Slovak terms derive from the Slovak linguistic tradition (Masár 1991), as well as pragmatic aspects (thus supporting the systemic nature of Slovak terminology and creating conceptually-based terminological systems of various branches of science).

In the present case study, the English translation solutions of the Slovak terms are compared with the terminology of Her Majesty´s Revenue and Customs (HMRC). The case study comprises the terms of the Slovak tax facts translated into English. While compiling concrete multi-word expressions I have tried to pinpoint those that do not represent the British terminology of HMRC, but they are found in the Slovak taxation terminology. Online authentic English texts and translated texts of the Slovak Income Tax Act are used for comparative and contrastive analysis in this study. Furthermore, I have strived to raise the potential users´ awareness of these issues and provide them with the inevitable information so that they may be able to choose the most appropriate option in a specific situation

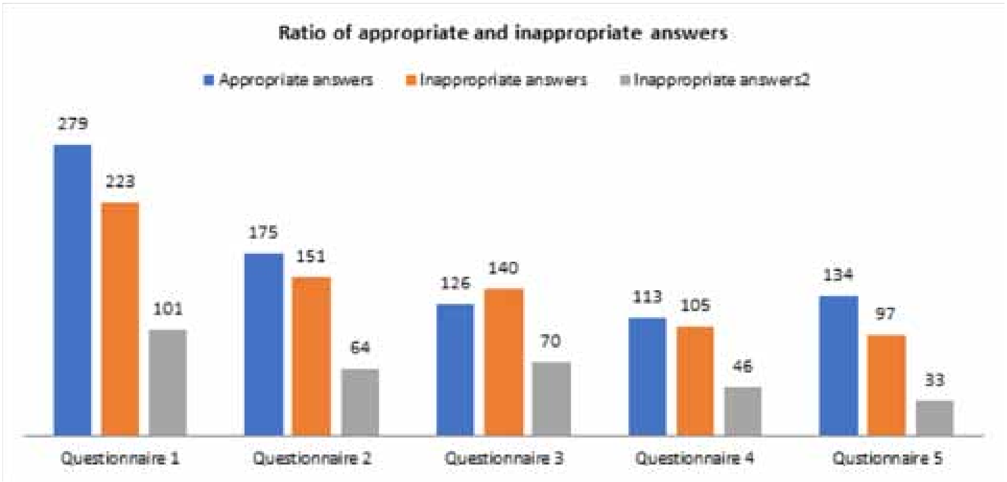
**Findings**

Since the taxation terminology belongs to the special subject language field called legal language, it comprises relatively complex terms and noun phrases. Likewise, Bázlik and Ambrus argue that "the language of the law uses a combination of complex phrases and the syntax of the complex sentence" (as cited in Vallová 1999: 189). In the present sociolinguistic research, the terms of special subject language field comprise 128 multi word expressions (MWEs) of the translated Slovak tax terminology that could not be found in the British terminology of HMRC, thus they are used in the online questionnaire to discover the comprehension of the concepts.

The overall number of responses was 1,857 from all the questionnaires. Out of these 827 answers were appropriate, which means 44.53 per cent on average. In case of the stated percentage of the individual questionnaire, the highest average of appropriate answers, more than one half, was detected in the questionnaire 5, i.e. 50.76 per cent. On the other hand the lowest average of appropriate answers was found in the questionnaire 3, i.e. 37.50 per cent. Chart 2 shows the data yielded by the questionnaires.

The data show that only one question was answered one hundred per cent. It was the question 4 of the questionnaire 4 referring to the meaning of MWE *nadobudnutie vlastníctva – acquisition of the ownership,* which means the act of becoming an owner on the basis of sale agreement.

Chart 2 Ratio of appropriate answers of questionnaires




However, 5 of the supplied questions had zero occurrences of appropriate answers. They are from:
Questionnaire 2

- Questions 16 and 17 refer to *doplnkové dôchodkové sporenie – supplementary pension insurance schemes*, which mean a voluntary form of long term saving with individual pension contributions with the possibility of contributions from an employer.

Questionnaire 3

- Question 24 refers to *metóda zvýšených nákladov – increased costs method* refers to actual direct and indirect costs of the assets production or service.

Questionnaire 4

- Question 11 refers to *občianske združenia – civic associations* stands for a group of people who are neither a legal entity nor a political party.

Questionnaire 5

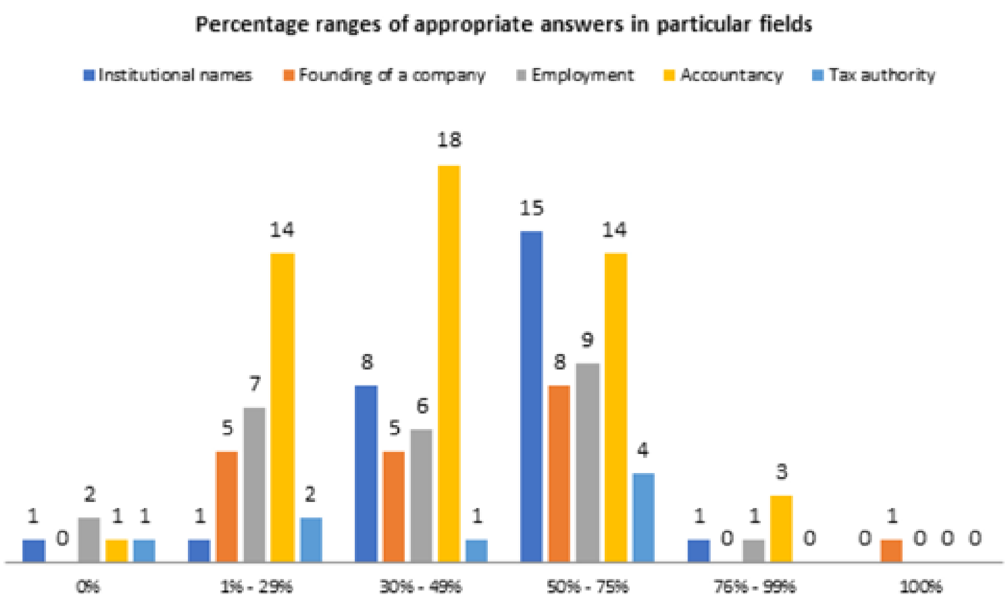
- Question 16 refers to *suma zrazená na zabezpečenie dane – tax security withholdings* is treated as a tax advance.

According to the table 2 occurrences of appropriate answers between 1 per cent and 29 per cent were reached in 29 questions. Appropriate answers between 30 per cent and 49 per cent occurred in 38 questions. The incidence of appropriate answers between 50 per cent and 75 per cent was the highest, i.e. in 50 questions. The correct answers ranging from 76 per cent to 99 per cent occurred in 5 questions. Chart 2 shows the data yielded by the questionnaires.

Table 2 Occurrence of appropriate answers

| **Number of appropriate answers – field**<br><br>**Ratio of appropriate answers %** | **Names of institutions** | **Founding a company** | **Employment** | **Accountancy** | **Tax authority** | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 % | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| 1 % - 29 % | 1 | 5 | 7 | 14 | 2 | 29 |
| 30 % - 49 % | 8 | 5 | 6 | 18 | 1 | 38 |
| 50 % - 75 % | 15 | 8 | 9 | 14 | 4 | 50 |
| 76 % - 99 % | 1 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 5 |
| 100 % | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| **Total** | 26 | 19 | 25 | 50 | 8 | 128 |

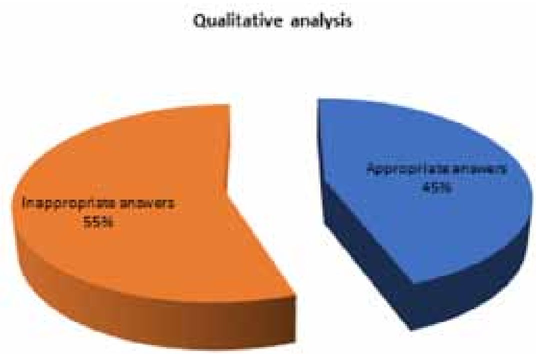
Chart 3 Percentage ranges of appropriate answers



Despite the diversity of the percentage range it can be stated that the field of accountancy had the most substantial ratio of 50 questions with appropriate answers (39.06 per cent). Percentage ratio between 30 per cent and 49 per cent was the highest in this field – with 18 questions (14.06 per cent). Proportions between a field of employment (25 questions (19.53 per cent)) and a field of institutions (26 questions (20.31 per cent)) were nearly the same.

As emerged from the analysis, the highest proportion of questions 50 (39.06 per cent) has the percentage range between 50 per cent and 75 per cent, which represents more than half of appropriate answers. The answers with the percentage range lower than 50 per cent were on the second place with 38 (29.69 per cent) answers. Less than one third of appropriate answers occurred in 29 questions (22.66 per cent). The results documented in the paper show that the majority of questions, 117 (92.19 per cent), present the proportion of appropriate answers accounting for up to three quarters of total.

Chart 4 Results of qualitative analysis




**Conclusion**

The qualitative analysis in search for pragmatic equivalence "is concerned with the way utterances are used in communicative situations" (Baker 217) and the way how multi-word expressions are interpreted in context by the perceiver. In other words the meaning of terms has been conveyed by participants in a communicative situation. Compared to the results of quantitative analysis, the results of qualitative analysis have shown discrepancies in the degree of comprehension in English and the degree of equivalence. Although some English translation solutions of the Slovak taxation system are subtly deficient, they may be straightforwardly comprehensible in the divergent English taxation system. According to the outcomes of the qualitative research, the degree of compatibility of both culturally and institutionally disparate systems is considerably high. The findings suggest that even though some translated Slovak terms from the special subject field have been adapted to Slovak culture and conventions regarding their conceptualization, they do not highly impede the comprehension in English of the mentioned terminology. Chart 4 illustrates the results of qualitative approach.

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**Šárka Hastrdlová**

# Politeness and Impoliteness Theories in the Context of Internet Relay Chat

Abstract: *The intention of this article is to briefly introduce computer-mediated communication as a modern means of conversation and its specific conditions. These are mainly anonymity, exclusively text-based interaction, the absence of visual and audio cues and 'decorporization' of the participants. Further, the article reviews literature, studies and theories relevant to politeness and impoliteness in Conversation Analysis, mainly Politeness theory and relational work by Richard J. Watts and Miriam Locher. Watts comes with a new term of relational work which he defines as the work individuals invest in negotiating relationships with others. Then, he introduces the term politic behaviour which he relates to the linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour that participants construct as being appropriate to the ongoing social interaction. Further, the phenomenon of (im)politeness is discussed in more detail and placed in the context of Internet Relay Chat. The question remains whether what counts as (im)polite in face-to-face conversation is also effective in Internet chatting and how politeness and impoliteness gain new dimensions in this medium. The author also briefly presents her own findings of opening strategies supported by her research and a corpus; however, she is aware of the complexity of this issue.*

## Introduction

One of the largest synchronous chat systems, and that which constitutes the focus of the present article, is called computer-mediated communication (further CMC) or Internet Relay Chat (further IRC). It is a multi-user synchronous communication facility that is available all over the world to people with access to the Internet network of computer systems. IRC, or chat rooms, are virtual spaces where people congregate for conversations and interactions. Participants communicate with others in the room in real time; therefore it is regarded as a synchronous form of communication. Still, as a consequence of composing a message in writing before sending it, hardware constraints when ordering the messages and server speeds, there is a short time lag between composition, input and appearance on the screen. Conversations take place via text that is visible to all participants. As people add lines, text continuously scrolls up. This fact represents input from all active participants and thus the screen shows parallel and multi-thread conversations simultaneously.

Moreover, as it has been suggested earlier, the users are spatially distant. It is a form of communication that is transmitted, received and responded to within a time frame that has formerly been only thought possible in a spoken communication. IRC does not presuppose physical contact between users. It allows and encourages non-committal communication between people who have never been, and most likely will never be, in physical contact.

However, users of IRC are not completely without knowledge of each other. Their anonymity is sometimes disclosed in various IRC live meetings where chat room participants can meet face-to-face. They may also know each other from the chat room where they meet for everyday communication and become so called ´old friends´. The phenomenon of live meetings shows that people need to know who they are chatting with despite numerous advantages of chat room anonymity.

The technological, visual and social environments of chatrooms preclude face-to-face cues such as eye contact, gaze, body orientation, and gesture that enable speakers in a spoken conversation to interact, to know whom a speaker is addressing.  Furthermore, the IRC conversations can be distinguished by the following features, some of which are also discussed in this article: several topics discussed in parallel, overlapping conversation, disrupted adjacency, relatively quick topic decay, no coherence in messages orderA the scales that often calls discussion is indirectness scale. It means how much inference is involved in the proposed action where Leech (108) correlates indirectness with politeness saying that "indirect illocutions tend to be more polite because they increase the degree of optionality and because the more direct an illocution is, the more diminished and tentative its force tends to be". Nowadays some researchers (Urbanová 41) claim that indirectness cannot be equated with politeness since "indirectness evidently displays a semantic range wider than politeness..." and "is understood as a complex phenomenon which is not primarily connected with politeness". However, in some cultures talking politely means to sound indirect, for example in Japanese. This may be the reason why it is necessary to view the problem of politeness within the framework of socio-cultural needs of a given community or group and deal with a problem of the universality of politeness. The research of chatrooms described in this article also attempts to tackle this issue.

Further, Leech formulates his Politeness Principle in the form of the following maxims:  Tact Maxim, Generosity Maxim, Approbation Maxim, Modesty Maxim, Agreement Maxim and Sympathy Maxim. He considers Tact and Approbation to be more important than the other two remaining maxims because he believes that politeness is generally more oriented to the other than the self. The whole approach was mainly criticised by Brown and Levinson (4) who emphasised that not every language pattern requires a maxim or principle in order to produce it, and we might theoretically end up with an infinite number of maxims. Watts (2003) considers Leech´s hypotheses too theoretical to apply to a real language. However, it can be used to explain a range of motivations for polite or impolite behaviour in British or American background.

The work of Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson (1987) builds on Goffman´s notion of 'face' and also on Grice´s Cooperative Principle (1975). They introduce four types of politeness strategies, Bald On Record (provides no effort to minimize threats to hearer´s face), Positive Politeness (in this situation the hearer has a desire to be respected; it also confirms that the relationship is friendly and expresses group reciprocity), Negative Politeness (the hearer wants to be respected, although it is assumed that the speaker is in some way imposing on him), and Off-Record-indirect strategy (the speaker is removing himself from any imposition). According to Brown and Levinson, politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearers´ face. That is why their theory is often referred to as 'face-saving' theory of politeness. Face refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and maintaining that self-esteem in public or in private situations. Usually there is an attempt to avoid embarrassing the others, or making them feel uncomfortable. Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) are acts that infringe on the hearers´ need to maintain his/her self-esteem, and be respected. Politeness strategies are developed for the main purpose of dealing with the above FTAs. The main focus is thus laid on the speaker (Watts 85).

Brown and Levinson´s seminal work was mostly criticized for not dealing with politeness as such but more with the concept of face which they had adapted to their own purposes. In addition, their theory of politeness can be more accurately described as a theory of facework, rather than politeness. Finally, they assumed that the degree of indirectness was posited as a universal realisation of linguistic politeness. This is now accepted to be an over-generalization (Locher 68) since social norms and the context also play a significant role in the evaluation of what is considered more or less polite. Despite all the criticism, they inspired many researchers, including Richard Watts and Miriam Locher to study linguistic politeness and to further examine their work.

Watts (2003) comes with a new term of relational work, which he defines as the 'work' individuals invest in negotiating relationships with others (Locher and Watts 2005). Relational work comprises the entire continuum of verbal behaviour from direct, impolite, rude or aggressive interaction through to polite interaction. Then, he works with the term politic behaviour which he defines as "that behaviour, linguistic and non-linguistic, which the participants construct as being appropriate to the ongoing social interaction, despite the expectations that participants might bring to it" (Watts 20). His intention is to demonstrate that politeness may be perceived by participants only as the kind of behaviour appropriate to the current interaction, i.e. politic behaviour. The question then is how an interactant recognises what linguistic behaviour is or is not socially appropriate. In effect, there are only two ways in which we can become consciously aware of the appropriate politic behaviour. These are: 1 when the values it symbolises are withdrawn in instance of social practice or 2 when more values are provided than are felt to be necessary.

A recognizable limitation of this concept of politeness is that it does not offer any straightforward or operational answers to the questions of conduct as is the case in the Brown and Levinson model. However, this is because the evaluation remains individual and can never be objectively verifiable.

Moreover, Watts works with the term face and facework. As he states (Watts 131) this involves the reciprocal social attribution of face to the participants in social interaction in accordance with the lines participants are assumed to be taking in the interaction. These lines constitute part of the politic verbal behaviour of the discourse activity. Falling out of line is usually considered impolite or rude.

Watts views polite behaviour as a marked extension of politic verbal behaviour, or conscious positively marked behaviour, see figure 1. Obviously, the conditions under which certain linguistic expressions and behaviour are regarded as more or less appropriate need to be discerned just as much as socio-cultural setting, i.e. Language of Internet Relay Chat.

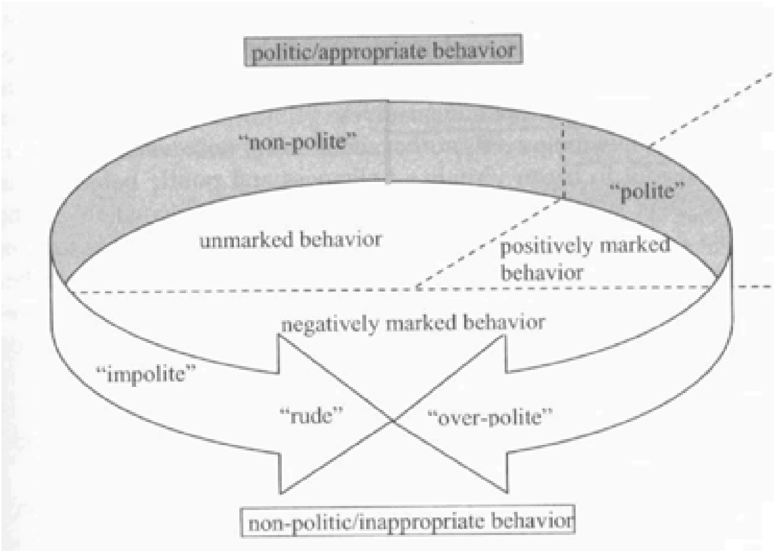


Figure 1 Politeness theory by R.J. Watts (2005)

Politic behaviour can be unmarked; politeness, on the other hand, is its marked version. Furthermore, polite behaviour always has to be appropriate.

His other major hypothesis supposes the existence of expressions of procedural meaning (EPMs), such as greetings, terms of address, hedges, and politeness markers please, thank you, that are considered to express politeness in other theories. According to Watts, the so called structures of linguistic politeness are always pragmaticalized EPMs encoding procedural meaning and that while the range of EPMs form part of the politic behaviour in a social situation, they do not inherently encode politeness. Further, in Watts´ theory EPMs are an indispensable feature of linguistic practice because they are largely responsible for triggering inferences in the addressee that bear on interpersonal meaning (greetings, terms of address, leave-taking, etc.) or they instruct the addressee where and how to derive inferences from propositional values.

In addition, Watts introduces the terms first-order and second-order (im)politeness, and works with the terms (im)politeness1 and (im)politeness2. First-order (im)politeness, or (im)politeness1 means the way in which (im)polite behaviour is evaluated and commented on by lay members of a language community. Second-order (im)politeness, or (im)politeness2 is a theoretical term in a universal theory of politeness that refers to forms of social behaviour preserving mutually shared considerations for others. Next part will briefly consider impoliteness or rudeness as it is commonly referred to in literature.

**Impoliteness**

This brief chapter has its aim to summarize the research that has been done in the field of impoliteness, the long neglected issue contrary to politeness. As Kasper (1990), Culpeper (1996 and 2008), Kienpointner (1997) or Locher and Watts (2008) point out standard theories of politeness do not deal with rudeness/impoliteness sufficiently. They rather describe communicative strategies that promote social harmony. However, they overlook communicative strategies with the opposite orientation, confrontational and disruptive to social equilibrium. Leech (105), for example, claims that "conflictive illocutions tend, thankfully, to be rather marginal to human linguistic behaviour in normal circumstances". It is not possible to describe impoliteness simply as a violation of rules and maxims of cooperative or polite communication, or as behaviour that is face-aggravating in a particular context. Impoliteness is not a marginal activity and an appropriate descriptive framework is necessary. Moreover, in the context of IRC, the key topic of this article, the question may arise of what counts as polite or impolite. Graham (2007: 757) in his exploration of a conflict in a computer-mediated community points out that "as this type of mediated interaction becomes more prevalent, it stands to reason that we must be more aware of the impact of the mediated environment, since it seems to play its own (pivotal) role in determining expectations of politeness within mediated settings."

In most research impoliteness appears as opposite to politeness, it means as the lack or absence of something, as 'non-act'. The question arises whether this behaviour is consciously performed by the speaker or not. Kasper (1990) proposes distinguishing motivated and unmotivated rudeness. Unmotivated rudeness refers to the violation of the norms due to ignorance, unfamiliarity with culturally appropriate forms of politic behaviour, for example children´s pragmatic competence. With motivated rudeness the speaker intends to be rude. Kasper further distinguishes three types of rudeness: the lack of affect control, strategic and ironic. The last type is also referred to as 'banter' or 'mock-impoliteness' which are also discussed in other linguistic studies of Labov (1972), Leech (1983) or Culpeper (1996). These utterances are overtly impolite yet blatantly false in their propositional content, and are thus understood as a joke. Leech argues that these utterances foster social intimacy, relative equality and closeness. Labov reveals the complexity of 'ritual insults' that take place amongst black adolescents. Since these expressions are clearly untrue, and the participants are aware of this, the effect is again to reinforce in-group solidarity. "Ritualized banter is a place where we can be impolite with impunity, since in ritual we are freed from personal responsibility for the acts we are engaged in" (Labov 352-353).

Culpeper (1996) in his research investigates impoliteness and the use of strategies that are designed to be socially disruptive. He uses Brown and Levinson´s super strategies for performing FTA and introduces the notions like 'bald on record' impoliteness, positive impoliteness, negative impoliteness, sarcasm or mock impoliteness and withhold politeness. He further raises a question of when people are impolite and gives several situations where people have little motivation to cooperate and have a conflict of interest, such as in courtroom, or between spouses.

Kienpointner (1997) attempts to refine standard definitions of politeness and rudeness and shows the existence of a number of types of rudeness that should be considered cooperative communicative behaviour. He states an essential problem that one and the same type of speech act can be polite in some contexts, cultures, languages, but impolite or even rude in other contexts, cultures and languages and also notes that politeness and rudeness are not pre-established effects of social attributes because these social attributes are dynamic and negotiable properties in discourse (253). Correspondingly, Locher and Watts (2008) stress that the uptake of a message is as important, if not more important than the utterer´s original intention.

Kienpointner further defines rudeness as a kind of prototypically non-cooperative or competitive communicative behaviour and introduces terms 'reactive rudeness' and 'sociable rudeness'. Reactive rudeness in Kienpointner´s perception "can be termed cooperative insofar as every participant in a symmetric relationship conversation has the right to retaliate against previous personal attacks, as long as the reactions are moderate and remain adequate" (266). Sociable rudeness is based on the fact that certain subgroups of a speech community can have a positive attitude towards rudeness; it can even be used as a means of expressing group identity and solidarity. As Kienpointner puts it "the subgroups of a speech community which engage in sociable rudeness agree to experience their own behaviour as at least slightly aggressive" (268). Similar to sociable rudeness stands rudeness as a means of social self-defence, or the so called inter-group rudeness with its anti-language as a strategy of communication. However, unlike sociable rudeness anti-languages attack the face of persons who are not members of the group and are, therefore, not considered as cooperative communicative behaviour. Finally, cooperative rudeness fulfils a number of important social functions and quite often stabilizes rather than endangers social relationship.

In addition, Locher and Watts (2008) in their paper stress that it is important to view impoliteness as a first order concept, i.e. judgment made by a participant in an interaction with respect to the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the social behaviour of co-participants, rather than a second order concept.

**Opening strategies in a specific IRC research**

The research that has been done in this field pre-supposed making an extensive corpus of synchronous IRC conversation. The corpus gathered for the IRC research purposes contains 973 messages. The example 1 is an illustration of a small part of the corpus. As it can be seen, the corpus is in a form of a transcript of conversation in a chatroom. The main aim was to capture the speech situation in the chat room as naturally as possible. No corrections were made in terms of italicization, capitalization, punctuation, spelling or grammar. For the research purposes the individual messages were numbered to make the conversational threads easier to follow and present. The question arises what the message is, how to define it in the context of IRC. In this work, the message is defined as instantly communicated written information sent by one participant of a chat room and delimited by the moment when the text is conveyed to the monitors of other chat participants.

Example 1 Extract from the IRC corpus

269. james6 has JOINED the conversation. **(AJS)**
270. mike_in_pa has LEFT the conversation.
271. james6 : hi ladies **(greeting)**
272. sportster_857 has LEFT the conversation.
273. SpecialED : great the room is broken **(inappropriate)**
274. SpecialED kicks the edge of the room **( non-verbal action display, aggressive, impolite)**
275. heatrbroken has JOINED the conversation. **(AJS)**
276. dolphinsneedaqb has LEFT the conversation.

