

eISSN : 3005-9100

**MNU** MAQSUT  
NARIKBAYEV  
UNIVERSITY

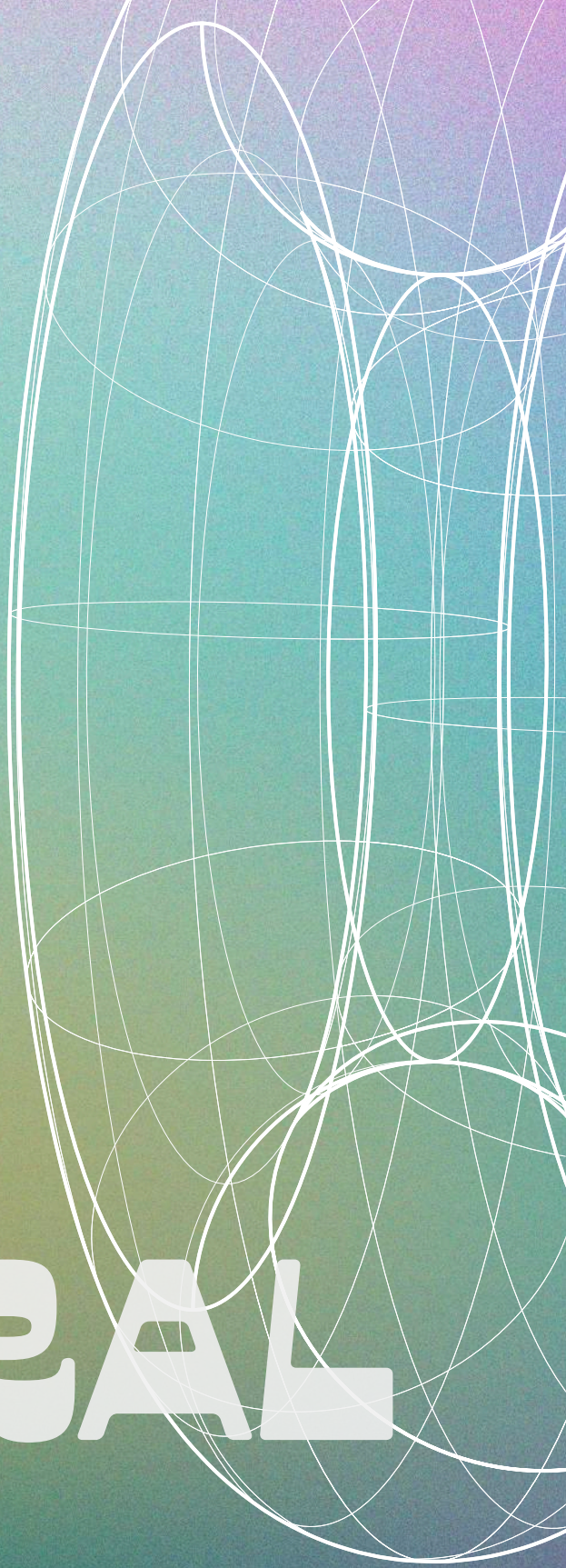
Гуманитарлық және әлеуметтік  
ғылымдар саласындағы  
ғылыми журнал

Научный журнал  
в области гуманитарных и  
социальных наук

Journal of  
Humanities and  
Social sciences

**VOLUME 09**  
**JUNE 2025**

# LIBERAL ARTS DIGEST





## **GENERAL INFORMATION**

Founder: Maqsut Narikbayev University

Frequency: Twice a year (January and June)

Languages of publication: Kazakh, Russian, English

Distribution format: Electronic version, open access (Open Access)

Address: 8 Korgalzhyn Highway, Astana, Kazakhstan

Email: liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz

### **EDITOR-IN-CHIEF**

Aizhan Aikenova, MSc in Educational Leadership, Masqsut Narikbayev University

### **DEPUTY EDITOR-IN-CHIEF**

Olga Bainova, PhD in Education, Masqsut Narikbayev University

### **EDITORIAL BOARD MEMBERS**

Sagitova Roza

Vesselskaya Kristina

Akhmetova Inara

Emelyanova Yelena

Shaikheslyamova Aigerim

Ashykbayeva Zhanara

Zhaksylyk Aizat

Babayeva Yuliya

Mukanova Anzhela

Puzikov Yevgeniy

Tuleubekov Assyl

Payevskaya Yekaterina

Liberal Arts Digest is a peer-reviewed academic journal established in 2021 by the School of Liberal Arts at Maqsut Narikbayev University. The journal is designed to promote student engagement in scientific inquiry and research by providing an inclusive platform for both undergraduate and graduate students, as well as early-career researchers. The journal is dedicated to the fields of humanities and social sciences, Liberal Arts Digest publishes original research articles, critical reviews, and theoretical reflections. The journal welcomes contributions across a range of topics, including philosophy and identity, history of Kazakhstan, pedagogy and educational practices, linguistics and language teaching methodologies, translation studies, tourism and cultural studies.

## CONTENTS

---

<b>АҒЫЛШЫН ТІЛІ МҰҒАЛІМДЕРІНІҢ ҚАЗАҚ ЖӘНЕ ОРЫС ТІЛДЕРІН ҚОЛДАНУҒА КӨЗҚАРАСЫ: ҚАЗАҚСТАНДАҒЫ ҚАЗАҚ ЖӘНЕ ОРЫС ТІЛДЕРІНДЕ ОҚЫТАТЫН МЕКТЕПТЕРДІҢ САЛЫСТЫРМАЛЫ ТАЛДАУЫ</b> .....	<b>7</b>
--	----------

Самархан Асылхан Еркебуланұлы

<b>ОТНОШЕНИЕ УЧИТЕЛЕЙ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА К ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЮ КАЗАХСКОГО И РУССКОГО ЯЗЫКОВ: СРАВНЕНИЕ ШКОЛ С КАЗАХСКИМ И РУССКИМ ЯЗЫКАМИ ОБУЧЕНИЯ В КАЗАХСТАНЕ</b> .....	<b>8</b>
--	----------

Самархан Асылхан Еркебуланұлы

<b>ENGLISH TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD USING KAZAKH AND RUSSIAN: A COMPARISON OF KAZAKH AND RUSSIAN MEDIUM SCHOOLS IN KAZAKHSTAN</b> .	<b>9</b>
---	----------

Samarkhan Asylkhan Yerkebulanyly

<b>ФИШМАННЫҢ ТІДЖ ҮЛГІСІ МЕН ТІЛДІК ИМПЕРИАЛИЗМНІҢ АЗШЫЛЫҚ ТІЛДЕРІНІҢ ӘЛСІРЕУІНЕ ӘСЕРІН ТАЛДАУ</b> .....	<b>28</b>
--	-----------

Aruzhan Kabdesheva

<b>АНАЛИЗ МОДЕЛИ ШНЖПЯ ФИШМАНА И ЯЗЫКОВОГО ИМПЕРИАЛИЗМА В КОНТЕКСТЕ УПАДКА ЯЗЫКОВ МЕНЬШИНСТВ</b> .....	<b>29</b>
--	-----------

Aruzhan Kabdesheva

<b>ANALYSIS OF FISHMAN'S GIDS AND LINGUISTIC IMPERIALISM ON THE DECLINE OF MINORITY LANGUAGES</b> .....	<b>30</b>
---	-----------

Aruzhan Kabdesheva

<b>ҚАЗАҚСТАН УНИВЕРСИТЕТТЕРІНДЕ АУДАРМА ПӘНІ ОҚЫТУШЫЛАРЫН ДАЯРЛАУ</b> .....	<b>35</b>
---	-----------

Маралбекқызы Алтынай

<b>ПОДГОТОВКА ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЕЙ ПЕРЕВОДЧЕСКИХ ДИСЦИПЛИН В УНИВЕРСИТЕТАХ КАЗАХСТАНА</b> .....	<b>36</b>
---	-----------

Маралбекқызы Алтынай

<b>TRAINING TRANSLATION FACULTY AT UNIVERSITIES IN KAZAKHSTAN</b> .....	<b>37</b>
---	-----------

Maralbekkyzy Altynay

<b>АҒЫЛШЫН ЖАРНАМАЛЫҚ МӘТІННІҢ ТІЛДІК ЕРЕКШЕЛІКТЕРІ</b> .....	<b>45</b>
Қази Венера Дулатқызы	
<b>ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО РЕКЛАМНОГО ТЕКСТА</b>	<b>45</b>
Қази Венера Дулатқызы	
<b>LINGUISTIC PECULIARITIES OF AN ENGLISH ADVERTISING TEXT</b> .....	<b>46</b>
Kazi Venera Dulatqzy	
<b>ОҒТҮСТІК АМЕРИКАЛЫҚ ДИАЛЕКТІНІҢ ЕРЕКШЕЛІКТЕРІ</b> .....	<b>54</b>
Қази Венера Дулатқызы	
<b>ОСОБЕННОСТИ ЮЖНОАМЕРИКАНСКОГО ДИАЛЕКТА</b> .....	<b>55</b>
Қази Венера Дулатқызы	
<b>FEATURES OF THE SOUTHERN AMERICAN DIALECT</b> .....	<b>55</b>
Kazi Venera Dulatqzy	
<b>LINGUA LABOR: АУДАРМАШЫЛАР МЕН СИНХРОНДЫ АУДАРМАШЫЛАРДЫҢ ЖҰМЫСҚА ҚАНАҒАТТАНУЫ ЖӨНІНДЕГІ ЗЕРТТЕУЛЕРГЕ ШОЛУ</b> .....	<b>62</b>
Сергей Поддубный	
<b>LINGUA LABOR: ОБЗОР ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ УДОВЛЕТВОРЁННОСТИ ТРУДОМ ПЕРЕВОДЧИКОВ И УСТНЫХ ПЕРЕВОДЧИКОВ</b> .....	<b>63</b>
Сергей Поддубный	
<b>LINGUA LABOR: A REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH ON TRANSLATOR AND INTERPRETER JOB SATISFACTION</b> .....	<b>64</b>
Sergey Poddubnyy	
<b>ДИПЛОМАТИЯЛЫҚ ДИСКУРСТАҒЫ МЕТАФОРА АУДАРМАСЫНЫҢ ЛИНГВИСТИКАЛЫҚ ЕРЕКШЕЛІКТЕРІ</b> .....	<b>72</b>
Акынов Канат Маратович	
<b>ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПЕРЕВОДА МЕТАФОР В ДИПЛОМАТИЧЕСКОМ ДИСКУРСЕ</b> .....	<b>73</b>
Акынов Канат	
<b>LINGUISTIC PECULIARITIES OF TRANSLATING METAPHORS IN DIPLOMATIC DISCOURSE</b> .....	<b>74</b>
Akynov Kanat	

**MNU УНИВЕРСИТЕТІНДЕГІ АУДАРМА БАРЫСЫНДА ХЕДЖ ҚҰРЫЛЫМДАРЫН  
ҚОЛДАНУҒА ГЕНДЕРДІҢ ӘСЕРІ ..... 92**

Елизавета Фролова

**ГЕНДЕРНОЕ ВЛИЯНИЕ НА ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ ХЕДЖЕЙ В УСТНОМ ПЕРЕВОДЕ В  
MNU ..... 93**

Елизавета Фролова

**GENDER IMPACT ON HEDGES IN INTERPRETING AT MNU ..... 94**

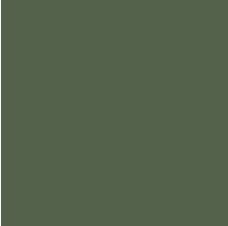
Yelizaveta Frolova

# SECTION 01

LIBERAL  
ARTS DIGEST

# LINGUISTICS & LANGUAGE STUDIES

ТІЛ БІЛІМІ ЖӘНЕ ТІЛТАНЫМ  
ЛИНГВИСТИКА И ЯЗЫКОЗНАНИЕ



УДК (UDC) 372.881.111.1

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201\_2025\_9\_7

# **АҒЫЛШЫН ТІЛІ МҰҒАЛІМДЕРІНІҢ ҚАЗАҚ ЖӘНЕ ОРЫС ТІЛДЕРІН ҚОЛДАНУҒА КӨЗҚАРАСЫ: ҚАЗАҚСТАНДАҒЫ ҚАЗАҚ ЖӘНЕ ОРЫС ТІЛДЕРІНДЕ ОҚЫТАТЫН МЕКТЕПТЕРДІҢ САЛЫСТЫРМАЛЫ ТАЛДАУЫ**

САМАРХАН АСЫЛХАН ЕРКЕБУЛАНҰЛЫ

samarkhan\_a@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## **Аңдатпа**

Зерттеу қазақ және орыс тілдерінде оқытатын қазақ мектептеріндегі ағылшын тілі мұғалімдерінің ағылшын тілімен қатар қазақ және орыс тілдерін қолдануға қатынасын зерттеуге арналған. Қазақстанда бұрын да транстілділікке қатысты зерттеулер жүргізілгенімен, әртүрлі типтегі мектептерде қазақ, орыс және ағылшын тілдерін қатар меңгерген мұғалімдердің пікірлері әлі зерттелмеген. Салыстырмалы жағдайды зерттеу шеңберінде сегіз мұғаліммен (төртеуі қазақ тілінде оқытатын мектептерден және төртеуі орыс тілінде оқытатын мектептерден) жартылай құрылымдық сұхбат жүргізіліп, алынған мәліметтер тақырыптық талдау жасалынды. Нәтижелер көрсеткендей, барлық қатысушылар тек ағылшын тілінде оқуға ниет білдіргеніне қарамастан, қазақ және орыс тілдерін ағылшын тілімен біріктіретін транстілділік элементтерін пайдаланады. Олардың көзқарастары біртүрлі идеология мен мектеп тәжірибесінің көптілділік шындығы арасындағы қайшылықтың әсерінен қалыптасады. Мектептердің екі түрінде де ағылшын тілін меңгерудің тиімді құралы ретінде қабылданатын орыс тілінің басым позициясы байқалады. Ал қазақ тілінің қолданылуы негізінен студенттердің ұлтына байланысты. Сондай-ақ тілдерге деген көзқарасқа мектеп түріне қарағанда география көбірек әсер етуі мүмкін екені анықталды. Екі топтың мұғалімдері де лингвистикалық империализмнің тарихи мұрасымен байланыстырылған орыс тілінің гегемониясын бірдей қабылдайтындығын көрсетті. Сонымен бірге қазақ тіліне деген көзқарас кеңестік кезеңнен кейінгі ұлттық бірегейлік құрылысы аясында пайда болған ұлтшылдық идеологиялардың элементтерін көрсетеді. Жұмыстың қорытындысында білім беру саясаты бойынша практикалық ұсыныстар берілген.

**Кілт сөздер:** транстілділік, идеология, көптілділік, біртүрлі идеология, лингвистикалық империализм.

# ОТНОШЕНИЕ УЧИТЕЛЕЙ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА К ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЮ КАЗАХСКОГО И РУССКОГО ЯЗЫКОВ: СРАВНЕНИЕ ШКОЛ С КАЗАХСКИМ И РУССКИМ ЯЗЫКАМИ ОБУЧЕНИЯ В КАЗАХСТАНЕ

САМАРХАН АСЫЛХАН ЕРКЕБУЛАНҰЛЫ

samarkhan\_a@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Аннотация

Данное исследование посвящено изучению отношения учителей английского языка в казахстанских школах с казахским и русским языками обучения к использованию казахского и русского языков наряду с английским. Хотя в Казахстане ранее уже проводились исследования по теме трансязычия, до настоящего времени не изучались взгляды учителей, владеющих одновременно казахским, русским и английским языками, в разных типах школ. В рамках сравнительного кейс-исследования были проведены полуструктурированные интервью с восемью преподавателями (по четыре из школ с казахским и русским языками обучения). Полученные данные были проанализированы с помощью тематического анализа. Результаты показывают, что все участники используют элементы трансязычия, комбинируя казахский и русский языки с английским, несмотря на провозглашаемое стремление к обучению исключительно на английском языке. Их установки формируются под влиянием противоречия между монолингвальной идеологией и многоязычной реальностью школьной практики. В обоих типах школ наблюдается доминирующее положение русского языка, который воспринимается как более эффективное средство для освоения английского. В то время как казахский язык используется точно и преимущественно ассоциируется с этнической принадлежностью учащихся. Также было выявлено, что на отношение к языкам может сильнее влиять географический фактор, нежели тип школы. Учителя из обеих групп демонстрируют схожее восприятие гегемонии русского языка, что связано с историческим наследием лингвистического империализма. В то же время отношение к казахскому языку отражает элементы националистических идеологий, возникших в рамках построения национальной идентичности в постсоветский период. Практические рекомендации для образовательной политики представлены в заключении работы.

Ключевые слова: трансязычие, многоязычное образование, отношение учителей, школы с казахским и русским языками обучения, иерархия языков, монолингвальная идеология и языковая политика в Казахстане.

# ENGLISH TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD USING KAZAKH AND RUSSIAN: A COMPARISON OF KAZAKH AND RUSSIAN MEDIUM SCHOOLS IN KAZAKHSTAN

SAMARKHAN ASYLKHAN YERKEBULANYLY

samarkhan\_a@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Abstract

This study investigates the attitudes of Kazakhstani English language teachers in Kazakh and Russian Medium Schools (KMS and RMS) toward their use of Kazakh and Russian alongside English. While previous research in Kazakhstan has explored translanguaging, it has not examined teachers with the same trilingual background across different school types. Drawing on semi-structured interviews with eight teachers (four from KMS and four from RMS), this comparative case study uses thematic analysis to explore language practices and ideological positioning. Findings reveal that all teachers engage in translanguaging using Kazakh and Russian, even while expressing preference for English-only instruction. Their attitudes are shaped by a tension between monolingual ideologies and practical multilingual classroom realities. Russian emerged as the dominant language across both school types, often seen as a more effective medium for learning English. In contrast, Kazakh was often used selectively and closely tied to ethnic identity. The study also suggests that geographic context may play a more influential role in shaping attitudes than school type. KMS and RMS teachers shared similar perceptions of Russian's hegemonic role, rooted in linguistic imperialism, while attitudes toward Kazakh reflected nationalistic positioning. Policy implications are discussed in the final chapter.

**Keywords:** Translanguaging, multilingual education, teacher attitudes, Kazakh and Russian Medium Schools, language hierarchies, monolingual ideology.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 LANGUAGE CONTEXT OF KAZAKHSTAN

Following the dissolution of the USSR in 1991, Kazakhstan entered a phase of reclaiming its national identity, with language policy playing a central role. The process of «Kazakhization» (Fierman, 2006) aimed to revive Kazakh language and culture in a society where ethnic Russians made up nearly half the population at independence (Census, 1999). As a result, Kazakhstan adopted a bilingual legal framework, enshrining Kazakh as the state language and Russian as a language to be used equally alongside it (Constitution, 1995; Law on Languages, 1997). [Разрыв обтекания текста] Language policies such as the State Programme for the Implementation of Language Policy (2019) emphasize balance and harmony between Kazakh and Russian, while acknowledging the growing importance of English. President Nazarbayev's 2007 Address marked a significant shift toward multilingualism through the “trinity of languages” policy, promoting Kazakh as the language of the nation, Russian as the language of interethnic communication, and English as a tool for global economic integration. Although translanguaging is not explicitly mentioned in policy documents, the functional distribution of languages implies recognition of multilingual practices in education.

### 1.2 DEFINING TRANSLANGUAGING

This study focuses on the use of Kazakh and Russian by English teachers in Kazakh and Russian Medium Schools (KMS and RMS), a practice it identifies as translanguaging. Originally coined by Cen Williams (1994) and translated by Baker (2001), the term described the strategic use of two languages in classroom instruction. Since then, it has evolved into a theoretical and pedagogical concept supported by scholars such as García and Wei (2014), who define translanguaging as the flexible use of all linguistic resources by bilingual or multilingual speakers. [Разрыв обте-

кания текста] Empirical research across English and foreign language education contexts (e.g., Canagarajah, 2011; Norlund, 2022; Vaish, 2021) has shown that translanguaging enhances comprehension, engagement, and identity development. Recent studies have also investigated attitudes toward translanguaging among teachers and students (e.g., Fang & Liu, 2020; Wang, 2019). In Kazakhstan, research on translanguaging is emerging, largely driven by graduate students and faculty at Nazarbayev University. Studies have examined teacher beliefs (Kuandykov, 2021), STEM classroom practices (Osmanbek, 2021), and perspectives in English-medium instruction (Alzhanova, 2020).

### 1.3 RESEARCH RATIONALE AND AIMS

Attitudes held by English teachers are crucial, as they significantly influence language teaching practices. In Kazakhstan, where national identity, postcolonial legacies, and language policy intersect, teacher attitudes are likely shaped by broader ideological and political discourses. This study contributes to the global literature on translanguaging by offering insights from a trilingual context—Kazakh, Russian, and English—where multilingualism extends beyond typical bilingual settings. [Разрыв обтекания текста] Despite growing interest in translanguaging among Kazakhstani researchers, no comparative study has explored differences between English teachers in KMS and RMS with the same linguistic background. This study fills that gap by analyzing teachers' language use, rationales, and attitudes. It also considers the ideological underpinnings of these attitudes, including notions of nationalism, colonial inheritance, and multilingual policy.

The research is guided by the following questions: [Разрыв обтекания текста] 1. What languages do English teachers say they use in Kazakh and Russian Medium Schools, and why? [Разрыв обтекания текста] 2. What are their attitudes toward using Kazakh and Russian in English

classrooms? [Разрыв обтекания текста] 3. Are there any differences in preferences, rationales, and attitudes between teachers in KMS and RMS?

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a critical review of literature on translanguaging, including its theoretical underpinnings, conceptual developments, pedagogical applications, and empirical research. The review concludes with an overview of translanguaging research in Kazakhstan and identifies the specific research gap this study addresses.

### 2.1 THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF TRANSLANGUAGING

Traditional language education has long been shaped by monolingual ideologies, treating languages as discrete and bounded entities. However, an epistemological shift in applied linguistics—often referred to as the multilingual turn (Ortega, 2014; Makoni & Pennycook, 2012)—has questioned this view. This shift embraces sociolinguistic understandings of language as fluid and socially situated, highlighting how multilingual individuals use their full linguistic repertoires rather than compartmentalized «languages.» [Разрыв обтекания текста] Makoni and Pennycook (2012) describe “a language” as a colonial invention used to classify and control linguistic practices. In contrast, the sociolinguistic perspective sees languages as overlapping and intertwined, making it difficult to define strict boundaries. Translanguaging emerged from this view, offering a lens to examine real-life language use and challenge language hierarchies (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Central to this idea is the shift from «language» as a fixed system to «linguaging» as a dynamic process of meaning-making (Becker, 1985; Swain, 2006; Wei, 2011). [Разрыв обтекания текста] The term “translanguaging” itself implies movement across perceived language boundaries. The prefix “trans” emphasizes flexibility and fluidity (Hawkins & Mori, 2018), while “linguaging” highlights how language use is continually constructed

and negotiated. Garcia and Otheguy (2020) further underscore translanguaging’s transformative role in disrupting linguistic hierarchies and supporting linguistic justice.

### 2.2 CONCEPTUALISATIONS OF TRANSLANGUAGING

Originally coined by Cen Williams (1994) in a Welsh educational context, translanguaging referred to the planned use of two languages for input and output within a lesson. Since then, the term has expanded conceptually. García and Lin (2017) distinguish between «weak» and «strong» versions: the weak version maintains language boundaries, while the strong version promotes the free use of a unified linguistic repertoire. [Разрыв обтекания текста] Similarly, Bonacina-Pugh et al. (2020) identify “fixed” and “fluid” approaches. The fixed approach treats languages as separate entities with designated classroom functions, while the fluid approach views language practices as integrated and semiotically rich. These dualities align with broader debates in sociolinguistics regarding whether multilingual practices should be framed within traditional language categories or treated as holistic repertoires. [Разрыв обтекания текста] This shift from fixed to fluid perspectives reflects a paradigmatic move in bilingualism research—from structuralist to post-structuralist views. Scholars such as Canagarajah (2011), Garcia and Wei (2014), and Otheguy et al. (2015) promote the view of translanguaging as drawing on an integrated linguistic system rather than on separate codes. Their work positions translanguaging as a socially meaningful and identity-affirming practice.

### 2.3 TRANSLANGUAGING AS PEDAGOGY

Translanguaging has increasingly been framed as a pedagogical approach that can enhance learning outcomes by validating learners’ linguistic backgrounds. Garcia and Wei (2014) define translanguaging pedagogy as the intentional use of students’ entire linguistic repertoires for academic development, particularly for minoritized learners. [Разрыв обтекания текста] Cenoz

(2017) distinguishes between “pedagogical” and “spontaneous” translanguaging. The former refers to planned classroom strategies, while the latter encompasses fluid, unplanned discourse practices. These categories parallel the fixed/fluid and weak/strong dichotomies. While early models such as the Welsh practice emphasized separation of input/output languages, more recent work supports inclusive and flexible approaches. [Разрыв обтекания текста] Creese and Blackledge (2010) provide empirical support for translanguaging as bilingual pedagogy in UK community schools, demonstrating its role in promoting engagement and deeper understanding. The move toward pedagogical translanguaging aligns with broader shifts in multilingual education, challenging traditional models of language separation in favor of more inclusive, context-sensitive practices.