277. james6 : broken?
278. SpecialED : YES JAMES ITS BROKEN **(shouting, impolite)**
279. james6 : what happened
280. SpecialED : dont question me **(imperative, inappropriate)**
281. Wiky: room?
282. SpecialED : dont as questions **(imperative, inappropriate)**
283. CLS2007 has LEFT the conversation.
284. james6 : i always question
285. she_who_thirsts has JOINED the conversation. **(AJS)**
286. SpecialED : ask **(imperative, inappropriate)**
287. james6 : i just did
288. Wiky: question?

Source: author's own corpus

As far as the research questions are concerned, they included queries in terms of to what extent specific conditions on CMC affect conversation techniques and strategies in this medium and what im/politeness strategies are used there. The theory of Watts is implemented there. An additional question was what counts as polite/impolite in this medium. In this article, opening strategies are discussed.

It was mentioned earlier that Internet chatting fulfils primarily a social/phatic function as a source of fun, relaxation, meeting new people, dating, cybersex and looking for a partner. This role of IRC must necessarily be reflected in opening phrases. Four main groups of openings can be found in the corpus specified: Automated Joining Signal (further AJS), contact advertisements, greeting formulae and opening questions. The analysis concerning the behaviour when opening conversation in a chat room revealed some notable facts that will be summarized mainly with a view to the above mentioned research questions.

First, when the frequency of occurrence of any IRC opening technique is taken into account, the following sequence can be drawn from the analysis in table 1.

Table 1 Frequency of openings in the corpus

| | $\sum$ |
|---|---|
| AJS | 108 |
| Greetings | 32 |
| Questions | 19 |
| Contact advertisements | 5 |

Source: author's own corpus

AJS is logically the most frequent way of opening since every chat participant enters the chat room through this signal. Taking this fact into account, the most frequent and efficient opening technique is a greeting. If it is placed into a face-to-face context, the total of 108 interactants entered the room but nobody greeted them first, they had to make a greeting (N=32), an opening question (N=19) or give contact advertisement (N=5) but only 30 of them received any kind of response and could possibly continue in conversation.

Moreover, it was observed that opening sequences can stand independently or in a changed order because of a high degree of disrupted adjacency, its incoherent and overlapping character. The data also shows a high level of initiation attempts in contrast with further conversations. Various opening techniques of individual participants are repeatable but not necessarily successful as we can see in example 2.

It is not possible to give a firm formulation of such a rule for the IRC context, except the note based on this research that openings are not strung out beyond five repetitions.

Example 2 Various opening techniques of one participant

759. Butterfly has joined the conversation. **(AJS summons)**
767. Butterfly: hi all **(pre-conversational opening-greeting, vague address)**
769. Butterfly: asl pls **(first contact question)**
773. Butterfly: 24/F/ Gadsden Alabama **(contact advertisement)**
785. Butterfly has left the conversation.

Source: author's own corpus

Further, it has been found that the least efficient type of opening is such opening that does not carry any address, general noun or nickname. This mainly refers to vague openings, such as first contact questions. On the other hand, the analysis reveals that chat participants choose addressing by a general noun directly after AJS (100%) rather than addressing directly by a nickname. The nickname is usually used after the initial greeting to all is made and a chat participant continues in conversation. It is assumed that addressing by a general noun right after AJS is regarded as being appropriate to the situation on IRC.

Surprisingly, there is no record of a situation when newcomers joining the chat room conversation receive the greeting or any response first in the corpus. They always have to open the conversation first, each by different means. The specificity of IRC is that it enables people to continue opening conversations as many times as they wish. It can be a greeting, a question or addition of a second pair part – which means joining the conversation flow directly. It is not unusual not to gain any response at all to any opening technique as it can be seen from the examples in the above analysis. From the point of view of (im)politeness it can be said that the strategies for joining IRC conversation can be interpreted in terms of relational work and so they are appropriate for this type of medium.

However, it can be argued that types of greetings known from face-to-face interaction on IRC, which means with an affiliated address, may be positively marked or in excess of what is required by the situational context. According to Watts´ theory (2003) greetings are highly ritualised and pragmaticalized EPMs (expressions of procedural meaning). He further states that EPMs are a part of politic behaviour. When they are not present their absence may be interpretable as impoliteness, and when they are in excess of what is required by the situation, they may be evaluated as polite by others in the chatroom. This would imply that greeting formulae on IRC are polite and not only appropriate. The above findings are the evidence of another dimension of conversation on IRC where the participants are not required to greet others but naturally mingle in the ongoing conversation without any face-threats or use only contact advertisement. The process of greeting varies from a face-to-face conversation; a person enters a chat room, and either gives some type of an opening or only waits, afterwards may or may not receive a greeting or a response by other chat participants. No response to a greeting on IRC is also frequent but not regarded as being impolite or a face-threatening act. This conduct is rather viewed as specific of cyber culture. It can be said that such behaviour is appropriate to the context of the interactional situation. The only impolite exchange in the corpus is a negatively marked second pair part in lines 274 to 286 as example 1 shows.

It is also observed that greetings on IRC in the majority of cases serve either as an invitation for further talk or only as a phatic element fulfilling a social function. It was noticed that for the conversation to be successful, chat participants have to struggle more and utilize more opening strategies than in face-to-face conversation. As far as efficiency is concerned, the most efficient opening technique (the technique that gained the most responses) is a greeting formula (N=14) followed by an opening question (N=13), contact advertisement (N=3). Example 3 shows such a situation.

Example 3 The most efficient opening technique – greeting formula followed by an opening question

**677. Lunarwolfs has JOINED the conversation.**
**678. Lunarwolfs : hey people whats up (greeting formula)**
679. LINDSAY : it sure is
680. LINDSAY : since its so unlively,wanna buy some makeup or skin care from me
681. LINDSAY : orrrrr...microdermabrasion?
682. SWEETANGELEYES : no thanks, i don’t wear make-up much
683. LINDSAY : thats the best..gotta take care of ya skin
**684. Lunarwolfs : how is everyone doing today (opening question)**

Source: author’s own corpus

AJS as an opening strategy did not lead to any response or further conversation (N=0), see table 2.

Table 2 Efficiency of openings in the corpus

| | % | ∑ |
|---|---|---|
| Greetings | 44% | 14 |
| Questions | 40% | 13 |
| Contact advertisements | 16% | 3 |
| AJS | 0% | 0 |
| Total | | 30 |

Source: author’s own corpus

The data from table 2 infer that joining the chat room is not a guarantee of any further conversation. Greetings from the side of incoming chat participants and then various types of opening questions described above are only potential starters of any IRC conversation.

One of the final findings is that the absence of personal contact in IRC conversation and the anonymity results in a relatively high degree of straightforwardness reflected in the content and the form of an opening question. The opening question such as 'where are you from?' or 'asl' right after AJS or a greeting would be regarded as impolite and too direct in face-to-face conversation, but it is viewed as appropriate to the ongoing social interaction on IRC.

**Conclusions**

The article briefly introduced the unique character of IRC, the synchronous chat system, and described its specific conditions. These include anonymous interaction, based solely on text, the absence of visual and audio cues. Further, politeness and impoliteness theories that were briefly mentioned were afterwards placed in the context of IRC. The author pursued to find out whether what counted as (im)polite in face-to-face conversation was also effective in Internet chatting and how politeness and impoliteness gained new dimensions in this medium. Namely, opening strategies were briefly discussed and the author used her own corpus to support her findings. Four main groups of openings could be found in the corpus: Automated Joining Signal (AJS), contact advertisements, greeting formulae and opening questions. It was found that the least efficient opening is the one that did not carry any address or nickname. The specificity of IRC is that it enables people to continue opening conversations as many times as they wish. It is not unusual not to gain any response at all to any opening technique. From the point of view of (im)politeness the strategies for joining IRC conversation can be interpreted in terms of relational work and so they are appropriate for this type of medium. However, types of greetings with an affiliated address may be positively marked or in excess of what is required by the situational context, therefore polite. In general, chat participants have to struggle more and use more opening strategies than in face-to-face conversation. No response to a greeting on IRC is not considered to be impolite or face-threatening, but rather appropriate. The only impolite exchange in the corpus is a negatively marked second pair part shown in example 1. The above observations might suggest a way in which IRC systems could be designed to enhance more efficient and coherent openings. It would be satisfactory to introduce such a device that would enable the newcomer to examine the whole room in-depth in a user-friendly format and choose people they would like to chat with directly. On the other hand, present participants of the chat interaction would receive a clearer signal that another person entered the room, since the existing indicator - AJS is not sufficient, as it was observed.

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# Developing Intercultural Competencies through Culture Strategies

Abstract: *To communicate effectively across cultures the speakers should have knowledge of other cultures, an open attitude towards others, skills for interpreting and relating, as well as for discovery and interaction. Besides, they need to develop a critical cultural awareness to reflect on their own values and those of others in the target cultures. Finally, they also should develop strategies to compensate for the linguistic or cultural gaps that may arise in intercultural exchanges. The paper is aimed at describing culture learning aspects from a theoretical standpoint and examining the actions respondents carry out as intercultural speakers during their study abroad drawing on their intercultural communicative competence (i.e. knowledge, skills and attitudes). Using the Culture-Learning Strategies Inventory, which asks respondents to self-assess their knowledge and use of culture strategies, our purpose was to investigate participants' strategic competences and intercultural sensitivity. As a final point, the findings in connection with the outcomes of previously conducted studies related to the topic of culture learning strategies are discussed.*

## The Concept of Culture and Interculturality

First, it is important to give theoretical background to our research and explain the most important terms and concepts. There is not a universal definition of culture, but we want to point out those theories which we consider workable for our further investigation. The newest sociological concepts of culture include all forms of social interaction.

An American cultural anthropologist Geertz (1977) argued for a "semiotic" concept of culture, which means that culture is a system of symbols and webs of meanings within which people live (language, etiquette, rituals, calendars, etc.). According to Kramsch (1998), there is the culture of every day practices which draws on the culture of shared history and traditions. People identify themselves as members of a society with common history, identify themselves with the memories of the past, with the present and anticipate its future. Novinger (2001) gives a detailed definition of the term culture according to which "culture refers to knowledge, experience, meanings, beliefs, values, attitudes, religions, concepts of self, the universe, the self-universe, relationships, hierarchies of status, role expectations, spatial relations and time concepts accumulated by a large group of people over generations through individual and group effort" (14). She also believes that culture manifests itself in patterns of language and behaviour, and that culture also filters communication, in other words, culture refines people's communication and behaviour.

Willems has described interculturality as "a complex moral-ethical dimension of foreign language education that requires knowledge (of cultural factors), insight (into what constitutes cultural identity), readiness (towards opening up to cultural differences) and skills (in negotiating common territory and identifying and bridging gaps)" (10).

### Intercultural Communication, Non-verbal Communication and Culture Shock

The intercultural communication can refer to communication between people who do not share the same nationality, social or ethnic origin, gender, age, occupation, religion, educational background, or sexual preference. However, the most usual notion of intercultural communication refers to the meeting of two cultures or two languages across the political boundaries of nation states. According to Singer (1987), success of intercultural communication is also determined by cognitive and affective factors, such as perception (categorizing and processing information) and attitudes (opinions, generalizations, stereotypes, emotions, feelings, tendencies to act a certain way).

Apart from the communication with a language, there is also a non-verbal communication. According to Novinger (2001), about two-thirds of all communication is non-verbal (gestures, facial expressions, tone of voice, body language, etc.). Our cultures teach us our behaviour from birth (when to speak, when to be quiet, approved facial expressions, acceptable gestures, eye contacts, proxemics, approved voice tone, etc.), and most of our behaviour becomes internalized below our conscious thought. The proportion of verbal to non-verbal communication varies and is quite relative from culture to culture. This dissimilarity can create problems in intercultural communication. If there is a need to learn, understand or translate verbal language, there should be also a need to learn, understand and translate non-verbal communication. Consequently, the intercultural communication has to include both the verbal and the non-verbal communication.

The term "culture shock" is closely connected with intercultural communication taking place when crossing national boundaries. Cultural shock is associated with feelings of estrangement, anger, hostility, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, or self-pity. It is a common experience of people moving to a foreign country, it can range from a mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis.

### Communicative Competence, Intercultural Competence and Intercultural Communicative Competence

One of the key competences is the communicative competence. Průcha (125) defines the communicative competence as "an individual's ability to use various skills of verbal (speaking, listening, writing, reading) and non-verbal communication in a social interaction (professional, vocational, personal, etc.)". The communicative competence is related not only to the native language, but also to foreign languages. The concept of the communicative competence plays an important role in the theory of intercultural communication.

Byram (1997) analyses and distinguishes both, the intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence. He defines the intercultural competence as "the individuals' ability to interact in their own language with people from another country and culture, drawing upon their knowledge about intercultural communication, their attitudes of interest in otherness and their skills in interpreting, relating and discovering" (70). According to Byram (1997), linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and intercultural competences are components of the intercultural communicative competence. The intercultural communicative competence is in fact an integration of the communicative competence and the intercultural competence. Acquiring intercultural communicative competences allows learners to use foreign language appropriately in communication with foreigners (Reid 2014a).

According to Álvarez and Garrido to communicate effectively across cultures a speaker "needs the right mix of linguistic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural and strategic competences" (152). In relation to this, Bílá (2005) investigates the phonic perception based on non-native speakers, native speakers and immigrants. Kováčiková and Svitačová (2015) consider intercultural competences together with global competences to be social competences. Thanks to them, people are able to cope with encounters with other cultures, achieve mutual understanding with other cultures, self-reflection and active approaches to solving global problems in the world, and understand cultural peculiarities. Hanesová (2011, 2015) presents several teaching methods that support the effectivity of modern intercultural and plurilingual instruction, aimed at multiple targets such as language skills, higher cognitive skills and acquiring knowledge of specialized content. Reid (2014b) proposes a model of cultural aspects in connection with acquiring general and communicative competences based on CEFR and she also deals with different models of intercultural competences (Reid 2013).

### Culture Learning and Culture Use Strategies

Research has identified different strategies that should enable a language learner to become an effective intercultural speaker, but has not explored sufficiently the strategies that are necessary for competent communication across cultures. According to Álvarez, Beaven and Garrido, in addition to culture learning strategies that raise self-awareness and help to overcome cultural difficulties and differences, learners also need culture use strategies that help to apply the acquired cultural knowledge (188).

*Culture learning strategies* are conscious processes used to learn about a culture while *culture use strategies* are conscious processes selected to use the knowledge that is learned. Cohen et al. (2005) claim that language students lack strategies for culture learning and do not have a coherent overall plan for learning the culture or developing intercultural communication skills. It is important to mention that the acquisition and use of culture learning and culture use strategies is easier in some cases than others. According to Macianskiene et al. "some strategies soon become automatic or internalised and require little conscious thinking; some need a long time of conscious thinking and repetition to be used automatically; others require thorough planning, constant control, consistent work and a high level of self-concept" (7).

Therefore, considerable scholarly attention has been paid to strategies and several authors have also discussed culture strategies from different points of view (Oxford 1990, Galloway 2001, Littlemore 2003, Nakatani 2005, Kráľová 2016). They approached culture learning and culture use strategies from cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective aspect, as well as from the standpoint of oral communication, social interaction, negotiation of meaning and coping with anxiety.

### Methodology of the Research

This section describes the methodological approach designed to achieve the research aims which are defined below. Further, this part of the paper discusses the sampling, research subjects, and the research instrumentation - a questionnaire-based survey of Erasmus participants' use of culture learning and use strategies. The survey was conducted by using a special type of questionnaire - a strategy inventory. Inventories are self-reporting measures and are regarded as effective tools for diagnostic purposes. Therefore the present study has character of a pilot study and collects information about the initial perception of the respondents.

### Research Aims

The research is aimed at exploring, analysing and understanding respondents' use of culture strategies. The primary aim of the study is to investigate which strategies for learning culture the respondents actually used during their study abroad and which of them were utilized most frequently. The secondary aim is to draw possible explanations from the rate of occurrences of the reported culture learning and culture use strategies.

### Sampling and Research Subjects

For our study we opted for a non-probability (convenience) sampling targeted at a particular group, which does not represent the wider population. The research was aimed at *culture-general strategies* therefore participants, who studied abroad in a wide variety of countries and different academic majors, were recruited. The sample consisted of 70 respondents ranging from 21 to 27 years old who participated in Erasmus study abroad programmes. Considering the countries of the students' origin, respondents were Slovak, Turkish, Belgian, Czech, French, Serbian, Polish, Russian, Finnish, a Luxembourger, Italian, Spanish, Hungarian and Bulgarian. Academic majors represented in the sample included English language and literature, English language and culture, Spanish language and literature, Translation studies, Pre-school and pre-elementary pedagogy, Mass media communication, Agricultural trade and marketing, International relations, Tourism and Hospitality, Sports science, Archaeology and Religion studies. The time span of their study stay abroad ranged from three months to one year. To mention their living situations during study abroad, all of them lived in student dormitories.

### Strategies Inventory for Learning Culture (SILC)

The SILC (by Paige, Rong, Zhang, Kappler, Hoff, and Emert, 2002) was originally created for the Maximizing Study Abroad: An Instructional Guide to Strategies for Language and Culture Learning and Use. It is aimed at highlighting the strategies students already have for communicating across cultures and helping them recognize additional strategies for improving their cross-cultural communication. It measures the frequency of use of culture strategies. As the authors state the inventory asks the respondents to consider what they do to be effective in a new culture (175). The specific strategies listed in the inventory are suggested as important for how they acquire the knowledge and skills to function well in a new environment. Respondents are asked to indicate their use of a particular strategy using a four-point response format ranging from "I use this strategy and like it" to "This strategy does not fit for me". It consists of 60 items (strategies) organized into three components: Pre-Departure Strategies, In-Country Strategies and Post-Study Abroad Strategies. The component Pre-Departure Strategies, which encourages respondents to think about what strategies they might use when they are in culturally different environments from those they are used to, involves only one category "adapting to culturally different surroundings". The component In-Country Strategies is subdivided into eight culture learning categories: culture shock/coping strategies, strategies for dealing with difficult times in the new culture, interpreting culture, communicating across cultures, communication styles, non-verbal communication, interacting with culturally different people and home stay strategies. The component Post-Study Strategies, which help respondents manage their re-entry into their own culture, encompasses only one category "strategies to use after returning home".

**Background Questionnaire**

A background questionnaire queried respondents about information such as age and academic major, as well as about their language background. They were also asked to report on the country in which they had spent their Erasmus study programme and for how long. The data derived from the background questionnaire was used to describe the research sample. The respondents completed both instruments as post-measures at the end of their study abroad.

**Research Results**

The respondents' perceptions of using the culture learning strategies during their Erasmus stay were inspected using an inventory with predominantly closed question items. The data obtained through the quantitative research instrument SILC are expressed in percentage. This section describes the results of the investigation. Those preferences which have reached more than 70 per cent are considered relevant. Table 1 presents an overall overview of the reported culture strategies use.

**Table 1 Overall culture strategy use**

| | **Total** | **Percentage** | | **Total** | **Percentage** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***Pre-Departure Strategies*** | **5/7** | **71%** | Strategies for when I am in surroundings that are culturally different from what I am used to | 5/7 | (71%) |
| | | | | | |
| ***In-Country Strategies*** | **28/46** | **60%** | | | |
| | | | Strategies I (will likely) use to adjust to a new culture and cope with culture shock | 5/6 | (83%) |
| | | | Strategies for dealing with difficult times in the new culture | 4/5 | (80%) |
| | | | Strategies for making judgments about another culture | 3/4 | (75%) |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Strategies for communicating with people from another culture | 3/5 | (60%) |
| | | | Strategies to deal with different communication styles | 5/6 | (83%) |
| | | | Strategies to understand nonverbal communication in another culture | 4/8 | (50%) |
| | | | Strategies to interact with people in the host culture | 3/4 | (75%) |
| | | | Strategies to use with my homestay family | 1/8 | (12%) |
| | | | | | |
| ***Post-Study Abroad Strategies*** | **4/7** | **57%** | Strategies to use when I return home | 4/7 | (57%) |
| | | | | | |
| ***Total*** | **37/60** | **61%** | | **37/60** | **(61%)** |

The respondents applied during their abroad study 37 (61 per cent) out of 60 itemized culture learning strategies. Further on, five (71 per cent) out of seven *pre-departure strategies* were used actively by the respondents. They also opted for twenty-eight *in-country strategies* out of forty-six (60 per cent). Finally, the respondents reported using four post-study abroad strategies out of seven (57 per cent).

The *Pre-Departure Strategies* are strongly connected to both the affective aspect of the culture strategies – tolerance of ambiguity (the acceptance of confusing situations) and to the social aspect of culture strategies - empathizing with others (ability to better understand someone's perspective). According to Oxford (142, 146) those "who are moderately tolerant of ambiguity tend to be open-minded in dealing with confusing facts and events" and those "who can demonstrate empathy develop higher cultural understanding", which is also part of learning about new culture. The items within this category show a tendency of the respondents towards intensive use of strategies for when they are in surroundings that are culturally different from what they are used to.

The *In-Country Strategies* represent the most extensive group which is broken down into eight subsections. Having a more detailed look at this category, the respondents utilized 83 per cent of Culture shock/Coping strategies, 83 per cent of Communication styles strategies, 80 per cent of Strategies for dealing with difficult times, 75 per cent of Strategies for interpreting culture, 75 per cent of Interaction strategies, 60 per cent of Communication strategies, 50 per cent of Nonverbal communication strategies and 12 per cent of Strategies for homestay family.

The *Post-Study Abroad Strategies* can be subdivided into two major groups. The most frequently used are the strategies falling into the category which can be labelled as a category of affective and social strategies - *"sharing one's feelings and experiences with friends and family"* (87 per cent), *"trying to stay connected with friends from study abroad"* (86 per cent), *"finding a group of people who have had similar study abroad experiences to share these"* (71 per cent) and *"giving oneself time to readjust to one's own country"* (70 per cent). These strategies are usually applied immediately after the return home and are aimed at handling the emotional aspects of the study abroad experience. They also satisfy the need to communicate and share feelings and experiences. The second group of strategies which have more sustainable and active character such as *"taking language classes or classes on subjects one became interested in"* (43 per cent), *"participating in activities sponsored by study abroad and international groups"* (37 per cent), or *"volunteering for an international organization and working with international students"* (31 per cent) are evidently applied less frequently by the respondents. It seems that the long-term impact of the study abroad stay is not that durable and solid.

**In-Country Strategies**

As the In-Country Strategies represent the broadest and the most interesting group, they deserve a deeper analysis. Considering the first group of strategies that the respondents use to adjust to a new culture and cope with culture shock, the results show that except for the item *"using a variety of coping strategies when I feel I have culture shock overload"* (56 per cent) all strategies for coping with culture shock were frequently applied. The possible reason for this result is the fact that the strategy mentioned above is too general and imprecise, and the respondents were not clear about its exact meaning. The frequency of use of the remaining strategies is as follows *"explaining one's cross-cultural experiences to one's family and friends at home"* (96 per cent), *"keeping reasonable expectations of one's ability to adjust to the new culture"* (90 per cent), *"assuming that some moments of culture shock are normal culture learning experiences"* (88 per cent), *"striving to keep oneself physically healthy"* (77 per cent), *"considering what one's friends living in the host country say about people from one's own culture"* (73 per cent). The positive outcome is that culture shock seems to be viewed by the respondents as a natural occurrence, affecting most people to different degrees, and is nothing that should be denied if it happens. It can be a very valuable experience, which can leave us with broader perspectives, deeper insight into ourselves and a wider tolerance for other people.

As for the next group of In-Country Strategies, strategies for dealing with difficult times in the new culture the following numbers were obtained: According to the results the items "*keeping in touch with friends and family back home by writing letters and emails* (90 per cent), *"relaxing when being stressed out in the host country by doing what one normally does back home"* (88.5%), *participating in sports and other activities while abroad* (76 per cent), and "*finding someone from one's own culture to talk to about the cultural experiences*" (71 per cent) seem to represent very effective approaches for dealing with difficult times in the new culture. The respondents show a strong tendency towards reciprocal exchange and sharing of their feelings with a close person, or remaining virtually at home by following the routines they usually do back home. The only strategy which has not found sufficient application is *"keeping a journal or a diary about one's experiences"* (34%), which is a contradictory finding since keeping a journal about our daily experiences should provide us with a detailed record of our experience and may help to cope with culture shock. These personal notes, or from an ethnographic standpoint field notes, represent a process of reflexivity which is important in overcoming bias. Moreover, according to Tabačková, they contribute to creating original view by means of narration (67) and develop the ability to arrange memories through narrative strategies (187).

Within the following category of In-Country Strategies, strategies for making judgments about another culture, the order of importance is as follows: *"observing the behaviour of people from my host country very carefully"* (86 per cent), *"analysing things that happen in one's host country that seem strange to me from as many perspectives as one can"* (78.5 per cent), and *"considering ones own cultural biases when trying to understand another culture"* (76 per cent). The last culture strategy *"refraining from making quick judgments about another culture"* (67 per cent) did not achieve the relevant preference, but is very close to it. The first two strategies are related to cognition and show that the respondents tend to reason out the new culture. The third strategy is connected to the affective aspect of tolerating the ambiguity and feeling empathy which is the ability to better understand other person's perspective.

Within the further subset of In-Country Strategies, strategies for communicating with people from another culture, the respondents obviously prefer the strategy *"not assuming that everyone from the same culture is the same"* (90 per cent), followed by strategy *"building relations with local people by finding opportunities to spend time with them"* (88 per cent) and strategy *"helping people in my host country understand me by explaining my behaviours and attitudes in terms of my personality and culture"* (77 per cent).

The more in-depth and theoretical strategies related to *"investigating common areas of miscommunication between people from the host culture and one's own culture by reading books and by talking to people who know the two cultures well"* (47 per cent) and *"reading local newspapers to better understand the current political and social issues in the host country"* (27 per cent) do not belong to the preferred ones. It is obvious that the respondents favour more direct and personal approaches to communication with people from another culture and do not retrieve their information and knowledge through factual research.