## 2.4 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON TRANSLANGUAGING

### 2.4.1 In English Language Education

Empirical studies of translanguaging in EFL classrooms consistently highlight its benefits for comprehension, language development, and identity negotiation. Canagarajah (2011) used dialogic pedagogy to explore a Saudi student’s writing development through codemeshing, demonstrating how translanguaging supports critical thinking and metalinguistic awareness. [Разрыв обтекания текста] Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2022) conducted a quasi-experimental study in Turkey to assess the impact of translanguaging pedagogy on students’ language skills. Findings revealed that students exposed to translanguaging outperformed those taught via traditional methods and responded positively to the approach, linking improved outcomes to the inclusive use of multiple languages. [Разрыв обтекания текста] These studies reinforce translanguaging as a pedagogically effective and context-responsive practice, particularly in classrooms where learners bring diverse linguistic resources.

### 2.4.2 In Foreign Language Education

Research in foreign language contexts similarly supports translanguaging’s role in facilitating learning. For example, Chen et al. (2021) investigated multimodal translanguaging strategies in a beginner French class in Shanghai. Their study showed how spontaneous and pedagogical translanguaging enhanced pronunciation and learner engagement. [Разрыв обтекания текста] In contrast, Norlund (2022) examined a Swedish language program for immigrants and found that while translanguaging practices were common, they were not pedagogically intentional. The teacher’s ambivalence—seeing other languages as both helpful and problematic—highlights the importance of ideological clarity and teacher training. [Разрыв обтекания текста] Together, these studies demonstrate translanguaging’s potential across various language education settings, though its effectiveness depends on teacher beliefs, institutional support, and classroom implementation.

## 2.5 ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRANSLANGUAGING

Stakeholder attitudes toward translanguaging vary widely and are often shaped by broader language ideologies. Aghai et al. (2020) found that ESL teachers in the U.S. held one of three views: translanguaging as a problem, a natural process, or a valuable resource. These views were influenced by personal beliefs, institutional policies, and teachers’ identities. [Разрыв обтекания текста] Fallas-Escobar (2020) similarly observed ideological ambivalence among Costa Rican instructors, with some embracing translanguaging and others resisting it due to monolingual training or policy constraints. Wei’s (2011) concept of the “translanguaging space” provides a useful framework for understanding these dynamics, suggesting that classrooms are spaces where teachers and students co-construct meaning, negotiate identities, and challenge dominant

ideologies.[Разрыв обтекания текста] These studies emphasize the importance of understanding how attitudes toward translanguaging are shaped by both internal (e.g., identity) and external (e.g., policy) forces. They also underscore the need for teacher education programs to address translanguaging explicitly.

## 2.6 TRANSLANGUAGING IN KAZAKHSTAN

Translanguaging is a relatively new concept in Kazakhstani education. Research in this area has primarily emerged from Nazarbayev University, often through graduate student theses. Key studies have examined EFL teachers' perceptions (Tuskeyeva, 2022), beliefs (Kaipnazarova, 2020), and reported practices (Akhmetova, 2021; Sumeie, 2022).[Разрыв обтекания текста]Tuskeyeva (2022) found that Kazakh-speaking teachers held more positive views of translanguaging than their Russian-speaking counterparts, who expressed more reservations. Sumeie (2022) reported that teachers used translanguaging regularly but often expressed guilt or uncertainty about its legitimacy. These studies reveal a complex relationship between teacher ideology, institutional norms, and classroom practice.[Разрыв обтекания текста]Importantly, translanguaging is not yet integrated into Kazakhstan's pre-service teacher education, and no formal national policy addresses its role in language instruction. The research base remains small and institutionally limited, pointing to a need for broader, comparative inquiry.

## 2.7 SUMMARY AND RESEARCH GAP

This chapter has reviewed theoretical and pedagogical conceptualisations of translanguaging, along with empirical studies across EFL, foreign language, and multilingual education contexts. Translanguaging has been shown to enhance language learning when applied purposefully and flexibly, yet implementation often reflects ideological tensions.[Разрыв обтекания текста]In Kazakhstan, translanguaging research

remains limited, with most studies focusing on general perceptions or isolated cases. A significant gap exists in comparative research examining how English teachers in Kazakh and Russian Medium Schools differ in their language practices and attitudes, particularly when they share the same linguistic backgrounds.[Разрыв обтекания текста]This study addresses that gap by investigating how translanguaging is used and perceived in both school types. It seeks to explore the role of language ideologies, national identity, and teacher beliefs in shaping translanguaging practices, contributing to wider discussions on multilingualism, postcolonial language policy, and educational equity.

## 2.METHODOLOGY

### 3.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study adopted a comparative case study approach to explore English teachers' attitudes toward the use of Kazakh and/or Russian in Kazakh Medium Schools (KMS) and Russian Medium Schools (RMS). The qualitative design aligns with Merriam and Tisdell's (2015, p. 15) definition of qualitative research as an effort to understand how people make sense of their experiences. Given the focus on a specific region in North Kazakhstan and the use of interviews as the primary data collection method, this approach is also supported by Gray's (2009) description of qualitative context-specific research.[Разрыв обтекания текста]Comparative case study methodology is defined by Kaarbo and Beasley (1999, p. 372) as the systematic comparison of cases to investigate real-world phenomena in their natural contexts. Bartlett and Vavrus (2017, p. 7) describe it as involving the identification of specific units of analysis while allowing other factors to vary. This framework suited the study's aim to compare attitudes of English teachers in two distinct school types—KMS and RMS—as its main units of analysis.

Following Kaarbo and Beasley's (1999) steps, the study formulated three guiding

research questions, with a specific comparative focus in the third:

1. What languages do English teachers think they use in Kazakh Medium Schools and Russian Medium Schools, and why?
2. What are the English teachers' attitudes toward their use of Kazakh or Russian in KMS and RMS?
3. Are there differences in language preferences, rationales, and attitudes between teachers in KMS and RMS?

These questions align with the recommendation to focus on the relationship between independent variables and the phenomenon under investigation. Thematic analysis (see Section 3.4) was used to code and interpret data, consistent with Kaarbo and Beasley's (1999, p. 386) emphasis on identifying cross-case and within-case patterns.

### 3.2 PARTICIPANTS AND SAMPLING METHODS

Eight English teachers participated in this study—four from KMS and four from RMS. Participants were selected using purposive sampling, based on two criteria: current employment as an English teacher in Kazakhstan and fluency in Kazakh, Russian, and English. This method aligns with Merriam and Tisdell's (2015) approach to purposive sampling, which prioritizes information-rich cases over generalizability.

Equal representation from both school types reflects the comparative nature of the research. In addition, some participants were identified using snowball sampling, where initial participants referred colleagues who met the inclusion criteria. This method, described by Parker et al. (2019), proved effective in assembling a sample of trilingual English teachers suited to the study's objectives.

### 3.3 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Semi-structured interviews were used to gather in-depth insights into English

teachers' attitudes and language practices. This method was selected for its balance between structure and flexibility, allowing for probing and elaboration beyond pre-set questions (Gray, 2009; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). As Gray (2009) notes, this format encourages participants to expand on their responses, which is particularly valuable in exploring personal beliefs and nuanced classroom experiences. Given the aim of this study—to understand attitudes within two specific educational contexts—semi-structured interviewing was well-suited for capturing both consistency and variation across cases.

Interviews followed a three-part protocol but allowed for deviation depending on participants' responses. This flexibility aligns with Magaldi and Berler's (2020) description of interview protocols used in semi-structured formats. All interviews were conducted online using Zoom and Microsoft Teams, a practical decision for reaching geographically dispersed teachers (James & Busher, 2016). Participants provided consent for audio recording, and recordings were securely stored using OBS software and encrypted cloud storage.

Each interview lasted approximately 60 minutes, providing sufficient time to explore themes in depth. Participants were free to use the language of their choice—Kazakh, Russian, or English—ensuring comfort and authenticity in responses. No major challenges occurred, aside from minor internet disruptions, which did not compromise the quality of the data. Quantitative tools such as surveys were not considered appropriate, given the study's emphasis on understanding complex attitudes and experiences. The selected method thus reflects a commitment to depth, contextual sensitivity, and the exploration of meaning-making processes in teachers' own terms.

### 3.4 METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Thematic analysis was used to interpret the interview data, following Braun and

Clarke's (2006) six-phase framework. This approach was selected for its flexibility and its capacity to produce a detailed, nuanced account of participants' reported practices and attitudes. As Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 79) explain, thematic analysis helps identify and interpret patterns within qualitative data while allowing the researcher to retain sensitivity to context and complexity.

While other analytical approaches such as Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) were considered, thematic analysis was more appropriate for this study's aim of exploring individual attitudes, rather than power structures or ideological discourse. CDA might have been suitable for interrogating ideological aspects, but its broader sociopolitical lens was not fully aligned with the study's research focus.

After transcribing the interviews, the researcher familiarized themselves thoroughly with the data, generating initial codes without anchoring them directly to the research questions—applying equal attention to all segments of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Codes were iteratively revised to avoid overlap and improve clarity (Bryman, 2001). NVivo software facilitated efficient organisation of codes and excerpts.

The next phase involved grouping codes into preliminary themes, which were then refined and adjusted to ensure relevance and coherence. The resulting structure included two core themes, each divided into KMS and RMS subthemes to reflect the study's comparative nature. A third theme specifically addressed cross-school differences as aligned with Research Question 3. The thematic structure directly informed the organisation of the Findings and Discussion chapter, with each theme linked to one of the research questions.

## **4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

### **4.1 THE LANGUAGES USED BY ENGLISH TEACHERS IN KAZAKH AND RUSSIAN MEDIUM SCHOOLS**

This section addresses Research Question 1 by exploring the languages English teachers report using in Kazakh Medium Schools (KMS) and Russian Medium Schools (RMS), along with their reasons.

#### **4.1.1 Teachers Working in Kazakh Medium Schools**

The findings indicate that KMS English teachers use both Kazakh and Russian, often interchangeably, to scaffold students' understanding of vocabulary and grammar. For example, Karasai noted that he switches to Kazakh and Russian “for words and for grammar” when needed (Appendix B, Quote 1). This practice reflects a response to challenging content, particularly where students struggle with English-only explanations. Similarly, Atygai uses other languages to “draw an analogy” (Quote 2), and Alua confirms that explaining grammar in Kazakh ensures students “100% understand” (Quote 4).

Translation is another key strategy. Atygai described instances where either he or the students translate unknown words (Quote 5), highlighting both teacher-led and learner-led translanguaging. The interchangeable use of Kazakh and Russian is justified by linguistic proximity to English. Atygai, for instance, referred to etymological similarities between English and the other two languages (Quote 6).

However, while teachers report using both languages, Russian appears to dominate. Atygai admitted that he uses Russian “in most cases,” only switching to Kazakh when some students do not understand (Quote 7). This trend suggests that even among ethnic Kazakh students, Russian often functions as the stronger language. Aibike and Alua supported this idea, referring to the diminished relevance of Kazakh and the social ubiquity of Russian (Quotes 8–9). Aibike further noted that students themselves request explanations in Russian (Quote 10), and that learning English via Russian is often easier (Quote 11). This reflects a systemic preference

shaped by both students' linguistic profiles and teachers' own educational experiences (Quote 12).

These findings echo prior research in Kazakhstan. Akhmetova (2021) found that teachers used Kazakh and Russian to explain grammar and vocabulary, citing the limitations of English-only instruction. Tuskeyeva's (2022) study also showed that Kazakh-speaking teachers used both Kazakh and Russian to scaffold complex material.

What distinguishes the present study is its clearer evidence of a language hierarchy within KMS classrooms, with Russian frequently taking precedence. This suggests a "fixed approach to translanguaging" (Bonacina-Pugh et al., 2020), in which Kazakh and Russian are used for designated pedagogical purposes. This structured code-switching implies that languages are treated as discrete tools rather than as part of an integrated linguistic repertoire.

Such practices align with Otheguy et al. (2015), who argue that translanguaging can be deliberate and need-based. Teachers' rationale—to improve comprehension—resonates with Baker's (2001) emphasis on using translanguaging to develop English, particularly as a weaker language. Garcia and Wei (2014) likewise support the use of translanguaging for contextualised scaffolding.

Finally, the use of Kazakh and Russian to draw lexical and grammatical analogies with English reflects a biliteracy development strategy. This is consistent with Hornberger and Link's (2012) notion of the continua of biliteracy, where multilingual students are encouraged to draw flexibly on their full linguistic resources. KMS teachers' practices demonstrate how translanguaging supports both understanding and literacy transfer between languages.

#### 4.1.2 Teachers Working in Russian Medium Schools

In RMS classrooms, Russian emerged as the dominant language for pedagogical purposes. Teachers like Aisulu and Nagima reported using Russian consistently for explaining grammar and vocabulary, citing clarity and efficiency (Appendix C, Quotes 1–3). Russian was also used for instructions and explanations of new topics. Vocabulary instruction often involved direct translation, as noted by Maral and Nagima (Quotes 4–5), while Asem pointed to similarities in word formation between Russian and English (Quote 6). Asem also reported using Russian after English to support comprehension in mixed-ability classrooms (Quote 7).

Kazakh, in contrast, was used minimally and only for specific functions. For example, Aisulu referenced the Kazakh letter "Ғ" to explain the English phoneme [ŋ], which helped students understand pronunciation (Quote 8). Similarly, Nagima compared the Kazakh word «бас» with the English word "bus" to illustrate phonetic similarity (Quote 9). Interestingly, these examples targeted all students, not just ethnic Kazakhs, suggesting broader recognition of Kazakh as part of learners' linguistic repertoire.

These findings align with Sumeie (2022), who found that teachers use translanguaging to support comprehension, though often with strategic purpose. While previous research suggested equal use of Kazakh and Russian, this study reveals a clear functional hierarchy—Russian as the primary language, Kazakh for targeted, supportive roles.

This approach aligns with pedagogical translanguaging as conceptualised by Cenoz (2017), where languages are used purposefully depending on instructional goals. It also supports Bonacina-Pugh et al.'s (2020) "fixed approach to translanguaging," where languages serve predetermined functions. Garcia et al.'s (2017) framework—stance, design, and shift—can also explain

RMS teachers' practices. Teachers displayed a translanguaging stance by viewing all three languages as resources, implemented a design where Russian was dominant and Kazakh supplementary, and demonstrated shift through flexible, need-based language choices.

The strategic use of students' knowledge from Russian and Kazakh language classes to support English learning resonates with Hornberger and Link's (2012) continua of biliteracy. RMS teachers leveraged existing linguistic competencies to enhance understanding, especially when dealing with challenging materials.

Although Kazakh is used sparingly in RMS settings, its inclusion—however limited—supports socioemotional aspects of learning and affirms linguistic identities. This nuanced use of translanguaging shows that even in Russian-dominant contexts, Kazakh remains a valued, if underutilised, educational tool.

#### **4.2 ENGLISH TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE USE OF KAZAKH AND/OR RUSSIAN IN ENGLISH CLASSROOMS**

This section addresses Research Question 2 by exploring KMS and RMS English teachers' attitudes towards using Kazakh and Russian, analysed through ideological and identity-based lenses.

##### **4.2.1 Attitudes of Teachers in Kazakh Medium Schools**

Overall, KMS teachers' attitudes reflect ambiguity. While they express a desire to conduct English-only lessons—Karasai stated, "I agree that English lessons should be 100% in English" (Quote 13)—they simultaneously rely on Kazakh and Russian for pedagogical support. For example, Alua reported asking students to "try to say [it] in English" after using Kazakh or Russian (Quote 14), indicating a tension between monolingual ideals and multilingual classroom realities.

This ambivalence mirrors Kaipnazarova's

(2020) findings, where teachers prioritised English-only teaching but used Kazakh or Russian due to students' needs. Similarly, Fallas-Escobar (2020) found Costa Rican instructors held contradictory views, favouring English while occasionally using other languages. These mixed attitudes suggest teachers are influenced by the dominant monolingual ideology in ELT, as identified by Phillipson (1992) and Auerbach (1993), which privileges English and upholds "language separation" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013).

Simultaneously, KMS teachers' practices reflect a multilingual ideology. Their use of Kazakh and Russian as resources aligns with translanguaging's goals of scaffolding and inclusion. This duality reveals a clash of ideologies rather than a simple preference.

In terms of national identity, attitudes towards Kazakh reveal nationalist underpinnings. Aibike stated: "I speak and communicate in Kazakh, because I am Kazakh (nationality)... we have strict rules in our family of Kazakh-only" (Quote 15), a view echoed by Karasai and Alua (Quotes 16–17). These narratives suggest Kazakh is central to familial and national identity, aligning with Creese & Blackledge's (2015) concept of "equating language and national identity."

This nationalist attachment likely stems from the post-Soviet revival of Kazakh, a process Fierman (2006) terms "Kazakhization." It reflects broader ideologies of nation-building (Beswick, 2007; Betts, 1998), where language is central to forming a unified national identity. Despite this, KMS teachers do not resist Russian's dominance in the classroom. In fact, they reinforce it, often using Russian more than Kazakh—even with ethnic Kazakh pupils in KMS environments.

Teachers view Russian as hegemonic and unavoidable. Aibike lamented that some students "do not understand Kazakh" and "are able to perceive information only in Russian" (Quote 18). Alua added that

English was traditionally taught through Russian (Quote 19), and Karasai justified using Russian due to the local demographic: “as in Petropavlovsk 60% are Russians...” (Quote 20).

These attitudes reflect residual effects of Russian linguistic imperialism, despite efforts to revitalise Kazakh. Phillipson’s (1992) concept of “linguicism” applies here: the historical privileging of Russian continues to shape educational practices, creating “Russo-centricity.” Russian remains the default medium of instruction and knowledge, which explains why it’s seen as the most effective bridge to English learning today.

#### 4.2.2 Attitudes of Teachers in Russian Medium Schools

RMS teachers also showed ambivalent attitudes, though their positioning appears more negotiated than in KMS. Aisulu stated, “you need to know the measure... balance it” (Quote 11), suggesting awareness of the need for careful use of Kazakh and Russian while implicitly prioritising English. Like KMS teachers, RMS staff report striving for English-only instruction, but acknowledge Kazakh and Russian as pedagogically beneficial.

For instance, Asem described multilingualism as beneficial for acquiring new languages (Quote 12), and Nagima acknowledged the limits of English-only instruction for building a “solid foundation” (Quote 13). These views reveal an openness to using multiple languages while maintaining English as the target, aligning with Cook’s (2001) notion of the “weak form” of the monolingual principle, where L1 is not excluded but strategically used.

Attitudes toward Russian show it is uncontroversially accepted. Unlike Kazakh, Russian is not tied to ethnicity and is treated as universally appropriate. Maral explained that she switches to Russian when surrounded by ethnic Russians “so as not to offend them” (Quote 14), but only

uses Kazakh “when with friends of Kazakh nationality” (Quote 15). This reveals an internalised hierarchy: speaking Kazakh might cause discomfort, but speaking only Russian does not. This normalisation of Russian dominance reflects the continued legacy of linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992).

These practices support Fairclough’s (1989) notion of commonsensical language ideologies. Russian is framed as neutral, while Kazakh is perceived as marked and ethnic-specific. Consequently, Russian’s privileged status in RMS classrooms appears natural, even among ethnic Kazakh teachers who do not contest it.

More problematically, Kazakh is seen as legitimate only for ethnic Kazakhs. Maral and Asem both suggested that Kazakh students in RMS speak Kazakh poorly (Quotes 16–17), reflecting assumptions about language competence tied to ethnicity. This contradicts the national curriculum, which mandates Kazakh instruction for all. It may also reflect broader identity misalignments following the dissolution of the USSR. As ethnic Russians often do not align with Kazakh ethnic, tribal, or religious markers (Chatham House, 2019), teachers may not expect them to embrace Kazakh.

Although all RMS teachers were ethnic Kazakhs, none questioned the marginalisation of Kazakh. Their acceptance of Russian as the default reflects a lack of resistance to hegemonic language ideologies. Thus, their attitudes not only reflect but reproduce the linguistic power imbalances rooted in Kazakhstan’s colonial past.

#### 4.3 COMPARISON OF LANGUAGE CHOICES, RATIONALES, AND ATTITUDES IN KMS AND RMS

This section addresses the third research question and summarises the chapter’s key findings. Overall, the data reveal more similarities than differences between KMS and RMS teachers.

In relation to language use (RQ1), both groups reported using Kazakh and Russian, with Russian occupying a dominant position in both contexts. While KMS teachers implied this hierarchy, RMS teachers articulated it more explicitly, using Kazakh only for specific, often phonological, purposes. In both settings, teachers relied on vocabulary analogies with Russian, citing shared morphological features that aid in English acquisition. Russian was also perceived as a more effective language of mediation for learning English, likely due to the teachers' own educational experiences—many having studied in Kazakh-medium programmes where Russian remained the language of instruction and academic materials. Within the framework of Kazakhstan's trilingual policy, such translanguaging practices can be seen as policy-aligned and pedagogically legitimate.

In terms of attitudes (RQ2), both KMS and RMS teachers exhibited a tension between monolingual goals and multilingual classroom realities. While all participants stated a preference for English-only teaching, they made exceptions for Kazakh and Russian. RMS teachers appeared more reflective in articulating their rationales for multilingual practices, suggesting a more conscious integration of translanguaging. In contrast, KMS teachers displayed stronger ambivalence—voicing commitment to English-only instruction while simultaneously engaging in extensive translanguaging, revealing an ideological conflict.

Nationalistic positioning also played a role in attitudes toward Kazakh. KMS teachers frequently equated the Kazakh language with their ethnic identity, referencing family language policies that required the use of Kazakh. In contrast, RMS teachers saw Kazakh as applicable only to ethnic Kazakh students, implying that the language had limited relevance for others. This reinforces the ideology that ties language to nationality—an outcome of

post-independence nation-building efforts such as “Kazakhization.” The demographic differences between schools likely influence this view: KMS classrooms are typically composed of ethnic Kazakhs, whereas RMS classrooms are more ethnically diverse.

Attitudes towards Russian were largely consistent across both school types. Teachers in both contexts portrayed Russian as the dominant, practical choice for instruction, and none expressed resistance to this status quo—even though all participants were ethnic Kazakhs. This acceptance of Russian hegemony points to internalised power structures stemming from Kazakhstan's colonial past and the enduring legacy of Russian linguistic imperialism.

Geographical location may further nuance these attitudes. Teachers in Northern Kazakhstan, a region more deeply affected by colonisation, seemed to express stronger Russian orientation. Notably, Karasai—the only participant from the south—demonstrated a more pronounced nationalist stance and was the only teacher to conduct the interview in Kazakh. This suggests regional variation may exert more influence on language attitudes than school type alone.

## 5. CONCLUSION

### 5.1 IMPLICATIONS

This study has practical implications for policymakers, professional development designers, and the higher education system in Kazakhstan. A key finding was the absence of clear school-level policies on the use of Kazakh or Russian in English classes. All teachers reported receiving no guidance from either school administrations or regional education departments, which appears to have contributed to their ambivalence.

Furthermore, none of the participants were familiar with the concept of translanguaging, having not encountered it during

undergraduate or postgraduate study, nor through in-service training. A review of Ministry of Education documents for English teachers similarly revealed no formal guidance on language use beyond English. This lack of clarity contradicts Kazakhstan's trilingual policy, which implicitly supports multilingual practices, although it does not explicitly reference translanguaging.

In light of this, several recommendations are proposed. First, policymakers should consider formally integrating translanguaging into professional development for in-service EFL teachers. Training should combine theoretical foundations with practical strategies for implementing translanguaging pedagogy. This would support teachers in reflecting on their current practices and navigating their ideological ambivalence. Such inclusion would also legitimise multilingual practices in classrooms, aligning actual teaching with national policy.

As a longer-term measure, translanguaging should be incorporated into undergraduate teacher education curricula. Embedding the concept across modules would familiarise future teachers with multilingual approaches and prepare them for Kazakhstan's linguistic reality. Nazarbayev University, given its existing work on translanguaging, could serve as a key collaborator in designing such initiatives.

These steps would signal a shift from the Soviet-inherited monolingual paradigm toward a pedagogy aligned with the multilingual turn in language education. Recognising and legitimising multilingual classroom practices is essential for fostering more equitable and effective English language education in Kazakhstan.

## 5.2 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study's findings should be interpreted with awareness of its limitations. The small sample size—eight teachers—limits generalisability, and most participants were from Northern Kazakhstan. Given

that geographical location emerged as a potential influence on language attitudes, future research could explore comparative case studies across regions (e.g., North vs. South, or North vs. West).

Additionally, this study relied solely on interview data. While interviews provided valuable insights into teacher attitudes and ideologies, future studies could triangulate data through classroom observations to better understand actual translanguaging practices. Observations would reveal how Kazakh and Russian are integrated into English lessons in real time, possibly highlighting discrepancies between reported and enacted practices.

By addressing these gaps, future research can offer a more nuanced understanding of how geography, identity, and policy intersect to shape language teaching in Kazakhstan's multilingual schools.

## REFERENCES

- Abdrakhmanova, M. (2017). Teachers' and Students' Perceptions on the Role of the First Language in Foreign Language and Science Classes at Bilim Innovation Lyceum. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/2564>
- Address of President Nazarbayev. (2007). [https://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses\\_of\\_president/postlanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazahstan-nazarbaeva-narodu-kazahstana-28-fevralya-2007-g](https://www.akorda.kz/ru/addresses/addresses_of_president/postlanie-prezidenta-respubliki-kazahstan-nazarbaeva-narodu-kazahstana-28-fevralya-2007-g)
- Adinolfi, L. & Astruc, L. (2017). An exploratory study of translanguaging practices in an online beginner-level foreign language classroom. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, 7(1), 185–204. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cercles-2017-0008>
- Aghai, L., Sayer, P., & Schissel, J. L. (2020). Effects of Teachers' Language Ideologies on Language Learners' Translanguaging Practices in an Intensive English Program.

In *Envisioning TESOL Through a Translanguaging Lens* (Vol. 45, pp. 345–362). Springer International Publishing AG. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-47031-9\\_16](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-47031-9_16)

Akhmetova, I. (2021). *Practitioners' Views on Translanguaging in Kazakhstani EFL Classrooms*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/5623>

Aksholakova, A., & Ismailova, N. (2013). The Language Policy of Kazakhstan and the State Language in Government Service. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93, 1580-1586. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.085> .

Alzhanova, S. (2020). *EMI Content Teachers' Perspectives on Translanguaging in Secondary Education*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/4913>

Amaniyazova, A. (2020). *Kazakhstani Teachers' Beliefs on Translanguaging: Evidence from a Trilingual Context*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/4853>

Arteagoitia, I., & Howard, E. (2015). The role of the native language in the literacy development of Latino students in the United States. In *Multilingual education : between language learning and translanguaging* / edited by Jasone Cenoz, University of the Basque Country, UPV/EHU, Spain and Durk Gorter, University of the Basque Country, UPV/EHU, Spain. (Cenoz & D. (Durk) Gorter, Eds., pp. 61-83). Cambridge University Press.

Atkinson, D., Byrnes, H., Doran, M., Duff, P., Ellis, N. C., Hall, J. K., Johnson, K. E., Lantolf, J. P., Larsen–Freeman, D., Negueruela, E., Norton, B., Ortega, L., Schumann, J., Swain, M., & Tarone, E. (2016). A Transdisciplinary Framework for SLA in a Multilingual World. *The Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colo.), 100(S1), 19–47. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12301>

Auerbach, E. (1993). Reexamining English Only in the ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1), 9–32. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586949>

Baker, C. (2001). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* / Colin Baker. (Third edition.). *Multilingual Matters*.

Baltabayev, M. (2020). *Faculty and Students' Perceptions of EMI and its Impact on Academic Content and Language Acquisition from the Participants' Perspectives*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/4871>

Bartlett, L., & Vavrus, F. (2017). Comparative Case Studies: An Innovative Approach. *Nordic Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 1(1), 5-17. <https://doi.org/10.7577/njcie.1929>

Becker, A. (1985). Language in particular: A Lecture. In *Linguistics in context : connecting observation and understanding ; lectures from the 1985 LSA/TESOL and NEH Institutes* / edited by Deborah Tannen (pp. 17-35). Ablex.

Beswick, J., (2007). Regional Nationalism in Spain: Language Use and Ethnic Identity in Galicia / Jaine E. Beswick. *Multilingual Matters*. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853599811>

Betts, R. (1998). Land and Language Concerns over the perceived continuing European

- presence. In *Decolonization* / Raymond F. Betts. Routledge (pp. 80-91). Routledge.
- Blommaert, J. (1996). Language and Nationalism: Comparing Flanders and Tanzania. *Nations and Nationalism*, 2(2), 235–256. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1354-5078.1996.00235.x>
- Blommaert, J. (2013). Complexity, Accent, and Conviviality: Concluding Comments. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(5), 613–622. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt028>
- Bonacina-Pugh, F., Da Costa Cabral, I., & Huang, J. (2021). Translanguaging in education. *Language Teaching*, 54(4), 439-471. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444821000173>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- British Educational Research Association (BERA). (2018). Ethical guidelines for educational research (4th ed.). <https://www.bera.ac.uk/researchers-resources/publications/ethical-guidelines-for-educational-research-2018>
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in Academic Writing: Identifying Teachable Strategies of Translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colo.), 95(3), 401–417. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x>
- Cenoz, J. (2017) Translanguaging in School Contexts: International Perspectives, *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 16(4), 193-198. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1327816>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2013). Towards a Plurilingual Approach in English Language Teaching: Softening the Boundaries Between Languages. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(3), 591–599. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.121>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Minority languages and sustainable translanguaging: threat or opportunity? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 38(10), 901–912. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1284855>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes*, 39(2), 300–311. <https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12462>
- Census. (1999). Перепись населения 1999. <https://stat.gov.kz/ru/national/1999/>
- Chatham House Report. (2019). Kazakhstan: Tested by Transition. <https://www.chathamhouse.org/sites/default/files/2019-11-27-Kazakhstan-Tested-By-Transition.pdf>
- Chen, X., Li, J., & Zhu, S. (2021). Translanguaging multimodal pedagogy in French pronunciation instruction: Vis-à-vis students' spontaneous translanguaging. *System* (Linköping), 101, 102603–. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102603>
- Chiou, B. (2014). Rethinking the Role of L1 in the EFL Classroom. *English Teaching & Learning*, 38(4), 53–78. <https://doi.org/10.6330/ETL.2014.38.4.03>
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), 399–423. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.3.402>

- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the Bilingual Classroom: A Pedagogy for Learning and Teaching? *The Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colo.), 94(1), 103–115. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x>
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging and Identity in Educational Settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 20–35. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000233>
- Creswell, J. (1994). *Research design: qualitative & quantitative approaches* / John W. Creswell. Sage.
- Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power*. Longman Group UK Limited.
- Fallas-Escobar, C. (2020). EFL Instructors' Ambivalent Ideological Stances Toward Translanguaging: Collaborative Reflection on Language Ideologies. In *Envisioning TESOL Through a Translanguaging Lens* (Vol. 45, pp. 329–344). Springer International Publishing AG. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-47031-9\\_15](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-47031-9_15)
- Fang, F., & Liu, Y. (2020). “Using all English is not always meaningful”: Stakeholders' perspectives on the use of and attitudes towards translanguaging at a Chinese university. *Lingua*, 247, 102959–. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2020.102959>
- Fierman, W. (2006). Language and Education in Post-Soviet Kazakhstan: Kazakh-Medium Instruction in Urban Schools. *The Russian Review* (Stanford), 65(1), 98–116. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9434.2005.00388.x>
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century : a global perspective* / Ofelia García ; with contributions by Hugo Baetens Beardsmore. Wiley-Blackwell Pub.
- García, O., & Lin, A. M. Y. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In O. García & A. M. Y. Lin (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education* (*Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, Vol. 5) (pp. 117–130). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer International Publishing.
- García, O., & Otheguy, R. (2020) Plurilingualism and translanguaging: commonalities and divergences. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(1), 17-35, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1598932>
- García, O., & Sylvan, C. (2011). Pedagogies and Practices in Multilingual Classrooms: Singularities in Pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colo.), 95(3), 385–400. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01208.x>
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging : language, bilingualism and education* / Ofelia García, The Graduate Center, City University of New York, USA and Li Wei, Birbeck College, University of London, UK. Palgrave Macmillan.
- García, O., Johnson, S. I., & Seltzer, K. (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning* / Ofelia García, Susana Ibarra Johnson, Kate Seltzer; with a foreword by Guadalupe Valdés. Caslon.
- Goodman, B. & Tastanbek, S. (2021). Making the Shift From a Codeswitching to a Translanguaging Lens in English Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 55(1), 29–53. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.571>

- Gray, D. (2009). *Doing research in the real world* / David E. Gray. (Second edition.). SAGE.
- Guba, E. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries. *Educational Communication & Technology*, 29(2), 75–91. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02766777>
- Hall, G. (2020). Framing the Realities of TESOL Practice Through a Translanguaging Lens. In *Envisioning TESOL Through a Translanguaging Lens*, (Vol.45, pp. 67–90). Springer International Publishing AG. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-47031-9\\_4](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-47031-9_4)
- Hawkins, M., & Mori, J. (2018). Considering “Trans-” Perspectives in Language Theories and Practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx056>
- Hornberger, N. & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: a biliteracy lens, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261-278. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.658016>
- Jiang, Z., Zhang, L., & Mohamed, N. (2022). Researching Translanguaging as a Feasible Pedagogical Practice: Evidence from Chinese English-as-a-Foreign-Language Students’ Perceptions. *RELC Journal*, 53(2), 371–390. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882221113653>
- Jorgensen, J.N., Karrebaek, M. S., Madsen, L. M., & Moller, J. S. (2011). Polylinguaging in Superdiversity. *Diversities*, 13(2), 22–37. <https://web-p-ebscohost-com.ezproxy.is.ed.ac.uk/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=1&sid=7d6e1f08-ed3e-4b9e-b197-2bb32094c385%40redis>
- Kaarbo, J., & Beasley, R. K. (1999). A Practical Guide to the Comparative Case Study Method in Political Psychology. *Political Psychology*, 20(2), 369–391. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0162-895X.00149>
- Kaipnazarova, B. (2020). Beliefs of English Language Teachers about Multilingual Pedagogy and Their Teaching Practices: A Case of a School for Gifted Students. Unpublished master’s thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/4891>
- Karabassova, L., & San Isidro, X. (2020). Towards translanguaging in CLIL: a study on teachers’ perceptions and practices in Kazakhstan. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2020.1828426>
- Kuandykov, A. (2021). EFL Teachers’ Translanguaging Pedagogy and the Development of Beliefs about Translanguaging. Unpublished master’s thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/5608>
- Larner, W. (2003). Neoliberalism? *Environment and Planning. D, Society & Space*, 21(5), 509–512. <https://doi.org/10.1068/d2105ed>
- Law on Languages. (1997). [https://online.zakon.kz/Document/?doc\\_id=1008034](https://online.zakon.kz/Document/?doc_id=1008034)
- Leung, C., & Valdés, G. (2019). Translanguaging and the Transdisciplinary Framework for Language Teaching and Learning in a Multilingual World. *The Modern Language Journal* (Boulder, Colo.), 103(2), 348–370. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12568>
- Lewis, Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 655–670. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718490>

- Li, Wei. (2011). Moment Analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222–1235. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.035>
- Li, Wei. (2018). Translanguaging as a Practical Theory of Language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39(1), 9–30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>
- Magaldi, D., & Berler, M. (2020). Semi-structured Interviews. In *Encyclopedia of Personality and Individual Differences* (pp. 4825–4830). Springer International Publishing. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-24612-3\\_857](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-24612-3_857)
- Makoni, S. & Pennycook, A. (2012). Disinventing multilingualism: From monological multilingualism to multilingual francas. In M. Martin-Jones, A. Blackledge, & A. Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of multilingualism* (pp. 439–453). New York, NY: Routledge.
- McMillan, B. & Rivers, D. (2011). The practice of policy: Teacher attitudes toward “English only”. *System (Linköping)*, 39(2), 251–263. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.04.011>
- McMillan, B., & Turnbull, M. (2018). Teachers’ Use of the First Language in French Immersion: Revisiting a Core Principle. In *First Language Use in Second and Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 15–34). *Multilingual Matters*. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691972-004>
- Merriam, S., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: a guide to design and implementation* (4th ed). Wiley.
- Mukhamediyeva, S. (2021). Exploring University Teachers and Students’ Beliefs and Practices about Translanguaging in Kazakh Language Learning Classes. Unpublished master’s thesis, Nazarbayev University. <https://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/5610>
- Nalita, J., & Busher, H. (2016). Online interviewing. In David Silverman (ed.) *Qualitative Research* (4th edition, pp. 245–260). London: Sage.
- Nazari, M. (2008). The Role of L1 and L2 Acquisition: Attitudes of Iranian University Students. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 2(2), 138–153.
- Norlund S. A. (2022). Language norms in L2 education for adult migrants – translanguaging pedagogy in the age of mobility. *Multilingua*, 41(3), 341–358. <https://doi.org/10.1515/multi-2021-0123>
- Ortega, L. (2013). SLA for the 21st Century: Disciplinary Progress, Transdisciplinary Relevance, and the Bi/multilingual Turn: SLA for the 21st Century. *Language Learning*, 63, 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00735.x>
- Ortega, L. (2013). Ways Forward for a Bi/Multilingual Turn in SLA. In *The Multilingual Turn* (pp. 42–63). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203113493-9>
- Ospanbek, A. (2021). Exploring SFL to Understand Kazakhstani Teachers Translanguaging Practices in Mathematics (STEM) Classrooms. Unpublished master’s thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/5563>
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281–307.

<https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2015-0014>

Parker, C., Scott, S., & Geddes, A., (2019). Snowball Sampling, In P. Atkinson, S. Delamont, A. Cernat, J.W. Sakshaug, & R.A. Williams (Eds.), SAGE Research Methods Foundations. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526421036831710>

Pennycook, A. (2017) Translanguaging and semiotic assemblages. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 14(3), 269-282. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2017.1315810>

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism* / Robert Phillipson. Oxford University Press.

Sayer, P. (2012). Hey, Take it Easy!: Ambivalence and Language Ideologies. In *Ambiguities and Tensions in English Language Teaching* (pp. 147–178). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203803714-12>

Shenton, A. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(2), 63–75. <https://doi.org/10.3233/EFI-2004-22201>

State Programme for Implementation of Language Policy for 2020-2025. (2019). <https://adilet.zan.kz/rus/docs/P1900001045>

Sumeie, Y. (2022). *Translanguaging in EFL Classrooms: Teachers' Beliefs and Purposes in Kazakhstan*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <https://nur.nu.edu.kz/bitstream/handle/123456789/6588/Yakshi%20Sumeie%20MA%20Thesis%202022.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

Swain, M. (2006). *Languaging, agency and collaboration in advanced second language proficiency*. *Advanced Language Learning: The Contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky*. Ed. Heidi Byrnes. (pp. 95–108). London: Bloomsbury Academic. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5040/9781474212113.ch-004>

Tastanbek, S. (2019). *Kazakhstani Pre-Service Teacher Educators' Beliefs on Translanguaging*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <http://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/4328>

The Constitution. (1995). [https://www.akorda.kz/en/official\\_documents/constitution](https://www.akorda.kz/en/official_documents/constitution)

Tuskeyeva, A. (2022). *Perceptions on Translanguaging from EFL Teachers with Different Linguistic Backgrounds in Kazakhstan*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <https://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/6558>

Vaish, V. (2021) Linguistic distance and translanguaging: teaching Malay-English bilingual learners. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 41(4), 673-684. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2021.1997708>

Van Dijk, T. A. (2015). Critical discourse analysis. In Tannen, D., Hamilton, E. H., Schiffrin D. (Eds.), *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis* (pp: 466-485). Wiley.

Vitchenko, O. (2017). Introducing CLIL in Kazakhstan: Researching beliefs and perceptions of university stakeholders. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 14(1), 102–116. <https://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/vitchenko.pdf>

Vogel, S., & García, O. (2017). Translanguaging. In G. Noblit & L. Moll (Eds.), *Oxford research encyclopedia of education*. (pp. 32–56). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wang, D. (2014). *English in the Chinese foreign language classroom* Danping Wang. Peter Lang.

Wang, D. (2019). Translanguaging in Chinese foreign language classrooms: students and teachers' attitudes and practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(2), 138–149. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231773>

Wang, D. (2020). Studying Chinese language in higher education: The translanguaging reality through learners' eyes. *System (Linköping)*, 95, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102394>

Wang, D., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). Code choice in the Chinese as a foreign language classroom. *Multilingual Education*, 2(1), 1–3. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2191-5059-2-3>

Yakshi, S. (2022). *Translanguaging in EFL Classrooms: Teachers' Beliefs and Purposes in Kazakhstan*. Unpublished master's thesis, Nazarbayev University. <https://nur.nu.edu.kz/handle/123456789/6588>

Yasar Y., M., & Dikilitas, K. (2022). Translanguaging in the development of EFL learners' foreign language skills in Turkish context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 16(2), 176–190. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2021.1892698>



УДК (UDC) 81'1-2

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201\_2025\_9\_28

# ФИШМАННЫҢ ТІДЖ ҮЛГІСІ МЕН ТІЛДІК ИМПЕРИАЛИЗМНІҢ АЗШЫЛЫҚ ТІЛДЕРІНІҢ ӘЛСІРЕУІНЕ ӘСЕРІН ТАЛДАУ

ARUZHAN KABDESHEVA

a\_kabdesheva@kazguu.kz

Мақсұт Нарикбаев Университеті

## Аңдатпа

Шағын тілдер санының қысқару проблемасы бүгінгі күні өзекті болып қалуда. Бұл мақала тілдің жойылу процесін түсіндірудің екі белгілі және ықпалды теориялық негіздерін қарастырады: Джошуа Фишманның (1991) Градациялық ұрпақ аралық ыдырау шкаласы (GIDS) және Роберт Филлипсонның (1992) лингвистикалық империализм теориясы. GIDS құлдыраудың ішкі факторларына назар аударады және тілдің жойылуының сегіз сатылы моделін ұсынады. Лингвистикалық империализм теориясы маңызды тілдердің дамуына ықпал ететін саяси, экономикалық және мәдени күштер сияқты сыртқы факторларға баса назар аударды. Бұл зерттеу Канададағы жойылып кету қаупі төнген тілдермен қатар ирланд тілінің жойылу қаупі төнген мәртебесін түсіндіреді, тілдің жойылуының көп қырлы процестерін сипаттау үшін екі теорияның қалай жұмыс істейтінін көрсетеді. Мақалада ішкі қауымдастықтың динамикасы мен сыртқы жаһандық күштерді біріктіру тілдің жойылу құбылысын жан-жақты түсінуге мүмкіндік береді және тілді жандандырудың жаңа шешімдерін ұсынады. Бұл ұғымдарды қазіргі тіл саясаты мен оқытуда қолдану бойынша қосымша зерттеулер қажет.

**Түйінді сөздер:** жойылып бара жатқан тілдер, Фишман, GIDS, лингвистикалық империализм, тілді жандандыру, азшылық тілдері

# АНАЛИЗ МОДЕЛИ ШНЖПЯ ФИШМАНА И ЯЗЫКОВОГО ИМПЕРИАЛИЗМА В КОНТЕКСТЕ УПАДКА ЯЗЫКОВ МЕНЬШИНСТВ

ARUZHAN KABDESHEVA

a\_kabdesheva@kazguu.kz

Университет Максута Нарикбаева

## Аннотация

Проблема сокращения числа малых языков продолжает оставаться актуальной и в наши дни. В этой статье анализируются две известные и влиятельные теоретические схемы, объясняющие процесс исчезновения языков: Шкалу градации межпоколенческого распада (GIDS) Джошуа Фишмана (1991) и теорию лингвистического империализма Роберта Филлипсона (1992). GIDS фокусируется на внутренних факторах упадка и предлагает восьмиступенчатую модель исчезновения языков. Теория лингвистического империализма подчеркивает внешние факторы, такие как политические, экономические и культурные силы, которые способствуют развитию значимых языков. Данное исследование объясняет угрожающее состояние ирландского языка наряду с исчезающими языками в Канаде, демонстрируя, как две теории работают вместе в описании многогранных процессов угрозы исчезновения языков. В статье утверждается, что объединение внутренней динамики сообщества и внешних глобальных сил обеспечивает более полное понимание феномена языковой смерти и предлагает новые решения для возрождения языков. Требуются дополнительные исследования по применению этих концепций в современной языковой политике и преподавании.

**Ключевые слова:** языки, находящиеся под угрозой исчезновения, Фишман, GIDS, лингвистический империализм, возрождение языков, языки меньшинства.

# ANALYSIS OF FISHMAN'S GIDS AND LINGUISTIC IMPERIALISM ON THE DECLINE OF MINORITY LANGUAGES

ARUZHAN KABDESHEVA

a\_kabdesheva@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Abstract

The decreasing number of minor languages keeps being an emergent issue nowadays. This article analyzes two famous and influential theoretical frameworks explaining the process of language extinction: Joshua Fishman's Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS) (1991) and Robert Phillipson's Linguistic Imperialism theory (1992). GIDS focuses on internal factors of decline and suggests an eight-step model for the extinction of languages. Linguistic imperialism theory highlights external factors, such as political, economic, and cultural forces, that promote significant languages. This study explains the endangered state of the Irish language alongside the fading endangered languages in Canada, demonstrating how the two theories work together in describing the multifaceted language endangerment processes. The paper argues that combining internal community dynamics and external global forces provides a fuller understanding of the phenomena of language death and suggests new solutions for revitalizing languages. More research is warranted on applying these concepts to modern language policy and teaching.

**Keywords:** endangered languages, Fishman, GIDS, linguistic imperialism, language revitalization, minority languages

## INTRODUCTION

The disappearance of endangered languages keeps being an emergent topic. According to UNESCO (2025), at least one language becomes extinct every two weeks, approximately 25 languages per year. Meanwhile, dominant languages are popularized through social media, education, and economic systems. Language is not only about the mode of communication; it is an essential part of the place's culture, history, literature, and tradition. Language is one of the identities of the local community of the population. Most studies created theories and reasons for the extinction of languages; the most popular among them are Fishman's GIDS (1991) and Philipson's Linguistic Imperialism (1992). Both theories benefit by explaining why minor languages are extinct, but they differ by focusing on various aspects. This paper explores two widely cited theories that aim to explain the phenomenon of language decline. The objective is to critically analyze how each theory interprets language endangerment, evaluate their applicability to contemporary cases, and explore how they can be integrated to provide a fuller understanding of linguistic extinction. Finally, the paper presents a set of practical recommendations aimed at revitalizing endangered languages.

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

**Fishman's GIDS: Internal Factors in Language Decline.** Language preservation influences not only science but also the cultural stability of humanity; it reflects the nation's culture, traditions, and history. The extinction of minor languages is a complicated concept consisting of stages and causes. Fishman (1991) created eight staged models explaining the erosion process of languages. The main idea of the Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS) lies in the concept that the successful transmission of a language from one generation to the next saves a language (Fishman, 1991). Some researchers confirmed that the constant use of the mother language prevents extinction (Hinton et al., 2018). The weak connection between language and people has more consequences, such as the disappearance of the culture and traditions of this nation. The GIDS scale consists of eight levels, starting from the active use of a language in government and mass media and ending with it remaining only as a memory (Figure 1).

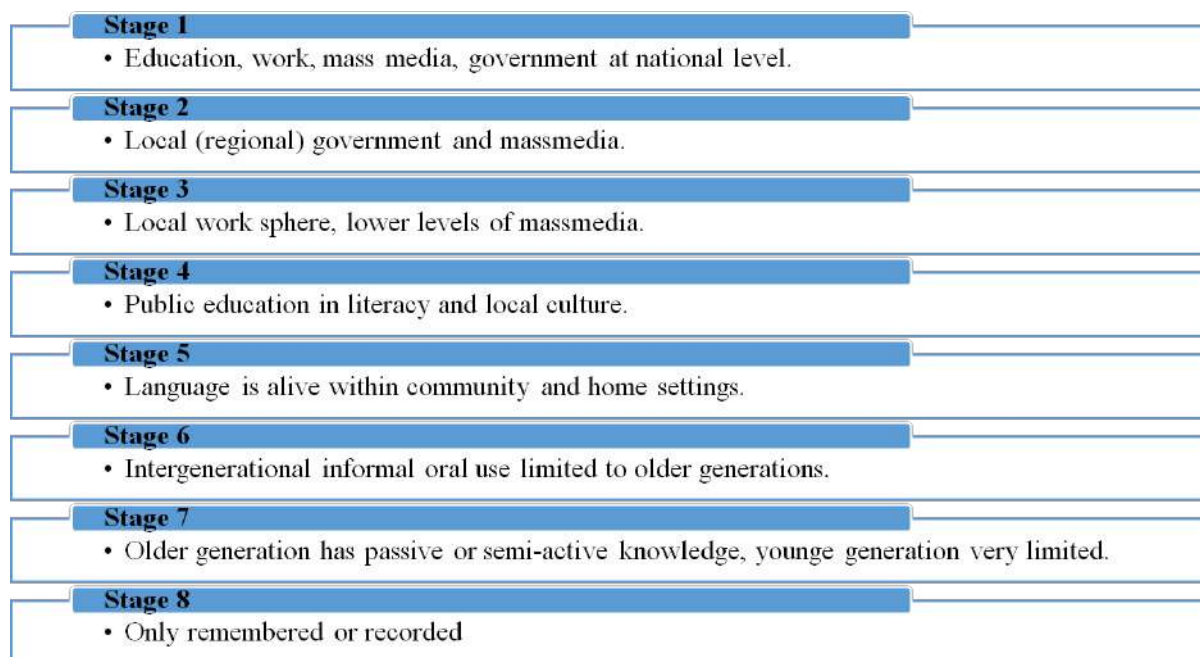


Figure 1. GIDS Scale (1991)

Fishman (1991) highlighted the importance of adhering to the steps of the GIDS scale - which can be regarded as a practical guide to language revival. The Irish language can be applied to this GIDS scale to understand the concept better. Based on UNESCO (2016), Irish is categorized as an endangered language which means that the majority of its speakers are old Irish generation. This appears to contradict Fishman's framework. In considering the GIDS levels, the Irish language can be placed at the sixth stage. Despite government efforts such as compulsory school teaching and its presence in the media, the younger generation prefers English for everyday conversations (Walsh & Lane, 2018). Therefore, GIDS remains effective for monitoring language decline and developing policies aimed at revitalization. Despite the positive outcomes of GIDS, modern augmentation and complements are required. Simons and Lewis (2012) expanded this scale for more accuracy called EGIDS (Expanded Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale). They created thirteen levels that occupy almost all aspects of the viability of languages. EGIDS has enabled a global assessment of the state of the world's languages, giving the scientific community a clear picture of the scale of the threat and ways to preserve linguistic diversity (Austin & Sallabank, 2022).