In the category of In-Country Strategies related to strategies for dealing with different communication styles, the respondents evidently apply the itemized strategies in the following order: *"respecting the way people from other cultures express their emotions"* (97 per cent), followed by the strategy *"refraining from disagreeing right away so that one has a chance to listen to what others are trying to communicate"* (87 per cent) and *"trying a different approach when one's communication style doesn't seem to be working well"* (84 per cent).

The strategies *"considering using different types of communication styles when talking with someone from a different culture"* (76 per cent) and *"listening to whether one's conversation partners are indirect or direct in their communication styles"* (70 per cent) were applied less frequently, however still in relevant amount. The strategy *"mirroring the communication style of one's conversation partners"* was used only by 49 per cent of respondents.

The hierarchy of the utilized strategies in this group suggests that the respondents have rather strong general tendency towards respecting others' emotions and valuing the way other people put their message across. However, they show less readiness to differentiate between the directness and indirectness in the communications styles and to adjust to others' communication style. The respondents are probably not always able or willing to change these aspects, which they consider a part of their personality.

The subsequent group of In-Country Strategies represents strategies for understanding nonverbal communication in another culture. Byram (1997) points out that the aspects of non-verbal communication are acquired in natural cultural environments, and very often unconsciously. In this category the highest score was achieved in the item *"observing the gestures that people use in one's host country"* (78 per cent), followed by the item *"trying to use eye contact in a way that is appropriate in one's host country"* (76 per cent). Two more strategies can be considered relevant according to the criteria stated at the beginning: *"learning about the ways in which people in one's host country use nonverbal communication"* (71 per cent) and *"asking friends in one's host country to explain the meaning of different gestures"* (70 per cent). Even though all these strategies show relevant percentage of use, it is evident that none of the strategies exceeds the 80 per cent border. The remaining strategies were used less often and support the thesis that the respondents do not investigate others` nonverbal communication and the difficulty of nonverbal communication differences. The most noticeable is the low utilization of the strategy aimed at practicing the nonverbal communication patterns. The possible explanation might be Byram`s (1997) reasoning that the goal is not to imitate aspects of non-verbal communication of the target language, but to develop the ability to recognize similarities and differences and to establish a relationship between one's own and foreign cultural systems. The results also support the idea that it is hard to take control over mime and gestures during the conversation.

In the penultimate category of In-Country Strategies, strategies to interact with people in the host culture, the highest score was reached in the item *"holding back on making judgments about other people based on my first impressions"* (78.5 per cent), followed by the strategy *"joining clubs or organizations to meet people who have interests like mine"* (76 per cent) and strategy *"asking people in my host country about their perceptions of my country and culture"* (73 per cent). As well as in the case of strategies for nonverbal communication, the strategies for interaction with people in the host culture do not top the 80 per cent limit. The strategy *"going to the market in one's host country and interact with people in the shops"* is preferred only by 55 per cent of the respondents. This strategy can be considered rather artificial and unnatural because it suggests that the respondents enter an unfamiliar environment and get involved in interaction with people who do not belong to their natural and direct milieu.

Within the group of strategies to use with a homestay family, which represents the last category of In-Country Strategies, the relevant score was only reached in the item *"figuring out the household rules for eating, smoking, using the bathroom, dressing around the house, and helping out by observing and asking questions"* (73 per cent) whereas the remaining, items found a fairly low usage. The reason might be that the respondents did not stay with a host family during their study abroad, but they lived in student dormitories.

**Analysis and Interpretation**

Now, a summary of the findings in connection with the discussed literature and the outcomes of the previously piloted study related to the topic of culture strategies are discussed.

According to the study by Paige, Cohen and Shively (2004) in three of the culture learning dimensions - *Interpreting Culture, Nonverbal Communication,* and *Culture Shock/Coping* - the frequency of use of the strategies increased significantly. The researchers found that 79 per cent of culture strategies were used with greater frequency at the conclusion of the programmes and that 26 of these shifts were statistically significant.

Based on the outcomes of our study the respondents applied during their abroad study 61 per cent of itemized culture learning strategies. Considering the given 70 per cent significance maximum, a relevant use could be observed in five dimensions: *Culture shock/Coping strategies, Interpreting culture strategies, Communication styles strategies, Strategies for dealing with difficult times* and *Interaction strategies.*

Our findings correspond only partially with the outcomes of Paige's, Cohen's and Shively's study since merely dimensions *Interpreting Culture* and *Culture Shock/Coping* show either significant or relevant regularity of use in both investigations. Moreover, our results point to three additional dimensions that were utilized in relevant amount *Communication styles strategies, Strategies for dealing with difficult times* and *Interaction strategies.* As opposed to Paige's, Cohen's and Shively's study the dimension *Nonverbal Communication* did not achieve the relevant level of use according to our research results.

To make the obtained data meaningful and coherent as well as to be able to analyse and interpret the gained information, some type of categorization is needed. Kinginger (2009) noticed commonalities between the goals of language learners abroad and those of scholars in the ethnography of communication. Whitehead (10) and Hassall (67) identified *observation, interviewing, participation/experimentation, re ection/introspection* and *making interpretations* as the main modes of culture learning in study abroad settings. These modes are also the key techniques used by ethnographers of communication as they attempt to understand what a person needs to know in order to communicate appropriately within a given community.

Based on this, the results from the conducted survey can be organized into four broad categories: observing, interviewing, examining, and finally participating in group activities and employing the observed way of behaviour. Analysing the frequency of the culture strategies use, a certain pattern of behaviour can be identified. The respondents seem to prefer strategies that fall into categories *observing* and *asking questions*. This finding is encouraging as it indicates interest, involvement and cooperation which imply absence of competition and the presence of group spirit. Asking questions and cooperation should show significant effects such as decreased prejudice, increased altruism and mutual concern. However, the strategies in the category *examining* already show certain gaps in their application, and it is quite obvious that the respondents are less enthusiastic when it comes to *participating and actively engaging in group activities* and *employing the observed way of behaviour in a sustainable manner*. Kinginger (67) explains "when students do not make dramatic gains in intercultural awareness despite an intention to do so, it is because they do not become sufficiently or meaningfully engaged in the practices of their local host communities or because they lack guidance in interpreting their observations or remain virtually at home, tied to a personal electronic library of home-based media".

**Conclusion**

The SILC relies on self-report data. It means that we did not observe students' actual culture strategy use at the study abroad site. Therefore, we are dependent on students' perceptions and reports about their use of those strategies. Because of the limitations of self-report data, a suggestion for future research is that qualitative data collection instruments such as follow-up interviews or focus groups with study abroad students should be done in addition to the self-report quantitative measures such as the SILC. This would provide insights into how, why, and in which situations respondents use or do not use culture strategies.

Another area to be discussed is the actual reported usage of culture strategies by the respondents. Acquiring awareness of own and other cultural specifics is one of the fundamental features in the development of the intercultural communicative competence. According to Kramsch (1998) awareness is advanced through developments in *knowledge, positive attitude*, and *skills*, and in turn it also advances their development. Considering this threefold nature of the intercultural communicative competence, we can conclude that the respondents show effort in acquiring intercultural knowledge which involves the understanding of their own culture as well as the host culture. Considering the frequency of the reported strategies, they try to be permissive, empathic and adjustable. Further, they have an appropriate intercultural attitude which requires openness, concern and the capability of accepting and adjusting to different cultural aspects. However, based on the results of our survey, the respondents still do not show satisfactory intercultural skills which involve the competence of achieving and managing new cultural beliefs and values.

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**Tomáš Hostýnek**

# Popular Culture and Language – Abbreviations, Slang Words and Neologisms

Abstract: *Popular culture and the English language have long enjoyed a fruitful and mutually enriching relationship. This paper explores the contributions of popular culture from a linguistic perspective. Given the large-scale Americanization of (Western) popular culture, various terms have undergone language distortion – ranging from abbreviations, over shortenings to slang words. Yet simultaneously, all relevant fields of popular culture, be it comic books, popular songs, cinematography or videogames, have also been responsible for coining new terms and broadening contemporary language corpus. To exemplify this ongoing trend, this paper will mention expressions from the world of popular music, cinematography and videogames that have permeated the mainstream usage of the youth and, in some instances, become part of Oxford English Dictionary. In other words, the chief goal of this paper is to introduce this very intersection between popular culture and English, summarize and discuss available literature on the topic, and provide groundwork for future research endeavours. The text will also invoke several insights from a long-term research project centred on an online videogame community surrounding Guild Wars 2 and its virtual means of communication.*

Despite initial mistrust popular culture has earned its rightful place among research interests of today's social scientists and – given its everyday pervasiveness – has finally received due scholarly attention. In the past, any research on popular culture had usually been perceived with a mix of suspicion and disbelief with no real analytical substance, yet the tide of academic attention has slowly begun to turn since the 1980s under the gradual introduction of social constructivism into the world of (social) sciences (Dittmer 5). As such, popular culture steadily became a welcome prism through which to understand the reflection of the world around us and the consumers' construction of everyday reality. Thus, in a sense, it embodies a way of life (Dovchin 2018, Duff 10) especially for the youth generation.

Conceptualizing popular culture is then no simple task. Most scholars agree that it stands at an intersection between high and low culture, features an all-encompassing mass appeal and familiar, mainstream characteristics that allow for accessibility, personal identification and meaning-making (Dittmer 2010) on a daily basis. Whereas high culture is usually associated with true art that creates permanent cultural pieces of universal character regardless of one's habitat (e.g. classic books, classical music or famous paintings), low culture – even if highly popular at times – features no such overt ambitions (see: dime novels or *Fifty Shades of Grey,* Hassett 14). This means that popular culture has, historically speaking, been attempting to strike a fine balance between being too "artistic" on the one hand, and too "low quality" on the other (Dittmer 10). One should also make a clear distinction between folk culture and popular culture; with the former referring to a geographically confined cultural system devoid of universal appeal, and the latter openly embracing the very universality (12).

Another notable aspect of popular culture emanates from an element of profitability. Usually eschewing any altruist motives, it remains imperative to bear in mind the contested relation between the producers of popular culture artefacts, and the consumers. To put it simply, some things sell better than others (Hostýnek 2013: 190). This very business-oriented approach has not escaped the attention of various left-leaning academics as evinced by Gramsci's theory of cultural hegemony or by the postulations of Adorno and Horkheimer collectively sheltered under the Frankfurt school of thought (Dittmer 15–20), who would often emphasize the ways popular culture may be "hijacked" to manipulate the masses of passive consumers.

Yet the author has no such noble aspirations that would sway the reader one way or another. Instead, he intends to examine the selected spheres of popular culture from a language perspective so as to contextualize their contributions to both everyday vocabulary and Oxford English Dictionary. To put this into a perspective, the Global Language Monitor provides an insightful probe into the English language as a whole and estimates that more than fourteen words are added to English on a daily basis (Dovchin 14). It also keeps the track of semantics; i.e. the shifts in the meanings of words as evinced by "9/11" or the broader redefinition of "heroes" that goes beyond mere comic book characters (15). It is thus language that serves as the most potent tool in the communication world. Such a tool may be used to frame an affair or a group of people in a particular (usually unfavourable) way as Tihelková (2015) well demonstrated with her insightful analysis of the language the British press employs in connection with the undeserving poor.

Kramsch (1998) proposes a three-fold understanding of how language and culture are bound together. He argued that (1) language expresses cultural reality (through words members of one community give voice to facts and ideas), (2) language embodies cultural reality (via individuals attributing meaning to their experience/s), (3) language symbolizes cultural reality (with members of one community perceiving their tongue as a symbol of identity).

The rest of the paper will predominantly draw from this third dimension of the mutual ties between culture and language, precisely because of its emphasis on one's identity. Bearing in mind the abovementioned, popular culture may also be comprehended as a universal language; and English its preeminent, powerful harbinger (Ijaz "Pop Culture and Language"). It is reasonable to assume that the more popular a language, the more popular its pop culture production. As such, Swahili videogames or popular songs will probably never reach a mainstream audience.

Furthermore, one must always remember that at the heart of popular culture lies an essential duality. On the one hand, it promotes socio-cultural inclusiveness by providing a common framework of communication (i.e. aiming for the lowest common denominator) and by instilling a sense of belonging among the youth, yet on the other it may lead to a form of elite exclusiveness given that it presupposes a certain degree of prior knowledge (Gao 60–61). In other words, when interacting with one another not everyone exhibits a comparable pop culture command, which poses several hindrances for cross-cultural communication of individuals with markedly different pop culture backgrounds (Dovchin 17).

In terms of research agenda popular culture has been a constantly shifting and evolving sphere, much like language itself, consisting of five distinct fields: a) comic books, b) cinematography, c) popular music, d) videogames and e) social media (Hamilton, Caso 2015). The perennial transformation of what belongs to the "popular" is best exemplified by William Shakespeare. 400 years ago his plays were considered accessible entertainment for the masses. Today we hold his masterpieces in a much higher regard (Mišterová 80–81) – both in terms of content and language – as quintessential pillars of high culture. From a linguistic perspective, though, Lynch (2–3) adds that *"By the standards of a modern ninth-grade grammar book, Shakespeare would be lucky to earn a C minus"* due to his frivolous use of double negatives, split infinitives, etc. This serves not to discredit one of the greatest literary geniuses, but rather to underline the obvious.

Not only do our standards of what we consider high or popular culture change overtime, so does our perception of "proper" and "spoken" English. Any such distinction is then a socially constructed product of its time (Hassett 15). Regardless, pop culture products are commonly referred to as artefacts, although considering them all a true manifestation of art remains questionable at best.

**Musical landscape and language**

Music, which itself represents vocal or instrumental sounds (sometimes both), is meant to produce beauty of form, harmony and expression of emotions. As such, it has understandably enjoyed a long and fruitful relation with language. Whereas medieval music was based almost exclusively on vocal capacities and borrowed heavily from speech patterns, various composers from the 18th century onward opted for coding words or names into classical, instrumental music compositions as evinced by R. Schumann (Ash), L. van Beethoven (BACH) or F. Liszt.

Elvis Presley's provocative, risqué dance moves and style of music profoundly impacted the youth generation in the 1950s America. In a similar vein, John Lennon's lyrical ballads(1) with soothing lyrics or Jimmy Hendrix's searing rendition of the *Star-Spangled Banner* in Woodstock 1969 served as important rallying cries against the Vietnam War amidst mounting casualties (McAlpine "10 words from pop music culture that made it into the dictionary"). When Little Richard released his famous single Tutti Frutti (1957) that contained a stream of nonsense syllables *"A wop bop a loo bop a lop bam boom!"* the prudish parental generation of the 1950s was astonished and concerned about the damage this musical slang would cause to the English language. With the advent of coloured television and modern means of communication, music was more or less exonerated (McAlpine "10 words").

Yet even though many popular hits bend the rules of grammar to their will in order to preserve catchiness, rhythm or spark, hip hop in particular has been responsible for some exceptionally useful contemporary additions to the dictionary; reawakening dormant words from their slumber, coining new compound words as well as fresh terminology altogether (McAlpine "10 words"). Given the African-American, ghetto origins of hip hop, its proclivities to distorting and shifting the original meanings of words so as to adapt them to song lyrics may not come as a major surprise. Thus, the techniques or methods of language enrichment utilized by hip hop music include language borrowings, acronyms, abbreviations, blend words, compound words or neologisms. As will be discussed below, the unbridled popularity of several terms of hip hop origin has even allowed them to transcend borders and become truly universal through the daily usage of speakers from around the globe (Dovchin 30).

(1) YOLO – You Only Live Once – as defined by Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is: "(...)*used to express the view that one should make the most of the present moment without worrying about the future (often as a rationale for impulsive or reckless behaviour).*" Nevertheless, this very phrase is no newcomer to OED as its humble origins are traceable to Johann Strauss II's 1855 waltz titled *Man Lebt*

*Nur Einmal* to Goethe's play *Clavigo*. Notwithstanding its classical legacy, it was only pushed into common parlance and hashtags by *Drake* after having named a mixtape *YOLO* and freely invoking it throughout his lyrics (e.g. *the Motto* song; McAlpine "10 words")[2].

(2) Twerk is defined by OED as: "*a sexually provocative dance or dance move involving thrusting movements of the bottom and hips while in a low, squatting stance*." While the etymological background remains relatively elusive – with an alternation of 'work' as the most plausible theory – its geographical origin is well documented and traceable to the African-American bounce music scene of New Orleans in the late 1980s. Going viral thanks to Miley Cyrus, Taylor Swift and other pop singers from 2012 onwards, twerking also entered mainstream vocabulary and was propelled to Internet stardom throughout various social media platforms, most notably *YouTube*.

(3) An example of blend word that hip hop slang concocted may be 'bootylicious' which OED describes as a nod to an attractive woman, "*often with reference to the buttocks: sexually attractive, sex appeal*." Originating as a title for *Destiny's Child* eponymous hit song, it soon entered the language as an entertaining, common, descriptive adjective much to the chagrin of many politically correct watchdogs (McAlpine "10 words"). Other slang words popularized by the hip hop scene include e.g. 'jiggy'[3], 'mullet'[4], 'diss'[5] or 'mic drop'[6].

### Cinematographic landscape and language

Movies have witnessed the usage of similar techniques or methods of language enrichmen – as was the case with popular music – yet they have been more heavily reliant on visual elements rather than merely sonorous ones. Granted, musical videos feature an audiovisual experience that combines these two spheres with great success, but films are freed from this dependence on lyrics, catchiness or rhythm. This means that vivid, colourful imagery, the 'mise-en-scène', offers new possibilities devoid of musical limitations (Shapiro 2008). True, the quality of dialogue in various Hollywood movies leaves much to be desired and sometimes gives way to a popcorn way of mass entertainment, but that remains beside the point.

What matters is that we can find instances in which the meaning of words is re-interpreted and put in a different context, such as 'bombshell'. Prior to the release of the movie titled *Bombshell* and starring Jean Harlow, this term was primarily mentioned when referring to a bomb, or, in a figurative extension, something or someone having a sudden and sensational effect. Yet in the years following the release of the movie, its original meaning shifted so as to appreciate the visual, some may say explosive, qualities of a woman ("6 Words That Broke Through on the Big Screen").

Another word the meaning of which was influenced by the appearance and charisma of a lead actor is 'sheik'. Before the 1921 movie *The Sheik* starring silent-film star Rudolph Valentino, this term was primarily used in Islamic countries in reference to a patriarch of a tribe or family, or as an expression of polite address. This should not come across as a surprise given that the original Arabic word 'shaykh' means 'an old man'. Yet today's connotations of sheik have come a long way since the original meaning. In the light of the movie's popularity a sheik may either be considered a man masterfully and irresistibly charming to women, or a wealthy person who made profit in oil business ("6 Words").[7]

Other honourable mentions of neologisms coined by popular American TV shows are e.g. 'to embiggen[8]' invented on the Simpsons TV show in 1996 that has already been added to the US Merriam-Webster dictionary and featured in several scientific publications, or 'truthiness' coined by Stephen Colbert in his much-beloved former talk show *The Colbert Report*. Rather than truth itself, truthiness is associated with one's firm belief or assertion emanating from intuition that a particular statement is true regardless of evidence, logic or facts (Smosh "6 Made-Up Words From Movies and TV That Became Real"). This brings us to quite a noteworthy point.

Whereas the Frankfurt school of thought would claim that listeners, viewers or players of videogames are all mere passive consumers of popular culture artefacts, who remain devoid of any active engagement or interpretation, in reality such artefacts rarely exist in a vacuum. The consumers themselves circulate these very artefacts, are deeply engaged in the meaning-making process and take pride in creating additional cultural resources or capital, such as shooting their own videos, making song or movie reviews, or other fan activities that are mostly centred around particular social media platforms (Hassett 18). For without them, the consumers, and their eagerness to incorporate the abovementioned terms into their everyday language parlance, the vast majority of such popular culture expressions would have dwindled to obscurity (Hassett 20). In other words, having a keen and active audience, viewership or player base apt at interacting with one another and using social media is essential in keeping these terms alive.

Even several top political figures have realized the power of appeal popular culture holds and attempted to harness it for their purposes. For example, Ronald Reagan, a former Hollywood actor, made a *Star Wars* reference in connection with the Soviet Union by conveniently dubbing it '*the evil empire*'. In a similar fashion, his foreign policy project known as the Strategic Defence Initiative was also nicknamed 'the *Star Wars* project.' George W. Bush, too, sought to tap into this cultural fountainhead with his 2003 primetime declaration of the end of major combat operations in Iraq aboard an aircraft carrier (Hostýnek 2013: 200). The mise-en-sc ne resembled a popular 1980s flick *Top Gun*. Both Barack Obama[9] and Donald Trump have been no strangers to social media; the latter going so far as to tweet his foreign or domestic policy intentions on *Twitter*[10].

**Videogame landscape and language**

Despite their tumultuous history mired in scape-goating, social stigmatization and media ridicule, videogames have succeeded in withstanding the pressure and evolved into the most profitable entertainment industry of today. Given their modest war origins as military projects designed for the government rather than the public, it remains truly baffling how such a lacklustre kind of popular media emerged as a powerful herald of today's popular culture; a herald of both youth and adult entertainment that has found irreplaceable fertile ground in many households around the globe (Hostýnek 2016).

Videogames thus represent the youngest type of popular media. With an annual growth rate of approximately 4% and the overall volume of this industry at 108 billion USD, they have already surged ahead of both movie and music industries worldwide (Hostýnek 2016: 183). Akin to movies, they also combine sonorous (audio) and visual (video) elements, yet unlike their cinematographic or song counterparts, videogames venture beyond mere passive consumption. In fact, such elements are present merely to set the stage for the individual player(s) to immerse themselves in. Bogost (2007) termed this very immersion 'the expressive power of videogames' in his eponymous book. Requiring (and heavily relying on) player's input, the contribution of videogames to garnering much-needed scholarly attention lies in *active engagement*.

Simply put, a videogame offers a highly personalized, affective experience that presupposes a certain degree of videogame literacy so as for a player to properly explore a virtual environment created by the developers (Robinson 92-95). In practice, a player has to come to terms with the rules of the game (language-wise, control-wise, etc.) in order to properly enjoy it and experience satisfaction as well as progress. As early as 1980, and then 1990, did Gardner and Krashen realize the innate potential lying dormant within videogames and enshrined it in their 'multiple intelligences theory' that features eight categories of skills or competences[11] such virtual environments could further develop (Krashen 1982, Gardner 1994, Hostýnek 2016). Language acquisition was and still is, of course, an essential component of that. When one fast-forwards 30 years, virtual landscapes, much like other types of popular culture, have also become riddled with their own slang words, abbreviations and even neologisms.

**Analysis of selected aspects of *Guild Wars 2* – the language landscape of an online videogame**

Massive multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs) have become one of the hallmarks of PC players. Given their emphasis on text-based player interactions, personal computers – using a keyboard, mouse or other peripherals – are much better equipped for such titles built around verbal or voice communication than videogame consoles which have remained a domain of mostly competitive, action-oriented online titles (Hostýnek 2016: 184). In this sense, *Guild Wars 2* represents a notable case in point and deserves our attention. Not only because the author – a former leader of one such medium-sized virtual community – has authentic and first-hand experience with this title, but also because Kalinič (2015) in his pioneering PhD thesis noted how English functions as more than a mere means of players' communication. Kalinič (2015) managed to capitalize on the anthropological method of participant engagement so as to better understand the daily functioning of a particular virtual community of players inhabiting the online landscape of Guild Wars 2. Even though a linguistic analysis was not his primary research goal, some of his insightful conclusions hinted at exactly that. Simply put, English invites creative players who apply the language to the content of the game and thus give birth to a swath of abbreviations, slang words and neologisms. The entire virtual world may then be understood as an audience a language-savvy player can appeal to. Given the cooperative rather than competitive nature of *Guild Wars 2,* it offers academics a welcome opportunity to witness the videogame process of language formation in its entirety.

Developed by US-based Arenanet and published by South Korean NCSoft, *Guild Wars 2* is a sequel to, and a major improvement on, a popular long-running MMORPG franchise that has sold millions of copies through the basic game as well as its expansion sets since 2005. One might also consider it a serious contender for the throne of the MMORPG genre, which has been dominated by *World of Warcraft* ever since its release in late 2004 (Kalinič 15). Much like any other MMORPG on the market, Guild Wars 2, too, allows hundreds of thousands of players to immerse themselves in a virtual online fantasy world in which they can engage in a myriad of friendly or hostile activities. After creating playable characters – avatars – players populating this virtual landscape may e.g. complete quests, form teams and guilds, collect crafting materials, face off non-playable characters or one another (yet no "death" is truly permanent), and, perhaps most importantly, interact with each other and cooperate so as to accomplish greater feats that, in return, yield more valuable rewards (Kalinič 2015). An element of cooperation is thus strongly embedded within both game design and gameplay mechanics.

From a language perspective, such a rich virtual environment carefully created by game developers abounds with proper, standardized English (as evinced by quests, item descriptions, cutscenes or voiced dialogue). Yet this creators' input serves to, first and foremost, entertain the player, give him or her directions and delineate their virtual landscape, or playground, that they decided to inhabit. When populating such an eventful world, players sometimes exceed creators' expectations and their behaviour may have some unforeseeable consequences for the game as a whole (Kalinič 150, Hostýnek 2016: 190). This is also well applicable to the language dimension. Despite the wealth of pre-prepared content by the creators, it is up to the individual players to breathe life into this content, give it meaning, learn how to function in such an artificial environment and perhaps to find their `raison d' tre›, or better yet ‹raison de jouer›. Different language versions (e.g. Spanish, German, and French) of *Guild Wars 2* do exist, yet English represents an undisputable, primary means of communication even on servers with particular language mutations.