### **LINGUISTIC IMPERIALISM: EXTERNAL FORCES AND POWER**

The Linguistic Imperialism theory explains one of the main reasons for the decline of minor languages (Phillipson, 1992). Phillipson (1992) defined that language expansion is not a natural process; it has a historical and political background process. The central idea is that language is a communication tool and a tool for maintaining and strengthening the global hierarchy. The spread of English and other colonial languages through the education system, global media, economic institutions, and international organizations has led to the marginalization and eventual extinction of many local languages

(Tollefson & Tsui, 2018). Colonial policies facilitated the spread of foreign languages. In colonized regions, the languages of the nations were forced upon indigenous cultures, often with the intent of eradicating their cultures and identities. Instead, those postcolonial societies offer colonial languages as official languages because of their status – not to mention the significant economic opportunities to be gained in those competing international markets (May, 2019).

### **MINORITY LANGUAGES CASES**

The Irish language (Gaeilge) is categorized by UNESCO as endangered. Although the Irish government has tried to promote Irish through education and media, English remains dominant in daily life. According to GIDS, Irish would be placed around Stage 6 where older generations mostly use the language within specific regions (Walsh & Lane, 2018).

Despite compulsory Irish language education, few students become fluent, and English is favored for practical purposes. This demonstrates GIDS's relevance and limits, as state support alone does not ensure revitalization without strong grassroots transmission. From a Linguistic Imperialism perspective, the decline of the Irish can be traced to British colonial policies that suppressed the Irish in favor of the English. Even after independence, English remained hegemonic due to global economic integration and media dominance (May, 2019).

Canada, for instance, is home to over 70 Indigenous languages, most of which are endangered (Truth and Reconciliation Commission, 2015). Historically, policies such as residential schools aimed to eradicate Indigenous languages and cultures.

Applying GIDS, many Indigenous languages fall between Stages 7 and 8, with very limited intergenerational transmission. Linguistic

Imperialism provides a powerful lens here, as the deliberate policies of linguistic suppression are well-documented. Efforts at revival are ongoing, including language nests, community-run schools, and media in Indigenous languages. Nevertheless, challenges remain, including insufficient funding, lack of teacher training, and minimal integration into formal education systems.

The third example is the Ainu Language in Japan, once spoken across northern Japan, is nearly extinct. Japanese colonial and assimilationist policies marginalized Ainu culture. Today, revitalization efforts exist but face obstacles due to lacking community speakers and social prestige. Both GIDS and Linguistic Imperialism apply: internal loss of transmission and external cultural repression.

## COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Fishman's GIDS (1991) and Philipson's (1992) linguistic imperialism explain the phenomenon of language extinction but focus on different aspects. Fishman's scale concentrated mostly on internal factors such as language exchange among communities, families, and schools. It benefits in several ways as:

- it helps identify the stage of endangered language that helps prevent this problem by maintaining supporting systems.
- it can be useful for any language.
- it serves as a tool for the government.

Meanwhile, Philipson's (1992) linguistic imperialism focuses on external factors: how politics, economy, and cultural expansion influence language extinct. It explains that external conditions negatively affect the local language, making it outdated. Both theories complement each other and help to gain a deeper understanding of the complex dynamics of language extinction.

The issue of preserving linguistic diversity remains one of the most pressing problems nowadays. Both GIDS and Linguistic

Imperialism are important tools that will benefit preventing extinction of many languages. It is important to consider both internal and external factors for successful protection of minor languages. Despite existing theories and recent studies, this issue requires further research and can be applied in practice across political, educational, and linguistic spheres. The local government can play an important role in promoting languages by keeping it one of them. Governments can pass legislation to make this one of the official languages. The schools can add this language as one of the optional subjects in the syllabus so that students have the option to choose this language as one of their subjects. Local television can play an important role in preserving and promoting the language by making short films, dramas, and entertainment content. This language can be taught at schools as a separate language, and literature in this language encourages people to read the literature/books written in this language and keep these books available at the government libraries so that people can read these books. In government museums, a display of the script and origin of the language must be kept available so that the new generation is aware of the historical background and origin. In the modern digital age, content makers, freelancers, and podcast hosts can also preserve this language by interviewing authors, poets, and people who have worked and written in this language. Preserving languages is not just about preserving grammar; it is also about culture, history, literature, and one of the major identities of ethnicity.

## CONCLUSION

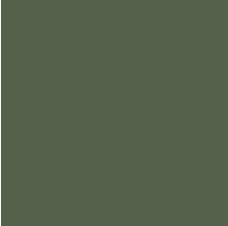
Language preservation is not merely a linguistic issue but is deeply tied to identity, history, and power. The discovered theories illuminate critical aspects of the language extinction process. Their integration provides a richer, more holistic framework for analysis and action. Preserving linguistic diversity requires coordinated efforts

across individual, community, institutional, and governmental levels. As globalization and digitalization accelerate, revitalization efforts must adapt and innovate to ensure that minority languages continue to be both spoken and remembered.

Future research should explore how digital tools and media can support intergenerational language transmission, especially among younger populations. Additionally, scholars can investigate the dynamics of hybrid language use in bilingual or multilingual communities to understand how these practices influence language vitality. Evaluating the impact of neoliberal economic policies on language choice may also provide insight into structural pressures that affect language maintenance. Finally, interdisciplinary research integrating sociolinguistic theory with data science could yield innovative quantitative models for predicting language shift, incorporating internal community dynamics and external sociopolitical variables.

## REFERENCES

- Austin, P. K., & Sallabank, J. (2022). Endangered languages. In P. K. Austin & J. Sallabank (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language and sustainability* (Chapter 31). Routledge.
- Hinton, L., Huss, L., & Roche, G. (Eds.). (2018). *The Routledge handbook of language revitalization*. Routledge.
- May, S. (2019). *Language and minority rights: Ethnicity, nationalism and the politics of language*. Routledge.
- Simons, G. F., & Lewis, M. P. (2012). *The world's languages in crisis: A 20-year update*. SIL International.
- Suganya, V. (2020, September). The decline of linguistic identity: The factors contributing to the extinction of Irish - Gaelic in the Republic of Ireland.
- Tollefson, J. W., & Tsui, A. B. M. (2018). *The Oxford handbook of language policy and planning*. Oxford University Press.
- Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada. (2015). *Honouring the truth, reconciling for the future: Summary of the final report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada*.
- UNESCO. (2021). *Decade of Indigenous Languages Global Action Plan 2022–2032*.
- UNESCO. (n.d.). *Multilingual education: The best way to preserve Indigenous languages and ensure justice*.
- UNESCO. (n.d.). *Ireland: Irish language*. Retrieved from <https://en.wal.unesco.org/countries/ireland/languages/irish>
- Walsh, J., & Lane, P. (2018). Language revitalization and language regimes: Re-examining the Irish experience. *Language Policy*, 17(1), 1–21.
- Whalen, D. H., Lewis, M. E., Gillson, S., McBeath, B., Alexander, B., & Nyhan, K. (2022). Health effects of Indigenous language use and revitalization: A realist review. *International Journal for Equity in Health*, 21, Article 169.



УДК (UDC) 81'25:378.147

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201\_2025\_9\_35

# ҚАЗАҚСТАН УНИВЕРСИТЕТТЕРІНДЕ АУДАРМА ПӘНІ ОҚЫТУШЫЛАРЫН ДАЯРЛАУ

МАРАЛБЕКҚЫЗЫ АЛТЫНАЙ

a\_maralbekkyzy@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Аңдатпа

Бұл әдеби шолуда аудармашылардың жаңа буынын дайындау үшін аударма пәні оқытушыларына қажетті кәсіби құзыреттер қарастырылады. Аударма саласындағы білім беру болашақ мамандарды кәсіби ортаға дайындауда маңызды рөл атқарғанымен, ғылыми зерттеулер көбінесе аударма процесіне бағытталған, ал оқытушыларды даярлау мәселесі назардан тыс қалып отыр. Шолу Ұлыбританияның Жоғары білім беру академиясының кәсіби стандарттар құрылымы мен Келлидің құзыреттер моделіне сүйене отырып жасалған. Онда келесі негізгі салалар қамтылады: кәсіби тәжірибе, оқыту әдістемесі, бағалау стратегиялары, білім беру технологияларын қолдану және үздіксіз кәсіби даму. Иран, Еуропа және Аустралия елдерінен алынған мысалдар болашақ және қазіргі аударма оқытушыларын жүйелі түрде даярлаудың маңызын нақтылайды. Аударма білімінің сапасы тек пәндік білімі бар емес, сонымен қатар оқыту дағдылары дамыған, үздіксіз білім алуға бейім оқытушыларға тікелей байланысты. Бұл шолу аударма пәні оқытушыларын даярлау жүйесін жетілдіру мен ресмилендірудің өзектілігін көрсетеді.

**Түйінді сөздер:** аударма оқытушыларын даярлау, оқытушылар құзыреттілігі, аударма білім беру, кәсіби даму, педагогикалық дағдылар, аударма оқытушыларына арналған бағдарламалар

# ПОДГОТОВКА ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЕЙ ПЕРЕВОДЧЕСКИХ ДИСЦИПЛИН В УНИВЕРСИТЕТАХ КАЗАХСТАНА

МАРАЛБЕККЫЗЫ АЛТЫНАЙ

a\_maralbekkyzy@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Аннотация

В данном обзоре литературы рассматриваются ключевые компетенции, необходимые преподавателям перевода для подготовки нового поколения переводчиков. Несмотря на важную роль переводческого образования в профессиональной подготовке студентов, большинство исследований сосредоточено преимущественно на процессе перевода, а не на обучении и развитии самих преподавателей. Обзор опирается на такие модели, как Professional Standards Framework Британской академии высшего образования и модель компетенций Келли. Выделяются основные области профессиональной компетентности преподавателей: профессиональный опыт, педагогические навыки, стратегии оценки, использование образовательных технологий и стремление к постоянному профессиональному развитию. Примеры из Ирана, Европы и Австралии подчёркивают значимость структурированной подготовки как будущих, так и действующих преподавателей перевода. Успешность переводческого образования напрямую зависит от компетентных преподавателей, обладающих как предметной, так и педагогической экспертизой. Обзор подчеркивает необходимость формализации и улучшения подготовки преподавателей перевода для обеспечения высокого качества образования в данной области.

**Ключевые слова:** подготовка преподавателей перевода, профессиональные компетенции, переводческое образование, профессиональное развитие, педагогические навыки, образовательные программы для преподавателей перевода

# TRAINING TRANSLATION FACULTY AT UNIVERSITIES IN KAZAKHSTAN

MARALBEKKYZY ALTYNAY

a\_maralbekkyzy@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## **Abstract**

This literature review examines the competencies necessary for translation faculty to prepare the next generation of translators. Although translation education plays a critical role in preparing students for professional practice, much of the existing research has focused more on the translation process than on the training and development of translation faculty themselves. Drawing upon frameworks such as the UK Higher Education Academy's Professional Standards Framework and Kelly's competency model, this review outlines the key domains of faculty expertise: professional experience, teaching skills, assessment strategies, use of educational technologies, and a commitment to continuous professional development. Case studies from Iran, Europe, and Australia further illustrate the significance of structured training for pre-service and in-service translation trainers. The success of translator education depends on well-prepared translation faculty who are not only subject matter experts but also skilled educators committed to lifelong learning. The review highlights the urgent need to formalize and improve translation faculty training to ensure high-quality education in the translation profession.

**Keywords:** training translation faculty, trainers competencies, translation education, professional development, pedagogical skills, translation programs for training translation faculty

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Translators play a key role in today's world, as intercultural communication and information sharing are getting more intense (Orlando, 2019). Translation serves as a vital bridge between languages and cultures. This crucial function is based on a learning system in which translation faculties play an important role. They are responsible for developing the next generation of specialists, providing not only language and translation competencies but also abilities to analyze, adapt, and understand cultural nuances.

Despite the fact that translation education is vital, research has mainly focused on the translation process, however issues related to translation faculty training and the preparation of students remain less studied (Kelly, 2009). Understanding translation faculty needs is key to improving translator training. This review examines competency framework and existing programs to identify best practices and suggest improvements for translation faculty preparation and development.

### COMPETENCY STANDARDS FOR TRANSLATION FACULTY

Training future translators requires translation faculty who are not just skilled translators but also possess teaching competence, relevant knowledge, and the capacity to create good learning environments (Kelly, 2005). Recognizing the complex and lifelong nature of teaching and learning (Williamson & McDiarmid, 2008; Feiman-Nemser, 2001), translation competence stands as a fundamental concept in translation education (Khoshsaligheh et al., 2019). This competence, defined as the skills, expertise, and ethical conduct needed for professional success (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 94).

As the United Kingdom Professional Standards Framework for Teaching and Supporting Learning in Higher Education (Advance HE) and Kelly's (2009) suggest, translation faculty require

professional experience, teaching skills, technological competence, and strong interpersonal, mentoring abilities to train future translators. According to Danesh et al. (2021), translation learning relies in shared competencies between translation faculty and students. The United Kingdom Higher Education Academy's Professional Standards Framework outlines key teacher competencies in higher education through areas of activity (the practical tasks of teaching), core knowledge (the essential understanding required), and professional values (guiding principles). These elements include activity in design, teaching, assessment, environment creation, research integration, and evaluation; knowledge of the subject, teaching methods, student learning, technology use, assessment, and quality; and values like respect, research-based practice, supportive environments, inclusivity, and ongoing professional growth.

The Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education framework provides important guidance for all university trainers. Building on this, Kelly (2005) outlined that translation faculty need professional translation experience, knowledge of translation studies, and teaching skills. Later, Kelly (2009) further detailed the importance of teaching skills, categorizing them as organizational (course and activity design), interpersonal (effective student interaction for learning goals), and instructional (clear explanation abilities). This discussion draws on Kelly's 2009 work to compare her view of translation faculty competencies with the Higher Education Academy's Professional Standards Framework.

Danesh et al. (2021) point out that well-defined objectives and structured curricula are crucial for training translation faculty. They argue that individuals with varied translation teaching sub-competencies should lead this training. Therefore, effective translation education depends on a good curriculum and the continuous growth of skilled faculty capable of developing translation competence. The move towards

student-centered learning, the need for up-to-date knowledge, and the focus on professional development underscore the significance of training translation faculty and identifying their key competencies (Alibakhshi, 2019; Massey et al., 2019). Orlando (2019) advocates for faculty with both academic and practical knowledge delivered by both academics and professionals. Danesh et al. (2021) identify these competencies as pedagogical skills, curriculum design expertise, assessment methods, and understanding current translation technologies.

Beyond linguistic proficiency and subject matter expertise, translation faculty must foster critical thinking, adaptability, and interdisciplinary approaches among students to prepare them for the evolving demands of the profession. Ashrafi (2012) created a test of translation teacher competency that determined the competencies of translation teachers in the Iranian context, including teaching abilities and content translation knowledge. Similarly, the European Master's in Translation (EMT) expert group (2013) conducted a thorough study to define the core competencies required for translation teachers in Europe, including pedagogical expertise, practical translation experience, and assessment skills. Orlando's (2019) survey of twenty one Monash University translation trainers identified key didactic skills, including assessment, feedback, classroom management, lesson planning, learning objective design, technology use, translation/interpretation proficiency. Furthermore, Wu et al.'s (2019) work suggests that formal training can positively influence translation teachers' perceived ability to handle translating, teaching, and studying responsibilities. Their exploratory study on pre-service translation teachers at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies found that structured coursework in teaching practices, research methods, translation skills, and classroom instruction significantly boosted these future educators' self-confidence and professional readiness. In a related study, Danesh et al.'s (2021)

interviews with thirteen experienced Iranian translation faculty revealed that teaching skills are considered a primary sub-competency, followed by content knowledge encompassing instrumental, translation, literary, and extra-linguistic aspects (a point supported by Ashari, 2012). Translation expertise was also deemed crucial, as faculty believed teaching translation requires mastery of the translation process and both languages. Furthermore, background, and sociocultural knowledge and understanding cultural nuances were highlighted. Students also valued psychological-personality competencies in trainers, including friendliness, adaptability, and receptiveness to criticism (Danesh et al., 2021). The study suggests enhancing translation education quality by hiring faculty with at least a master's in translation and practical translation experience. Tareva (2012) identifies dual translation and teaching expertise, linguistic and cultural knowledge, and training skills as key for translation educators, a view by Petrova and Sdobnikov (2021), who emphasize teaching abilities, professional translation experience, and understanding translation studies. Sdobnikov et al. (2020) further define "didactic competences" as encompassing translation expertise, general teaching skills, and specific translator training abilities like teaching translation strategies. Li and Zhang (2012) add pedagogical, research, and practical abilities to this list, highlighting the importance of research skills for staying current and developing effective, evidence-based teaching. Orlando (2019) also stresses the need for a balanced practical experience in both teaching and translation for translation faculty. Building on the understanding of translation competencies, Nord (2005) and Neubert (2000) explored intercultural and bilingual competence, also studying how Translation Competence itself can be evaluated. In contrast, Al-Batineh and Bilali's (2017) analysis of Arab master's programs revealed a prioritization of subject area competence, with professional and instrumental competence (practical skills and resource utilization) receiving

equal emphasis alongside communicative and textual competence (coherent and contextually appropriate text production).

Based on the literature reviewed, translation faculty must develop competencies in multiple areas to train future translation professionals. These competencies can be classified into five categories: pedagogical, professional, technological, intercultural/linguistic competencies, research and professional development (Kelly, 2005, 2009; Danesh et al., 2021; Orlando, 2019; Petrova & Sdobnikov, 2021; Wu, Wei, & Mo, 2019; Tareva, 2012; Ashari, 2012; Massey et al. 2019; Wu, Zhang, & Wei, 2019).

Globalization, technology, and the academic recognition of translation studies have reshaped translator training. To properly educate students for the shifting global landscape, translation trainers must combine academic rigor with real-world experience as the area develops. That is why there is a need for trainers to adapt to contemporary market demands, which requires new competencies, such as flexibility and technological competencies (Orlando, 2019). Professional standards for translation trainers highlight pedagogical competencies alongside a deep understanding of the field, including current trends and professional demands, which is crucial for preparing students for their careers. However, many translation trainers lack sufficient knowledge in these vital areas. As Petrova and Sdobnikov (2021) pointed out, translation faculty should possess the same theoretical and practical competencies they aim to cultivate in their students, alongside the pedagogical skills to teach them. Indeed, research on teaching often highlights the faculty's professional translation experience as a key qualification.

#### **FACULTY DEVELOPMENT IN TRANSLATION**

Petrova and Ivanov (2020) highlight the lack of specific translation pedagogy training for faculty, noting that language skills alone are not enough. Growing

globalization increases the need for well-trained translation faculty, yet universities often favor subject expertise over teaching competence (Kelly, 2009). The growth of translation programs also demands focused training in pedagogical and technical skills for both language teachers and professional translators (Pym, 2011). Early efforts to address this include Gouadec's (1986-1991) month-long sessions for translation trainers and Dimitrova's (1996) 10-week Swedish program, later expanded. A more integrated approach is seen at the University of Ottawa, where their MA in Translation and Interpretation includes a "Didactics of Translator Training" unit, covering effective teaching methods, lesson structuring, engaging material creation, and balancing theory with practice in course design. In response to the growing demand for translator and interpreter teacher programs, the European Language Council initiated the Thematic Network Project (1996-1999) (Pym, 2001). This project brought together leading European translation schools to examine existing training methods and establish ideal translation teacher profiles and training modules. The uniqueness of this initiative was its structured approach to addressing gaps in translation faculty preparation. The written translation section focused on areas such as translation theory, tools, professional processes, and curriculum development; the interpreting section resulted in a biannual teacher training program in Geneva, designed specifically to equip professional interpreters with effective teaching competencies. In 2000, efforts to address this gap in translation faculty training continued with a two-day seminar in Rennes. This event brought together translation faculty from various countries to discuss the specific need for training programs focused on technical translation. Frustrated by years of discussions without concrete results, participants emphasized the importance of creating practical training initiatives. This led to the formation of the Consortium for the Training of Translation Teachers (CTTT) and the organization of future seminars in Rennes and Tarragona

in 2001 (Pym, 2001). Despite these initiatives, systematic training for translation faculty remains limited. Notable exceptions include the recurring Consortium for Translator Teacher Training (CTTT) events in Tarragona, and Maria González Davies' annual summer course in Vic, Spain, with aspirations to become a full Master's program (Pym, 2001). In interpreting, the ETI in Geneva offers a postgraduate e-learning program specifically for training interpreter trainers. The history of translation faculty training, marked by initial efforts, highlights a core tension: the global demand for skilled translators contrasts with the inconsistent development of pedagogical expertise among their educators. While early initiatives in Paris/Rennes and Sweden, along with the European Language Council's work, demonstrated an awareness of the need for trained translation faculty, these remained fragmented and failed to establish a cohesive, systematic approach.

One of the major challenges in translator training is the presence of serious gaps caused by current teaching practices. Many experts teach without formal teaching credentials, while inexperienced foreign language teachers often take on translation training roles. Studies by Chen and Liu (2023) and Wu et al. (2019) highlight the importance of professional identity and self-efficacy in translation trainers' success. Wu et al. (2018) specifically examined how a structured teacher education program at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS) in China demonstrated translation trainers' confidence and effectiveness. Using qualitative research methods, including interviews and focus groups with six final-year master's students, the study underscored the significance of proper training in shaping professional translation teaching identity. The important question is not whether we need training, but how to build a training system that works well and can be used widely.

Training translation faculty requires a comprehensive strategy beyond just

language skills, integrating theory, teaching methods, and practical experience. Despite advancements in applied translation studies, training translation faculty remains underexplored (Salamah, 2021b), necessitating focus on pedagogy, including teaching methods, assessment, and curriculum design, as highlighted by Tassini (2012) and Gile (2009). There's a particular need to address unclear goals, a lack of pedagogical criteria, mismatched expectations, and misconceptions about translation (Salamah, 2021; Al-Faifi, 2000; Atari, 2012; Farghal, 2000), alongside the shortage of qualified translation faculty and a unified teaching philosophy, all pointing to the need for research and reform in this area.

To improve translator training programs, translation faculty must be equipped with the tools to design clear learning objectives. According to Schmitt (2012), higher education translation faculty need to establish learning objectives for modules and courses and determine if goals are met. This requires translation faculty to reconsider ideas and prepare for classes. Secondly, integrate translation competence. Since Translation Competence and its acquisitions are essential for professional and prepare translators to become specialists, the translation pedagogy research community is concerned with this topic (Salamah, 2021b). Thirdly, the materials now available on translation training and pedagogy, however, are far from ideal (Bernardini, 2004; Davies, 2004). In addition to determining the skills and knowledge translators need to complete cognitive activities required for the translation process and professional tasks, more research and studies in translation education are required. Training should occur at various academic levels, from bachelor's to postgraduate studies (Wu et al., 2018; Orlando, 2019), with a growing emphasis on contemporary pedagogical techniques and the integration of research skills (Li & Zhang, 2011; Massey et al., 2019; Orlando, 2019). The evolution of translation training itself, moving from traditional to

process-oriented and research-based approaches (Orlando, 2019), mirrors the broader shift toward student-centered learning and the integration of theory and practice (Delisle, 1980; Gile, 2009). Crucially, training programs should emphasize interpretive methods that emphasize stylistic, contextual, and cultural factors (Venuti et al. 2017). Addressing fundamental questions regarding faculty's learning practices and development is essential for professional advancement and quality assurance in translator training. This literature review has examined the essential skills and competencies of translation faculty, modern educational standards, and the growing need for translation faculty to integrate new technologies and programs. Training translation faculty is a complex but necessary endeavor. While current research offers a strong base, further empirical studies, especially those including the experiences of practicing translation faculty and focusing on the specific needs of universities in Kazakhstan, are vital for improving training programs and ensuring translation faculty can effectively prepare future generations of successful translators.