When exploring players' multi-layered interactions (both textual – chatting and verbal – via additional software such as *Teamspeak* or *Raidcall*) , one ought to take into account contrastive educational backgrounds, dialects, language skills and pop culture expertise of individual players, which all coalesce in a surprisingly dense way. Because for a game that invites cooperation rather than competitiveness, and promotes teamwork in the lieu of individualism, working toward a common goal requires, in the absence of additional information, aiming for the lowest common denominator (Hostýnek 2016: 192). As such, videogame parlance and any kind of mutual communication among players often resemble military jargon. Slang words, acronyms and abbreviations are indeed rampant.

The reasons for keeping players' interactions brief, factual and topical are manifold, yet it is reasonable to assume that this very tendency to fit as much information into as little text (or into few verbal commands) as possible also emanates from many players' desire for time-efficiency and desire for tangible rewards. At the same time, when one finds himself or herself in the heat of the battle, preferring the survival of one's character and focusing on game skills – on playing well – is in most instances favoured over communicating in an overly elaborate or articulate fashion (Kalinič 175). Even though the author himself sought to combine these two approaches for entertainment purposes with great success, it represents an exception rather than a norm in terms of player's behaviour or modus operandi.

In a sense, MMORPGs then conveniently allure to the notion of duality mentioned in connection with popular culture at the beginning of the article. For once, they feature an innate discrepancy between proper, standardized English that the developers equipped their virtual landscapes, and players' proclivities to spoken English mirroring real world daily conversations, which profoundly impact the language landscape, that have led to coining various neologisms, blend words, slang words or acronyms. Terms such as ‘PvP’ – player vs. player (referring to a competitive mode in MMORPGs) or ‘PvE’ – player vs. environment (in connection with the game environment and non-playable characters) are both defined by Oxford Online Dictionary (OOD). Other popular abbreviations are e.g. ‘XP’ which stands for experience points or ‘noob’ that refers to an inexperienced or unskilled player; both included in OOD.

Furthermore, online videogames have become a fertile soil for showing off one’s command of popular culture. In moments of respite, players often invoke lines or borrow quotes from their favourite movies, comic books, popular songs or other videogames so as to entertain each other with inside jokes. *Star Trek*, *Star Wars*, *the Lord of the Rings,* and any popular hit songs, YouTube videos or current videogames would rank among the most frequent subjects of references based on Kalinič’s group of respondents (Kalinič 2015). In a sense, online videogames thus offer a bustling landscape that has witnessed foreign languages and pop culture references blend into a unique mixture that serves as an appealing, intuitive means of language acquisition beyond the scope of a standard classroom (Hostýnek 2016: 195). Removing communication barriers and being able to speak (if not speak grammatically correct) represents one of the pinnacles of modern-day online videogames that naturally motivate and incentivize players to communicate as part of their daily online experience. By no means does this exhaust the title of the presented paper, yet it was not the author’s original intention anyway. For he merely sought to assess available literature, discuss several examples and show how much promise and potential, both in terms of academic research and language, dwells within popular culture. So far, this tremendous potential has been left rather untapped for educational purposes, but that is a story for another time.

## Conclusion

This article presented a probe into the colourful world of popular culture through the prism of the English language. Its main goal was to introduce the reader to different kinds of popular culture, to the way they interact with the English language, and discuss the conclusions (and limits) of available scholarly literature on the topic. The very beginning of the text was devoted to conceptualizing and understanding popular culture as a distinct area of research focus. While standing at an uneasy intersection between high and low culture, popular culture contains an essential component of duality. From the language perspective, such innate duality pits proper, standardized English against its manifold spoken variants as evidenced by the case study centred on *Guild Wars 2*; an MMORPG. Another crucial determinant of this embedded duality lies in the creators’ expectations on the one hand, and the way the consumers ‘digest’, and make sense of, the individual products on the other. Popular culture may then either promote inclusiveness and build bridges among people from different backgrounds, or pave the way for elitism and wall-building exclusiveness. In a sense, the abovementioned duality is a three-fold one.

Three concrete pop culture fields – popular music, cinematography and videogames – were briefly introduced and then subjected to a more detailed language analysis. Both movies and popular music, particularly hip hop, have been responsible for coining popular acronyms, blend words, shifting the meaning of terms and bringing attention to expressions that would have otherwise been lost to history. Perpetuating such terms, re-circulating them and ensuring their 'survival' as part of common parlance, is usually accomplished via social media, daily conversations or active fanbases. Several expressions have also become an officially acknowledged part of the language corpus by making it to Oxford English Dictionary or Cambridge Dictionary.

Videogames deserve a special mention given their emphasis on active engagement and thanks to the author's vast experience with *Guild Wars 2,* an MMORPG, in particular. When analysing such a virtual landscape, English not only allows for players' communication, both spoken and text-based, yet through creative players it also interacts with the content of the game and undergoes videogame processes of language formation the results of which are then re-circulated across the virtual world by other players. Therefore, players' involvement goes beyond mere passive consumption of a particular title. They are expected to take front row seats, show a basic command of videogame literacy and give input. Being an often omitted fertile ground combining pop culture references and both standardized and spoken English, online videogame parlance may no doubt be considered one of today's most fruitful fields for language analysis abounding with neologisms, slang words, acronyms and abbreviations developed by the players themselves. Also, the tremendous potential of online videogames for language acquisition merits further investigation.

**Notes**

(1) And staged bed-ins with Yoko Ono.

(2) Also, arguably, the popularity of this phrase may have been boosted by an eponymous episode title of the Simpsons TV show.

(3) Definition (OED): Excitedly energetic or uninhibited, often in a sexual manner; to get jiggy: to engage in sexual activity.

(4) Definition (OED): A hairstyle, worn esp. by men, in which the hair is cut short at the front and sides, and left long at the back.

(5) Definition (OED): Failure to show respect; abuse, disparagement; an expression of scorn or contempt, an insult.

(6) Definition (Cambridge Dictionary): An act of intentionally dropping a microphone after you have given a speech or performance, as a way of making an impressive ending.

(7) In a long-running German TV show Alarm für Kobra 11 one of the main protagonists even used the term sheik to poke fun at the Turkish origins of Semir Gerkhan – his fellow policeman.

(8) To make something bigger, enlarge. Later it was discovered that A. C. Ward had already used the term as early as 1884 in a British journal.

(9) His appearances on e.g. the Colbert Report, the Daily Show or The Real Time with Bill Maher are both insightful and entertaining to watch.His

(10) On an entertaining note, the term 'twitter' is believed to have originated in G. Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales.*

(11) Such as kinetic competences

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**Zuzana Hrdličková**

# Non-compositional Lexical Expressions Mentally Stored by English Independent Users

Abstract: *Knowing a language, especially one's native language, involves knowing thousands of words. The mental store of these words is a lexicon. This lexicon is not completely static since one is continuously learning and forgetting words. When learning a foreign language, new words and phrases are learned and stored in the mental lexicon. Usually, one learns the basic words and phrases that occur most frequently in speech and writing, and vocabulary acquisition slows down. However, colourful and obviously less colourful expressions are used every day. The language of business is no exception to this; idioms are frequently used in Business English. To make progress or to have academic or professional goals, one must learn more formal and precise vocabulary as well as informal ways of expressing his/her ideas. The paper is part of the Project KEGA launched at the University of Economics in Bratislava in September 2017. This paper aims to investigate the particular speakers' mental lexicons before and after the extension and enrichment of their vocabulary with idiomatic expressions and their unidiomatic equivalents. The participants will be tested on General English and Business English idioms. Their progress will be monitored and via the Statistical Hypotheses Testing the results will be evaluated.*

## Introduction

Thanks to globalization and technology, English dominates the world as no language has ever before. Crystal (2003) says the world has changed so drastically that history is no longer a guide. English and globalization have spread hand in hand all over the world. Having a global language has assisted globalization, and globalization has consolidated the global language. That process started with the dominance of the two English-speaking empires, British and American, and continues today with the new virtual empire of the Internet (Mydans 2007). A dominant position of English as a global language is indisputable.

In the Slovak Republic, English is taught as a first foreign language in primary and secondary schools. At the University of Economics in Bratislava, it keeps its dominance and is also studied as a first foreign language. The undergraduate has to enrol in two or three Business English courses, depending on the type of the faculty. During the study, he/she has to acquire basic business terms from the fields of management, marketing, finance, and macroeconomics. However, as he/she follows the *Market Leader Business English* course book (Cotton, Falvey, Kent 2011), he/she frequently comes across idiomatic expressions. Business English is closely related to international trade. Anyone who is engaged in commerce, economy, or diplomacy is exposed to British or American English and has to communicate with native speakers who frequently use fixed combinations of words.

This paper is part of the Project KEGA entitled *Idioms in Business Communication* that is aimed at promoting reading literacy and developing social skills, namely communication. So far, 206 first-year students from the Faculty of Commerce, the Faculty of National Economy, and the Faculty of International Relations have participated in it. In February 2018, twenty students of the Faculty of

Economic Informatics joined the project. They are supposed to improve their reading literacy in English by reading different prestigious British and American online newspapers and magazines and look for idiomatic expressions in them.

**Reading literacy and communication**

In order to interact with people one needs to be an active reader or a listener. The term *reading literacy* is closely connected with compulsory primary and secondary school education. It is defined as "understanding, using, reflecting on and engaging with written texts, in order to achieve one's goals, to develop one's knowledge and potential, and to participate in society" (OECD 146). This definition goes beyond the traditional notion of decoding information and interpreting what is written. The conception of reading literacy encompasses the range of situations in which people read, the different ways written texts are presented, and the variety of ways in which readers approach texts, from the functional and finite (e.g. finding a particular piece of practical information) to the deep and far-reaching (e.g. understanding the other ways of doing) thinking and being (OECD 2016).

There is no doubt promoting reading literacy in a foreign language in higher education will extend individual speakers' knowledge of other cultures as well as it will stimulate their communication. The first-year university students have to distinguish at least between two styles – academic and journalistic and their genres – since they will be taught by academics and will have to work with different types of materials to get information independently. To communicate effectively at an academic soil, they need to have a more advanced vocabulary and choose the right words, depending on the context.

According to Šajgalíková and Rusiňáková (2016), "communication is more than just messages and their transmission. It is a process; some authors call it a 'system requiring more than one actor in an ongoing series of events'. Within the system any single communicative behaviour can serve a variety of communication functions, where 'function' does not necessarily imply purpose or intention, but the inevitable, natural, and unavoidable consequence of communication behaviour" (66).

Needless to say, the Faculty of International Relations students participating in the Project KEGA are supposed to work in diplomacy. "Communication as an act of sharing information is the backbone of diplomacy that still rests on the creative combination of verbal and nonverbal communication. As humans, we communicate by expressing both positive and negative perceptions, by delivering both good and bad news. But communicating well diplomatically means communicating for the well-being of diplomatic interlocutors and, more broadly, for the well-being of human kind" (Rusiňáková 173).

*Communication in Culturally Diverse Context* (Šajgalíková, Rusiňáková 2016) is the latest published textbook dealing with culture and communication. When teaching Business English, the multicultural aspects need to be taken into account. Businesspeople often make contact with their business partners who come from different cultural backgrounds. As a result, there is a need for internationally accepted way of communication. Business English focuses on formulaic language used in practical situations such as recommending, negotiating, giving presentations, and the like (Donna 2000).

**CEFR and spoken interaction**

In accordance with the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) self-assessment grid, the following skills are evaluated: a) understanding (listening and reading), b) speaking (spoken interaction and spoken production), and c) writing (writing). Six English language levels are widely accepted as the global standard for grading an individual's proficiency. The CEFR descriptors for language proficiency level are as follows: 1) English Basic User (A1 – Beginner, A2 – Elementary English) 2) English Independent User (B1 – Intermediate English, B2 – Upper-Intermediate English), and 3) Proficient English User (C1 – Advanced English, C2 – Proficiency English).

Having completed two or three courses in Business English, the university students are guaranteed to acquire C1 English language level. In the case of the Faculty of International Relations, C2 English language level. However, students enrolled in Business English courses have a different command of English (B1, B2) and are mixed together. Therefore, a short description of each English language level is provided to see what students are actually able to do in spoken interaction.

B1 – The user can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. He/she can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel, and current events).

B2 – The user can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. He/she can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining his/her views.

C1 – The user can express himself/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. He/she can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. He/she can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate his/her contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.

C2 – The user can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. He/she can express himself/herself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If he/she does have a problem, he/she can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it (CEFR 2018).

### The terms *lexicon* and *mental lexicon*

A *lexicon* is a collection of information about words and similar linguistic expressions in a language. One must acknowledge the polysemy of the word lexicon; it can refer to: a) a dictionary, especially a dictionary of a classical language, b) the vocabulary of a language, and c) a particular language user's knowledge of his/her own vocabulary (Murphy 2010, Cowie 2009).

Some traditional approaches to the lexicon normally make claims about the vocabulary of a language, its lexis. Taking this perspective on vocabulary, the lexicon is "out there" in the language community; i.e. the collection of anything and everything that is used as a word or a fixed expression by the language community. Other linguistic perspectives focus on vocabulary "in here" – in the mind of a language user (Murphy 4). The way words are stored in the mind resembles a kind of network or web. The mind seems to store words neither randomly nor in the form of a list, but in a highly organised and interconnected fashion – in what is often called the mental lexicon (Thornbury 2002). The term *mental lexicon* is used to distinguish the more psychological and individualistic meaning of lexicon (Murphy 2010).

Clearly though, the learner has to take into account the fact that the "out there" and "in here" lexicons are interrelated (Murphy 4); in order to communicate the speakers of a language must aim to have reasonably indistinguishable ways of using and understanding the words they know. The lexicon of the language "out there" in one's culture is the lexicon that he/she aims to acquire "in here" and use (Murphy 4). It is not the same as saying that the lexicon of a language is a union of all the lexicons of all the language's speakers. When linguists study a language's lexicon, they tend to standardize it. To study the lexicon of a language, the learner needs to have a sense of what does and does not count as part of that language; slang and non-standard words are also part of the language (Murphy 2010).

The things that an individual knows when he/she knows a language can be divided into two categories: the lexical and the grammatical. A grammar is a system of rules or regularities in a language and a lexicon is a collection of linguistic knowledge that cannot be captured by rules. The grammar explains linguistic issues like word order and regular morphological and phonological processes. The grammar tells one the difference between sentences. What the grammar cannot tell him/her is what individual words bring to the sentence. At some point in one's acquisition of English, he/she learned that the sound and the spelling of a word are paired with a particular set of linguistic and semantic properties – like being a noun and denoting a kind of person, animal or thing, and so forth. The lexicon is the collection of those associations between pronunciations, meanings, and grammatical properties that had to be learned rather than produced by grammatical rules (Murphy 2010).

The lexicon is organized into "lexical entries", much as a dictionary is organized into entries that pull together all the information on a headword. Each of these lexical entries collects the appropriate information about a specific linguistic expression, called a "lexeme" (Murphy 5). A linguistic form represents a lexeme if that form is "conventionally" associated with a "non-compositional" meaning (Murphy 6). Lexemes are conventional, i.e. these form–meaning pairings are common knowledge among the speakers of the language, and one has had to learn these particular associations of form and meaning from other members of the language community. Lexemes are non-compositional, i.e. the meanings of these linguistic forms are not built out of the meanings of their parts (Murphy 2010).

However, more complex expressions may also be lexemes, e.g. compounds (*greenhouse*) and phrasal verbs (*look up* – consult). Idioms (e.g. *push up daisies* – dead, *apple of one's eye* – one's beloved, etc.) are also lexical expressions, since they are non-compositional, and thus have to be learned and mentally stored by a language speaker (Murphy 2010).

**Business vocabulary**

In some places, English has invaded the workplace along with the global economy. American and British workplaces are full of idioms. They frequently come up in conversation and especially in today's business world one encounters idioms. For instance, the Americans *get a project off the ground* (establish, set up), they *touch base* if they want to discuss the progress and finally they *pull the plug* (finish) (Gillet 2010). According to Wright (2002), the language of business if full of idioms and metaphors from different fields such as sport, military speak, race, war, battle, journey and the like. Therefore, both varieties – British and American English – are equally important in the world of business.

As mentioned above, *Market Leader* (Cotton, Falvey, Kent 2011) is a compulsory Business English course book currently used at the University. It includes authentic texts on a variety of topics from the *Financial Times* and other newspapers and books on business that are full of phrases with strong or low collocation affinity (Bilá 2016). "The abundance of such expressions in English makes the recognition of an 'idiom principle', strongly realized in idioms, weakly in collocations, very useful as an explanation of the way an important part of vocabulary works" (Fernando 38). Fernando's study explains the difference between formal and informal vocabulary and the advantage of using idiomatic vocabulary. She describes *ideational idioms* as impressionistic packages of information that contribute to the content of a discourse. By means of them language users can talk about the world in an impressionistic way as well as in imagist and metaphorical terms.

Words are the basis of how the speaker or writer is judged by the reader or listener. Apart from *Market Leader*, a self-help book *Ideational Idioms in Business English Communication* for the Independent User (B2) – the Proficient User (C2) (Hrdličková 2016) is also used compulsorily by experimental groups within the Project KEGA. The book presents the same topics as *Market Leader*, basic business terms and is focused on the spoken variety of the three regional standards – British, North American and Australian. Idioms have the potential of appearing in both spoken and written discourse and are a sign of mature discourse. The users of English need to familiarize with them so that they will be ready to respond confidently. The book offers a wide range of fascinating idiomatic expressions together with their definitions and unidiomatic equivalents from five Business English course books, namely *Market Leader Upper Intermediate* (MLUI), *Market Leader Upper Intermediate Practice File*, *Market Leader Intermediate*, *First Insights into Business*, *English for Business Studies*, and *Business Result Upper-intermediate*.

**Research – material, participants, methods and hypotheses**

For the research, Fernando's (1996) classification of idioms has been chosen. According to her, ideational idioms are realized by *units smaller than the clause* – nominals, verbals, adjectivals, and adverbials that function as parts of clauses. Ideational idioms can also be *clauses themselves*.

The main aim of a qualitative analysis is to identify phrase patterns and clauses themselves (Fernando 1996, 98, Cowie, Mackin, McCaig 1993, xi) and to find their unidiomatic equivalents. The second objective of the research is to test students` knowledge of General English idioms and Business English idioms and to measure their progress.

In the research these methods will be applied: *General English Idioms Test*, *Business English Idioms Test*, and *Statistical Hypotheses Testing – T test* (parametric test) – to test the significance of the difference between the sample means. Research hypotheses H1, H0; H2, H0; H3, H0; H4, H0 will also be tested (Kučerová, Fidlerová 2012).

The present corpus consists of 120 idioms. Sixty General English idioms were chosen from two course books series, namely *New Opportunities Upper Intermediate* (2006) (NOUI) and *Success Upper Intermediate* (2007) (SUI) since these series are recommended for use in secondary school by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic. Five teachers will participate in the project and each of them will test two groups of students who will be asked to translate idioms from English into Slovak or provide their synonyms. On the basis of the results achieved, each teacher will choose one group as an experimental and the other as a control group. Both groups will study the first four units from *Market Leader* discussing these topics: Communication, International marketing, Building relationships, and Success. The experimental group will also follow *Ideational Idioms in Business English Communication* (IIBEC, Hrdličková 2016).

**Findings and discussion**

Tables 1 – 4 show General English idioms (in bold). Idioms are divided on the basis of Fernando's classification (1996) – nominals, adverbials, verbals and clauses themselves. In addition, unidiomatic equivalents of idioms – core synonyms (in italicized bold) and near synonyms – are provided (*Oxford Thesaurus of English* 2009, *The Merriam-Webster Thesaurus* 2005, and *Handbook of American Idioms and Idiomatic Usage* 1953).

Table 1 Unidiomatic equivalents of nominals (SUI, NOUI)

| No. | Unidiomatic equivalents of nominals |
|---|---|
| 1 | bastard: *infml* ***scoundrel***, villain, evil-doer; *infml dated* **bad egg** |
| 2 | boffin *BrE infml*: ***expert***, ***scientist***; *infml* egghead, brains, *BrE infml* **brainbox** |
| 3 | candidate: ***applicant***, aspirant; *rel* also-ran, **dark horse**, favourite |
| 4 | live wire: ***energetic person***; *infml* **ball of fire**, busy bee, **eager beaver** |
| 5 | misfit: **fish out of water**, square peg in a round hole |
| 6 | smart alec *infml*: ***wise guy***, smarty-pants, *BrE infml* **know-all**; *AmE infml* know-it-all |
| 7 | the limit: **the last straw**, the straw that broke the camel's back; *infml* the end |
| 8 | mixer: ***sociable person***, socializer, social butterfly, **life and soul of the party** |
| 9 | clerk: ***office worker***, clerical worker, administrator; *infml* **pen-pusher** |
| 10 | chief: ***head***, principal, chief executive, president, chair; *AmE* chief executive officer, CEO; *infml* **top dog**; *infml derogatory* fat cat |
| 11 | **walk of life**: ***class***, status, rank, caste; line of work, profession |

The two example sentences show General English idioms used in context.

You haven't got any real responsibility. You're just *a pen pusher*. (SUI)

You'll have to be nice to Caroline. She's *the top dog* in this company. (SUI)

The six idioms *a breath of fresh air*, *the four corners of the world*, *a melting pot*, *a slippery slope*, *a stepping stone*, and *a vicious circle* are not listed in Table 1 as no unidiomatic equivalents have been identified so far.

It is also interesting to see how different dictionaries approach phrase or clause patterns of idioms, e.g. *be like a fish out of water* (CID – *Cambridge Idioms Dictionary*), and *a fish out of water* (ODEI – *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms*).

Table 2 Unidiomatic equivalents of adverbials (SUI, NOUI)

| No. | Unidiomatic equivalents of adverbials |
|---|---|
| 1 | ab initio (adv & adj) (*Latin*): ***from the beginning***, from the start; *infml* **from scratch**, **from the word go** |
| 2 | ab initio (adv & adj) (*Latin*): ***from the beginning***, from the start; *infml* **from scratch**, **from the word go** |
| 3 | on no account: ***never***, certainly not; *infml* **not on your life**; *BrE infml* not on your nelly |

Table 3 Unidiomatic equivalents of verbals (SUI, NOUI)

| No. | Unidiomatic equivalents of verbals |
|---|---|
| 1 | asleep (adv, adj): ***sleeping***, sound asleep; *infml* **(be) dead to the world** (ODEI) |
| 2 | fall into disfavour: ***become unpopular***, become disliked; *infml* **be/get in** *one's* **bad books** |
| 3 | lousy with (adj) *infml*: ***full of***, crowded with, **(be) knee-deep in** *sth* (CID) |
| 4 | distant (adj): ***remote***, out of the way; isolated, **(be) off the beaten track** (CID) |
| 5 | **(be) (all) plain sailing** (CID), (NP), (adj): ***uncomplicated***, simple; elementary, a five-finger exercise, child's play |
| 6 | suitable (adj): ***acceptable***, satisfactory, fit; *infml* **(be) right up** *one's* **street** (CID) |
| 7 | comprehend: ***understand***, grasp; *infml* **(can't) make head or tail of** *sth* (CID) |
| 8 | apologize: ***say sorry***, express regret; *infml* **eat humble pie** |
| 9 | take shape: ***become clear***, become definite, **fall into place** |
| 10 | hurry: ***be quick***, hurry up; *infml* **get a move on** |
| 11 | permit: ***allow***, let; ***consent to***, assent to; *infml* **give the green light to** |
| 12 | worry: ***trouble***, bother; *infml* **give** *one* **a hard time** |
| 13 | deteriorate: ***worsen***, get worse, decline; **go downhill** |
| 14 | **go to any length(s)**: ***do absolutely anything***, go to any extreme, observe no limits |
| 15 | be obsessed: ***be fixated***, be preoccupied; *infml* **have a bee in** *one's* **bonnet** |
| 16 | betray: ***reveal***, disclose; give the game away, **let the cat out of the bag** |
| 17 | roister: ***enjoy oneself***, celebrate, go on a spree; *infml* **live it up** |

| | |
|---|---|
| 18 | disdain: ***scorn***, deride; *infml* **look down** *one's* **nose at** |
| 19 | **make ends meet**: ***manage***, cope, get by |
| 20 | consult: ***ask***, seek advice/information from; *infml* **pick** *one's* **brains** |
| 21 | make fun of: ***taunt***, chaff; *infml* **pull** *one's* **leg** |
| 22 | retire: ***pension off***, force to retire; *infml* **put out to grass** |
| 23 | **see eye to eye**: ***agree***, concur, be of the same mind/opinion, think as one |
| 24 | **see the light**: ***understand***, realize; *infml* get the message, get the picture |
| 25 | bristle: ***get angry***, become infuriated, be furious, **see red** |
| 26 | lead the way: ***take the first step***, initiate things, **set the ball rolling** |

The following two example sentences also show General English idioms used in context.

They've *put him out to grass* and given him the job of making the coffee. (NOUI)

Let's *set the ball rolling*. Who wants to talk first? (NOUI)

The following verbals are not included in Table 3 as no synonyms have been identified so far: *be larger than life; give it to one straight*, *one's heart sinks*, *have itchy feet*, *make a song and dance about sth/doing sth*, *not bat an eyelid*, *show one the ropes*, *start off on the wrong foot*, *take a/its/their toll* (+ *on*), *take one's mind of sth.*

However, the meanings of the two ones can be identified as some phrase patterns have been found: *have a head start* (advantage: syn: better, drop, edge, upper hand; rel: allowance, *head start*) and *see the funny side (of sth)* (humour: comical aspect, *funny side*, comedy).

Table 4 Clauses (SUI, NOUI)

| No. | Clauses |
|---|---|
| 1 | it`s love that makes the world go round (*saying*) |
| 2 | there`s no smoke without fire (*saying*) |

Regarding the clauses, no synonyms have been identified so far.

Tables 5 – 9 show Business English idioms (in bold). Idioms are divided in accordance with Fernando's classification (1996) – nominals, adjectivals, adverbials, verbals, and clauses themselves. In addition, unidiomatic equivalents of idioms – core synonyms (in italicized bold) and near synonyms – are also provided.

Table 5 Unidiomatic equivalents of nominals (MLUI, IIBEC)

| No. | **Unidiomatic equivalents of nominals** |
|---|---|
| 1 | approximation: ***estimate***; *AmE infml* **ballpark figure** |
| 2 | crux: ***nub***, heart; *infml* **the bottom line** |
| 3 | **a level playing field**: a fair situation |
| 4 | **the nouveau riche** *plural*: ***the new rich***; parvenus, social climbers |
| 5 | **quid pro quo**: ***exchange***, trade, barter, payment, remuneration |
| 6 | **rip-off** *infml*: ***fraud***, swindle |
| 7 | chit-chat *infml*: **small talk**, chat, gossip |
| 8 | **turning point**: ***watershed***, critical moment, moment of truth |

The example sentences illustrate Business English idioms used in context.

I don't know the exact price, but $500 is *a* good *ballpark figure*. (MLUI)

Although networking is not exactly *quid pro quo*, it includes the element of exchange: if someone is looking for something, someone else can provide the information. (IIBEC)

Idioms *the big picture* and *the status quo* are not included in Table 5 as neither core nor near synonyms have been found so far.

Table 6 Unidiomatic equivalents of adjectivals (MLUI, IIBEC)

| No. | **Unidiomatic equivalents of adjectivals** |
|---|---|
| 1 | understandable: ***comprehensible***, **crystal clear** (Comp (AdjP)) |
| 2 | ordinary: ***usual***, normal, **day-to-day** |
| 3 | **face-to-face** (attrib. use);<br>face to face (Comp/A (NP)): ***facing (each other)***, confronting (each other) |
| 4 | **fly-by-night**: ***unreliable***, undependable |
| 5 | **half-hearted**: ***unenthusiastic***, lukewarm |
| 6 | remaining: ***surviving***, **long-term** |
| 7 | **rank-and-file** (attrib. use); (the) rank and file (n + n non-rev) (ODEI)<br>proletariat: ***the workers***, working-class people, the rank and file |
| 8 | fleeting: ***brief***, transient, **short-term** |

| | |
|---|---|
| 9 | **state-of-the-art**: ***modern***, the latest |
| 10 | **tit-for-tat** (attrib. use); tit for tat (n): ***retaliation***, reprisal |

As can be seen in the table, *face-to-face* and *tit-for-tat* come from different phrase patterns and they function as adjuncts (A) or complements (Comp) (Cowie, Mackin, McCaig 1993).

Table 7 Unidiomatic equivalents of adverbials (MLUI, IIBEC)

| No. | Unidiomatic equivalents of adverbials |
|---|---|
| 1 | **face to face**: ***facing (each other)***, confronting (each other) |
| 2 | **for the sake of** *sth/one*: 1. for purposes of *sth,* for; 2. to *one's* advantage |
| 3 | **from time to time**: ***sometimes***, occasionally |
| 4 | **in excess (of** *sth***)**: ***more than***, over |
| 5 | **whether one likes it or not**; like it or not/no (Disj)<br>willy-nilly: ***whether one likes it or not***, of necessity; *infml* like it or not |

In this case, whether one likes it or not function as a disjunct (Disj) (Cowie, Mackin, McCaig 1993).

Table 8 Unidiomatic equivalents of verbals (MLUI, IIBEC)

| No. | Unidiomatic equivalents of verbals |
|---|---|
| 1 | **be half the battle**: be half the work, be half the struggle |
| 2 | get on: ***be friendly***; *infml* **be on the same wavelength (as)** |
| 3 | cross (adj): ***irritable***, bad-tempered; *infml humorous* **(be) on the warpath** (MLUI) |
| 4 | **beat about the bush**: ***prevaricate***, vacillate |
| 5 | comprehend: ***understand***, **(can't) make head or tail of** |
| 6 | occur: ***enter*** *one's* ***head/mind***, **come/spring to mind** |
| 7 | comprehend: ***understand***, *infml* **get the picture** |
| 8 | **get** *sth* **straight from the horse's mouth**<br>direct (adj): ***face to face***, first-hand; *infml* from the horse's mouth |
| 9 | **get straight to the point**<br>downright (adj): ***frank***, direct, straight to the point |
| 10 | misunderstand: ***misapprehend***; *infml* **get the wrong end of the stick** |
| 11 | compete: ***contend***, vie, **go head to head** |

| | |
|---|---|
| 12 | go too far: ***go over the top***, **go overboard** |
| 13 | **have/keep an open mind**: be unbiased |
| 14 | **hear** *sth* **on the grapevine**<br>grapevine (n) *fig infml*: a roundabout, unofficial source |
| 15 | stake *sth* out: ***observe***, watch, **keep an eye on** |
| 16 | correspond: ***exchange letters***, communicate, **keep in touch** |
| 17 | **keep** *one* **in the loop**<br>be in on: ***be privy to***, be aware of; *infml* be in the loop |
| 18 | update: ***brief***; **keep** *one* **up to date** |
| 19 | shirk: ***neglect***, let slide, **lose sight of** |
| 20 | make a killing: ***make a large profit***, **make a fortune**; *infml* make big bucks |
| 21 | **play** *one's* **cards right**: manoeuvre efficiently |
| 22 | abridge: ***shorten***; sum up, **put in a nutshell** |
| 23 | put *sth* in the picture<br>**put** *one* **in the picture**: ***inform***, give details to, keep posted |
| 24 | misinterpret: ***misunderstand***, misconceive; get (hold of) the wrong end of the stick, **be at cross purposes**; *infml* be barking up the wrong tree |
| 25 | discount: ***disregard***, pay no attention to; disbelieve, reject; *infml* **take with a pinch of salt** |
| 26 | idealize: ***romanticize***, romance, **paint a rosy picture of** |

Idioms *be like talking to a brick wall*, *fight a losing battle*, *make a quick buck*, and *run the risk of* are not included in Table 8 as no synonyms have been found so far.

Table 9 Clauses (MLUI, IIBEC)

| **No.** | **Unidiomatic equivalents of clauses** |
|---|---|
| 1 | **the customer is always right** |
| 2 | beware: ***be on your guard***, watch out; *infml* **look before you leap** |
| 3 | **money is (no) object** *infml* |
| 4 | **practice makes perfect** |
| 5 | **when in Rome, do as the Romans do** |

From Table 9 it is obvious that only one unidiomatic equivalent has been found so far. The example sentence is as follows:

*Look before you leap* into franchising. (IIBEC)

Table 10 Overall results – Idioms with their unidiomatic equivalents

| **SUI, NOUI** | **Number** | **Unidiomatic equivalent** | **MLUI, IIBEC** | **Number** | **Unidiomatic equivalent** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nominal | 17 | 11 | Nominal | 10 | 8 |
| Adjectival | — | — | Adjectival | 10 | 10 |
| Adverbial | 3 | 3 | Adverbial | 5 | 5 |
| Verbal | 38 | 26 | Verbal | 30 | 26 |
| Clause | 2 | — | Clause | 5 | 1 |
| **Total** | **60** | **40** | **Total** | **60** | **50** |

The overall results in Table 10 show 120 General English and Business English idioms with their unidiomatic equivalents. Regarding this small study, it can be said that verbals together with nominals and adjectivals are the most frequently used phrase patterns and that it was not possible to find all their synonyms.

**Testing the obtained results**

Table 11 presents the results of one experimental and one control group. The results achieved are in the percentages as it was possible to gain 60 points for the General English Idioms Test (GEIT) and 30 points for the Business English Idioms Test (BEIT).

Table 11 Obtained results (1)

| **Student number** | **Experimental group** | | **Control group** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **General English Idioms Test ( % )** | **Business English Idioms Test ( % )** | **General English Idioms Test ( % )** | **Business English Idioms Test ( % )** |
| 1 | 35 | 32 | 82 | 83 |
| 2 | 40 | 98 | 48 | 27 |
| 3 | 28 | 82 | 27 | 38 |
| 4 | 18 | 67 | 50 | 68 |
| 5 | 50 | 78 | 17 | 47 |
| 6 | 32 | 73 | 68 | 73 |
| 7 | 52 | 97 | 55 | 60 |
| 8 | 7 | 62 | 35 | 42 |
| 9 | 60 | 90 | 43 | 68 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | 7 | 38 | 48 | 55 |
| 11 | 23 | 38 | 52 | 75 |
| 12 | 2 | 60 | 32 | 20 |
| 13 | 45 | 87 | 70 | 90 |
| 14 | 68 | 93 | 75 | 80 |
| 15 | 3 | 42 | 13 | 38 |
| 16 | 58 | 97 | 25 | 27 |
| 17 | 52 | 48 | — | — |
| 18 | 50 | 90 | — | — |
| 19 | 50 | 82 | — | — |
| 20 | 8 | 33 | — | — |
| **Average** | **34%** | **69%** | **46%** | **56%** |
| **Standard deviation** | **21.19%** | **23.47%** | **20.66%** | **22.20%** |

1. *The Independent Two-sample T-test* was used to compare the BEIT results of the experimental group (Ex.) and the control group (Co.).

H1: There is a significant difference between the BEIT results of the Ex. and the Co. (There is a significant difference between the GEI knowledge of the Ex. and the Co.).

H0: The difference between the BEIT results of the Ex. and he Co. is random.

The finding: At the significance level of 5% ($\alpha$ = 0.05), the null hypothesis is rejected, because the probability p = 0.04 (i.e. $p < \alpha$), i.e. the difference can be considered as significant.

When comparing the GEIT results of the Ex. and the Co., the difference was random.

2. *The Paired Two-sample T-test* – was used to compare the GEIT and BEIT results of the Ex., respectively the Co.

The experimental group

H2: There is a significant difference between the GEI knowledge and the BEI knowledge of the Ex.

H0: The difference is random.

The finding: At the significance level of 5 % ($\alpha$ = 0.05), the null hypothesis is rejected because probability p = 0, (more exactly p = 0.000000003), the difference is significant.

The control group

H3: There is a significant difference between the GEI knowledge and the BEI knowledge of the Co.

H0: The difference is random.

The finding: At the significance level of 5% ($\alpha$ = 0.05), the null hypothesis is rejected because the probability p = 0.015 and the difference can also be considered as significant.

Here is an interesting striking difference between the p-value = 0 in the Ex. and the p-value = 0.015 in the Co., it can be explained that the improvement (an increase of the level of knowledge) in the Ex. is much bigger than in the Co.

The following *T-test* examines the differences between the GEI and BEI knowledge of the Ex. and the Co.

Table 12 shows the differences between the results achieved in the GEIT and the BEIT in both groups.

Table 12 Obtained results (2)

| **Student number** | **Difference / BEIT – GEIT** | |
|---|---|---|
| | **Experimental group** | **Control group** |
| 1 | -3 | 2 |
| 2 | 58 | -22 |
| 3 | 53 | 12 |
| 4 | 48 | 18 |
| 5 | 28 | 30 |
| 6 | 42 | 5 |
| 7 | 45 | 5 |
| 8 | 55 | 7 |
| 9 | 30 | 25 |
| 10 | 32 | 7 |
| 11 | 15 | 23 |
| 12 | 58 | -12 |
| 13 | 42 | 20 |
| 14 | 25 | 5 |
| 15 | 38 | 25 |
| 16 | 38 | 2 |
| 17 | -3 | — |
| 18 | 40 | — |
| 19 | 32 | — |
| 20 | 25 | — |

H4: The increase of the level of knowledge of the Ex. is significantly bigger than the increase of the level of knowledge of the Co.

H0: There is not a significant difference between the increase of the level of knowledge of the Ex. and the Co.

The finding: At the significance level of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$), the null hypothesis is rejected because the probability $p = 0.00037$ (i.e. $p < \alpha$), i.e. the difference can be considered as significant.

## Conclusion

The research clearly shows that both groups entered the Project KEGA with some knowledge of idioms. However, the weaker group made bigger progress. From this small study, it is obvious that the experimental group was more motivated to learn Business English idioms. According to Kavka and Zybert (2004), one challenging issue worth following is that idioms can be studied as a source of language change. Now, it can definitely be stated that this was an interesting alternative to study language.

As mentioned above, mental lexicons exist in individual speakers' minds and it is hoped that this newly acquired knowledge of idioms will stay at their disposal for a long time, if not forever. If they do business internationally, they will not be lost in conversation.


## Acknowledgements

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**Petra Peldová**

# Evaluative Graded Adjectival Lexicogrammatical Patterns in English Online Newspapers

Abstract: *Graded adjectival lexicogrammatical patterns have been considered a basic instrument to convey evaluation in the text. This paper analyses the frequency of such patterns in a corpus of six English online newspapers (three broadsheets and three tabloids), and further investigates whether these patterns are used in the given discourse to construe emotional or judgemental evaluation (emotion and opinion). The paper draws on Hunston and Sinclair's introduction to basic adjectival lexicogrammatical evaluative patterns as well as on their modification conducted by Bednarek. The study has shown that the two types of newspapers do not mainly rely on superlative patterns but on comparative patterns exploiting the lemmata good and likely which represent judgemental evaluation (opinion).*

## Introduction

The notion of lexicogrammatical patterns and evaluation in newspaper discourse was analysed in detail by Bednarek ("Evaluation in Media", "Local Grammar"). Her approach draws on Martin and White's Appraisal Theory, which sees evaluation as a combination of Engagement, Graduation and Attitude, where the sub-dimension Affect is considered a heart of the appraisal system (Martin and White 45). Bednarek ("Local Grammar") explored evaluative lexicogrammatical patterns, originally introduced by Hunston and Sinclair (84-90) and attested them on a newspaper discourse corpus. This paper aims to build on Bednarek's work and analyse evaluative graded lexicogrammatical patterns on a larger English online newspaper discourse seeking the possible characteristics of evaluative graded adjectival patterns and their involvement in expressing attitudinal stance.

## Evaluation – attitudinal stance

"Evaluation is a broad cover term for expression of the speaker's and writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about" (Thomson and Hunston 5). Hunston and Sinclair consider evaluation a central function of language. Martin and White introduce the following graphical representation of evaluation in language, see Figure 1. Affect expresses real human's emotion, and Judgement and Appreciation are perceived as institutionalised feelings, which evaluate human behaviour and values of phenomena respectively.

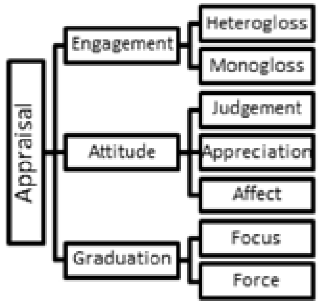


Figure 1 Appraisal system according to Martin and White

This paper views evaluation slightly differently, it operates with the terms opinion and emotion, which are introduced in Figure 2 and reflect Martin and White`s Appraisal Theory. Emotion deals with issues connected with people`s feelings (e.g., she was happy, he vented his frustration) and opinion covers the semantic mapping of human behaviour judgement (e.g., he was lucky to come in time) and appraisal of things (e.g. the game was good).

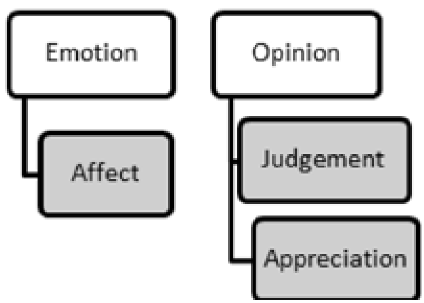


Figure 2 Opinion and Emotion

**Adjectival lexicogrammatical patterns and patterns of evaluation**

"(T)he patterns of a word can be defined as all the words and structures which are regularly associated with the word and which contribute to its meaning. A pattern can be identified if a combination of words occurs relatively frequently, if it is dependent on a particular word choice, and if there is a clear meaning associated with it" (Hunston and Francis 37).

Hunston and Sinclair apart from establishing general adjectival patterns that detect evaluation in text also focus on graded adjectival patterns because "gradedness indicates comparison, and comparison with a norm or a scale is often a matter of subjectivity. Subjectivity is one of the contributors to evaluative meaning" (92). Bednarek ("Local Grammar") draws on their findings and introduces a more detailed subdivision. The comparison of the two sets of the patterns can be seen in Table1. It is clear from Table 1 that Bednarek's patterns are more detailed than Hunston and Sinclair's. That is why, it has been decided to use Bednarek's patterns, to cover the broadest possible range of newspaper discourse language and come with comprehensive findings. Table 1 serves as an overview, illustrative examples are in Table 3.

Table 1 Evaluative graded adjectival patterns

| **Pattern** | **Hunston and Sinclair** | **Bednarek ("Local Grammar")** |
|---|---|---|
| **Pattern (i)** | Patterns with graded adjectives<br><br>**Pattern (i) with too/enough**<br>noun group + link verb + adjective group with 'too' or 'enough' + to-infinitive or prepositional phrase with 'for' | Graded adjectives<br><br>**Pattern (i) with too/enough**<br>noun group + link verb + adjective group with too or enough + to-infinitive or PP with for noun group + link verb + adjective group with too to-infinitive<br>noun group + link verb + adjective group with too or enough |
| **Pattern (ii)** | **Pattern (ii) Superlative adjective groups**<br>noun group + link verb + superlative adjective group + prepositional phrase<br>noun group + link verb + at + possessive superlative adjective group<br>noun group + link verb + noun group + of the + superlative adjective group + general noun | **Pattern (ii) Superlative adjective groups**<br>noun group + link verb + superlative adjective group + PP<br>noun group + link verb + superlative adjective group |
| **Pattern (iii)** | **Pattern (iii) Comparative adjective groups**<br>negative + comparative adjective group + than+ noun group + to-infinitive<br>noun group + link verb + comparative adjective group + as/ than + noun group | **Pattern (iii) Comparative adjective groups**<br>noun group + link verb + comparative adjective group + as/ than + NG/PP/AdvG<br>noun group + link verb + comparative adjective group + to –infinitive clause + than + non-finite clause<br>noun group + link verb + comparative adjective group<br>negative + comparative adjective group + than + noun group + to-infinitive<br>negative + comparative adjective group<br>noun group + link verb + something as + adjective group + as + noun group/ing clause |

## Corpus

The analysis has been conducted on a corpus which was created by collecting and downloading online newspaper articles from six British online newspapers representing both tabloids and broadsheets (the corpus comprises articles from the tabloids The Sun, The Express, and The Mirror, and the broadsheets The Telegraph, The Guardian, and The Independent). The downloaded online 'front page' articles deal with several issues such as politics, crime, business, and celebrities. The texts were collected between 18th September, 2011 and 8th October, 2012. Table 2 displays the numerical representation of the corpus. All in all, there are 741 articles, 402 from the tabloids and 339 from the broadsheets. The number of tokens in the broadsheet subcorpus is higher despite the fact that the number of articles is lower. This is due to the fact that tabloid articles have a tendency to be shorter. To ensure equal comparison of the two subcorpora, an iso-lexical approach was applied as it allows easier calculation of quantitative results (Oakey). A notable fact about this corpus is that the representation of the tabloids is almost equal to the broadsheets; the BNC does not offer this possibility.

Table 2 Corpus

| | **Broadsheets** | **Tabloids** | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Number of articles** | 339 | 402 | 741 |
| **Number of word tokens** | 273,014 | 261,197 | 534,211 |

## Methodology

First of all, the corpus was morphologically tagged by part-of-speech tagger Q-Tag, then the concordance software AntConc was used to detect the analysed pattern, a query was created for each pattern and the findings were manually checked for the potential evaluative meaning; some which did not express evaluative meaning were disregarded. Total 272 instances of evaluative graded adjectival patterns were identified in the corpus. These patterns were further analysed in terms of the attitudinal mapping of opinion and emotion. Moreover, type/token ratios were calculated and compared across the subcorpora where necessary and normalised frequencies per 10,000 were used to ensure comparable numbers in the subcorpora. The examples in the text were labelled T for the tabloids and B for the broadsheets, as the collection of the corpus articles started in September, 2011 and finished in October, 2012, some months are there twice, therefore, they are labelled e.g. Oct_11_04, i.e. that the information is from 4th October, 2011, Oct_12_04 means 4th October, 2012.

## Findings

Table 3 displays all the analysed patterns, their transcription, examples, and sources.

Table 3 Patterns used in the corpus

| Patterns | Transcription | Example | Source |
|---|---|---|---|
| i | **Adjective group with *too* or *enough*** | | |
| | v-link *too* ADJ to-inf | *He is too sick to stand a trial.* | B_May_16 |
| | v-link *too* ADJ *for* n | *She is too desperate for publicity.* | T_Oct_11_08 |
| | v-link ADJ *enough* finite/non-finite clause | *Steve was among the greatest of American innovators - brave enough to think differently...* | B_Oct_11_06 |
| | v-link ADJ *enough* | *It was eight days after the incident and not good enough.* | T_Oct_11_02 |
| | v-link ADJ *enough* prep | *She seemed happy enough with her new fella, ...* | T_Jan_01 |
| ii | **v-link ADJ- SUPERL** | | |
| | v-link ADJ-SUPERL | *The V gang is the best.* | T_Oct_11_02 |
| | v-link ADJ-SUPERL prep n | *Sergeant Nigel Coupe, 33, ..., was the oldest of the men* | T_Mar_08 |
| | *it/this* v-link ADJ-SUPERL *thing to-inf*/prep | *I'm not sure it was the wisest thing to do.* | T_Feb_11 |
| | ADJ-SUPERL *thing* v-link finite/non-finite clause/n | *The most important thing is making sure that we put safety first.* | B_Feb_06 |
| | V it ADJ-SUPERL to-inf | *I have thought it best to stand down as Dean, to allow new leadership to be exercised* | T/B_Nov_01 |
| iii | **v-link ADJ- COMPAR** | | |
| | v-link ADJ-COMPAR | *the risk is much greater* | T_Feb_02 |
| | v-link ADJ-COMPAR *than* n/prep/ADV/non-finite clause | *Payment is generally far more generous than any government benefits....* | T_Oct_11_02 |
| | v-link ADJ-COMPAR *to*-inf *than* n/prep/ADV | *They were more than eight times more likely to have been stopped... than the general population in London.* | B_Dec_05 |
| | V *it* ADJ-COMPAR *to-inf* | *THOUSANDS of foreign students could find it easier to stay in Britain* | T_Jan_01 |
| | *it* v-link ADJ-COMPAR *to-inf* | *It is not better to be on benefits.* | T_June_25 |
| | *it* v-link ADJ-COMPAR *to-inf than* ADV | *it's much better to be out than in.* | B_Apr_12 |

The quantitative representation of the subcorpora and the whole corpus findings are shown in Table 4, where the most frequent instances of the pattern are highlighted. The most frequent pattern is v-link ADJ-COMPAR, representing 41.5 per cent of all graded adjectival patterns, followed by adjective group with too/ enough, (36.4%), completed by v-link ADJ-SUPERL (22.1%). The subcorpora show that v-link ADJ-COMPAR is used equally, however the adjective group with too or enough pattern is more dominant in the broadsheets, and v-link ADJ-SUPERL dominates in the tabloids.

Table 4 Evaluative graded adjectival patterns – quantitative representation

| **Pattern** | | **Broadsheets** | | **Tabloids** | | **Total** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *raw freq* | *per 10,000 words* | *raw freq* | *per 10,000 words* | *raw freq* | *per 10,000 words* |
| i | Adjective group with *too* or *enough* | 57 | 2.1 | 42 | 1.6 | 99 | 1.9 |
| ii | v-link ADJ-SUPERL | 26 | 1.0 | 34 | 1.3 | 60 | 1.1 |
| iii | v-link ADJ-COMPAR | 57 | 2.1 | 56 | 2.1 | 113 | 2.1 |
| | Total | 140 | 5.1 | 132 | 5.1 | 272 | 5.1 |

Figure 3 visually portrays the distribution of the semantic mapping of emotion and opinion in the corpus. The evaluative graded adjectival patterns show a negligible usage of emotion in both the subcorpora, while opinion prevails, slightly dominating in the broadsheets. Bednarek ("Emotion" 57) explains why there is so little emotion expressed via comparative adjectival patterns,

„such adjectives relate to ‚private' states into which only the emoter has insight, it would be very marked to say I'm happier/angrier/more surprised than he is .... Therefore, there is less opportunity for using graded forms with emotion adjectives."

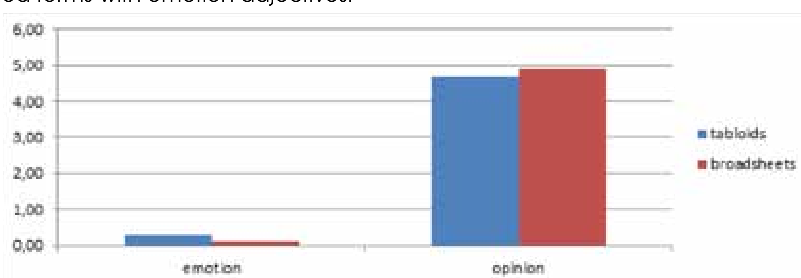


Figure 3 Emotion and opinion in evaluative graded adjectival patterns

**v-link *too* ADJ**

Pattern (i) with the premodification too appears 69 times in the corpus; 43 times in the broadsheets, and 26 times in the tabloids.  The pattern shows a tendency to be complemented by to-inf (see examples 1, 2, 4, 5) rather than by a prepositional phrase. The variety of adjectives used in this pattern is relatively high, 47 types of adjectives are used. The most frequent adjective employed is young, followed by weak, see examples 3, 4, 5. The construction 'too young' is the most remarkable construction as it always carries negative evaluation. In fact, the whole pattern v-link too ADJ, in my corpus, expresses mainly negative evaluation. This pattern also shows a preponderance of expressing opinion over emotion. In total, only eight instances of emotion were detected in contrast to 61 instances of opinion. Examples 1 and 2 express emotion. All the adjectives used to employ emotion carry the negative load (scared, frightened, ashamed, desperate, embarrassed, and grief-stricken).