## REFERENCES

- Al-Batineh, M., & Bilali, L. (2017). Translator training in the Arab world: are curricula aligned with the language industry? *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 11(2–3), 187–203. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399x.2017.1350900>
- Al-Faifi, A. (2000). Teaching translation at the undergraduate level in Saudi Arabia: The case of Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic University [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The University of Edinburgh.
- Alibakhshi, G. (2019). In-service training professional development needs of Iranian teachers of English as foreign language: A qualitative research study. *Teaching English Language*, 13(2), 95-119.
- Ashrafi, N. (2012). Construction and validation of the translation competency test and the scale of students' perception of translation teachers. (Unpublished master thesis), Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran.
- Atari, O. F. (2012). Impediments to translator training at Arab universities: Proposal for change. *AWEJ Arab World English Journal*, 3(1), 103-127.
- Baer, B. J., & Koby, G. S. (2003). *Beyond the Ivory Tower*. In American Translators Association scholarly monograph series. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ata.xii>
- Chen, S., & Liu, Y. (2023). Identity formation and transformation of Chinese university translator trainers. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 17(3), 353–374. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399x.2023.2237325>
- CTTT. 2001. Homepage of the Consortium for Training Translation Teachers.
- Danesh, Y. R., Khoshsaligheh, M., & Moghaddas, M. (2021). Translation Teaching Competence: Teachers and Students' Perspectives. *DOAJ (DOAJ: Directory of Open Access Journals)*. <https://doi.org/10.22132/tel.2021.133226>

- Davies, M. G. (2004). Undergraduate and postgraduate translation degrees. In Benjamins translation library (pp. 67–81).
- Delisle, J. 1980. *L'Analyse du discours comme méthode de traduction*. Ottawa: Editions de l'Université d'Ottawa. EMT Expert Group (2013). The EMT translator trainer profile. competences of the trainer in translation.
- Englund Dimitrova, Birgitta. 2001. "Training the interpreter trainers - the Swedish experience", Paper delivered to the Critical Link 3 conference, Montreal, May 2001.
- Farghal, M. (2000). The training of student translators. *Turjuman Journal of Translation Studies*, 9(1), 39-49.
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: Designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 1013-1055.
- Gile, D. (2009). Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training. In Benjamins translation library. <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.8>
- Gouadec, D. (2000). Notes on translator training. *Innovation in Translator and Interpreter Training*, Tarragona, Spain: Intercultural Studies Group. June 9, 2014.
- Kelly, D. 2005. *A Handbook for Translator Trainers: A Guide to Reflective Practice*. Manchester: St. Jerome.
- Kelly, D. (2009). Training the Trainers: Towards a Description of Translator Trainer Competence and Training Needs Analysis. *TTR Traduction Terminologie Rédaction*, 21(1), 99–125. <https://doi.org/10.7202/029688ar>
- Khoshsaligheh, M., Moghaddas, M., & Ameri, S. (2019). English translator training Curriculum revisited: Iranian trainees' perspectives. *Teaching English Language*, 13(2), 181–212.
- Li, D., & Zhang, C. (2012). Knowledge Structure and Training of Translation Teachers: An Exploratory Study of Doctoral Programmes of Translation Studies in Hong Kong. *Meta Journal Des Traducteurs*, 56(3), 693–712. <https://doi.org/10.7202/1008340ar>
- Massey, G., Kiraly, D., & Ehrensberger-Dow, M. (2019). Training translator trainers: An introduction. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 13(3), 211–215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399x.2019.1647821>
- Neubert, A. (2000). Competence in Language, in Languages, and in Translation. In Benjamins translation library (p. 3). <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.38.03neu>
- Nord, C. (2005). *Text analysis in translation: Theory, methodology, and didactic application of a model for translation-oriented text analysis* (2nd ed.). Rodopi.
- Orlando, M. (2019). Training and educating interpreter and translator trainers as practitioners-researchers-teachers. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 13(3), 216–232. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1750399x.2019.1656407>
- Petrova, O., & Ivanov, A. (2020). Can Any Foreign Language Teacher Also Teach Translation?

The European Proceedings of Social & Behavioural Sciences, 1075–1084. <https://doi.org/10.15405/epsbs.2020.08.125>

Petrova, O., & Sdobnikov, V. (2021). How Can and Should Translation teachers be Trained? *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, 267. <https://doi.org/10.22190/jtesap2102267p>

Pym, A. (2001), Intercultural Studies Group, & Universitat Rovira i Virgili. Trial, Error and Experimentation in the Training of Translation Teachers. Abstract.

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2002). *Dictionary of language teaching and Applied linguistics*. London, England: Longman.

Salamah, D. (2021b). Translation Competence and Translator Training: A review. *International Journal of Linguistics Literature & Translation*, 4(3), 276–291. <https://doi.org/10.32996/ijllt.2021.4.3.29>

Schmitt, P. A. (2012). Bologna, EMT and CIUTI – Approaches to High Quality in Translation and Interpretation Training. *Meta Journal Des Traducteurs*, 57(1), 23–34. <https://doi.org/10.7202/1012738ar>

Tassini, A. (2012). *The translator training textbook*. Create Space Publishing Platform. The UK Professional Standards Framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education | Advance HE.

TNP 26022. 1998. Report on “Formation européenne transfrontière de formateurs en traduction et de formateurs en interprétation”. Thematic Network Project SOCRATES/ERASMUS/IB.

Venuti, L., Van Wyke, B., Johnston, B., Losensky, P., Massardier-Kenney, F., Sedarat, R., Von Flotow, L., Hubert, M. D., Baer, B. J., González-Davies, M., Gibbons, R., Filkins, P., Johnston, D., Nornes, M., Van Dyck, K., Hartman, M., Malena, A., Penrod, L., Newman, J. O., Maitland, S. (2017). *Teaching Translation*. Routledge.

Williamson McDiarmid, G., & Clevenger-Bright, M. (2008). Rethinking teacher capacity. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, & D. McIntyre (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions in changing contexts* (pp. 249-267). Routledge/Taylor & Francis.

Wu, D., Zhang, L. J., & Wei, L. (2019). Developing translator competence: understanding trainers' beliefs and training practices. *Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 13(3), 233–254.

Wu, D. Wei, L. & Mo, A. (2019). Training translation teachers in an initial teacher education programme: a self-efficacy beliefs perspective. *Perspectives*, 27(1), 74-90.



УДК (UDC) 81'42

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201\_2025\_9\_45

## АҒЫЛШЫН ЖАРНАМАЛЫҚ МӘТІННІҢ ТІЛДІК ЕРЕКШЕЛІКТЕРІ

ҚАЗИ ВЕНЕРА ДУЛАТҚЫЗЫ

k\_venera@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

### Аңдатпа

Бұл мақала жарнама мәтінінің тілдік ерекшеліктерін қарастырады. Біріншіден, әртүрлі компаниялардың 100 ұраны таңдалып, бүкіл жарнама корпусы бойынша ортақ белгілер анықталады. Екіншіден, талдау үш деңгейге бөлінеді: фонологиялық деңгей, морфологиялық және синтаксистік деңгей, сондай-ақ семантикалық деңгей. Әр деңгейге тереңірек талдау риторикалық тәсілдер мен тілдік ерекшеліктерді зерттеуге бөлінеді. Талдаудан кейін жиілігі анықталып, ең жиі кездесетін ерекшеліктер белгіленеді. Бұл талдау жарнама мәтінін жан-жақты қарастырады. Зерттеу нәтижелері әсерлі ұрандар құрастыруға көмектесетін тиімді тілдік амалдарды түсінуге үлес қосады.

**Түйінді сөздер:** жарнама мәтіні, риторикалық тәсілдер, тілдік ерекшеліктер, жарнама корпусы.

## ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО РЕКЛАМНОГО ТЕКСТА

ҚАЗИ ВЕНЕРА ДУЛАТҚЫЗЫ

k\_venera@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

### Аннотация

В данной работе рассматриваются лингвистические особенности рекламного текста. Во-первых, выбраны 100 примеров слоганов различных компаний, чтобы определить общие черты для всего рекламного корпуса. Во-вторых, анализ делится на три отдельных уровня: фонологический, морфологический и синтаксический, а также семантический. Дальнейшее изучение каждого уровня делится на исследование риторических приемов и языковых особенностей. После анализа выявляется частотность, чтобы определить наиболее часто встречающиеся особенности. В результате анализа рекламный текст рассматривается целостно. Полученные результаты способствуют пониманию эффективных лингвистических манипуляций, которые могут помочь в создании более действенных слоганов.

**Ключевые слова:** рекламный текст, риторические приемы, лингвистические особенности,

рекламный корпус.

# LINGUISTIC PECULIARITIES OF AN ENGLISH ADVERTISING TEXT

KAZI VENERA DULATQYZY

k\_venera@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Abstract

This paper covers the linguistic peculiarities of the advertisement text. First, 100 examples of slogans from various companies are chosen to determine the common features across the whole advertising corpus. Second, the analysis is divided into three distinct levels: phonological level, morphological and syntactical level, and semantic level. The further examination of each level is divided into investigating rhetorical devices and linguistic features. After the analysis, the frequency is identified to determine the most common features. The analysis holistically views the advertisement text. The results contribute to the understanding of the efficient linguistic manipulations that can assist in crafting more impactful slogans.

**Keywords:** advertisement text, rhetorical devices, linguistic features, advertisement corpora.

## INTRODUCTION

This research aims to determine the linguistic peculiarities of the advertisement texts. To achieve the aim, the first step of the analysis is to retrieve the commercial slogans from the internet. Slogans from a range of well-known companies such as Kit Kat, Target, BMW, and Maybelline have been selected. The diverse selection of advertisement topics over focusing on a singular topic is intended to uncover common features across advertisements from various companies. Overall, 100 slogans are chosen for the analysis. The analysis is categorized into three levels: phonological level, morphological and syntactical level, and semantic level. Each level examines the rhetorical devices and linguistic features of the chosen advertisement corpora. The analysis reveals the common linguistic peculiarities and their frequency among the texts.

The novelty of the research lies in its holistic view of the advertising text. The broad scope of slogans from diverse companies allows one to capture a wide range of linguistic features. In addition, both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed, analyzing the nature of linguistic features and their frequency. The relevance of the study is its contribution to the marketing strategies. Studying the common and impactful linguistic features can help advertisers craft slogans that better resonate with the audience. Moreover, the current study contributes to the field of linguistics, examining how language functions in the commercial sphere. The analysis goes beyond the scope of literary and communicative corpora, providing valuable insights into advertisement language. Thus, the results of the research are beneficial to students of linguistics and marketing as well as to advertisers. The problem of the research lies in enhancing the effectiveness of the advertising slogans by investigating their linguistic features. By studying which features are the most effective, it can improve the persuasiveness

of the advertising messages. The remaining part of the paper proceeds as follows: literature review, methodology, findings, and discussion.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to achieve the aim of exploring the linguistic peculiarities of advertisement texts, the characteristics were categorized into two domains: rhetorical devices and linguistic features. It is further subdivided into three levels: phonological, morphological-syntactical, and semantic. McQuarrie and Phillips (2008) define the rhetorical device as an approach to artful language. According to Merriam-Webster (2024), an advertisement is “a paid notice that is published or broadcast as to attract customers or to provide information of public interest”.

### PHONOLOGICAL LEVEL

#### Rhetorical devices

The phonetic repetitions emerge as a predominant technique in the advertisement texts to emphasize specific lexical items. It encompasses the usage of alliteration, assonance, and anaphora (Yemelyanova & Melai, 2018). Alliteration is characterized by repeating initial consonants or syllables, and assonance, the repetition of vowel sounds in close words, functions to enhance the rhythm of the texts (Cuddon & Habib, 2013). Anaphora, featured by the repetition of entire words, further contributes to the persuasion and rhythmic quality (Cuddon & Habib, 2013). Additionally, rhyme is another pivotal rhetorical device which is frequently deployed in advertisement texts (Nasakina, 2021; Romanenko, 2014). Functioning as a magnifier, it enhances the memorability of the text (Nasakina, 2021). These rhetorical devices amplify not only the appeal of advertisement but also bolster the persuasive efficacy.

#### Linguistic features

In English advertising discourse, the notable trend is an imitation of colloquial speech

patterns. The pivotal feature is phonetic compression that entails contracting the auxiliary verbs, exemplified by the replacement of 'll for will and 're for are. This technique effectively replicates the features of everyday speech and optimizes the screen time of the advertisement (Yemelyanova & Melai, 2018).

## **MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL LEVEL**

### **Rhetorical devices**

One of the distinctive features observed within advertising texts is the utilization of rhetorical questions. It foregrounds a problem that the potential customer is impelled to resolve, motivates thinking and captivates the audience's attention (Galikhanova, 2020; Nasakina, 2021; Romanenko, 2014; Vai, 2006). Another rhetorical device is the ellipsis, characterized by the deliberate omission of words within a sentence (Cuddon & Habib, 2013). Ellipsis serves to mirror the colloquial speech and contributes to the concision of the advertising discourse (Romanenko, 2014).

### **Linguistic features**

One of the aims of advertisement texts is the creation of emotional resonance with the target audience. It is achieved through extensive utilization of adjectives, presenting the advertised object from a qualitative view (Savina, 2017; Vai, 2006). Notably, adjectives are frequently employed in comparative and superlative forms to underscore the superior features of the object (Romanenko, 2014; Savina, 2017). Within the realm of the advertising discourse, the majority of the verbs occur in the present form. The utilization of the present form characterizes the habitual events, emotional conditions, and explanations. In contrast, the usage of other tenses is comparatively limited; where the past form characterizes negative past experiences, the future tense marks an optimistic outlook and promises (Vai, 2006). Regarding sentence structure, simple sentences are used more frequently than multiple sentences and tend to be

elliptical (Arakelyan & Chobanyan, n.d.; Romanenko, 2014; Vai, 2006). According to communicative functions, the sentences are categorized into declarative, imperative, interrogative, and exclamative types. Of these, declarative and exclamative are the most prevalent, the usage of other types is highly limited (Romanenko, 2014; Savina, 2017; Vai, 2006). Furthermore, Romanenko (2014) highlights the distinct preference for monosyllabic and disyllabic words. The preference is attributed to the readability and faster comprehension of the discourse.

## **SEMANTIC LEVEL**

### **Rhetorical devices**

The advertising discourse is characterized by extensive use of rhetorical devices at the semantic level. Among these devices, personification characterizes lifeless objects with human qualities, thus making the object more attractive (Arakelyan & Chobanyan, n.d.; Romanenko, 2014; Vai, 2006). Cuddon and Habib (2013) define personification as the attribution of human features to inanimate entities. Another pivotal rhetorical is a simile, distinguished by the comparison of one object with another, employing connectives such as 'as' and 'like' (Cuddon & Habib, 2013). Similarly, another rhetorical device used for describing is a metaphor, which means the implicit comparison of one object to another (Cuddon & Habib, 2013). Lastly, antithesis presents contrasting ideas via antonyms and accentuates the distinctive features of the advertised object (Cuddon & Habib, 2013). This stylistic device adds dynamism to the text and highlights the superiority of the products.

### **Linguistic features**

Sternkopf (2005) posits that the usage of the pronoun 'you' in advertisement texts creates a direct connection with the audience and addresses every potential customer individually. The choice to address the customers personally fosters the persuasive effect of the text.

All in all, the linguistic strategies maximize

the overall appeal of the advertised products and influence consumer behaviour. This paper aims to further investigate the implementation of linguistic strategies in the English advertising discourse.

## METHODOLOGY

In order to determine the linguistic peculiarities and rhetorical devices of English advertising discourse, this study constructed a database of 100 advertisement slogans. The advertisement texts were curated through searches on various online engines. The created database predominantly features television commercials due to their pronounced utilization of rhetorical devices. Considering that television commercials have constrained screen time, it is compensated by the deployment of linguistic manipulations aimed at maximizing the appeal of the product. The corpus of advertisements includes a diverse range of products, including the commercial of automobiles, alcoholic and non-alcoholic beverages, tobacco products, food, and mobile technology.

In order to conduct the linguistic analysis of the advertisement texts the relevant slogans were systematically aggregated into a table. The comprehensive corpus of advertisement text with the analysis can be found below in the appendix table. The study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze the collected corpus of advertisements. The qualitative analysis enables to determination of the contextual nuances of the deployment of linguistic features and rhetorical devices, while the quantitative analysis permits to identification of the frequency of these linguistic manipulations. The slogans were analyzed by three aspects encompassing phonological level, morphological and syntactical level, and semantic level. Initially, each slogan underwent a meticulous evaluation for specific linguistic features and rhetorical devices, with the identified linguistic manipulations documented in the designated column. Subsequently,

the sentences were analysed at the morphological and syntactical level, wherein all identified linguistic features were diligently recorded in the corresponding column. Concluding this analytical process, the analysis focusing on the semantic level was conducted, with the findings similarly documented in the designated column. In order to identify the most frequently used linguistic manipulations in the advertising discourse, the linguistic features were analysed by their frequency. This analysis is instrumental in identifying the prevalence of these linguistic characteristics.

## FINDINGS

The analysis of the discourse of advertising across 100 distinct examples representing various products uncovered the patterns of usage of linguistic manipulations and their respective tendencies. The comprehensive analysis was methodically conducted at the phonological, morphological and syntactical, and semantic levels, exploring the rhetorical devices and linguistic features inherent at each level of analysis. The full table with the analysis can be found below in the appendix.

### PHONOLOGICAL LEVEL

#### Rhetorical devices

The analysis of the rhetorical devices at the phonological level started with the investigation of the phonetic repetitions. It was found that phonetic strategies are frequently used to enhance the memorability and efficacy of the slogans. For instance, the SKYY vodka commercial employs alliteration effectively: "Passion for Perfection Skyy" features alliteration with the sound /p/ to enrich the rhythm. Moreover, the consonant sounds /f/ are represented by «ss» in «passion» and «cti» in «perfection». Another example of alliteration is the slogan of the Washington Post – "Democracy dies in darkness". The alliteration counts 24% of the analysed text. Assonance, the repetition of the vowel sounds constitutes 25% of the text. The assonance is exemplified in the

slogan of Kentucky Fried Chicken, “Finger lickin’ good”, where the /i/ sound is repeated several times. The analysis further extends to anaphora, which means the repetition of words or phrases. The following slogan from the product Kit Kat contains anaphora with the repetition of the word “have” – “Have a break, have a Kit Kat.” Anaphora accounted for 9% of the analysis. Lastly, the rhyme was examined, which comprised 4% of the corpus. The slogan of the product Goldfish “The snack that smiles back”, deploys the rhyme aligning the words “snack” and “back”.

### Linguistic features

The slogans aim to mirror the colloquial speech; thus, phonetical compression emerges as a prevalent technique in advertisement corpora. The usage of the features constitutes approximately 15%. For instance, the slogan of American Express, “Don’t leave home without it”, employs a contracted form of “do not”. Similarly, in Wendy’s slogan, “Where’s the beef?” the words “where” and “is” are contracted into “where’s”.

## MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL LEVEL

### Rhetorical devices

The analysis of the rhetorical devices at the morphological and syntactical level encompasses two techniques – deployment of rhetorical questions and ellipsis. The rhetorical questions constitute 2% of the examined advertisement text. It is exemplified in the slogan of Gatorade, “Is it in you?”. Ellipsis more frequently occurs and counts 14% of the advertisement text. For instance, the slogan of Maxwell House Coffee, “Good to the last drop”, ellipses the beginning part “it is”.

### Linguistic features

First, the examination of linguistic features encompassed the investigation of the usage of adjectives in comparative and superlative forms. The analysis results in this paper demonstrate that the comparative form of

adjectives constitutes 7%, while superlative forms constitute 4%. Predominantly, the advertisements employ verbs more frequently within the slogans. Next, the advertising corpora were analysed for tense. The present tense is predominantly used, constituting 76% of the text, while past and future tense represent merely 1%. It was observed that 23% of the slogans are not marked by tense, which can be attributed to the types of sentences of slogans; simple sentences comprise 73%, and multiple sentences and phrases account for 6% and 22%, respectively. Almost a fourth of the slogans are not marked by tense due to them carrying the features of phrases, not sentences. In the final part of the sentence, the slogans were categorized by communicative functions into declarative, imperative, interrogative, and exclamative types. The results of this paper identified imperative (30%) and declarative (65%) types as prevalent. Interrogative type of sentences comprise 4% and exclamative – 2%. In addition, all the slogans contain an extensive usage of mono and disyllabic words, as in John Deere’s slogan, “Nothing runs like a Deere.”

## SEMANTIC LEVEL

### Rhetorical devices

The analysis of rhetorical devices at the semantic level includes a detailed examination of personification, simile, metaphor, and antithesis. Personification accounts for 17% of occurrences in the advertising text. For example, in Citibank’s slogan, “The Citi never sleeps”, the concept of ‘sleep’ is attributed to the city to emphasize the bank’s non-stop operations. Another example of personification is in Allstate’s slogan, “You’re in good hands”, where the company is compared to the human ability of giving care and holding in its hands. The usage of metaphor constitutes 29%. For instance, in the slogan of Mrs. Field’s Cookie, “The way to a man’s heart is through his stomach”, the journey to the heart through the stomach depicts the emotional connection via food. Another example of metaphor is presented in Red

Bull's slogan, "Red Bull gives you wings", where drinking Red Bull is compared to freedom as if one had wings. Moreover, the antithesis counts for 8%, with the example found in Target's slogan, "Expect more. Pay less." Lastly, simile counts for 3% of the analysed text. For example, in the slogan of Jaguar, "Own a Jaguar at the price of a car", "at" is used to imply the comparison between owning the car and the luxury.

### Linguistic features

The analysis of linguistic features at the semantic level includes the extensive usage of the pronoun *you*. The findings indicate that the pronoun "you" accounts for 14% of occurrences. For instance, in L'Oréal's slogan, "Because you're worth it" the pronoun *you* is used to directly address the audience.

Conclusively, the advertisement texts were analyzed at three different levels and indicated the frequency of certain techniques and their purposes.

## DISCUSSION

The results of this paper align with the previous research, particularly with the notion that advertising relies on artful manipulation of language (McQuarrie & Phillips, 2008). Most striking findings was prevalence of phonetic repetition—specifically alliteration and assonance. It aligns with Yemelyanova and Melai's (2018) claim that alliteration and assonance are prevalent in advertising text. For example, the reoccurring consonant sounds /f/ and /p/ in the SKYY vodka's slogan, "Passion for Perfection Skyy" reflects Cuddon and Habib's (2013) description rhythmic feature in alliteration. Additionally, the rhetorical device of assonance is also used to amplify the rhythm of the slogan, as in Kentucky Fried Chicken's slogan, "Finger lickin' good", through the repetitive sound /i/. In the case of the Kit Kat commercial that used anaphora, the repetition of whole words or phrases. The repetition of the word "have" forges an association between the product and the

idea of taking a break, as articulated in the slogan "Have a break, have a Kit Kat." It contributes to the persuasion of the slogan, as discussed in Cuddon and Habib (2013). While Nasakina (2021) and Romanenko (2014) have noted the importance of rhyme, the current results revealed that rhyme is less commonly used as a method of linguistic manipulation. It may indicate a possible shift in the preferences in the modern advertising. Finally, phonetical compression is frequently used because enhances the readability and creates a more casual tone, which is consistent with the findings of Yemelyanova and Melai (2018).

At the morphological-syntactical level, the study identifies the frequent usage of ellipses. This result is in line with the previous study of Romanenko (2014), who indicated that it can enhance readability of the advertising text. However, contrary to Romanenko (2014) and Savina (2017), the superlative and comparative forms are not extensively used in the examined advertising corpora. It can be attributed to the prevalence of verbs rather than adjectives in the slogans. Consistent with Vai (2006), the results confirm that the majority of the slogans deploy present tense. Notably, a substantial part of the slogans is not marked for tense because they consist of phrases. This insight may expand on Arakelyan and Chobanyan's (n.d.) discussion of elliptical sentence structures. However, there is a discrepancy in the frequency of sentences by communicative categorization compared to Romanenko's (2014) findings. The prior studies have shown that the declarative and exclamative types prevail, while the findings of this paper show that declarative and imperative types prevail. This may suggest a shift towards more directive messages.

On the semantic level, this study reaffirms that personification and metaphor are commonly used rhetorical devices in advertisement corpora (Arakelyan & Chobanyan, n.d.; Cuddon & Habib, 2013). For example, the slogan of the Citibank's "The

Citi never sleeps”, creates an impression of non-stop work of the company. Metaphor, on the other hand, facilitates creative and implicit comparisons. For instance, the slogan of Mrs. Field’s Cookie, “The way to a man’s heart is through his stomach”, which compares culinary pleasure with emotional affection. This study has been unable to demonstrate that simile and antithesis are frequently used rhetorical devices, contradicting with Cuddon and Habib’s (2013) results. A simile is utilized less often than a metaphor. A possible explanation for this might be that metaphor creates more dynamic and engaging comparisons, while simile typically makes comparisons using the words “like” or “as”. Finally, the common usage of the pronoun “you” supports Sternkopf’s (2005) view that it is used to establish direct contact with the audience and elevate the communicative impact of the slogan.