1. They would be too embarrassed or ashamed to report the crime. B_Mar_12
2. The grandparents were too grief-stricken to comment on the tragedy. T_Dec_13
3. Journalism is too weak, not too strong. B_Oct_11_04
4. We`re adults and our younger children are too young to understand. T_Apr_19
5. She is too young and beautiful to be taken from us all. T_Apr_23

**v-link ADJ *enough***

The postmodification enough was found 30 times in the corpus; 14 times in the broadsheets and 16 times in the tabloids. The variety of the adjectives used is much narrower compared to pattern v-link too ADJ. Only 15 types of adjectives were detected. A notable fact is connected with the adjective good, which is the most frequent adjective used in this pattern. The construction 'good enough' does not convey positive evaluation as it always (in this corpus) follows a negated linking verb (see examples 6, 7). Emotion is expressed only once, see example 8, all other occurrences are instances of opinion. Generally, it can be concluded that negative opinion, in this corpus, is created with the help of v-link too ADJ and adjectives ( weak, painful, young, ugly, sick, vile, etc.) and the positive opinion with the help of v-link ADJ enough by the adjectives lucky, pleasant, smart, strong, realistic, talented, high, brave, fortunate, and big. It must be noted that it is not only the pattern which creates the positive or negative meaning but mainly the lexis which appears in the pattern. And, therefore, the lexicogrammatical dependence plays an important role in expressing the meaning.

6. It's simply not good enough for this report to be recognised and then business to carry on as usual. T_Nov_09
7. The data available to the experts has not been good enough to enable them to give a clear recommendation of the risk ... B/T_Jan_06
8. She seemed happy enough with her new fella, ...T_Jan_01

**Pattern ii v-link ADJ-SUPERL**

The 'superlative' pattern expresses only opinion and there are 60 instances of this pattern in the corpus. The tabloids show a slightly stronger tendency to employ superlative forms of adjectives (34 occurrences) than the broadsheets (26 occurrences). The lower occurrence does not mean that newspapers do not use superlative forms, they do, but in attributive roles and this research focuses only on predicative roles. There are 31 types of adjectives used in this pattern, with the most important and the best as the most frequent ones; see examples 9, 10.

9. The V gang is the best. T_Oct_11_02
10. ...the most important thing is friendship between France and Germany. T_Dec_05/06

**Pattern iii v-link ADJ-COMPAR**

Similarly to pattern (i), pattern (iii) has several subpatterns. All together there are 113 instances of this pattern in the corpus, 57 in the broadsheets, and 56 in the tabloids. This pattern expresses both opinion and emotion, yet emotion can be found only scarcely with one occurrence in the broadsheets and four in the tabloids, see example 11. The research has detected that the most frequent subpattern used is v-link ADJ-COMPAR than, see examples 12 and 13, with 64 instances. This influential pattern is mainly complemented by a noun group (other complementation is ADV, finite and non-finite clauses). Based on the findings, it can be concluded that this subpattern plays an important role in expressing opinion in newspaper discourse.

11. ...he and Katie were happier than ever... T_Jun_30
12. The choices will be much harder than when the economy was growing... B_Jan_10
13. ...variants of KG5 that are100-fold more powerful than the original drug... T_Nov_14

Forty-three types of adjectives are employed in pattern v-link ADJ-COMPAR. The most frequent adjective is likely (more/less likely) complemented by to-inf /than clause. The adjective was attested almost equally in both the subcorpora, 11 times in the broadsheets and eight times in the tabloids. Examples include:

14. ...people who drink diet soft drinks every day are 43 per cent more likely to have heart attacks, stroke or vascular disease.T_Feb_01
15. ...female supporters were more likely to turn support into a vote, as were those who were employed. B_Nov_06

The second most frequent adjective in this pattern is higher; this adjective only appears in the subpattern v-link ADJ-COMPAR than; similarly to more likely, higher predominantly construes negative evaluation especially concerning economic issues such as costs, inflation/unemployment rates see examples 16 and 17. However, it must be reminded that the negative meaning is not created only by the pattern and the adjective higher but also by the context the pattern and the adjective appear in.

16. Youth unemployment figures are always considerably higher than the general population. B_Mar_09
17. ...costs would remain higher than current levels. T_Mar_15

The third most frequently used adjective is better. Interestingly, on the contrary to the pattern (i), here good is used to mainly create positive evaluation. Good was attested in several subcategories of pattern (iii).

**Adjectives**

Table 5 shows ten most frequently used adjectives in each subcorpus and in total, in evaluative graded adjectival patterns. The lemmas good and likely seem to play an important role in expressing opinion in evaluative graded adjectival patterns, in both subcorpora, followed by high and big. Adjectives construing emotional evaluation are used scarcely. The research shows only the lemma happy among the top ten tabloids adjectives.

Table 5 Top ten adjectives

| Broadsheets | | Tabloids | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *adjective* | *raw freq* | *adjective* | *raw freq* | *adjective* | *raw freq* |
| likely | 11 | good | 9 | good | 19 |
| good | 10 | likely | 8 | likely | 19 |
| high | 10 | big | 8 | high | 15 |
| hard | 6 | young | 7 | big | 12 |
| low | 6 | important | 5 | important | 10 |
| important | 5 | late | 5 | hard | 9 |
| strong | 5 | high | 5 | bad | 9 |
| late | 4 | happy | 5 | young | 8 |
| bad | 4 | nice | 4 | low | 8 |
| big | 4 | known | 4 | easy | 6 |

**Conclusions**

The aim of this study was to identify evaluative graded adjectival patterns in the corpus, to detect any differences between the two subcorpora, i.e. the broadsheets and the tabloids, in using the patterns, and to explore how much opinion or emotion is expressed in newspaper discourse via these patterns. To do so, evaluative graded adjectival patterns used by Bednarek (Local Grammar) were adopted.

The evaluative graded adjectival patterns are not as common in newspaper discourse as the non-graded patterns. Based on the research, we can state that every fifth attested evaluative adjectival pattern is graded. The most frequent pattern in the tabloids and the broadsheets is v-link- COMPAR followed by adjective group with too or enough. v-link-SUPERL is slightly more dominant in the tabloids. Patterns with evaluative graded adjectives are first and foremost used to express opinion; emotion is expressed negligibly.

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**Libor Práger, Václav Řeřicha**

# The Gap of Misunderstanding (Learning in literacy-based school and social media environment)

Abstract: *In today's schools, the gap of misunderstanding between teachers and students is widening. Teachers criticize students and students complain that school fails to involve them, for students school is no longer a major center of learning. This change was anticipated by McLuhan in his essay The Future of Education in 1967. He had hypothesized that the new media synonymous with the new technologies were changing the perception of young students from visual to auditory impacting their cognitive abilities and consequently, the ways they learn. This article is an attempt to document and analyze the present misunderstanding between teachers and young students with McLuhan´s media theory. The introductory chapters interpret the recent surveys quantifying the misunderstanding. They provide, among others, an experienced teachers' comparison of the conduct of students at the beginning of their teaching career with the current generation of pupils with regard to their class behaviour, reading and writing skills, and general cognitive skills. The closing chapters examine effects of the environment of social media that change the cognitive abilities and consequently the ways of learning of contemporary students. The involving instantaneous social interaction and its effects are considered on the background of teaching in the literacy-based contemporary school.*

## Introduction

Is the literacy-based school of today too detached and passive, actually functioning as an obstruction to learning due to the low participation of young learners growing up in digital environment? The question is even more serious today than it was half a century ago when back in 1967 Marshall McLuhan and George B. Leonard published the essay *The Future of Education: The Class of 1989.* The essay has since become a benchmark for any subsequent considerations concerning the impact of school education.

Traditionally, mass education was based on competition with grades and tests to provide specifically prepared students for specific jobs according to the "social machine's needs". The appropriate instruction for this purpose was "pressing information onto passive students by the environment of lectures, the most common mode of instruction in mass education, which called for very little student involvement" (23, 1967).

When considering the "social machine's" level of success or failure in providing relevant learning in educational institutions, there are a number of questions to ask. On a larger scale it seems a rather unsettled issue as to who or what represents the McLuhanesque idea of the "social machine" today, be it state institutions, policy-makers, employers, researchers and educators, broadcasting media, social media, or civic organizations and the general public. Even if an agreement is settled by pointing out that all the above-mentioned stakeholders play some role in shaping the educational strategies and policies of individual countries, there is hardly any tangible data available as to specific roles and influencing the power of each of them. For the purpose of the current research design, the complex list of stakeholders in education policies has been reduced to four major categories: the policy makers, i.e. the state and political representatives, the educators; i.e. the academic researchers and practicing teachers; pupils on the primary and secondary level of education, and parents, together with family members and out of school educators. To avoid confusion due to an incompatible systems comparison, the following survey data and ensuing arguments will deal (unless specifically stated) with the educational context of the Czech Republic.

**The “social machine”**

To illustrate the current confusion within the social machine regarding the desired outcomes of the educational system, several international testing methodologies can serve as a good example. The most prominent international comparative tests of pupils’ achievement in reading, science, and mathematics, PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study), TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study), and PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) seem to represent what society values in education and therefore tests and makes a part of the curricula. Yet the results of these tests can hardly be considered useful guidance in mapping the strengths and weaknesses of the educational system if in the hands of policy-makers at state institutions, the sinking scores are often interpreted and presented as a positive change. When the PIRLS scores of Czech fourth-graders arrived in 2016, the Czech School Inspectorate claimed that ”the average result of reading literacy in the Czech Republic had risen by 6 points between 2001 and 2016, which is statistically a relevant increase, however, in comparison with the results of 2011, the results of the Czech pupils are rather stagnating” (PIRLS, 12). It is to be noted that in 2001 Czech pupils were in 12$^{th}$ place among the participating countries, by 2011 their results sank slightly to 14$^{th}$ place, and in 2016 Czech pupils’ reading literacy dramatically dropped to 22$^{nd}$ place. A similarly steep decline can be observed in the TIMSS test: 6$^{th}$ place for the Czech Republic in mathematics in 1995, 7$^{th}$ in the sciences (TIMSS Highlights), while in 2015 Czech pupils’ results dropped to 21$^{st}$ place in mathematics and 17$^{th}$ in the sciences (TIMSS&PIRLS).

The PISA tests results (PISA 2015) follow a similar pattern of stagnation accompanied by a gradual sinking of the Czech Republic rankings among the participating countries, being in all three criteria (Science, Mathematics, Reading) on lower ranking levels in 2015 than it was in 2000 (see Fig. 1). However, the state institutions, representing here McLuhan’s metaphor of a blind ”social machine”, seem to be spending more time and energy on relativizing the system failures and highlighting its temporary successes than on looking seriously for ways to improve or challenge the inefficient methods and procedures. (CSI)

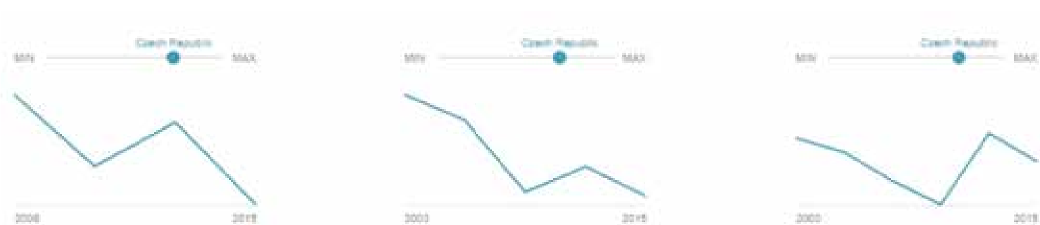

**Fig. 1**

**The Millennials**

Considering the situation described above, it is relevant to posit a question regarding the impact of the constant decline in the quality of educational results upon the primary subject of educational activities, the pupils themselves. While every educational system proposes and supports gathering of qualitative and quantitative data to reflect the effect of introduced measures, the feelings and attitudes of the pupils and young graduates are not always at the primary focus of such research. This is evident from the results of a broad survey carried out across Europe called "Generation What?". The survey is described as an interactive survey produced by France Télévision in partnership with 14 European broadcasters to draw a portrait of the current generation of 15-34-year olds (Generation What, 2017). This independent survey with, among other things, nearly forty thousand respondents from the Czech Republic seems to paint a rather grim portrait of the Czech educational system.

According to this survey, more than fifty per cent of young Czechs belonging to the generation of Millennials distrust Czech schools, while more than seventy per cent of them do not agree that these schools prepare them adequately for the job market and seventy-five per cent of them do not agree that the Czech educational system rewards merit (see Fig. 2). With well-designed and continuous national surveys of the new generation's ambitions, hopes, and fears such results would not come as a bitter surprise to many Czech educators and policy makers.

| "Generation What?" survey | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Czech Republic – 38772 respondents | | Czech Republic – 38042 respondents | |
| *The educational system rewards merit*: | | *The educational system adequately prepares you for the job market:* | |
| I totally agree | 2 % | I totally agree | 2 % |
| I agree to a point | 24 % | I agree to a point | 27 % |
| I don't agree | 54 % | I don't agree | 52 % |
| I totally disagree | 21 % | I totally disagree | 19 % |

**Fig. 2**

It seems only natural that in an attempt to find answers and possible cure for the faltering system, the Czech School Inspectorate, one of the major players in maintaining the educational system's quality, has turned to the practicing teachers and asked them a simple question: "What would help you in meeting the objectives of the subject you teach more successfully?" (Selective Survey, 2017, 2). From the number of options they could select in their responses, the three most common were: a change in the pupils' attitude to the subject (95%), better support from parents for the school's efforts (65%), more hours allocated to the subject in the schedule (63%). Regardless of the non-specific nature of the first two responses, all three of them betray a high degree of passivity in the teachers' expectations, since none of the three most common responses includes the teachers themselves as a force of change but all of them point to external (and virtually impossible to influence) factors.

However, the most common teachers' answer concerning a change in the pupils' attitude to their subjects became the core of the presented survey, which was designed to reflect the experienced teachers' (i.e. with fifteen and more years of teaching experience) subjective perception of the pupils' behaviour and conduct in the classroom. The primary task of the respondents was to compare the conduct of the pupils at the beginning of their teaching career with the current generation of pupils regarding their class behaviour, reading and writing skills, and general cognitive skills. These were marked on a five-point Likert scale: much worse than before – worse than before – without change – better than before – much better than before. The survey also provided space for personal commentaries, which only a small number of responding teachers utilized.

The classroom behaviour set of questions contained seven characteristics:

General conduct in the classroom, Motivation for learning, Activity in the classroom, Independence in task completion, Effective cooperation with classmates, Homework quality, and Attitude to teachers. The results of the questionnaires are to be found in the following sets of tables, which are divided according to the primary school teachers' responses and grammar school teachers responses (see Fig. 3 and 4).

| Primary Schools | Much worse | Worse | No change | Better | Much better |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| General conduct | 0 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Motivation for learning | 1 | 6 | 9 | 1 | 0 |
| Activity in the classroom | 0 | 8 | 7 | 2 | 0 |
| Independence in task completion | 1 | 9 | 5 | 2 | 0 |
| Effective cooperation | 0 | 6 | 7 | 4 | 0 |
| Homework quality | 2 | 10 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Attitude to teachers | 0 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 0 |

**Fig. 3**

| Grammar Schools | Much worse | Worse | No change | Better | Much better |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| General conduct | 0 | 6 | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| Motivation for learning | 2 | 3 | 9 | 1 | 0 |
| Activity in the classroom | 0 | 5 | 8 | 2 | 0 |
| Independence in task completion | 1 | 5 | 8 | 1 | 0 |
| Effective cooperation | 0 | 1 | 10 | 4 | 0 |
| Homework quality | 1 | 6 | 7 | 1 | 0 |
| Attitude to teachers | 0 | 5 | 9 | 1 | 0 |

**Fig. 4**

The results in this section reveal a marked difference between the primary school teachers' responses and those of the grammar school teachers. While the primary school teachers' responses lean strongly towards a negative shift in comparison with the past (see Fig. 3), most of grammar school teachers perceive the pupils' conduct in all categories as unchanged (see Fig. 4).

The reading and writing set of questions focused only on four characteristics related to text processing: Reading speed and quality, Text understanding, Formal quality of writing, Content quality of writing (see Fig. 5 and 6).

| Primary Schools | Much worse | Worse | No change | Better | Much better |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading speed and quality | 2 | 5 | 9 | 1 | 0 |
| Text understanding | 5 | 6 | 6 | 0 | 0 |
| Formal quality of writing | 4 | 6 | 7 | 0 | 0 |
| Content quality of writing | 2 | 7 | 6 | 2 | 0 |

**Fig. 5**

| Grammar Schools | Much worse | Worse | No change | Better | Much better |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading speed and quality | 1 | 6 | 6 | 2 | 0 |
| Text understanding | 2 | 4 | 8 | 1 | 0 |
| Formal quality of writing | 0 | 8 | 6 | 1 | 0 |
| Content quality of writing | 1 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 0 |

**Fig. 6**

Here both the primary and grammar school teachers' responses were similar, with the primary school teachers' responses showing a stronger tendency towards deterioration in reading skills among pupils (see Fig. 5).

The selected cognitive skills were described as follows: Concentration, Memory, Logical thinking, Understanding instructions, Creativity (see Fig 7 and 8).

| Primary Schools | Much worse | Worse | No change | Better | Much better |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concentration | 1 | 12 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Memory | 0 | 4 | 12 | 1 | 0 |
| Logical thinking | 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 0 |
| Understanding instructions | 4 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 0 |
| Creativity | 3 | 3 | 7 | 4 | 0 |

**Fig. 7**

| Grammar Schools | Much worse | Worse | No change | Better | Much better |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concentration | 0 | 7 | 8 | 0 | 0 |
| Memory | 2 | 4 | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| Logical thinking | 0 | 4 | 8 | 3 | 0 |
| Understanding instructions | 1 | 5 | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| Creativity | 0 | 3 | 8 | 4 | 0 |

**Fig. 8**

In this section of the survey, similarly to the first category of class behaviour, the responses of the grammar school teachers suggested more of a status quo in cognitive skills change (see Fig. 8), while most of the primary school teachers' responses painted a more negative picture of cognitive skills development (see Fig. 7).

**Survey conclusion**

When comparing the survey results from the elementary schools and grammar schools, it is noticeable that the only group of questions where the results from both the education levels were similar was the Reading and writing section. In the other two groups of questions, the grammar school teachers' responses were marked by the prevailing number of "no change" responses (see Fig. 4 and 8). This result does not correlate with the findings of the Czech School Inspectorate's Selective survey of 2017 where the teachers themselves named the students' unsatisfactory attitude to their subjects of study as the most frequent obstacle to meeting their educational objectives (2). None of the "no change over the time" in the grammar schools students' cognitive or behavioural performance explains the sinking scores of the Czech secondary school students in PISA tests. There are several possible explanations of this inconclusiveness in the presented surveys' findings. We might consider the lack of reliable, holistic, and continuous performance measurements/reflections as one of them. Another one could be the growing (mis) use of technology in the secondary schools' educational process, leading paradoxically to emotional disconnectedness and frontal, one-way communication between the teacher and the student, a phenomenon called in the business circles aptly "death by PowerPoint", while some of the grammar school teachers in our survey called it, less aptly, "a university style of instruction", obviously regarded as a positive contribution to the range of teaching methods on the secondary level of education.

Whatever is the real reason for the prevailing complacent responses of the grammar school teachers in the light of their students' sinking ratings in the international tests of reading, mathematics, and science performance, the academic community of researchers in education should start looking for answers through continuous, theoretically-sound, and well-balanced series of aptitude tests and attitude surveys. These should be carried out not only among the learners and teachers, but also among parents, leisure time educators and any subjects which participate in the process of education.

**Living (and learning) with social media**

The time is coming, warned McLuhan and Leonard in The Future of Education (1967), if it is not already here, when children can learn far more, far faster, in the outside world than within schoolhouse walls. In large cities where figures are available, dropouts have higher average IQ scores than high-school graduates. (23)

The teachers at the end of the second decade of the twenty-first century are once again complaining about the low impact their teaching has on young students (since they are motivated to give pupils their very best). Their disappointment signals a problem which cannot be solved by recriminations and complaints. The students' perception of school as "boring" seems to be an inevitable effect of the entertainment environment of social media and computer games with the component of instantaneous social interaction permanently available outside school. Teachers' disappointment is a result of their insistence on living in historic environment based on literacy, on the linear technology of alphabet while their students´ environment results from the technology of the Internet providing instant social interaction and instant gratification.

The environment developing through forms of social media has been changing the perception and consequently the ways of learning of contemporary students; the changed perception is incompatible with the literacy-based teaching prevailing in the contemporary school. The medium of digital technology has not abolished the medium of alphabet. Nevertheless, the students living naturally in the environment of digital media perceive the literacy-based environment as parochial and what is even more important as one which is difficult to understand.

Before a further analysis can be undertaken, the relationship between media and its forms, environment and its effects should be clarified here if only to establish agreement on the terminology. A medium is synonymous with a new technology (e.g. the Internet), the forms of the medium (e.g. Facebook) generate an environment with specific effects (e.g. a loss of identity by transferring one's privacy on a social medium followed by an identity reconstruction outside, on the platform and according to the rituals of the tribal group, etc. When a new form of media (e.g. a smart phone and its applications) is introduced, it suddenly multiplies its potential (as extension of both the ear and the eye) and starts generating a new environment the effects of which may not have been envisaged. Apps are new forms made available by the media and creating among other things the new possibility of instantaneous processing and selection of specific groups of data. A new medium (e.g. the Internet) creates by means of its forms (a smartphone, applications) an environment (e.g. the possibility of instantaneous social interaction and gratification). The environment has visible effects/manifestations which can be studied. The medium creates an environment and the environment causes effects. By definition, the medium itself (i.e. any new technology) has the power of making us unaware of the automatically ensuing changes in our cognitive skills. Only the effects of the media-created environment can by observed.

In order to be aware of the nature of the environment operations McLuhan suggests that an inventory of the effects needs to be obtained (e.g. by asking how the younger people's behavior differ from the older ones). These inventories of the effects are sometimes labelled as "probes" (this term has become ambiguous in McLuhan's concept; it may also be a method for juxtaposing and analyzing two seemingly unrelated effects). A probe, as an inventory of effects, must be presented on a temporal scale to record the changing media.

The nature of the objects of the probe is not important because the new environment, which is a result of a new technology, changes humans and all their manifestations.

**The effects/manifestations of the social media environment**

We will attempt to suggest an example of the method of depicting the manifestations of media by probes in order to illustrate that media do create irrevocable changes in behaviour and education and if ignored the obstacles facing the contemporary literacy-based education will not be understood.

The learning at contemporary school competes with and loses against the emotionally charged environment of social media providing instant social interaction and gratification (Alter 2017, Carr 2011, Harris 2014). Our example of a manifestation of the effect of the media is a probe in kinesics provided below - an analysis of the recent kinesics of photos/selfies on Facebook that can be classified as a form of emphatic non-verbal communication. A kinesics probe of Facebook personal presentations offers itself as a suitable object of study of specific manifestations of a specific digital environment.

Digital media forms such as Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat have created environment demanding a new form of highly emotionally charged kinesics (Levesque 2017, Ramo 2016). The recent "look-generation" has a natural and constantly growing need for such photos/selfies which would reconstruct those identities that have been previously transferred to the tribal platforms (e.g. Facebook). The selfies/photos have a permanent need for new gestures suggesting a high degree of dynamism, empathy and instant positive emotions. A typical example is the Asian V-sign which belongs to a group of emotionally charged *telephone, shocker, love* and *shaka* signs. The V-sign with the palm inwards and scissors-shaped fingers may have suggested a perfect Korean V-shaped face but has changed to the non-verbal expression of *I am just too cool.* The sign, adopted worldwide, seems to have become a compulsory kinesics for a certain type of selfie in the environment created by social media as well as the recent Thai thumb and index finger love sign. However, the need for emotionally-charged selfies are just a consequence, a fulfilment of the temptation to exploit the possibilities made available by the new media forms. The environment of the social media has created a "sub-environment" of the echo chamber characterized by reinforcing repetition inside a closed system. The potential of the echo chamber has eventually given rise to a number of visible manifestations such as the above-described specific kinesics (as well as fake news and self-harm).

**The Baton of the Digital Environment**

The time spent on teacher-led instruction in the zero-entertainment, low-involvement literacy-based school is perceived as slow by the students whose cognitive abilities have been adjusted to instant interaction and information provided by social media. It a common experience that evenings seem relatively longer to people reading or listening to an audio-book, shorter when they are watching TV, and time contracts when surfing the Internet. Everything happens, seems to happen, faster because in the electronic environment events/incidents are instantaneous (McLuhan 1974), of very short duration, whether they are fast changing scenes on the TV screen or even faster changing screens on a smartphone.