In sum, the study revealed alignments with the widespread use of present tense, monosyllabic and disyllabic words, and personification. Contradictions appear in the less frequent use of superlative form of adjective and similes. Moreover, the present study highlights the increased role of phonetical compression and imperative sentences. This paper examined the limited number of rhetorical devices. Additional research is needed to entail other rhetorical devices at the phonological, morphological and syntactical, and semantic levels. Moreover, this study examined the slogans from a broad spectrum of commercials; thus, further research might need to examine the linguistic features of specific types of commercials. Overall, this study investigated the linguistic features deployed in the advertising texts.

## CONCLUSION

The current research aimed to examine the linguistic features of the advertisement text and to identify the most prevalent features. For the analysis, 100 examples of the broad scope of companies were selected. The

advertising corpus, which includes slogans from various industries, aids in determining effective linguistic features prevalent across advertisements. The analysis was divided into three levels: phonological, morphological and syntactical, and semantic levels. As mentioned in the literature review, the most common rhetorical devices at the phonological level include alliteration, assonance, anaphora, and rhyme. These enhance the memorability and the rhythm of the slogans. A crucial linguistic feature at the same phonological level, phonetic compression, ensures readability and a colloquial tone of the messaging. Prior studies have noted the importance of rhetorical questions and ellipses as rhetorical devices at the morphological and syntactical levels. Regarding linguistic features, there was a significant use of comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, present tense, simple sentences, declarative and exclamative structures, and monosyllabic and disyllabic words. At the semantic level, rhetorical devices such as personification, simile, metaphor, and antithesis were commonly found in advertisement texts. Similarly, at this level, there was a notable usage of the pronoun “you”.

The prevalence of phonetic repetition and compression is clearly supported by the current findings. However, this study has been unable to demonstrate the prevalence of rhyme in advertisement texts. Moreover, at the morphological level, it was found that both rhetorical devices and ellipses are used to enhance the persuasiveness of the advertising message. Since the verbs prevailed in the analysis of the advertising corpora, there was no extensive use of comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. The results confirm that the prevalent linguistic features are present tense, simple sentences, and monosyllabic and disyllabic words. In contrast to the literature review, it was found that declarative and imperative types of sentences are more common. Finally, it was confirmed that personification, metaphor, and extensive usage of the pronoun “you” are frequently

used features, while simile and antithesis tend to be less frequent. The study contributes to our understanding of effective linguistic devices that can be used to make more impactful advertising slogans.

## REFERENCES

- Arakelyan, R., & Chobanyan, N. (n.d.). The language of online advertisement.
- Advertisement Definition & Meaning. (2024, April 14). Merriam-Webster.
- Cuddon, J. A., & Habib, R. (2013). *A Dictionary of literary terms and literary theory* (5 ed). Wiley Blackwell.
- Galikhanova, F. U., Davletbaeva, D. N., & Mürseloğlu, R. (2020). Linguopragmatic aspect of syntactic stylistic devices used in advertising tests. *Eurasian Union Scientists*, 8(77), 38–42. <https://doi.org/10.31618/ESU.2413-9335.2020.2.77.970>
- McQuarrie, E. F., & Phillips, B. J. (2008). *Go Figure! New Directions in Advertising Rhetoric*. M.E. Sharpe. <https://books.google.ru/books?id=Kgbop325kA0C>
- Nasakina S. V. (2021). Peculiarities of the English-language books advertising online. *Suchasna Filolohichna Nauka: Aktual'ni Pytannya ta Vektory Rozvytku*, 80(312), 133-157. <https://doi.org/10.36059/978-966-397-242-8-6>
- Romanenko, E. (2014). *Linguistic Analysis of On-line Advertising in English*. Charles University in Prague Faculty of Education Department of English Language and Literature.
- Savina, N. A. (2017). Sociolinguistic peculiarities of advertisement language. *Russian Linguistic Bulletin*, 1(9). <https://doi.org/10.18454/RULB.9.24>
- Sternkopf, S.M. (2005). *English in marketing*. Berlin: Frank & Timme.
- Yemelyanova, O., & Melai, A. (2018). Peculiarities of phonostylistic devices usage in English advertising discourse. *Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine Volodymyr Vynnychenko Central Ukrainian State Pedagogical University*, (164), 333-336



УДК (UDC) 811.111

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201 \_ 2025 \_ 9 \_ 54

## ОҢТҮСТІК АМЕРИКАЛЫҚ ДИАЛЕКТІНІҢ ЕРЕКШЕЛІКТЕРІ

ҚАЗИ ВЕНЕРА ДУЛАТҚЫЗЫ

k\_venera@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

### Аннотация

Бұл мақалада қазіргі контексте Оңтүстік америкалық диалектінің қолданылу жиілігі зерттеледі. Талдау үшін Луизианада түсірілген “True Detective” америкалық телехикаясы таңдалды. Талдау нәтижелері кестеге жинақталып, келесі санаттарға бөлінді: “/e/ және /ɪ/ дыбыстарының бірігуі”, “/aɪ/ дифтонгының монофтонгизациясы”, “Оңтүстікке тән созылыңқы сөйлеу (Southern drawl)”, “дауыссыздан кейінгі /r/ дыбысының түсіп қалуы”, “екпінсіз мұрын дыбысы /ŋ/”, “/d/ қатаң дауыссыз дыбысының түсіп қалуы”, “/h/ үйкелмелі дауыссыз дыбысының түсіп қалуы”, “/ð/ үйкелмелі дауыссыз дыбысының түсіп қалуы”. Зерттеу нәтижелері фонетикалық өзгерістер мен диалектінің медиадағы көрінісін түсінуге үлес қосады.

**Түйінді сөздер:** Оңтүстік америкалық диалект, оңтүстік дауысты дыбыстардың ығысуы, фонетикалық өзгеріс.

# ОСОБЕННОСТИ ЮЖНОАМЕРИКАНСКОГО ДИАЛЕКТА

ҚАЗИ ВЕНЕРА ДУЛАТҚЫЗЫ

k\_venera@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Аннотация

В данной статье рассматривается частотность южноамериканского диалекта в современном контексте. Для анализа был выбран американский сериал “Настоящий детектив”, действие которого происходит в Луизиане. Результаты анализа были сведены в таблицу и разделены на следующие категории: “слияние /e/ и /ɪ/”, “монофтонгизация /aɪ/”, “южный говор”, “потеря поствокального /r/”, “неударный носовой звук /ŋ/”, “опускание пловивного /d/”, “опускание фрикативного /h/”, “опускание фрикативного /ð/”. Результаты анализа способствуют пониманию фонетических изменений и медиарепрезентации диалекта.

**Ключевые слова:** Южноамериканский диалект, южный сдвиг гласных, фонетические изменения.

# FEATURES OF THE SOUTHERN AMERICAN DIALECT

KAZI VENERA DULATQYZY

k\_venera@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Abstract

This paper examines the frequency of the Southern American dialect in the modern context. An American series, “True Detective”, was chosen for the analysis because it was set in Louisiana. The results of the analysis were gathered in the table and divided into following categories: “merge of /e/ and /ɪ/”, “monophthongization of /aɪ/”, “Southern drawl”, “loss of postvocalic /r/”, “unstressed nasal sound /ŋ/”, “dropping of the plosive /d/”, “dropping of the fricative /h/”, “Dropping of the fricative /ð/”. The results of the analysis contribute to the understanding of phonetical change and media representation of the dialect.

**Keywords:** Southern American dialect, Southern Vowel Shift, phonetic change.

## INTRODUCTION

Southern American dialect has been an object of research since the 20th century and is still in the interest of linguistic researchers. It embodies the culture and history of the Southern area, capturing the influence of British settlers and African-American Vernacular English (Montgomery, n.d.). Therefore, investigating this dialect can contribute to the fields of linguistics and anthropology. However, recent studies indicate that the Southern American dialect is undergoing a linguistic change and started losing some of its features to a certain extent. The aim of this research is to examine if certain dialectal characteristics are becoming less frequent in modern representation. The relevancy of the research is its contribution to the ongoing documentation of the Southern American dialect, demonstrating how it has changed throughout time. Moreover, it highlights how television portrays the dialects in the media, which can further contribute to the fields of linguistics and media. The novelty of the research includes a focus on a modern media representation with a choice of the series "True Detective" that was not extensively analysed on a linguistic level.

This study employs a qualitative descriptive design to investigate the phonological and phonetic features of the Southern American dialect represented in the series "True Detective". The first episode "The Long Bright Dark" was chosen as a representative sample of the series. The analysis was conducted line-by-line with the episode and its script. This paper has been divided into four parts: literature review, methodology, findings and discussion.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Southern American English exists in a vast area of the Southern part of the United States, stretching from Texas to Virginia (Stanley et al., 2021). It has been extensively studied since the 20th century within the articulatory, acoustic, and

auditory areas of phonetics. Much of the literature paid particular attention to the features of the dialect that make it different from the other existing American dialects. However, previous research established that Southern American English cannot be represented as a single uniform dialect; it has linguistically diverse features that depend on both geographical aspects and social, such as age, gender, and ethnical affiliation (Shport & Herd, 2020). The existing literature revealed that over time, Southern American English changes particularly in the vowel system on a gradual level (Allen Fox et al., 2010; Nagle & Sanders, 2003; Prichard, 2010). Nevertheless, the researchers identified one distinguishing feature of the Southern American English – Southern Vowel Shift.

William Labov was one of the prominent figures who contributed to exploring vowel shifting. In 1972 a seminal work was published by Labov et al. entitled to the vowel shifting based on the seventeen interviews, where it was found that the direction of the shift was the exact opposite to the Northern American English. In later years, Labov (1991, 1994) expanded on the topic, investigating the phenomena within different social and age groups. He identified the merger of the vowel phonemes /e/ and /ɪ/ before nasal consonants; therefore, the words "him" and "hem" are articulated similarly. Moreover, another distinctive feature is the monophthongization of /aɪ/ into [a:]. For that reason, the words "wide" can be pronounced as [wa:d]. This feature was distinguished throughout the investigation of American dialects (Bailey & Bernstein, 1989; Thomas, 1989; Wise, 1933). Another feature of Southern vowel shift explored by Labov (1991, 1994) is Southern drawl or Southern vowel breaking. The phenomena affect the short vowels /ɪ/, /ɛ/, and /a/, which develop a glide /j/ with the addition of /ə/ vowel at the end. Thus, the words "pass", "pet", and "pit" can be pronounced as [pæjəs], [pɛjət], and [pijət] respectively. A similar feature was described long ago by Wise (1933) where he distinguished the

articulation of the short vowel /a/ as /æ/, so the word “can’t” could be pronounced as [kaent] by Southern speakers. Although it was not labelled as a Southern vowel shift at the time of publication, it indicates that the Southern drawl was mentioned by researchers in the mid-nineteenth century. However, recent research indicated that the Southern drawl and Southern Vowel Shift might be disappearing (Chung, 2020; Shport & Herd, 2020). Finally, another feature which is concerned with the consonant is the loss of postvocalic /r/. The consonant phoneme /r/ if it is in the final position or preceded by a vowel and followed by a consonant, is not pronounced. For instance, the words “car”, “hard” or “farm” are pronounced as [ka:], [ha:d], and [fa:m] (Bailey & Bernstein, 1989; Kurath, 1928; Nagle & Sanders, 2003; Wise, 1933). Collectively, these studies indicate one of the major features of Southern American English that distinguish it from the other American dialects in the United States.

Other characteristics of the Southern dialect were explored in more recent years with the usage of modern literature and cinema. The Southern dialect used by the main characters of the movie “Gone Girl” was analysed by Wulandari (2018) and the novel “Go Set a Watchman” was analysed by Deputatova et al. (2019). Both works highlighted aspects of the Southern dialect: the reduction of /ŋ/ and the dropping of the phonemes /d/, /h/, and /ð/. The reduction of /ŋ/ is noticed in the -ing ending of the verbs, as in the words “swimmin’” and “commin’”. Furthermore, the words “don’t” and “and” were pronounced as [əunt] and [æŋ] without the phoneme /d/; the sound /h/ was omitted in the words such as “how and “horror”; and the sound /ð/ was frequently omitted in the words “them”, “there”, and “that”. Overall, these studies highlight the distinctive features of contemporary Southern American English found in the speech of the present time.

## METHODOLOGY

The present study uses qualitative descriptive design to identify and analyze the patterns of Southern American English in the series “True Detective”. The series was chosen because it was set in Louisiana, and the characters starring Matthew McConaughey and Woody Harrelson have the Southern dialect. The descriptive approach allows a detailed phonetic analysis of the Southern dialect within the context of the series. The first episode, “The Long Bright Dark”, was chosen as a representative sample because all the episodes consistently represent the dialect throughout the series.

The data collection began by locating the series on the official website of HBO and the script on the website of the music encyclopedia Genius (Genius, n.d.; HBO, n.d.). To ensure accuracy, the dialogues in the episode and the script were checked line-by-line. The identified Southern American English features were noted with the time stamps and transcription in a table. The research focuses on the Southern Vowel shift, specifically the merge of /e/ and /ɪ/ before nasal consonants, monophthongization of /aɪ/, Southern drawl, loss of postvocalic /r/, and consonant reduction featured in the dialect. The table in the appendix includes the features and their examples.

## FINDINGS

The table provides the results of the analysis of Southern American dialect in the first episode “The Long Bright Dark”. The table was divided into 8 categories – “merger of /e/ and /ɪ/”, “monophthongization of /aɪ/”, “Southern drawl”, “loss of postvocalic r”, “unstressed nasal sound /ŋ/”, “dropping of the plosive /d/”, “dropping of the fricative /h/”, and “dropping of the fricative /ð/”. Words that carry the features of the dialect are highlighted in bold and italics in the table for better understanding.

### SOUTHERN VOWEL SHIFT

Three sentences with the merger of /e/ and /ɪ/ were found and comprise 3% of the dialectal features in the episode. For instance, in the sentence “Lotta guys leave the job, cemetery within ten”, the word “ten” was pronounced between /ten/ and /tɪn/. Next, monophthongization of /aɪ/ was produced more often in the episode and count to 18%. The feature can be traced in the following examples: “I tell myself I bear witness” and “Your dime, boss”, where the words /maɪ'self/ and /daɪm/ lost the glide and were pronounced as [ma:sɛlf] and [da:m]. The analysis further extends to the Southern drawl, where only one example was found in the episode and constitutes 1%. In the following sentence, “All that you can spare for a canvas”, the verb /kæɪn/ obtained a glide and the pronunciation was near to [kæjən]. Finally, the loss of postvocalic /r/ was more predominant in the speech of characters and comprises 18%, as exemplified in the sentence “They moved after” with [ɑ:ftə].

### CONSONANT REDUCTION

The unstressed nasal sound /ŋ/ appears frequently in the speech in the episode and counts for 31%. The characters pronounced the ending /ɪŋ/ as /in/, and the feature is traced substantially in verbs ending with -ing. For example, in the next utterance “Today, what we're into now, do me a courtesy ok, I'm not trying to convert you”, the word “trying” was pronounced as [traɪn]. Moreover, the feature was identified in nouns, such as in “This is, this is a real thing” with “thing” articulated as [θɪn]. Furthermore, the dropping of the plosive /d/ constitutes 14%. It can be seen in the utterances such as “Who found her?”, “And the horns are deer antlers”, and “Check around on our DB” with the words “found”, “and”, and “around” pronounced as [faʊn], [ən], [əraʊn], respectively. Next feature, dropping of the fricative /h/ counts for 10% and is predominant in the pronouns “him”, “her”, and “here”. For instance, the utterance “Not a print on her”, “You're gonna meet him”, “I got a bad taste in my mouth right

here” have the words “her”, “him”, and “here” articulated as [ɜ:r], [ɪm], and [ɪər]. Lastly, the dropping of fricative /ð/ was detected only in the pronoun “them” and constitutes 6%. Therefore, the sentences the word “them” was pronounced as [em] in such sentences as “Two of them” and “Keep them busy”.

In summary, these results suggest that the above-mentioned features exist in the modern speech of Southern Americans to a certain extent.

### DISCUSSION

The analysis demonstrated that the speech of characters in the series “True Detective” carries features of the Southern American dialect. It is caused by the geographical area because the series was set in Louisiana state in the South of the USA. As mentioned in the literature review, the Southern dialect is distinct with Southern Vowel Shift and reduction of /ŋ/ and dropping of the phonemes /d/, /h/, and /ð/ (Labov, 1994; Shport & Herd, 2020; Wulandari, 2018). This study found that the features are still present in the speech; however, some features are getting less frequent, specifically the merger of /e/ and /ɪ/ and Southern drawl. The percentage share of these two features is considerably lower: merger – 3% and drawl – 1%. It can align with the findings of Chung (2020) and Shport and Herd (2020) who noted that dialectal features were getting less frequent in speech.

Another distinct feature found in the analysis was monophthongization of /aɪ/ (18%) and the loss of postvocalic /r/ (18%), which supports the findings of Bailey and Bernstein (1989), Thomas (1989), and Wise (1933). The current study reaffirms that these features are still present in the modern Southern American speech. Furthermore, the frequent reduction of the nasal sound /ŋ/ (31%) supports Wulandari's (2018) findings on the consonant decrease of the speeches in the movies. The omission of /d/, /h/, and /ð/ also aligns with Deputatova

et al. (2019), further supporting that these are the features of Southern American English in informal settings.

Another interesting finding is that the speech of the characters differed in accordance with their geographical and social affiliation. When the main characters visited a suburban area, they interacted with the local working class. Notably, the speech of the working class featured dialectal characteristics stronger than in the speech of the main character, a detective in the Louisiana State Police. Moreover, during official events, such as public speeches and conferences, the speech was clear and carried almost no dialectal features. These results support the idea of Shport and Herd (2020) that the Southern dialect is diverse and depends on geographical and social factors. Nevertheless, it is possible that the results may not represent the features on a wide scale across the Louisiana state, because the series consists mostly of the speech of two male detectives from urban areas and only one episode was analysed. Further research is needed to examine the speech of people of other geographical and social groups for a better representation.

Overall, the findings indicate that dialectal features are present in speech, although some might be dwindling in their frequency.

## CONCLUSION

This study set out to determine if the Southern American dialect is undergoing linguistic changes, specifically the loss of certain features in the modern context. According to the existing literature, the Southern dialect has a unique feature Southern Vowel Shift. Labov was one of the prominent researchers who investigated this phenomenon and examined the characteristics such as the merger of the vowel phonemes /e/ and /ɪ/, monophthongization of /aɪ/, Southern drawl, and loss of postvocalic /r/. More recent research indicated the reduction of /ŋ/ and the dropping of the phonemes /d/, /h/, and /ð/.

The analysis of dialectal features in the series “True Detective” identified that the merger of /e/ and /ɪ/ and Southern drawl are slowly disappearing from modern speech, supporting the previous research findings on phonetic changes. Moreover, the results further confirmed that the Southern dialect changes by geographical and social factors. Further research is needed to explore how the Southern dialect changes across different social groups. In summary, this study found that the merger of /e/ and /ɪ/ and the Southern drawl are becoming less frequent in modern speech and indicate the ongoing phonetical change of the dialect.

## REFERENCES

- Allen Fox, R., Jacewicz, E., & Salmons, J. (2010). Cross-generational vowel change in Southern American English. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 128(4).
- Bailey, G., & Bernstein, C. (1989). Methodology of a phonological survey of Texas. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 22(1), 6–12. <https://doi.org/10.1177/007542428902200103>
- Chung, H. (2020). Vowel acoustic characteristics of Southern American English variation in Louisiana. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 147(1), 541–553. <https://doi.org/10.1121/10.0000505>
- Deputatova, N. A., Sabirova, D. R., Shangaraeva, L. F., Sabirova, A. N., & Akimova, O. V. (2019). Extra-linguistic features of the Southern dialect of American English in the novel of Harper Lee “Go Set a Watchman”. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 9(3), 117–

124. <https://doi.org/10.2478/jesr-2019-0029>

Genius. (n.d.). True Detective – The Long Bright Dark Script. Genius.

HBO. (n.d.). True Detective | Official website for the HBO series. HBO.

Kurath, H. (1928). The origin of the dialectal differences in spoken American English. *Modern Philology*, 25(4), 385–395. <https://doi.org/10.1086/387724>

Labov, W. (1991). The three dialects of English. In P. Eckert (Ed.), *New ways of analyzing sound change*. Academic Press.

Labov, W. (1994). *Principles of linguistic change: Vol. 1. Internal factors*. Blackwell.

Labov, W., Yaeger, M., & Steiner, R. C. (1972). *A quantitative study of sound change in progress*. University of Pennsylvania.

Montgomery, M. (n.d.). 1. *The history of American English*.

Nagle, S. J., & Sanders, S. L. (Eds.). (2003). *English in the Southern United States*. Cambridge University Press.

Prichard, H. (2010). Linguistic variation and change in Atlanta, Georgia. *University of Pennsylvania Working Papers in Linguistics*, 16(2), 141–149.

Shport, I., & Herd, W. (2020). Introduction to the special issue on English in the Southern United States: Social factors and language variation. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 147(1), 525–528. <https://doi.org/10.1121/10.0000606>

Stanley, J. A., Renwick, M. E. L., Kuiper, K. I., & Olsen, R. M. (2021). Back vowel dynamics and distinctions in Southern American English. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 49(4), 389–418. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00754242211043163>

Thomas, E. R. (1989). Vowel changes in Columbus, Ohio. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 22(2), 205–215. <https://doi.org/10.1177/007542428902200204>

Wise, C. M. (1933). Southern American dialect. *American Speech*, 8(2), 37–50. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3181859>

Wulandari, N. F. (2018). *American Southern dialect used by the main characters in “Gone Girl” movie (Publication No. A73214052) [Thesis, State Islamic University of Sunan Ampel Surabaya]*.

# SECTION 02

LIBERAL  
ARTS DIGEST



# TRANSLATION & TRANSLATION STUDIES

АУДАРМА ЖӘНЕ АУДАРМАТАНУ  
ПЕРЕВОД И ПЕРЕВОДОВЕДЕНИЕ



УДК (UDC) 81-26

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201\_2025\_9\_62

# LINGUA LABOR: АУДАРМАШЫЛАР МЕН СИНХРОНДЫ АУДАРМАШЫЛАРДЫҢ ЖҰМЫСҚА ҚАНАҒАТТАНУЫ ЖӨНІНДЕГІ ЗЕРТТЕУЛЕРГЕ ШОЛУ

СЕРГЕЙ Поддубный

s\_poddybnyy@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Аңдатпа

Жұмысқа қанағаттану жазбаша және ауызша аудармашылардың кәсіби тұрақтылығына, мотивациясына және тиімділігіне әсер ететін негізгі фактор болып табылады. Осы тақырып бойынша эмпирикалық зерттеулердің көптігіне қарамастан, алынған мәліметтер географиялық, кәсіби және әдіснамалық тәсілдер бойынша әр түрлі болып қалып отыр. Осы әдеби шолуда аударма және ауызша аударма саласындағы мамандардың жұмысына қанағаттануға арналған 1999-2023 жылдар аралығында жарияланған он алты эмпирикалық зерттеулердің нәтижелері жинақталған. Шолу ішкі мотивациялық аспектілерді (автономия, кәсіби сәйкестік, эмоционалды қанағаттану), сондай-ақ сыртқы жағдайларды (табыс деңгейі, жұмыс режимі, тұтынушылармен өзара әрекеттесу) және де технологиялық өзгерістер мен кәсіби көрінбеушілікке байланысты стресс факторларын қамтиды. Тіл мамандары көбінесе жұмыстағы тәуелсіздік пен мойындалудан ләззат алатыны анықталды. Сонымен қатар, еңбек жағдайының тұрақсыздығы, төмен жалақы және де институционалдық қолдаудың, әсіресе фрилансерлер арасында болмауы қанағаттанбаудың негізгі себептері болып табылады. Бірқатар зерттеулерде теориялық және географиялық олқылықтар, атап айтқанда, Қазақстанды қоса алғанда, посткеңестік кеңістікке жеткіліксіз көңіл бөлінгені анықталды. Бұл шолу саладағы негізгі теориялық тәсілдерді саралап, өзекті мәселелерді көрсетіп, болашақ зерттеу мен тәжірибеге бағыт береді.

Түйінді сөздер: аудармашылардың жұмысқа қанағаттануы, ауызша аудармашылардың әл-ауқаты, кәсіби күйзеліс, аударма мамандығы, эмоциялық қажу, ішкі мотивациялық факторлар, сыртқы жағдайлар, әдеби шолу.