The rhythm of the changes might be visualised by the movement of the index finger on the smartphone screen which becomes a baton of the Internet orchestra. And the baton is moving faster and faster. The baton cannot as yet, however, conduct the events/incidents in school. The shorter the events/incidents are, the higher the sensorial involvement. A secondary school teacher reading a text for twenty minutes would be considered not merely boring, but unbearable by students today. McLuhan noted in 1967 that "environment of lectures, the most common mode of instruction in mass education, called for very little student involvement" (25). The students of 2018 would perceive such a lecture as physically tormenting.

**Conclusion**

The changing cognitive skills are not ignored by textbooks which are forms of literacy-based environment. Textbook-based learning based on alphabet technology presupposes the effortless skill of reading. Reading demands a constant awareness of context because context is deciphering the meaning. Context is a code to the meaning of the text and the code is changing with every page. The textbook as a learning tool is now perceived as slow and not-involving because students find difficult to break the code of the context. The context does not represent the code any longer for students, they have lost the skill to break it or may not even be aware of it. Instead, they break the code of digital environment by the movements of their index fingers when changing websites, the code is a permanent change of restricted contexts.

The textbook does not provide instant gratification, the interactivity of its exercises is perceived as obsolete, the textbook is an instrument of the suddenly archaic medium of literacy (McLuhan 1965), it continues to be a source of information as is any other museum object. A student learning a foreign language abroad - which needs full involvement - will have great difficulty going on with their studies of the foreign language by learning from a text-book when back home.

The adjustment of the mass media to the digital environment has been understandably faster. The text on the Internet news web-sites is being replaced, or at least supplemented, by video. The Harry Potter generation will recognize the interactive The Daily Prophet in most news websites at present. The authors listing the growing number of Harry Potter's magic that actually exist now misinterpret the issue, they view the new digital environment from the perspective of the previous literacy-based environment. These bits of magic have not become part of our literacy-based environment but the whole environment has become magical (digital). However, only a generation brought up in the old literacy environment will be able to be aware of this (McLuhan 1974). The Harry Potter generation, under the spell of the digital environment, cannot be aware of it, their natural environment is the environment of its effects.

The recent confusion regarding the desired outcomes of the educational system has been well-documented above, the schools offer education for the needs of the "social machine" which no longer exist. The students' natural habitat of social media renders thus directed teaching difficult to follow. Carr suggests that many of the students find textbooks as difficult to read as a medieval pupil presented with a learning from scriptura continua (2011, 61).

Recording of the manifestations, probes of the new technology environment is an instrument that may help explain the misunderstanding transcending the recriminations and nostalgia on one side and the passive refusal and boredom on the other.

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**Eva Reid, Elena Kováčiková**

# Creativity and Critical Thinking in Foreign Language Teaching

Abstract: *Current methodologies call for the development and support of higher cognitive processes of students. According to Bloom's taxonomy, higher thinking operations belong to the most valuable, and need to be developed through various educational practices, in particular subjects at school. Language lessons provide plenty of opportunities to enhance critical thinking and creative processes. This paper presents practical teaching techniques tips and activities that can be used with various age groups. Moreover, these can be adapted according to different language proficiency levels.*

## 1. Developing creativity and high level thinking skills

Renzulli (25) emphasised the importance of developing student creativity. Skills like fluency, flexibility, originality, elaboration, curiosity, complexity, risk taking, and imagination are needed for the development of creativity. Creative skills can be developed by asking open-ended questions or challenging questions, with various games or activities, and everyday events that children experience. Also Duchovičová (105) emphasised the importance of choosing appropriate strategies and teaching techniques that develop critical thinking, creativity and autonomous learning. There are certain barriers which prevent one from being creative – strictly following rules, being scared of foolishness, not making mistakes, being overly logical, being too practical, and looking for just one answer. Teachers should be more lax about the aforementioned points in order for pupils to be more creative.

In English classes creativity is mainly manifested through productive skills: speaking and writing. Students should be encouraged to talk freely about various topics, such as their experiences, troubles, ideas, dreams, etc. Pair work, group work, role-play, simulations, finishing unfinished stories, etc., would all be suitable techniques for practicing speaking activities. Writing is not a skill which is developed with young learners. However older learners can practice creative writing in the form of self-invented stories, poems, plans, inventions, etc. The elaboration of projects is an excellent technique for developing creativity and high level thinking. Age and proficiency level must be considered though.

Conceptualising different forms of thinking is hierarchical, whereby more cognitively complex thoughts take a higher and more valuable place than cognitively simpler ones. Cognitively lower thoughts must be mastered before progressing to higher ones. This hierarchy of thinking skills is best known as Bloom's Taxonomy. The original taxonomy was formulated in 1956 and has been revised by many educationalists. Anderson & Krathwohl's (2001) Revised Bloom's Taxonomy differentiates lower and higher thinking skills:

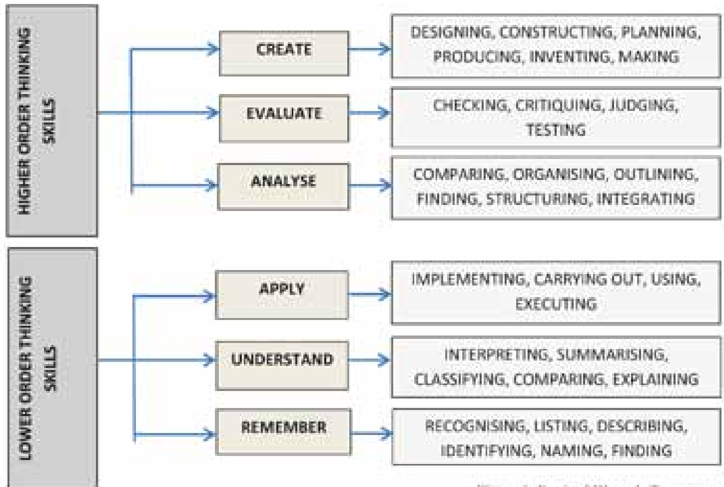


Figure 1: Revised Bloom's Taxonomy

According to Santos (12-15) the development of thinking skills should be an additional aim in English language teaching on top of developing communicative and intercultural competences. He claims that integrating thinking skills in foreign language teaching significantly raises language proficiency. The Revised Bloom's Taxonomy can serve as the base for designing learning activities. Discussions, debates, critiques are the core techniques in developing higher order thinking skills.

## 2. Techniques supporting high level thinking

Specific techniques used for the development of higher-level thinking are named and discussed here. Such techniques should develop individual decision making, the ability to solve problems, analyse, synthetise, etc.

### 2.1 Alpha box

Alpha box is an evoking technique where the teacher writes a topic, question or term on the board. Pupils are divided into groups and write in alphabetical order any words, comments, questions, beliefs, etc., which are connected to the key topic (Duchovičová 112). This technique can be used in all age groups and language proficiency levels. It is useful for revising vocabulary and extending topic discussions. Pupils can work individually or in small groups.

Procedure:

- Pupils are given a topic: family, planets, food, town, countries of the world, animals, etc.
- Pupils are given a large sheet of paper to draw and write on (young learners draw and write, older learners just write).
- Pupils write and draw words in alphabetical order which are connected to the topic.
- Pupils present and discuss their lists of words. Two groups can get together and exchange their words to discuss and justify their choice of words.

Topics:

- A1 learners: planets: A – astronaut, B – blue planet, C – comet, D – dwarf planet, E – Earth, F – famous planet, G – galaxy, etc.
- A2 learners: countries of the world: A – Austria, B – Belgium, C – Canada, D – Denmark, E – Ethiopia, F – Finland, G – Ghana, etc.
- B1/B2 learners: society structure: A – aristocracy, B - brotherhood, C – community, D - democracy, E – elite, F - fraternity, G – gentry, etc.

Advantages: Pupils need to have good background knowledge on which to apply higher-level thinking skills. They need to work with resources, be creative when coming up with ideas and apply divergent thinking for generating various outcomes. When working in groups, pupils need to cooperate, discuss, and express opinions.


Picture 1. Alpha Box (Carter 2014)

### 2.2. Analysis of certain features

is a technique which encourages pupils to compare features of known, less known or unknown phenomena (maximum two) (Duchovičová 112). This technique is suitable for older learners with a reasonably good command of English (A2, B1, B2). For example, for the comparison of cultural issues, such as wearing uniforms at school, with space for discussing the advantages and disadvantages. It is suitable for group work, but can be done individually as homework and it is particularly suitable for intercultural learning.

Procedures:

- A new phenomenon is introduced by reading a text, following a project presentation, watching a documentary film or narrative, etc.
- Pupils look for features of the new phenomenon, write down their observations, and think of and write down similar or different features in their own country.

- There needs to be enough space created for discussion, comparison, suggestions, and giving arguments.

Topics:

- The topic of "School uniforms" can be used at all levels.
- Students are given an authentic text from a newspaper to read "Do uniforms make schools better?" (https://www.greatschools.org/gk/articles/school-uniforms/)
- A teacher works with the text as usual with pre-teaching the unknown vocabulary, eliciting ideas, reading the text, discussing it and clarifying unknown.
- Pupils get into groups and discuss the differences between school clothes in the home country and the UK, compare, and give arguments for and against school uniforms. They make a list of the advantages and disadvantages and possible suggestions.

Advantages: Discussions, expressing opinions and making decisions are strong features of this teaching technique. Pupils develop not only higher-level thinking skills, but also divergent thinking, where they have to come up with many answers and various possibilities.

## Do uniforms make schools better?

Yes and no, say the experts. The heated debate over school uniforms shows no signs of cooling off.

For the past decade, schools, parents and students have clashed over the issue of regulating student attire. In 2007, cases involving an anti-Bush T-shirt in Vermont, an anti-gay T-shirt in San Diego, and Tigger socks in Napa, California, made their way through the courts, causing many to wonder whether this debate will ever be resolved.

Meanwhile, researchers are divided over how much of an impact — if any — dress policies have upon student learning. A 2004 book makes the case that uniforms do not improve school safety or academic discipline. A 2005 study, on the other hand, indicates that in some Ohio high schools uniforms may have improved graduation and attendance rates, although no improvements were observed in academic performance.

### Why do some public schools have uniforms?

In the 1980s, public schools were often compared unfavorably to Catholic schools. Noting the perceived benefit that uniforms conferred upon Catholic schools, some public schools decided to adopt a school uniform policy.

President Clinton provided momentum to the school uniform movement when he said in his 1996 State of the Union speech, "If it means teenagers will stop killing each other over designer jackets,

Picture 2. Do uniforms make schools better? (Wilde 2017)

### 2.3 In/out technique

develops the ability of pupils to select according to criteria, but also the ability to communicate, give arguments, and make compromises. Pupils select words within the bounds of criteria and communicate, give arguments, and make compromises about what is 'in' and what is 'out' (Duchovičová 113). They work with vocabulary. This technique is suitable for all age groups and proficiency levels, but especially suitable for young learners (A1).

Procedure:

- Pupils are given topics and groups of words, they need to connect the words to the topics, to divide words what is "in" and what is "out".
- Pupils work individually or in groups, are given topics and words which they connect.

Topics:

- A1 learners: food, school, holiday, means of transport, household, etc.
- A2 learners: occupations, friendship, etc. For example, pupils are given three names for different occupations: plumber, policeman, waiter. The group of words can be a mixture of words not only connected to these three occupations, but also including false choices. Pupils need to choose only what is connected to the chosen jobs. The list of words could be: surgery, polite, farms, practical, maintenance, water, office, street, strong, brave, customers, pipes, outdoor, enforcing law, carrying trays, serving, protecting, repairing, etc.
- B1/B2 learners: environment, global warming, etc.

Advantages: The biggest advantage of this teaching technique is the development of critical thinking and higher-level thinking skills of analysis and evaluation. In pair or group work, personal qualities are developed through discussion and expressing opinions.


Picture 3. Jobs & Occupations (iSlcollective 2014)

### 2.4 Dice

is a technique using numbers from a dice and combining them with thinking skills from Bloom's taxonomy. Learners express their ideas and opinions. Each number represents a thinking skill: 1. describe (what we see, what it looks like, smells, feels, etc.), 2. compare (what is different, etc.), 3. associate (what comes to mind when we hear the word), 4. apply (how it can be used), 5. analyse (what it is made of, consists of, etc.), 6. evaluate (advantages, disadvantages). This technique is suitable for A2, B1, and B2 proficiency levels in teaching vocabulary (apple, pear, coat, etc., or even abstract words or events: happy, love, Christmas, summer holiday).

Procedure:

- Pupils are given a topic or item to work with.
- They can work in small groups. Each number represents a thinking skill: description, comparison, association, application, analysis, evaluation.

Topic:

- Apple, pear, coat, happiness, love, Christmas, holiday, etc.
- For example a "pear": 1. description: (what a pear looks like: shape, texture, colour, smell), 2. comparison (a pear with an apple can be compared), 3. association (ideas that come to mind: summer, fruit, sweet taste), 4. application (cake, pie, fruit salad), 5. analysis (peel/skin, pulp/flesh, seeds), 6. evaluation (advantages: vitamins, juice, fresh fruit; disadvantages: sugar, added sugar in cakes, can rot fast).

Advantages: Strongly supporting skills of analysis, evaluation and critical thought. Pupils employ divergent thinking by creating various possibilities and many answers. People skills such as cooperation and discussion are addressed.

Picture 4. Free – dice pictures (Dreamstime 2018)

Picture 5. Free – pear pictures (Dreamstime 2018)

### 2.5 Step by step

- a technique used for understanding individual processes. The teacher gives pupils a topic and together they decide on how many steps the process requires. Pupils are divided and each pupil describes the individual processes (Duchovičová 114). This technique could be used for giving instructions, directions, recipes, etc. Step by Step is good for discussions, cooperation and making compromises. This technique is suitable for all age groups and proficiency levels.

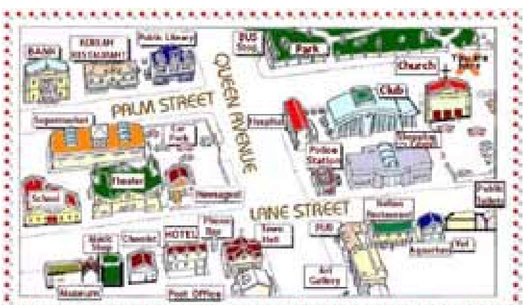
Procedure:

- Give out instructions, directions, recipes, etc.
- Pupils work in small groups or individually.

Topics:

- Pupils (different levels) are given, for example, a map (complexity based on the level of proficiency) and they should describe a way from point A to point B.
- B1/B2 learners choose a smartphone and give instructions on how to use it generally, or specifically how to set an alarm, how to download an app, how to take pictures, etc.
- Pupils choose some food and give a description of a recipe. For A1 learners how to make a milkshake, boil an egg, or make scrambled eggs. For older learners even more complex recipes are suitable.

Advantages: The principle of creativity is strongly supported with this teaching technique. Pupils have to be creative in making detailed descriptions. People skills such as discussion, cooperation and expressing opinions are addressed. All levels of Bloom's taxonomy, not only the higher-thinking skills, are developed through this teaching technique. Also, divergent thinking by giving many possibilities and new ideas is developed.




Picture 6. Asking and giving directions (Mena 2018)


Picture 7. How to use my smartphone (2018)

### 2.6 Morphological matrix

With this technique pupils create a table which contains different parameters for comparison. Pupils choose from options in a table containing different parameters (Duchovičová 115). It is suitable for higher-levels of proficiency. For example, a topic on transport can have the comparison parameters speed, design and comfort. Pupils write down the answers in the table and subsequently compare.

Procedure:

- Pupils either choose from existing options or create their own options.

Topics:

- Choosing from existing options: the item is "a bottle". Pupils are given a table to fill out, which contains attributes such as: shape, colour, volume, material, top. For each attribute four options are given (shape: square, cylinder, triangle, curve; volume: 6 ounce, 12 ounce, 20 ounce, yard, etc.). Pupils discuss the attributes and mark the correct ones for the item. Another option is to randomly combine the attributes and give new solutions.
- Creating their own options: on the topic of transport. Pupils are told to choose two or three means of transport (bicycle, plane, car). The comparison parameters are: speed, design, comfort, impact on environment, health benefits, capacity, materials, etc. They write the attributes for parameters. Then they discuss and compare each means of transport with advantages and disadvantages.

Advantage: Divergent thinking is a very strong feature of this teaching technique. Pupils choose or create different options and new ideas. Pupils need to be creative in combining or creating new parameters. Working in groups is advisable, as it develops the people skills of pupils through discussion and cooperation. Development of higher-level thinking skills through analysing, evaluating and creating is strongly supported.

| Beer Bottle Morphological Matrix | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Attributes** | **Variations of the Attribute** | | | |
| Shape | Square | Cylinder | Triangle | Curves |
| Color | Clear | White | Black | Brown |
| Volume | 6 ounce | 12 ounce | 20 ounce | Yard |
| Material | Glass | Renewable | Plastic | Tin |
| Top | Pull | Twist | Cork | Cap |

Picture 8. Beer Bottle Morphological Matrix (Graylien, 12)

### 2.7. A tree of causes and consequences

With this technique pupils gain the abilities to solve problems. The idea is to draw a tree comprised from three parts – roots, trunk and branches. Roots are the causes of the problem, the trunk is the problem itself and the branches are the consequences of the problem (Thakur, 38). This technique is good for discussion, comparison and making conclusions. It is suitable for older learners at A2, B1, and B2 proficiency levels.

Procedure:

- Pupils are given a tree with three parts – roots, trunk and branches.
- The first phase is to write the problematic topic on the trunk of the tree.
- Causes of the problem are written down on the tree roots and the consequences are written down on the branches.

- A discussion about causes and consequences follows.

Topics:

- Storms, obesity, car crashes, illness, deforestation, etc.
- For example, the problem of deforestation is the trunk of the tree. Learners have to think of causes which they write in the roots of the tree: urbanisation, subsistence farming, etc. Consequences are written in branches: soil erosion, global warming, etc.
- A problem of the western world is obesity. This is the trunk of the tree. The causes/roots are overeating, lack of movement, fatty food, fast food, too much sugar, etc. Consequences/branches are high blood pressure, unattractive looks, diabetes, and pains/problems with joints, etc.

Advantages: Pupils improve divergent thinking by developing a variety of options and new ideas. Creative principals are strong with this technique as pupils need to think of causes and consequences of problems and come up with ideas for solutions. People skills are addressed in discussion, cooperation and compromisation. All the levels of Bloom's taxonomy are practiced with the aim to develop higher-level thinking skills.

Picture 9. Causes and Effects of Deforestation (2018)

Picture 10. Problem Tree (Thakur 2013)



### 2.8 Mind maps

Convert a list of monotonous information into colourful, memorable and highly organised diagrams. They are a creative and logical note-making way of "mapping out" ideas. Information is organized into diagrams – starting from the centre and going out in all directions, from top to bottom, from side to side. They can use words, pictures, symbols, short phrases and can be connected with lines, arrows, etc., and can also be coloured (Rustler 49). Mind maps are suitable for all age groups and proficiency levels.

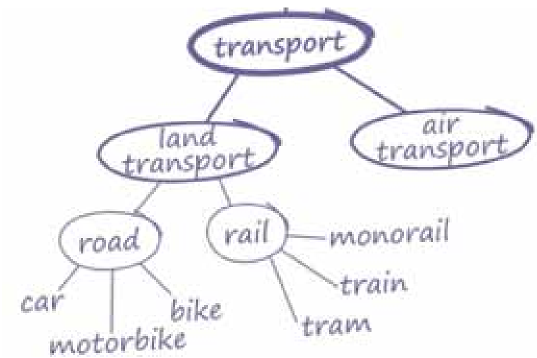
Procedure:

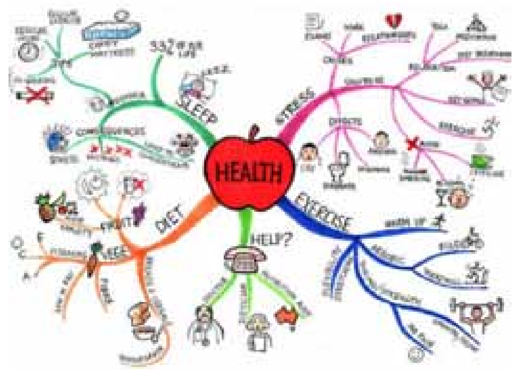
- Pupils write the main topic in the centre of the paper and write or draw subtopics of the main concept around it and connect it to the centre with lines. They then draw branches from the subtopics and write or draw words or notions connected to the subtopics.

Topics:

- A1 learners can have TRANSPORT as a topic for example, and the subtopics can be LAND TRANSPORT and AIR TRANSPORT, then the branches for land transport can include ROAD and RAIL and further division can be CAR, MOTORBIKE, BICYCLE for the road transport, and TRAM, TRAIN, MONORAIL for the rail transport, etc.
- Topics about health or literature are suitable for A2, B1, B2 learners.

Advantages: Creativity is developed as pupils have to think of as many words or expressions connected to the topic. Divergent thinking is strongly addressed by this technique, because pupils have to give many options and create new ideas.




Picture 11. Mind map A2 (British Council, 2016)

Picture 12. Mind map (Buzan 2018)

### 2.9 Caricatures

are materials used for training a multi-way of thinking, associating, analysing, assessing, and critical thinking. They are "funny" descriptions of people, ideas, events, problems, etc. They should make the audience laugh by picturing a short and brief view of the topic which should lead them to think (Topal 51). They can be used for practicing vocabulary or grammar and can be done orally or in written form. They are suitable for older learners with a good command of English.

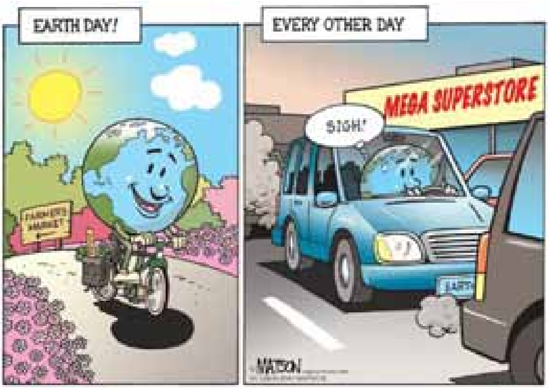
Procedure:

- Students are given a caricature to work with. They should have some background knowledge about the topic.
- They can work in pairs and discuss the caricature. Or students can work individually and write an essay for homework.

Topics:

- Environmental caricatures about global warming, Earth Day, pollution, etc.
- Political caricatures about current political issues.
- Cultural caricatures about cultural differences and cultural conflicts.

Advantages: Caricatures strongly support critical thinking, where learners have to give arguments based on background knowledge. There is divergent thinking: generating multiple possibilities and reasons for the caricature. Higher-level thinking skills are developed as learners need to analyse, evaluate and critically interpret the caricature. Learners can improve their people skills, values, attitudes and feelings by discussing their interpretations, giving arguments and making compromises.





Picture 13. Earth Day vs Every Day (Kurtzman, 2017)     Picture 14. Brexit Madness (2018)


Picture 15. Islamic – Western Women (2012)

The techniques described above have many advantages in the development of high-level thinking skills – analysis, evaluation, creativity, and critical thought. They all develop creativity and divergent thinking. Principles of creativity, divergent thinking, higher-level thinking skills, facilitating learning skills, personal qualities, attitudes, values, and feelings are also considered when applying these techniques.

## Notes

(1) The paper includes research results gained as a part of the project APVV-15-0368 "Prax v centre odborovej didaktiky, odborová didaktika v Centre praktickej prípravy."

(2) The paper includes research results gained as a part of the project KEGA 006UKF-4/2017 "Kontrastívna analýza ako efektívna podporná metóda vyučovania anglickej výslovnosti na ZŠ."

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# REVIEWS

**Michal Pištora**

## Bridging the Gap in Pronunciation Teaching

A review of Tamara Jones (ed.), *Pronunciation in the Classroom. The Overlooked Essential*. Alexandria, Virgina: TESOL Press, 2016. 170 pp. ISBN 978-1-942799-26-9.

For many years, the importance of pronunciation in second/foreign language learning had been underestimated and the research into this field was virtually non-existent. This approach that viewed pronunciation as a mere accessory to grammar and vocabulary knowledge was also reflected in the number of pronunciation materials available to teaching professionals. They were scarce and most of them emphasized the role of segmentals and nativelike pronunciation. Fortunately, this seems to have changed and now we have quite a few quality sources of both academic and practical nature. For instance, there are two encyclopaedias of English pronunciation from Wiley-Blackwell (Reed & Levis) and Routledge (Kang, Thomson & Murphy), and a 4-volume compendium of selected studies on a wide range of pronunciation related topics also from Routledge (Levis & Munro). On top of that, there are several teacher oriented books explaining the importance of pronunciation (Derwing & Munro), debunking popular myths about pronunciation (Grant), and dealing with the assessment of pronunciation (Isaacs & Trofimovich). One of the latest additions to the ever-growing list of pronunciation books is handbook *Pronunciation in the Classroom: The Overlooked Essential* edited by Tamara Jones.

It happens too often that the worlds of academic research and teaching practice never really cross each other producing either works that are heavy on theory but light on practical applications, or materials that overly stress the practical issues without any theoretical background. That might turn out problematic as it leaves the teachers, for whom they are written, with only superficial knowledge of how pronunciation works, which then limits their ability for adjusting the materials they already use and selecting the appropriate features to work on and goals to aspire to. The reviewed handbook is a successful bridge between research and practice, combining the two perspectives in one clear voice. All the authors of the individual chapters are respected experts in the field of pronunciation research as well as experienced educators, which enables them to support their claims with just enough references to the relevant research without burdening the text. At the same time they are able to convey the subject in a very accessible and readable way always showing the readers what the practical implementation of the outlined theory could be. Regrettably, the book does not include bio information on the authors that would help to build a confidence in the level of expertise in a lay reader.