# LINGUA LABOR: ОБЗОР ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ УДОВЛЕТВОРЁННОСТИ ТРУДОМ ПЕРЕВОДЧИКОВ И УСТНЫХ ПЕРЕВОДЧИКОВ

СЕРГЕЙ Поддубный

s\_poddybnyy@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## **Аннотация**

Удовлетворенность работой является ключевым фактором, влияющим на профессиональную устойчивость, мотивацию и эффективность письменных и устных переводчиков. Несмотря на увеличение числа эмпирических исследований по этой теме, полученные данные остаются разрозненными по географическому, профессиональному признаку и по методологическим подходам. В данном литературном обзоре обобщены результаты шестнадцати эмпирических исследований, опубликованных в период с 1999 по 2023 год, посвящённых удовлетворенности работой специалистов в области перевода и устного перевода. Обзор охватывает как внутренние мотивационные аспекты (автономия, профессиональная идентичность, эмоциональное удовлетворение), так и внешние условия (уровень дохода, режим работы, взаимодействие с заказчиками), а также стрессовые факторы, связанные с технологическими изменениями и профессиональной невидимостью. Обнаружено, что наибольшее удовлетворение специалисты получают от автономии, признания и вовлеченности в языковую деятельность. В то же время основные причины неудовлетворенности связаны с нестабильными условиями труда, низкой оплатой и отсутствием институциональной поддержки, особенно среди фрилансеров. В ряде исследований выявлены теоретические и географические пробелы, в частности, недостаточное внимание к постсоветскому пространству, включая Казахстан. Настоящий обзор предлагает систематизацию существующих подходов, освещает основные проблемы и обозначает направления дальнейших исследований и практических решений в этой области.

**Ключевые слова:** удовлетворённость переводчиков работой, благополучие устных переводчиков, профессиональный стресс, профессия переводчика, эмоциональное выгорание, внутренняя мотивация, внешние условия, обзор литературы.

# LINGUA LABOR: A REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH ON TRANSLATOR AND INTERPRETER JOB SATISFACTION

SERGEY PODDUBNYI

s\_poddybnyy@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Abstract

Job satisfaction is a crucial factor influencing professional longevity, motivation, and performance in the fields of translation and interpreting. While the number of empirical studies on this topic has increased, findings remain dispersed across national, occupational, and methodological contexts. This literature review synthesizes results from sixteen empirical studies published between 1999 and 2023 that examine translators' and interpreters' job satisfaction. The review focuses on both intrinsic motivators (e.g., autonomy, identity, emotional fulfillment) and extrinsic conditions (e.g., income, working hours, client relationships), as well as emerging stressors related to technological change and professional invisibility. The findings suggest that translators and interpreters derive satisfaction primarily from professional autonomy, recognition, and meaningful engagement with language work. Conversely, dissatisfaction is commonly linked to structural instability, low compensation, and lack of institutional support, particularly among freelancers. The review also identifies several theoretical and geographical gaps in the existing literature, including limited coverage of post-Soviet contexts such as Kazakhstan. Few studies explore longitudinal patterns or focus on the cumulative emotional demands of the profession over time. This review contributes to the field by mapping key conceptual approaches, identifying recurring challenges, and outlining future directions for research, practice, and policy aimed at improving the well-being and sustainability of language professionals.

**Keywords:** translator job satisfaction, interpreter well-being, occupational stress, translation profession, burnout, intrinsic motivators, extrinsic conditions, literature review.

## INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction (JS) is a vital area of research, comprising factors that affect employees' emotional and professional well-being. Translators and interpreters, as unique professionals bridging linguistic, cultural, and organizational gaps, are faced with distinct challenges and rewards. This article is an endeavour to synthesize findings from a range of studies to explore the factors influencing JS among translators and interpreters worldwide and the reasons why these specialists stay in their vocation, with an additional focus on those working in Kazakhstan. The review commences with an outline of the main theories employed by the researchers active in this field; then, it proceeds with an attempt to analyze the scientific work performed in the realm of investigating JS among translators and/or interpreters internationally, principally during the 2000s, with the greater part of the studies emerging in 2010s. In conclusion, I tried to summarize the state of affairs in this domain in the Kazakh academic setting.

### THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

JS, defined by Locke (1976) as a "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences," has been extensively studied across various disciplines. In order to enhance the understanding of the research present in this sphere, exploration of the theories underpinning this research would be beneficial.

The first two somewhat similar foundational models for job-satisfaction research under review are Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) and the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti et al., 2001) created by Arnold Bakker and Evangelia Demerouti in the early 2000s. Although both of them are widely used in organizational psychology to explore the construct of employee well-being, JS, and performance, there is a clear difference between them. The former distinguishes between motivators (intrinsic factors that

increase satisfaction, e.g., achievement, recognition) and hygiene factors (extrinsic factors that prevent dissatisfaction, e.g., salary, policies) and views satisfaction and dissatisfaction as separate dimensions rather than opposites and emphasizes job content (motivators) and job context (hygiene factors) in determining satisfaction. The latter, the JD-R model, focuses on the balance between job demands (physical, psychological, or emotional effort required) and job resources (aspects that help achieve work goals or reduce demands, e.g., autonomy and support); it explains burnout (when demands exceed resources) and engagement (when resources are high), and is dynamic: showing how demands and resources interact over time to impact well-being and performance. Herzberg's theory is practical for identifying job design changes to increase satisfaction, and is best for analyzing satisfaction through specific intrinsic and extrinsic factors, while the JD-R model focuses on both negative outcomes (burnout, disengagement) and positive outcomes (engagement, thriving), and is ideal for dynamic, complex work environments, where demands and resources fluctuate.

Yet another theoretical framework utilized by researchers in the field of JS is the theory of French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (1986), who introduced a theory of capital as a multidimensional concept that goes beyond economic wealth. He identified four main types of capital: 1) economic capital, tangible assets like money, property, and financial resources; 2) cultural capital, non-material assets, such as education, skills, tastes, and knowledge that provide social mobility; 3) social capital: networks and relationships that provide resources, support, and influence; 4) symbolic capital, recognition, prestige, and social status (often tied to the other three forms of capital). Bourdieu argued that these forms of capital operate within fields (structured social spaces like workplaces or industries) where individuals compete for power and resources. The accumulation and conversion of capital

influence social positioning and success.

Herzberg's and Bourdieu's frameworks complement each other in capturing the nuanced dimensions of translators' JS. While Herzberg's theory effectively categorizes the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, Bourdieu's theory provides a sociocultural lens to understand how external factors like professional recognition and societal value influence well-being. For example, intrinsic motivators like pride and task variety, discussed in Herzberg's model, are amplified by cultural and social capital, as seen in the Bourdieusian framework.

Translators' unique work environments demand a tailored examination of these frameworks, considering autonomy, linguistic creativity, and technological influences (Ruokonen et al., 2020; Andrade & Westover, 2019).

As it might be concluded from JS studies across professions, Translation/Interpreting is not among those topping the list of professions with the highest satisfaction index (Andrade & Westover, 2019). At the same time, research focused on translators'/ interpreters' JS and well-being has shown virtually universal above-average JS among these professionals, despite many negatively assessed variables thereof (Bednárová-Gibová & Madoš, 2019; Courtney & Phelan, 2019; Dam & Zethsen, 2016; de Jong, 1999; Heino, 2020; Piecychna, 2019; Rodríguez-Castro, 2015; Ruokonen et al., 2020).

## METHODOLOGY

This literature review employed a narrative synthesis approach to examine recent empirical studies on job satisfaction among translators and interpreters. The goal was to identify common themes, theoretical frameworks, and methodological approaches used in the field.

The selection process focused on peer-reviewed empirical studies published between 1999 and 2023, sourced from databases such as JSTOR, Scopus, and

Google Scholar using keywords including translator job satisfaction, interpreter well-being, occupational stress, and career motivation in translation. Studies were included if they (1) provided original empirical data, (2) addressed psychological, structural, or motivational aspects of the profession, and (3) were written in English. A total of 16 primary articles were included in the final analysis.

The selected studies span diverse national contexts (e.g., Slovakia, Ireland, Finland, China) and cover a range of translator profiles, including freelance, institutional, sworn, and literary translators. Each article was coded manually for key constructs such as job satisfaction drivers, stressors, professional identity, and perceptions of change, using an open reading strategy guided by the review objective.

Further, different aspects of translators'/ interpreters' JS are viewed in detail, as presented in the scientific research within the period mentioned above.

## RESULTS

### INTRINSIC FACTORS

Intrinsic JS often stems from translators' engagement with challenging, meaningful tasks. Dam and Zethsen (2016) from Aarhus University, Denmark, who qualitatively researched the narratives of 15 Danish agency translators with an average of 13 years of experience, noted that translators value the intellectual stimulation and creativity inherent in their work, while Liu (2013) from the Chinese Beijing Foreign Studies University, whose study included both quantitative analysis using questionnaires, including visibility and happiness indices, and qualitative insights, and covered a sample of 193 Chinese translators from Greater China, identified pride in producing high-quality translations as a key driver of satisfaction. Similarly, Finland-based Ruokonen (Ruokonen et al., 2020), who undertook a study utilizing mixed methods: surveys (2012, 2014)

and interviews (2013), and whose sample comprised 138 translators (2012), 450 translators (2014), and 16 government translators (2013), emphasizes the role of autonomy in enhancing JS. This type of factor appears to have the most significant influence on the level of JS in the Translation/ Interpreting domain, as the participants tended to stay in the profession even when they demonstrated low satisfaction with the extrinsic factors (de Jong, 1999; Heino, 2020; Piecychna, 2019; Ruokonen et al., 2020).

### **EXTRINSIC FACTORS**

Pay, job security, and working conditions remain significant extrinsic factors. Courtney and Phelan (2019) from Dublin City University, Ireland, who aimed to explore self-perceived occupational stress and job satisfaction levels among professional translators, and whose sample included 474 translators from the UK and Ireland, reported disparities in satisfaction between freelance and in-house translators, with freelancers often facing financial insecurity. Conversely, in-house translators may enjoy better job stability but report frustration with their visibility due to the rigid organizational structures, as shown by the Slovakian researchers Bednárová-Gibová & Madoš from the University of Prešov (Bednárová-Gibová & Madoš, 2019) in their investigation of work-related happiness among sworn (83) and institutional (32) translators, aiming to investigate work-related happiness among translators in Slovakia.

### **INTERPERSONAL AND SOCIETAL FACTORS**

Relationships with colleagues and clients significantly impact satisfaction. Koskinen (2009) highlighted the value of feedback and institutional support, while Liu (2013) linked frequent client interactions to higher satisfaction levels. Societal perceptions of translators' roles also influence JS. For instance, Polish sworn translators expressed pride in their societal contributions despite concerns about workload and recognition (Piecychna, 2019). This was one of

the findings of this Polish researcher's study, aiming to examine the level of job satisfaction among Polish sworn translators and understand the factors influencing their attitudes. The sample of the study was 73 sworn translators (Polish-English language pairs), with the majority being women (74%) and middle-aged professionals.

### **CHALLENGES IMPACTING JOB SATISFACTION**

#### **Stress and burnout**

High workloads and tight deadlines are pervasive stressors. Ehrensberger-Dow et al. (2016) identified cognitive and organizational ergonomic issues, such as inadequate software tools, as contributors to stress. The purpose of their study was to investigate the ergonomic conditions of professional translators globally, focusing on physical, cognitive, and organizational ergonomics. To this end, they employed a quantitative survey in six languages, distributed online to professional translators worldwide. The participant pool incorporated a variety of translators (1,850 translators from nearly 50 countries), including freelancers, institutional, and commercial translators. However, some translators find positive aspects in working under pressure, viewing it as a motivational challenge (Courtney & Phelan, 2019).

Cooper, Davies, and Tung (1982), affiliated with the University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, earlier conducted one of the first large-scale empirical investigations into job stress among conference interpreters. Their study combined qualitative and quantitative methods, beginning with 33 in-depth interviews and five-day stress diaries in Strasbourg, Brussels, and Geneva. These exploratory findings informed the design of a comprehensive 14-page questionnaire that was distributed to all members of the AIIC (International Association of Conference Interpreters) who worked with English. Out of 1,400 questionnaires sent, 826 were returned and analyzed, providing a robust dataset for examining the physical,

organizational, interpersonal, and personal stressors affecting interpreter well-being.

### **Ambiguity and emotional intelligence**

Tolerance of ambiguity and emotional intelligence play nuanced roles. Hubscher-Davidson (2018) found a weak correlation between ambiguity tolerance and JS but highlighted the importance of emotional intelligence in managing stress and enhancing interpersonal relationships. The author of this research is a scholar in Translation Studies from the Open University, United Kingdom, with a focus on the psychological aspects of translation. In her study, intended to examine the relationship between tolerance of ambiguity (TA), emotional intelligence (EI), and job satisfaction among professional translators, she studied a sample of 85 professional translators (62 women, 23 men), majority self-employed, mostly English-speaking, through an online survey using psychometric scales for TA, EI, and job satisfaction. She found that tolerance of ambiguity is positively correlated with EI, particularly self-control, stress management, and adaptability. However, tolerance of ambiguity does not significantly correlate with job satisfaction. The theoretical basis for the study was the Emotional Intelligence Theory (Goleman, D., 1995).

### **IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY**

Technology's dual impact on JS is widely acknowledged. While translation memory tools enhance productivity, they can also lead to monotonous tasks and "boreout" (Ehrensberger-Dow & Massey, 2019). Translators' adaptability to technological advancements significantly affects their satisfaction. In the times when AI translation and remote interpreting have gained momentum, further study of the impact of these newest trends on translators' and interpreters' JS could be highly relevant.

### **REGIONAL AND CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES**

#### **Finnish and Slovak translators**

Studies on Finnish and Slovak translators

reveal differing experiences based on work environments. Finnish translators often benefit from strong institutional support and job-crafting opportunities (Ruokonen, 2020). Conversely, Slovak literary translators face financial insecurity but find satisfaction in the creative aspects of their work (Bednárová-Gibová, 2020).

### **KAZAKHSTAN'S CONTEXT**

While limited research exists on translators in Kazakhstan, parallels can be drawn from global trends. Economic factors, such as fluctuating currency values and demand for multilingual expertise, likely shape JS in this region. Further localized research is essential to provide actionable insights.

### **COMPARATIVE INSIGHTS ACROSS PROFESSIONS**

Global studies (Andrade & Westover, 2020) highlight that professional autonomy and meaningful work consistently contribute to high satisfaction levels across occupational categories. Translators, similar to academics and creative professionals, derive satisfaction from intrinsic rewards but remain vulnerable to stress and under-recognition.

## **DISCUSSION**

The reviewed literature reveals both convergence and divergence in the factors shaping translator and interpreter job satisfaction across different professional and national contexts. Common to most studies is the finding that autonomy, recognition, and professional growth play a greater role in job satisfaction than income alone (Rodríguez-Castro, 2016; Dam, 2016; Liu, 2013). However, the degree to which these factors are accessible varies significantly. For example, literary translators in Finland (Ruokonen, 2020) express high symbolic commitment to their work, while Polish sworn translators (Piecychna, 2019) report frustration with rigid institutional constraints.

A recurrent gap in the literature is the underrepresentation of translators from post-Soviet or Central Asian contexts,

despite the fact that these regions often face rapidly shifting linguistic and political landscapes. While job satisfaction studies from Western Europe emphasize emotional self-fulfillment and ergonomic environments, others (e.g., Liu, 2013; Martikainen, 2018) draw attention to structural insecurity and workload intensity.

Notably, few studies deeply explore the impact of AI, automation, and post-editing, despite their increasing influence on translator workflows and identity. Similarly, freelancers' experiences dominate the field, while in-house translators, especially those in non-academic institutions or hybrid language roles, remain underexamined.

Finally, many reviewed articles tend to treat satisfaction as a static metric. Longitudinal or life-course studies are rare, leaving open questions about how satisfaction evolves through career stages or in response to socio-economic shocks.

## CONCLUSION

This review reveals that translator and interpreter satisfaction depends not only on income and working conditions, but also on autonomy, recognition, and long-term professional growth. Employers should ensure fair contracts and transparent feedback structures. Freelancers benefit from community-building and skills development, especially in response to automation. Professional associations could play a vital role in advocacy and wage standards. Educators are encouraged to address emotional and entrepreneurial preparedness in training programs. Policymakers must acknowledge translators and interpreters as essential cultural workers deserving of legal and institutional support.

Translators' JS is determined by a complex relationship of intrinsic, extrinsic, interpersonal, and societal factors. While many translators find fulfillment in the intellectual and creative aspects of their work, challenges such as

stress, financial insecurity, and under-recognition persist. Addressing these issues requires collaborative efforts from employers, professional associations, and policymakers. Existing studies often focus exclusively on freelancers or in-house translators without providing a comparative analysis of the two groups. Additionally, the role of translation technologies (e.g., CAT tools, machine translation, AI translation, remote interpreting) and their influence on job satisfaction is often overlooked or only superficially addressed. Further research on these aspects is essential to deepen our understanding and develop targeted interventions. Finally, while there is a diverse range of studies exploring the many-sided nature of job satisfaction in the Western world, namely the European countries, there is limited empirical research on job satisfaction and professional challenges faced by translators and interpreters in Central Asia, including Kazakhstan. Since the Translation Studies discipline is in the curricula of many top universities in Kazakhstan, an investigation of the perception and status of job satisfaction, and the factors impacting it against our socio-economic conditions, is seen as particularly beneficial for the local setting.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to thank his academic supervisor for insightful guidance during the preparation of this review. Appreciation is also extended to colleagues and peers whose feedback contributed to refining the focus of the article.

## REFERENCES

- Andrade, M., & Westover, J. (2019). Global comparisons of job satisfaction across occupational categories. *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship, ahead-of-print*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRM-09-2019-0086>
- Bednárová-Gibová, K., & Madoš, B. (2019). Investigating Translators' Work-related Happiness: Slovak Sworn and Institutional Translators as a Case in Point. *Meta : Journal Des Traducteurs / Meta: Translators' Journal*, 64(1), 215–241. <https://doi.org/10.7202/1065335ar>
- Cooper, C. L., Davies, R., & Tung, R. L. (1982). Interpreting stress: Sources of job stress among conference interpreters. 1(2), 97–108. <https://doi.org/10.1515/mult.1982.1.2.97>
- Courtney, J., & Phelan, M. (2019). Translators' experiences of occupational stress and job satisfaction. *Translation & Interpreting*, 11(1), Article 1.
- Dam, H. V., & Zethsen, K. K. (2016). "I think it is a wonderful job": On the solidity of the translation profession. *Journal of Specialised Translation*, 25, 174–187.
- de Jong, E. (1999). The impact of motivation on the career commitment of dutch literary translators. *Poetics*, 26(5), 423–437. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-422X\(99\)00010-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-422X(99)00010-8)
- Ehrensberger-Dow, M., Heeb, A. H., Massey, G., Meidert, U., Neumann, S., & Becker, H. (2016). An International Survey of the Ergonomics of Professional Translation. ILCEA. *Revue de l'Institut Des Langues et Cultures d'Europe, Amérique, Afrique, Asie et Australie*, 27, Article 27. <https://doi.org/10.4000/ilcea.4004>
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. Bantam Books.
- Heino, A. (2020). Finnish Literary Translators and the Illusio of the Field. In *New Horizons in Translation Research and Education 5* (pp. 141–157). Tampere University.
- Hubscher-Davidson, S. (2018). A study of the links between tolerance of ambiguity, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction: Chapter 5. Do translation professionals need to tolerate ambiguity to be successful? In I. Lacruz & R. Jääskeläinen (Eds.), *Innovation and Expansion in Translation Process Research*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ata.18.05hub>
- Koskinen, K. (2009). *Going localised: Translation and localisation practices in the European Union institutions*. Tampere University Press.
- Liu, C. (2013). A quantitative enquiry into the translator's job-related happiness: Does visibility correlate with happiness? *Across Languages and Cultures*, 14, 123–147. <https://doi.org/10.1556/Acr.14.2013.1.6>
- Martikainen, L. (n.d.). "Encountering Change: Job Satisfaction of Sign Language Interpreters in" by Liisa Martikainen, Petri Karkkola et al. Retrieved December 15, 2024.
- Pieczchna, B. (2019). Polish Sworn Translators' Attitudes Towards the Job they Perform – Results Obtained from a Job Satisfaction Survey. *Studies in Logic, Grammar and Rhetoric*, 58(1), 125–154. <https://doi.org/10.2478/slgr-2019-0020>
- Rodríguez-Castro, M. (2015a). Conceptual construct and empirical validation of a multifaceted instrument for translator satisfaction. *Translation & Interpreting*, 7(2), Article 2.

Rodríguez-Castro, M. (2015b). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Sources of Translator Satisfaction: an Empirical Study. *Entreculturas. Revista de Traducción y Comunicación Intercultural*, 7–8, Article 7–8. <https://doi.org/10.24310/Entreculturasertci.vi7-8.11334>

Ruokonen, M., Lassus, J., & Virtanen, T. (2020). 'I fulfil my place among the humankind, in the universe': Finnish translators' job satisfaction in three empirical studies. *Mikael: Kääntämisen Ja Tulkkauksen Tutkimuksen Aikakauslehti*, 13, 109–123. <https://doi.org/10.61200/mikael.129306>



УДК (UDC) 123.456

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201\_2025\_9\_72

# ДИПЛОМАТИЯЛЫҚ ДИСКУРСТАҒЫ МЕТАФОРА АУДАРМАСЫНЫҢ ЛИНГВИСТИКАЛЫҚ ЕРЕКШЕЛІКТЕРІ

Ақынов Канат Маратович

k\_akynov@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Аңдатпа

Бұл мақала 2021-2024 жылдар аралығында Қазақстан мен Ресей президенттерінің ресми жолдауларындағы метафораларды орыс тілінен ағылшын тіліне аудару кезінде қолданылған әртүрлі стилистикалық және лингвистикалық стратегияларды қарастырып зерттейді. Дипломатиялық дискурстың риторикалық және идеологиялық ерекшеліктері аясында метафоралар ұлттық контексті сипаттап, елдің жаһандық қабылдануын қалыптастыратын маңызды элемент ретінде қызмет атқарады.

Зерттеу метафораларды анықтау процедурасына (MIP) және Ньюмарк пен Шеффнер ұсынған метафораларды аударма стратегияларына сүйене отырып, президенттік жолдаулардың аударылған корпусын талдайды. Зерттеу нәтижелері ең жиі қолданылатын стратегия метафораны сақтау екенін көрсетті. Әсіресе Қазақстандық дискурста метафоралық тұтастықтың сақталуына мән беріледі. Ресейлік мәтіндерде де сақтау стратегиясы басым болғанымен, Қазақстандық дискурспен салыстырғанда, метафораларды алмастыру және нақтылау (экспликация) жиі кездеседі. Бұл өз кезегінде мәдени және саяси бейімделу, сондай-ақ идеологиялық қайта мән беруді көрсетеді.

Зерттеудің ғылыми жаңалығы – Қазақстан мен Ресейдің президенттік жолдаулары аясында метафораларды аудару стратегияларын алғаш рет салыстырмалы түрде кешенді талдауы. Бұл жұмыс дипломатиялық саладағы метафораны аударудың ерекшеліктерін тереңірек түсінуге мүмкіндік береді және саяси дискурсты мәдениетаралық кеңістікте қалыптастырудағы аудармашының маңызды рөлін айқындайды.

**Кілт сөздер:** метафоралар, метафораларды аудару стратегиялары, президенттік жолдаулар, саясат, дипломатиялық дискурс

# ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПЕРЕВОДА МЕТАФОР В ДИПЛОМАТИЧЕСКОМ ДИСКУРСЕ

АКЫНОВ КАНАТ

k\_akynov@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Аннотация

В данной статье рассматриваются различные стилистические и лингвистические стратегии, используемые при переводе метафор с русского языка на английский в официальных президентских обращениях Казахстана и России за период 2021-2024 годов. В рамках риторических и идеологических особенностей дипломатического дискурса метафоры выступают ключевым средством, позволяющим описать национальный контекст и формировать глобальное восприятие.

Исследование было проведено на основе процедуры идентификации метафор (MIP) и опирается на стратегии перевода метафор, предложенные Ньюмарком и Шеффнер. Результаты показывают, что стратегия сохранения является наиболее распространенной, особенно в казахстанских текстах, где метафорическая целостность сохраняется в большинстве случаев. В российских обращениях также преобладает стратегия сохранения, однако наблюдается значительно больше примеров замены и экспликации по сравнению с казахстанским дискурсом, что отражает культурную адаптацию и идеологическое переосмысление.

Научная новизна работы заключается в проведении первого сравнительного анализа перевода метафор в Казахстанских и Российских президентских посланиях. Полученные данные способствуют более глубокому пониманию особенностей перевода метафор в дипломатическом контексте и подчёркивают важность роли переводчика в формировании и интерпретации политического дискурса в межкультурной перспективе.

**Ключевые слова:** метафоры, стратегии перевода метафор, дипломатический дискурс, президентские послания, сравнительный анализ.