Most teachers feel an immense pressure to cover a vast array of topics in their classes, however, majority is not given the sufficient time to do it. Inevitably, the teachers then have to prioritize and sadly pronunciation is too frequent a victim of this. Also, the need to follow assigned textbooks, which might not treat pronunciation adequately, further diminishes the amount of time devoted to pronunciation. That is where the contribution of *Pronunciation in the Classroom* lies. In its 12 chapters the handbook clearly shows how to incorporate pronunciation with all the other areas of English curriculum providing the readers with concise definitions of the most essential concepts, a wide range of activities and guidelines on how to include pronunciation into the lesson plans of English teachers. The intended audience are English as a foreign language teachers, both experienced and novice, in native and non-native teaching contexts.

The book opens with suggestions on how to integrate pronunciation with vocabulary teaching (Chapters 1 and 2). Then the focus shifts towards prosody (Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6), followed by the focus on grammar at different levels (Chapters 7, 8 and 9). The final sections are devoted to reading, spelling and punctuation (Chapters 10, 11 and 12). The chapters are complemented with foreword by Judy Gilbert in which she makes the case for pronunciation teaching, briefly outlines its history and stresses the importance of prosody. In the handbook´s introduction the editor introduces the concept of intelligibility that is paramount to every chapter and outlines the main pronunciation features that strongly contribute to its achievement (i.e. mainly stressing the importance of suprasegmentals over the segmentals). Each chapter is organized into several shorter passages, includes lots of visuals and uses only the vital amount of professional jargon.

Let us now look more closely at one of the chapters. In Chapter 7 Sue F. Miller and Tamara Jones discuss the integration of pronunciation at elementary grammar level by promoting the suprasegmental features that according to them most contribute to intelligibility of English pronunciation. They call these features the 'prosody package'. The package includes word stress, speech rhythm, prominence, linking, thought groups and intonation. Usually, the package features are treated as additions to the curriculum, however, both authors argue that they are integral to learning spoken grammar. 'Students master the grammar more easily and remember it better when they practice it orally using good prosody (p. 90). 'Following the initial exposé in which the authors call for integration of pronunciation at the beginning levels of learning, the chapter provides practical suggestions on how to do it with selected grammatical features (e.g. simple present with be, simple past tense, singular and plural nouns, simple future tense). Most of the activities are also supported by the use of traditional physical movement techniques such as choral practice and clapping reminding readers of their usefulness.

*Pronunciation in the Classroom* should finds its way not only into the reading lists of teacher training courses but also to the libraries of all teachers that feel the lack of sound theoretical foundations of English pronunciation and are not sure when it comes to their implementations into the practice. For all of them this book will certainly become invaluable in selecting the teaching priorities and teaching techniques to achieve them. Hopefully, that will advance into viewing pronunciation not as a pure ornament but integral part of foreign language knowledge.

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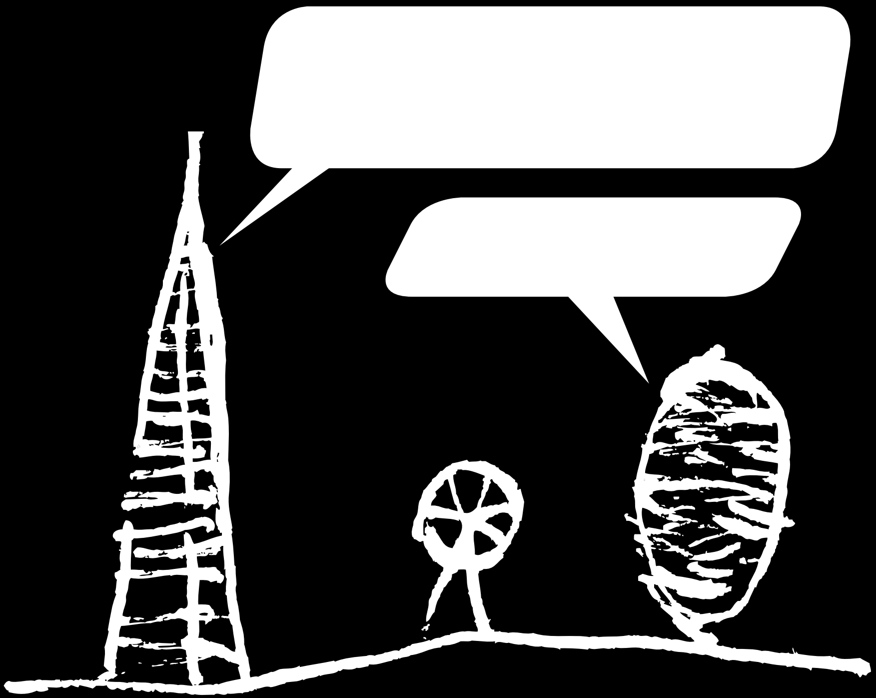

# CALLS

University of Hradec Králové
Faculty of Education

# HRADEC KRÁLOVÉ
# ANGLOPHONE CONFERENCE 2019

## 28-29 March

The conference is organized by the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Education, University of Hradec Králové, Czech Republic.

We are very proud to announce that the keynote lecture

will be delivered by

**PROF. ONDŘEJ PILNÝ, PH.D.**
(Charles University, Prague)

We welcome contributions from the following fields of Anglophone studies:

- Linguistics
- Literature
- Cultural Studies
- Methodology (ELT)

Presentations can include lectures, poster demonstrations and exhibitions of materials. Selected contributions will be published in the peer-reviewed journal *Hradec Králové Journal of Anglophone Studies* (included in ERIH PLUS).

The conference language is English.

All the information, including the registration form, can be accessed on the conference website (http://hk-anglophone-conference.webnode.cz/).

The deadline for registration is **20 January 2019**.

Conference Fee is **1,000 CZK** or **40 €**.

## LANGUAGE EDUCATION & ACQUISITION RESEARCH CONFERENCE 2019 FOCUSING EARLY LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Date: 11-Apr-2019 - 13-Apr-2019
Location: Eichstätt, Germany
Contact Person: Tanja Müller
Web Site: http://www.ku.de/lear/

Linguistic Field(s): Cognitive Science; Language Acquisition; Sociolinguistics

Call Deadline: 31-Dec-2018

The Catholic University of Eichstätt-Ingolstadt (Eichstätt Campus) will present and discuss current research findings of early language acquisition from April 11 – 13, 2019:

- Bilingualism and multilingualism
- Cognitive potentials, e.g. literacy, acquisition of reading and writing skills
- Language Educational neurosciences
- Mediation: institutionalized language teaching and learning
- Diversity: for example, inclusion, gender differentiation, social-cultural aspects
- Competence and standard development
-

Researchers are hereby invited to join us for talks with subsequent discussions and/or poster presentations.

Duration of talks including discussions: 45 minutes (ideally, 30 minutes followed by discussions, in German or English)
Poster: scientific posters DinA0 (in German or English) as part of an exhibition and the opportunity of a short presentation (appr. 10 minutes)

The organizers explicitly ask to submit new and current contributions by December 31 2018:
Abstract (maximum of 250 words) including research question, methodical approach, results Poster as pdf-file (additional information: as attachment only or within presentation time)
We will inform you by January 31 2019 of your acceptance (peer review).

Mail address for abstracts and posters:
LEAR-2019@ku.de

## 6TH INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE IN FOCUS CONFERENCE

Date: 02-May-2019 - 04-May-2019
Location: Dubrovnik, Croatia
http://www.languageinfocus.org

LIF2019 - 6th International Language in Focus Conference will be organized by Cukurova University – Turkey, The University of Sheffield International Faculty, CITY College – Greece and the South-East European Research Centre (SEERC) in Dubrovnik, Croatia, May 2 – 4, 2019.

In harmony with this spirit of academic enthusiasm, we would like to invite academics, scholars, representatives of central and local educational authorities, non-governmental organizations, school teachers and practitioners representing an exciting diversity of countries, cultures, and religions to meet and exchange ideas and views in a forum encouraging respectful dialogue. LIF2019, to be held in Dubrovnik, Croatia, will constitute an excellent opportunity to meet experts in various areas of ELT and language studies.

Plenary Speakers:

- Guy Cook, King's College, UK
- Susan Hunston, the University of Birmingham, UK
- Suzanne Romaine, the University of Oxford, UK
- Nina Spada, University of Toronto, Canada
- David Singleton, Trinity College Dublin, Ireland and the University of Pannonia, Hungary
- Penny Ur, Oranim and Haifa University, Israel

LIF2019 - Organization Team
Cem Can, Cukurova University, Turkey
Paschalia Patsala,The University of Sheffield International Faculty, CITY College, Greece
Zoi Tatsioka,The University of Sheffield International Faculty, CITY College, Greece

6th International Conference on English Pronunciation: Issues & Practices
Skopje, Republic of Macedonia
May 17-18$^{th}$, 2019

The 6th International Conference on English Pronunciation: Issues & Practices will take place in Skopje, Macedonia following previous meetings in Caen, France (2017), Prague, Czech Republic (2015) Murcia, Spain (2013), Grahamstown, South Africa (2011) and Chambéry, France (2009).

The conference brings together researchers and teachers of English, phonetics, phonology, SLA and EFL/ESL interested in the issues relevant to English pronunciation, both native and non-native.

Plenary speakers:

- John Levis (Iowa State University, USA)
- Pamela Rogerson-Revell (University of Leicester, UK)
- Kazuya Saito (Birkbeck, University of London, UK)
- Tanja Angelovska (University of Salzburg, Austria)

The Organizing committee welcomes proposals on various aspects of research into English pronunciation including (but not limited to) the following topics:

- L2 pronunciation research: methodology and application
- Contrastive studies: interaction between L1 and L2 sound systems
- Phonological change
- Norms and reference accents
- Native and non-native accents of English (acquisition, variability, etc.)
- Sociolinguistic aspects of accented speech and issues of identity
- Pedagogical implications of pronunciation research (goals, teaching methods, assessment, etc.)
- Teaching pronunciation (teacher training, teachers' views and beliefs, etc.)
- Information and communication technology (ICT) in pronunciation teaching/learning (e-learning, M-learning, software tools, etc.)
- Interdisciplinary approaches to ESL/EFL research
- Analyses of national or regional language policy

Important dates:

- **Abstract submission deadline:** December 15$^{th}$, 2018
- **Notification of acceptance:** January 15$^{th}$, 2019
- **Registration opens:** February 1$^{st}$, 2019

**Association of Adaptation Studies Annual Conference 2019**

**Adaptation and Modernisms: Establishing and Dismantling Borders in Adaptation Practice and Theory**

**Faculty of Arts, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic**

**19th-20th September 2019**

**Keynote speakers:**

**Dudley Andrew**, R. Selden Rose Professor of Comparative Literature and Professor of Film Studies at Yale University, USA

**Lars Elleström**, Professor of Comparative Literature at Linnaeus University, Sweden

The Modern, the Postmodern, the Premodern, the Metamodern, and other "modernisms" are concepts deeply rooted within attempts to conceptualise Western and global development in history, politics, geopolitics, economy, and in scientific, socio-cultural, and aesthetic domains. In any attempt to "think historically" or to "look at the bigger picture," these terms are unavoidable.

Different versions of "modernism" are deeply concerned with historical changes and cultural transformations, including adaptation of various kinds. Seeing "modernism" as a continuum enables us to ask questions about what changes and what stays the same across the different "modernisms," and such transpositions and transgressions can be insightfully analyzed by adaptation studies. The conference ponders how different media, views of temporality, historical periods, and theories of art travel within and across different kinds of modernisms and how their producers and consumers construct and engage with them. At the same time, the conference attends to how the etymology of "modern" and the accompanying concepts of "novelty", "the new", and even "revolution" echo in different epochs and their adaptations, and to what can adaptation studies tell us about their transformation into "norm", "the old", and "the Classic".

We welcome papers concerned with, but not limited to, topics related to the following questions:

- How does adaptation practice, and theoretical concepts connected with it, inform or change in various kinds of "modernisms"?
- How does today's adaptation studies respect / cement / ignore the conceptual borders of premodernism, modernism, postmodernism, postmodernism, post-post-modernism, and metamodernism?
- How do different kinds of modernisms inform the cultural, political, aesthetic, and media exchange of adaptations?
- Does adaptation studies offer new ways of looking at the adaptation of, for example, Modernism by Postmodernism?

**Conference chairs:** Dr Petr Bubeníček, Dr Miroslav Kotásek

Proposals for conference papers should be written in English, include the name, academic affiliation, and a short author bio (no more than 100 words), the title of the paper, and an abstract (250 words or less) and should be sent in Microsoft Word or .pdf format to the email address: *brno_aasconference@phil.muni.cz*.

Deadline for paper proposals is **14th February 2019**.The participants will be notified of the acceptance of their papers by 10th April at the latest.

In order to participate in the conference, all confirmed speakers must be members of the AAS. To register, please follow this link: *www.adaptation.uk.com/join-the-association*

Up to four travel bursaries are available for postgraduate students delivering papers at the 2019 conference: up to two for students based in the EU (£250 each) and up to two for students based outside of the EU (£500 each). Bursary recipients must be registered members of the AAS. To apply, please follow this link: *www.adaptation.uk.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/AAS-2019-Conference--Travel-Bursary-Form.docx.*

## Performativity and Creativity in Modern Cultures
## An Interdisciplinary Conference

22–24 November 2019, Faculty of Arts, Charles University, Prague

Performativity and creativity have often been used vaguely in a number of discourses in cultural studies, economics, political ideologies or advertising. The purpose of this conference is to explore the force of these concepts in pragmatic approaches to cultures and closely related industrial production ("creative industries"), in technological developments connected with performing arts and cultural communication, as well as in commercial entertainment.

In recent approaches, the understanding of **performativity** has transcended its original linguistic dimensions (Austin, Searle) and their deconstructionist critique (Derrida, Hillis Miller). In our view, it can be better described by studying notions like "fiction", "play" (Iser), "gender" (Butler), "technology" (Foucault) or "social roles" (Goffman, Ross and Nisbett).

Similarly, **creativity** is no longer linked with the evolution of closed autopoietic systems (Niklas Luhmann). The conference offers to re-assess the existing notions of autopoiesis in view of the concepts of the virtual/actual (Deleuze, Buci-Glucksman), interface/interfaciality (Latour), media technologies and mediation (in broadest terms, including conflict resolution). It also invites interdisciplinary approaches inspired by the psychology of creativity (Csikszentmihályi), the philosophy, history, as well as the psychological and anthropological aspects of play (Huizinga, Sutton-Smith, Caillois and others).

Performativity and creativity will not be discussed separately, but as two interdependent faculties and agencies. The conference will explore them in diverse theoretical contexts, as well as historically – in the main phases of modernity, including the Early Modern period, Romanticism and its aftermaths, Modernism and avant-garde movements and the present time. Apart from developing and interconnecting the theories of fiction, play, media, political and aesthetic ideologies, as well as the notions of avant-garde and the post-modern, the conference aims to contribute to the exploration of recent socio-economic phenomena, such as the "creative industries", and trace their historical dimensions. The conference is closely linked to the research in the **European Regional Development Fund Project "Creativity and Adaptability as Conditions of the Success of Europe in an Interrelated World" (No . CZ.02.1.01/0.0/0.0/16_019/0000734)**.

300 word **abstracts of individual papers** (including keywords and a bio-note of 100 words) or **panel proposals** (including 300 word description of the panel, keywords, bio-note(s) of the convenors, paper topics and university affiliations of all speakers) addressing one or more above issues should be submitted by **1 March 2019** to the following e-mail address: martina.pranic@ff.cuni.cz. The notices of paper or panel acceptance will be e-mailed and further information about the venue, registration, accommodation and logistics will be publicized by **1 June 2019**.

**Professor Martin Procházka**
Charles University, Prague
**Professor Pavel Drábek**
University of Hull
**Co-convenors**

**Proposed Paper or Panel Topics**

1. Theoretical Aspects
    a) Fictions in/and Culture
        - Fiction and Play
        - Fiction as Performance/Performative
        - Fiction as Interface
    b) Fiction, Creativity and Technology
        - Virtual Nature of Fiction
        - Fiction and "Political Technologies of Individuals" (Foucault)
        - Imagining Communities: Revisiting Benedict Anderson
    c) Performance of Presence
        - Performing the Self and the Body
        - Performing a Social Role
        - Being in a Social Field
    d) Propositional Performativity
        - The Possible, the Aleatory, the Future
        - Modelling the Worlds through Play
        - Performance as Negation of Status Quo (carnival, heterotopia, subversion)
2. Performativity and Creativity in Different Periods of Modernity: Aesthetics, Cultural Theory and History
    a) The Early Modern Formation of the Self and the Public Sphere
        - Enacting the Social Strata
        - Mimetic Desire (Girard)
        - Performance as Mediation/Bridging of the Cultural Other (intraculturally, interculturally)
    b) Performing One's World: Performance as Exteriorisation and Interiorisation
    c) Autonomy of Artworks from the Renaissance to Romanticism. The Notion of "Heterocosm" and its Development through the Modernity
    d) Romantic Aesthetic Ideologies
        - in Art and Culture
        - in Relation to Radical Political and National Emancipation
        - Avant-garde and (Post)Modern Approaches to Performativity and Creativity
    e) Performativity and Creativity in Modern Technology and Media Cultures

- the shifting sensorium (Ong): from script and book print, through early modern experiments, to modern VR and AR media
- the "battlefields" of creativity; performativity in the novel territories

3. "Creative Industries": a Reassessment
   a) Historical
      - (Early) Modern Theatre and Entertainment Industry
      - Film and Popular Entertainment
      - Revisiting Guy Debord – *The Society of Spectacle*
      - Changing Functions of Mass Entertainment: From Bear-Baiting to Reality Show
      - Virtual Spaces, Second Lives, Games, Avatars and Media Surrogates
   b) New Media: Creativity and Entertainment
      - Political, Social, Aesthetic and Ethical Aspects
      - A SWOT analysis of present-day media culture

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YOUTH AND SPORTS

# NOTES ON CONTRIBUTORS

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**Joseph Emonds** has published four books on syntactic and morphological analysis: *A Transformational Approach to English Syntax, A Unified Theory of Syntactic Categories, Lexicon and Grammar: the English Syntacticon,* and *Discovering Syntax*. Most recently, he has co-authored *English: the Language of the Vikings* with Jan Terje Faarlund. He is American but moved to England in 1992. He has also taught in France, Holland, Japan, Austria, Spain and the Czech Republic.

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**Božena Horváthová** is an associate professor at the Department of Language Pedagogy and Intercultural Studies, Faculty of Education, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra. She has published studies on translation and culture as well as on teaching foreign languages with special emphasis on learning strategies in listening comprehension and oral communication. She is interested in researching culture learning and culture use strategies in the context of multiple variables.

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**Tomáš Hostýnek** is a department member at the Department of English Language and Literature under the Faculty of Philosophy and Arts, University of West Bohemia in Pilsen. He holds an M.A. degree in the field of international relations. His master thesis explored the complex portrayal and mediation of the 2003 Iraq War through the prism of popular culture. Currently, he also pursues a degree in classical piano at the Pilsen Conservatory. Among his main research interests are foreign affairs, language acquisition, contemporary America and popular culture. Given that he is no stranger to social media, he seeks to update his courses so as to better reflect today's changing language landscape.

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**Zuzana Hrdličková** teaches Business English and British, American and Slovak Studies at the University of Economics in Bratislava, Slovak Republic. She earned her Ph.D. in English Linguistics from Masaryk University in Brno, Czech Republic. Her most recent research interest includes analysing business and political discourse with the particular emphasis on idiomatology.

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**Václav Řeřicha** is Associate Professor of the English language at Palacký University in Olomouc. The focus of his research and papers are contrastive Czech-English studies, intercultural communication and translation. Since 1989 he has given lectures at universities and colleges in Florida, Tennessee, North Carolina, Slovakia, Austria, Luxembourg and the UK and published a popular series of Czech-English phrasebooks at Lexus Ltd., Glasgow, UK. Currently he is involved in the national Digital Literacy Development project.

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**Jan Suk** teaches at the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Education, University of Hradec Králové. Jan Suk took his PhD at Faculty of Arts, Charles University, Prague. His dissertation thesis examined the rich practice of contemporary British experimental theatre Forced Entertainment via Deleuzoguattarian prism. His most recent research interests include performance and/as pedagogy or proximity and/of performance theatre.

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# Mission Statement and Guidelines for Submissions

**Mission Statement**

*Hradec Králové Journal of Anglophone Studies*, as a peer-reviewed academic journal, aims to be a medium which brings together the results of current research of Czech and international scholars. It welcomes submissions of articles in the following fields:

- English Linguistics
- Anglophone Literatures and Cultural Studies
- English-teaching Methodology

The journal will publish both contributions presented at Hradec Králové Anglophone Conferences as well as other original unpublished papers. All submissions shall be the subject of double expert blind-review procedure whether they constitute beneficial contribution to the field of Anglophone studies.

**Guidelines for Submissions**

The manuscripts should be submitted in English in the range of 3000 - 6000 words, with references formatted according to the MLA 8th edition, see www.mla.org. Please note that submissions which do not conform to the MLA style with in-text citations will not be considered for publication. Authors are solely responsible for the correct use of English language. Each submission should be preceded by a 200-word abstract outlining the article and also short bibliographical information about the author.

There are two issues published per year. For the Vol. 6 No. 2 to be issued in December 2019 please send the contributions in electronic form to Helena Polehlová, the volume's editor. Commencing from 2019 the journal publishes one monothematic issue per year. For the Vol. 6 No. 1 issued in July 2019, send your contributions to Jan Suk. The special issue's theme is "Teaching Performing, Performing Teaching." Submitted articles should resonate with the following description of the project:

Both performance and pedagogy operate on a two–way communication between the agent and the recipient - the performer and the audience, or the teacher and the student. Both performance and pedagogy have the significant potential to transform as well as to fail. This very weakness of theatre as well as pedagogy is also its grease strength: its authentic possibility to fail. The vulnerability, fragility of both performance and teaching/learning highlights its human nature creating thereby a sympathetic bond with the Other. Therefore, performance/theatre as well as pedagogy can be both transformative, life illuminating experience.

We invite contributions from all possible areas of English language discourse revolving around ideas connected with performance, theatre, pedagogy and its possible interconnections.

Papers are invited from all possible fields, including (not restricted to):
Performance as teaching, teaching as performance
Performance and teaching, teaching and performance
Performance and research, research and performance
Performance as research, research as performance
Performance art, its history and application
Performance and pedagogy, performance as pedagogy
Pedagogy as performance, pedagogy and performance
New trends in pedagogy to enhance performance
New trends in performance to enrich pedagogy
Didactics, methodology and new performance-boosting trends
Linguistics and performance
Performative linguistics
Literatures and performance
Literatures and performances
Failure as a creative agent
And many others.

Emails to editors of both the forthcoming issues in 2019 are Jan.Suk@uhk.cz and Helena.Polehlova@uhk.cz.
The deadline for Vol. 6 No. 1 is1st April 2019, for Vol. 6 No. 2 the deadline is 1st May 2019.

For more information about the periodical please contact Jan.Suk@uhk.cz

For more information, visit the journal's webpages: http://pdf.uhk.cz/hkjas/

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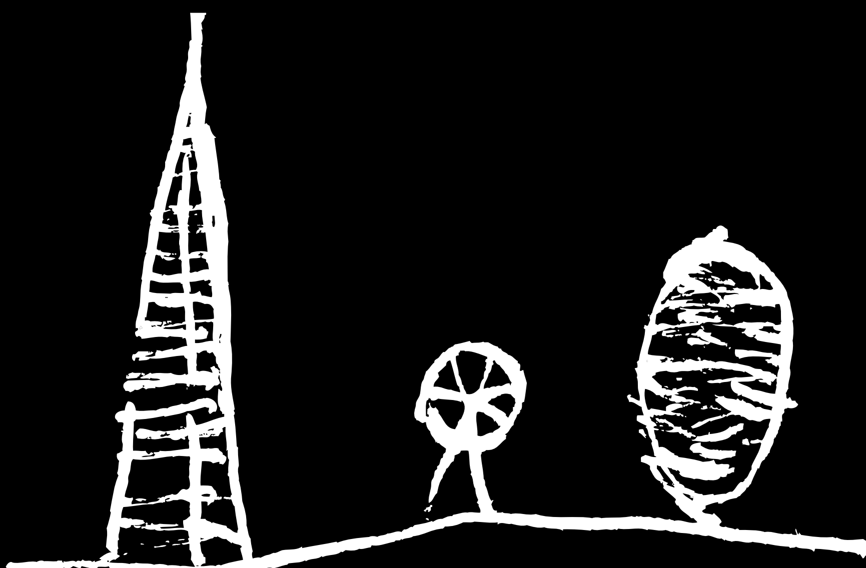
# Ethical Statement

## Publication Ethics

The publication of an article in a peer-reviewed journal *Hradec Králové Journal of Anglophone Studies* is an essential contribution in the development of a coherent and respected network of knowledge in the field of English Studies. It reflects the quality of the work of the authors and the institutions that support them. Peer-reviewed articles support and embody the scientific method. The Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Education, University of Hradec Králové as the publisher of the journal *Hradec Králové Journal of Anglophone Studies* takes its duties of guardianship over all stages of publishing extremely seriously and we recognize our ethical and other responsibilities. We are committed to ensuring that advertising, reprint or other commercial revenue has no impact or influence on editorial decisions. Therefore, any detected cases of misconduct, whether on the part of authors, reviewers or editors, will be vigorously pursued.

For responsibilities of authors and the Editorial Board, consult the journal webpage:
http://pdf.uhk.cz/hkjas/publication_ethics.php



John Cage