# LINGUISTIC PECULIARITIES OF TRANSLATING METAPHORS IN DIPLOMATIC DISCOURSE

AKYNOV KANAT

k\_akynov@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Abstract

This research paper examines various stylistic and linguistic strategies related to the translation of metaphors from Russian into English in the context of official speeches of the presidents of Kazakhstan and Russia in the period from 2021 to 2024. Within the rhetorical and ideological features of diplomatic discourse, metaphors serve as a key element for articulating national contexts and shaping global perceptions. This study applies the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) and relies on metaphor translation strategies developed by Newmark and Schäffner to analyze a corpus of translated presidential addresses.

The results revealed that retention is the most frequently used strategy, particularly in Kazakhstani texts, where the metaphorical integrity is preserved. While the retention strategy is prevalent in Russian diplomatic discourse, metaphors demonstrate a significantly higher occurrence of substitution and explicitation compared to Kazakhstani discourse, reflecting cultural and political adaptation and ideological reinterpretation.

The novelty of this work lies in its comparative analysis of metaphor translation in Kazakhstani and Russian presidential addresses, which was previously an underexplored topic. The study contributes to a deeper understanding of metaphor translation in diplomacy and highlights the translator's crucial role in shaping and framing political discourse across various cultures.

**Keywords:** metaphors, metaphor translation strategies, diplomatic discourse, presidential addresses, comparative analysis.

## INTRODUCTION

Metaphors in political and diplomatic discourse are not just rhetorical or decorative devices, but they also shape public perception and reflect national ideology (Charteris-Black, 2011; Reisigl & Wodak, 2009). They act as a powerful rhetorical tool in diplomatic communication. According to Charteris-Black (2011), they simplify abstract concepts, evoke an emotional response in the audience, and help present complex social and national issues in a clear and persuasive manner. As Reisigl and Wodak (2009) note, the role of metaphor is especially noticeable in such genres of high-level political speech as presidential addresses, which perform not only an informational but also a persuasive function, contributing to the formation of national identity.

In the post-Soviet space, Kazakhstan and Russia are two separate but historically and linguistically linked countries where presidential speeches remain key instruments of political discourse and foreign policy positioning. In Kazakhstan, programs such as the Kazakhstan 2050 Strategy and the Trilingualism Policy emphasize the importance of multilingual political communication, primarily in Kazakh, Russian, and English. The goal is to enhance the country's global competitiveness by promoting proficiency in Kazakh as the official language, Russian as the language of interethnic communication, and English as the language of international integration, according to the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan (2016). Therefore, official policy documents, including presidential addresses to the nation, are regularly translated into English for international audiences.

In Russia, the president's annual addresses to the Federal Assembly are key political speeches that articulate domestic priorities and a foreign policy vision. These texts are also translated into English and published on official platforms, reflecting Russia's

desire to disseminate its political ideas to an international audience. In particular, the speeches of the president of the Russian Federation often use metaphors that emphasize the dynamic, sometimes decisive nature of the country's political course. Despite the fact that both Kazakhstani and Russian presidential speeches are written in Russian, the rhetorical strategies and communicative goals can differ significantly due to differences in national ideologies, diplomatic priorities, and approaches to state-building. Thus, the symbolic and strategic importance of metaphors in presidential speeches and their translation into English presents not only linguistic but also cultural and ideological difficulties. According to Schäffner (2004) and Newmark (1988), translating political metaphors requires careful consideration of semantic shifts, cultural frameworks, and pragmatic implications that can often lead to loss of meaning, distortion, or recontextualization. Despite the growing scholarly interest in metaphor and its translation, there is a significant gap in comparative research on how metaphors are conveyed in the diplomatic discourse of Kazakh and Russian presidential speeches, especially in terms of strategies used, shifts in meaning, and cross-cultural interpretation.

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Metaphors are a powerful rhetorical tool in diplomatic and political discourse, allowing leaders to articulate complex concepts, evoke emotional responses, and shape dominant national narratives. Translating such texts, especially those of high importance, such as presidential addresses, faces significant challenges due to cultural, ideological, and linguistic nuances.

However, the majority of extant research on metaphor translation is somewhat isolated, as it focuses on monocultural features. For instance, ideological and military metaphors predominate in Russian political discourse (Junhui, 2018; Liu & Huang,

2022). However, within the framework of Kazakhstan, there is a lack of research in this field. As asserted by Aizhan et al. (2021), the translation of metaphors in political discourse remains an area of research that has been inadequately explored in Kazakhstan, necessitating further systematic investigation. A major problem is the absence of research examining the differences between Kazakhstani and Russian diplomatic and political discourse. This deficit hinders our understanding of the metaphorical implications in these texts and the ways in which ideologies may exert linguistic influence on the development of metaphors. Furthermore, the problem is compounded by the fact that, as Schäffner (2004) and Newmark (1988) declared, the process of translating metaphors is often excluded or circumvented due to the inherent complexity of the task, which can lead to misinterpretation of the original message. The present study addresses a significant gap in contemporary research, namely the lack of studies examining and comparing strategies of metaphor reinterpretation in Kazakh and Russian presidential speeches. It is difficult to comprehend the norms of translation and ideological frameworks used in the international projection of political discourse in the post-Soviet space without such a comparison.

### **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The present study aims to investigate how metaphors are translated from Russian into English in the context of official presidential addresses from Kazakhstan and Russia. First, it seeks to identify and examine the translation strategies used for metaphors within official Russian-English translations. Second, the study aims to analyze the conceptual and contextual inconsistencies that may arise during the process of metaphor translation. Lastly, it endeavors to compare the metaphor translation strategies employed in presidential addresses originally delivered in Kazakh and Russian.

### **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

This research is significant both practically and theoretically. It addresses the lack of cross-cultural translation studies in the post-Soviet space. Despite a shared history and language, Kazakhstan and Russia differ in terms of ideology and foreign policy. The presidential addresses in both states not only inform the public but also shape national identity and global image, making the translation of metaphors into English a crucial factor. Metaphors are not just stylistic tools; they reflect political priorities and influence how international audiences perceive a country's stance (Schäffner, 2004; Musolff, 2016). This research fills the gap and facilitates progress in the fields of linguistics and translation.

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The conceptualization and perception of the metaphor have changed significantly over time. Such classical views, in particular Aristotle's, regarded the metaphor as a decorative linguistic device used to enhance expression and make language vivid and persuasive (Aristotle, 2017; Aristotle & Kennedy, 2006). According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary (n.d.), a metaphor is described as a form of speech that relates to one object or concept and applies to another to underline their similarity or analogy. Davidson (1978) argues that metaphors, as opposed to the conventional and traditional views of metaphor, do not have a unique semantic meaning different from literal interpretation. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) claim that metaphors are not just linguistic or decorative devices, but they are fundamental cognitive structures that shape perception and the view on the world. This confirms that while metaphors have traditionally been seen as a form of speech used primarily for rhetoric, modern research highlights their fundamental role in human thought and language. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), our abstract concepts, such as time, love or ideas are difficult to understand directly, so they are

structured by metaphors based on familiar, concrete physical and social experiences.

According to Dickins (2005), metaphors function by transferring meaning from the source domain, that is, from a particular or physical one, to the target domain or, more simply, to an abstract one. This complements the underlying theory of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) that metaphors are cognitive tools for understanding abstract concepts.

Although these theories emphasize the cognitive dimensions of metaphor, recent studies also highlight the role of culture in shaping metaphorical thinking and usage. Recent research challenges traditional views by emphasizing the contextual and dynamic nature of the metaphor. Metaphors are multifaceted in nature, and their contextual application varies due to different factors. According to Prandi and Rossi (2022), metaphors are dynamic constructs that depend on linguistic, cognitive, and cultural elements. Similarly, Siman and Sampaio (2023) consider the metaphor as a multidimensional phenomenon that has emotional and persuasive power and that is always adapted according to the communicative goals and expectations of the audience.

As described above, metaphors are complex linguistic and cognitive phenomena that can also be interpreted according to various cultural contexts. The next section covers the functional roles that metaphors play in political and diplomatic discourse.

### **FUNCTION OF METAPHOR IN POLITICAL AND DIPLOMATIC DISCOURSE**

In political and diplomatic discourse, metaphors serve as tools for various strategic and critical purposes. Such topics may relate to national security, political reforms and transformations, economic and social issues, and international relations. Therefore, metaphors play a key role in political and diplomatic discourse.

The fairly widespread use of metaphors in this field can most certainly be attributed

to their ability to conceptualize complex abstract ideas and topics, conveying them clearly to the audience and influencing their perception. Of course, the fundamental explanation for this function was provided by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), who argue that conceptual metaphors structure our perception and understanding of abstract concepts. According to Charteris-Black (2011), metaphors are used to pose complex questions and serve to influence and control public perception in the context of social and political aspects. Boeynaems et al. (2017), in their study, found that metaphors have an impact on people's perceptions, political opinions, and beliefs, but it is also worth considering the context and type of metaphor, as two different approaches were taken to study metaphors. These findings suggest that metaphors do influence audience perceptions, but that factors such as context, type of metaphor, and possibly cultural differences should be taken into account.

Liu and Wang (2020) state that metaphors can be used as powerful tools to express judgment and express a critical stance in diplomatic discourse. In their study, they found that Chinese diplomats, using offensive metaphors related to animal or personality characteristics, can express strong judgment, reflect geopolitical realities, and seek to influence international attitudes and public perceptions. This means that metaphors play an important role in conveying ideology and are not always used to form a positive context. Metaphors can be aggressively used to criticize and condemn in a diplomatic context, which can demonstrate assertiveness and challenge.

In addition, metaphors can be strategically used to express national unity and influence society by justifying political action. Vestermark (2007) states that American presidents, in opening addresses, using metaphorical personification, sought to make abstract political concepts more understandable and emotionally resonant to increase public engagement. Considering

the Russian context, metaphors function as means of persuasion and often reflect ideological and political positions. According to the studied data, Russian political and diplomatic discourse includes metaphors used to build and strengthen social identity, seek to justify a political position, and legitimize policy choices in matters of diplomatic confrontations (Almass & Hussain, 2021; Anderson, 2001; Balashova, 2022; Mammadov, 2010).

In fact, metaphors are not just a decorative phenomenon but serve to shape the perception and persuasion of the audience, express political positions, and manage and regulate international relations in diplomatic and political discourse.

### **METAPHOR TRANSLATION**

Considering the versatile function of metaphors, the translation of metaphors is a serious process, as simply replacing a word in the source language with an equivalent in the TL cannot convey the full semantic and pragmatic essence of the metaphor in the original. According to Schäffner (2004), since metaphors in political texts often convey complex ideas, their translation in this discourse is a complex process that requires a cognitive approach. Schäffner (2004) also points out that diplomatic communication is significantly dependent on effective translation. Metaphors in such texts serve to convey complex ideas and messages, express national identity, and influence the audience. That is, metaphors shape perceptions of policy and ideology; hence, accurately translating metaphors and preserving their meaning is of key importance, and improper translation can lead to undesirable consequences.

Some studies note that many metaphors do not have a direct equivalent in the TL, which may lead to difficulties in translating the metaphor, due to which meaning and expressiveness may be lost (Aizhan et al., 2021; Musaad, 2022; Zou'bi & Kanakri, 2020). In addition, these studies note that political texts often use innovative or

customized metaphors that are difficult to interpret accurately; thus, careful selection of metaphor translation strategies is necessary.

As far as strategies for translating metaphors are concerned, it is worth paying special attention to this vast topic. Van den Broeck (1981) was one of the first to propose systematic strategies for translating metaphors, such as the reproduction of the same image in the TL, replacement by a TL metaphor with a similar meaning, conversion of the metaphor into a non-metaphorical expression, and deletion of the metaphor if it is untranslatable or redundant. This model presents a pragmatic approach and also emphasizes the importance of cultural compatibility and expectations of the target audience. According to Aizhan et al. (2021), some metaphors are untranslatable when there is no semantic equivalent in the TL or when there is no conceptual weight in the literal translation. Aizhan et al. (2021), in their study, relied on Newmark's (1988) seven metaphor translation strategies and demonstrated their practical application. In addition, according to their findings, cultural competence and contextual understanding are more crucial to the choice of strategies, although Newmark's strategies carry a useful framework. Turning in detail to strategies, Newmark (1988) proposed one of the most commonly used classifications of translating metaphors, such as 1) reproducing the same image in the TL, 2) replacing the image with a culturally appropriate equivalent, 3) translating the metaphor by simile, retaining the image, 4) simile plus sense, 5) converting the metaphor to sense, 6) deletion, and 7) reproducing the metaphor along with its sense. Moreover, Newmark (1988) argues that by using these metaphor translation strategies, translators have flexible options for preserving meaning. This is a significant aspect of these strategies because, in diplomatic discourse, metaphorical meaning is often ideologically charged, where it is important to navigate within cultural and cognitive nuances.

Newmark (1988) focused more on practical, text-linguistically oriented strategies, while Schäffner (2004) offers a more cognitive and functional perspective. Schäffner (2004) proposes only three main strategies for translating metaphors, such as 1) metaphor to metaphor (same or adapted metaphor in the TL), 2) metaphor to sense, and 3) metaphor to simile or other rhetorical transformation. It is worth noting that these strategies relate to earlier strategies as exemplified by Newmark (1988) but are also complemented by cultural and pragmatic analysis within a critical perspective.

Based on traditional taxonomies, Prandi (2017) presents a cognitive-pragmatic model, emphasizing the need for contextual analysis. He categorizes metaphors into traditional and conflict metaphors that are relevant to political texts. This approach complements the above strategies and emphasizes pragmatic sensitivity and adds cognitive depth.

Different studies build on the above strategies and adapt them to their topics. The strategies proposed by Newmark (1988) and Schäffner (2004) are mostly applied, as seen in the studies of Aizhan et al. (2021), Zou'bi and Kanakri (2020), and Musaad (2022).

### **CONCEPTUAL AND CONTEXTUAL SHIFTS IN TRANSLATION**

Conceptual and contextual shifts are the types of inconsistencies that can be observed in metaphor translation. They arise from differences in metaphorical comparisons between languages and cultures and are also the result of political, pragmatic, or situational requirements for communication, respectively. Numerous studies agree that different linguistic and cultural communities may perceive and interpret abstract concepts differently (Bakhodirova, 2024; Haif Si Haif & Touati, 2022; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Schäffner, 2004). As discussed earlier, Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) argues that various abstract concepts

are often understood through concrete experience via metaphorical comparisons. However, it is worth considering that these conceptual juxtapositions may differ from culture to culture. According to the idea of Lakoff and Johnson (1980), abstract concepts are usually understood through concrete domains such as "argument is war" or "nation is a body."

Cultural variations affect the conceptualization of metaphors. Haif Si Haif and Touati (2022), based on English-Arabic translation, encountered cases where the conceptual metaphor of the source text could not be directly transferred due to the absence of an equivalent in the TL. Thus, they concluded that decisions about translating metaphors are made depending on cultural and contextual factors. Bakhodirova (2024) states that in order to correctly interpret specific metaphors, translators need to overcome cognitive and cultural gaps.

Liu and Wang (2020) note that when Chinese diplomatic discourse is translated into English, aggressive and offensive metaphors are often softened to support the international image. That is, contextual shifts can serve as a tool to establish geopolitical clarity. Musolff (2016) states that in political discourse, metaphor is persuasive because it has a connection to audience expectations, and contextual acceptability is necessary. Therefore, deviations from literal translation may occur to maintain pragmatic relevance. Such changes can reveal both the linguistic and strategic goals of translators, acting as political spokespersons, so to speak, who can manage the diplomatic tone and international perception.

In some cases, metaphors can be intentionally modified for different purposes, such as crisis mitigation, image control, and the expression of solidarity. According to Semino (2008), in order to achieve communicative goals in a socio-political context, metaphors may undergo re-contextualization. Chilton (2004) warns that

shifts can distort the ideological structure of diplomatic discourse. These conceptual and contextual mismatches are central to my study.

### **METAPHOR USE IN KAZAKHSTANI AND RUSSIAN POLITICAL AND CULTURAL CONTEXTS**

In the post-Soviet space, Kazakhstan and Russia share historical and international ties but have different national and cultural communication styles in the political arena. Studying the use of metaphor in these contexts, as well as the identification of predominant topics, will further allow the distinction of strategies for translating metaphors in presidential addresses. According to Aizhan et al. (2021), Kazakh political discourse most often uses neutral, universal metaphors related to modernization, development, and international cooperation. For instance, “building a community,” “building the future,” “the way of development,” and “flourishing society.” As for translation strategies, they most often included the reproduction of the same image and retention, and sometimes cultural adaptation.

In comparison with the Kazakh context, Russian political and diplomatic discourse is most often revealed as ideologically charged. Junhui (2018) and Liu and Huang (2022) claim the existence of militaristic and conflictual metaphors in Russian political discourse.

The translation of these metaphors requires a careful strategy, since misunderstandings and distortions might occur in the global arena. In such a context, about strengthening state power and demonstrating ideology and the cultural and historical framework, translators choose strategies such as substitution, omission, or explicitation depending on the cultural and political resonance (Schäffner, 2004; Van den Broeck, 1981; Newmark, 1988).

In addition, the difference between the use of metaphor in Kazakhstani and Russian political discourse is consistent with the

theories proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), who argued that cultural cognition and social values have a relationship with metaphorical framing.

This part of the literature review touches on the importance of communication and translation in the field of diplomacy, because metaphors are often used there. Diplomatic language is formed from several aspects like culture, strategy, and ever-changing norms, so it is not a neutral language and makes translation not easy. I did a study where metaphors, and not only stylistic metaphors, can shape not only thinking but also political reasoning, which makes translation even more difficult. According to scholars Lakoff, Schäffner, and Newmark, there is almost always a chance of losing meaning or cultural depth in translation, even with the helpful strategies they suggested. Despite the closeness of the countries between Kazakhstan and Russia, their political metaphors can be very different from each other, which is why translators should be extremely attentive to cultural context when translating. However, when it comes to translating presidential speeches from Russian into English, there are clearly imperfections.

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN**

To identify the translation strategies in the addresses of the presidents of Kazakhstan and Russia, this study applies a qualitative, corpus-based method with comparative analysis. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2015), this method is characterized by an inductive process, which includes the study of information in the form of documents and the construction of a concept on an intuitive understanding. The inductive nature of the research allows the researcher to study presidential texts and build interpretations based on patterns of information by close reading and comparative analysis. As Creswell (2017) emphasizes, qualitative research is flexible, allowing the phases of the process to change during data collection,

and at the same time it creates a complex picture of the issue under study. Therefore, this method enables the researcher to identify the strategies, changes in meaning, and contextual influences that shape the translation process.

#### DATA COLLECTION

The corpus includes the presidential addresses to the nation by the president of Kazakhstan and the presidential addresses to the Federal Assembly by the president of Russia from 2021 to 2024, collected from official government websites in both Russian and their English translations.

#### DATA ANALYSIS

To systematically identify metaphors in the corpus, this study applies the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) developed by the Pragglejaz Group (2007). This procedure involves analyzing the text by identifying lexical units, comparing their contextual and basic meanings, and labeling them as metaphorical if the contextual meaning contrasts with the original yet remains more appropriate within the given context. Identified metaphors are classified using Newmark's (1988) and Schäffner's (2004) translation strategy typologies, focusing on retention, substitution, explicitation, and omission.

## RESULTS

The analyzed Kazakhstani subcorpus from 2021 to 2024 includes five original texts in Russian. In total, there are 244,714 characters without spaces and 277,823 characters with spaces. The Russian texts include 36,290 words in general. There are five texts of the Kazakhstani presidential addresses in the official English translation. There are 244,249 characters without spaces and 285,512 with spaces in total. Moreover, the English documents consist of 44,470 words.

The analyzed Russian subcorpus contains four original texts in Russian, corresponding to addresses from 2021 to 2024. There are a total of 215,652 characters without spaces and 249,478 characters with spaces in the Russian texts. The Russian texts include 34,385 words overall. There are four texts of the Russian presidential addresses in the official translation into English. There are 216,433 characters without spaces and 258,214 with spaces in total. Also, documents in English consist of 42,355 words. It's worth noting that each piece of data from the texts was counted without the title and date of the presidential addresses.

In comparison to the broader taxonomies including all seven metaphor translation

Corpus	Language	No. of texts	No. of words	No. of characters w/o spaces	No. of characters w/ spaces
Kazakhstan	Russian	5	36,290	244,714	277,823
Kazakhstan	English	5	44,470	244,249	285,512
Russian	Russian	4	34,385	215,652	249,478
Russian	English	4	42,355	216,433	258,214

Table 1. Statistical Information about Corpus

strategies proposed by Newmark (1988), this study used a more simplified and focused framework. Specifically, I applied a combination of the strategies identified by Newmark (1988) and modified by Schäffner (2004). The applied strategies are retention, substitution, explicitation, and omission. These four strategies are relevant and frequently occurred in the corpus of diplomatic discourse. Therefore, they were chosen and provided a more focused and applicable analysis of the translation of metaphors in political texts.

Although Newmark originally proposed seven different strategies for translating metaphors, not all of them proved to be applicable or observable within this corpus. Instead, the selected strategies were sufficient to capture the main patterns and specificities of translating political metaphors from Russian into English in the context of political discourse in Kazakhstan and Russia.

### KAZAKHSTANI PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESSES

Analysis of the Kazakhstani presidential addresses from 2021 to 2024 revealed a variety of metaphors and the application of several translation strategies. There is a significant number of metaphors that were identified. The total data about the number of metaphors and their translation is provided in Table 2:

Strategy	Number	Percentage (%)
Retention	97	89%
Substitution	11	10.1%
Explicitation	1	0.9%
Omission	0	0%
Total	109	100%

Table 2. Metaphor Translation Strategies in Kazakhstani Corpus

According to the analysis and the information from Table 2, the predominant translation strategy found in the Kazakhstani corpus is retention. This strategy includes 97 metaphors. This is evident in numerous examples where the original Russian metaphor is directly translated into English, preserving the metaphorical image. Below are several examples of retention in the Kazakhstani addresses:

1. “Принятые меры дают свои плоды – резко вырос средний балл поступающих...” translated as “measures are bearing fruit” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2021).
2. “[Непотизм, в какой бы стране он ни был, неизбежно приводит к отрицательной кадровой селекции], становится благодатной почвой для расцвета коррупции” translated as “...becomes fertile ground for corruption to flourish” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2022).
3. “Эту опасную тенденцию нужно пресечь на корню – ужесточить наказание и исклю-

чить условно-досрочное освобождение за подобные преступления” translated as “dangerous trend must be stopped at the root” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2022)

4. “В то же время промышленники и предприниматели не должны выступать в качестве “кредитного пылесоса” translated as “credit hoover” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2023).

5. “А ведь во многих странах... бушует настоящая эпидемия преступности и беспорядков. Но поживать на лаврах нам никак нельзя” was translated as “experiencing a veritable epidemic of crime” and “cannot afford to rest on our laurels” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2024).

Substitution is also a common strategy, though less frequently than retention, with only 11 examples of substitution. This strategy involves replacing the original metaphor with a different metaphorical or non-metaphorical expression in the target language. Some examples of substitution in the Kazakhstani presidential addresses include:

1. “30-летие Независимости – это наша самая высшая ценность” translated as “most cherished treasure” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2021). In this example, value is interpreted as a treasure.

2. “Оно дало существенный импульс развитию предпринимательства...” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2024) translated as “significantly boosted entrepreneurship”. Impulse was substituted with the verb boost.

3. “Важно не сбавлять набранных темпов” is translated as “maintain this momentum” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2024). In this case, the metaphor “набранные темпы” (gained pace or tempo) is not literally translated but

replaced with another metaphor in English, ‘momentum’.

Moreover, one instance of what appears to be sense or explicitation is also present in the president’s speech, where the implicit meaning of the metaphor becomes more explicit in the target language, and it can be conveyed without a direct metaphorical equivalent in English. This is an example of sense or explicitation in the Kazakhstani address: “Решения о доступе к ним путем кулуарных обсуждений в тиши кабинетов должны быть поставлены вне закона” translated as “in the quiet of offices” (Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2021). This metaphor probably relies on cultural nuances, meaning not just quiet rooms. It implies secrecy and separation from public discourse. In this case, “in the quiet of offices” in English specifies the setting but lacks the metaphorical richness of the original version.

Finally, omission is not explicitly detailed as a frequently used strategy in the provided Kazakhstani State of the Nation Addresses.

## RUSSIAN PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESSES

The analysis of the Russian presidential addresses from 2021 to 2024 also revealed a considerable number of metaphors and the application of various translation strategies, such as retention, substitution, explicitation, and omission.

Similar to the Kazakhstani corpus, retention appears to be the most common strategy. 68 metaphorical expressions translated with the Retention strategy were identified. Some examples of retention in Russian addresses include:

1. “эпидемия наступала” translated as “epidemic was on the offensive” (President of Russia, 2021).

2. “стали основой, стержнем тех проектов” translated as “became the foundation,

Strategy	Number	Percentage (%)
Retention	68	66.02%
Substitution	13	30.10%
Explicitation	3	2.9%
Omission	1	0.97%
Total	103	100%

Table 3. Metaphor Translation Strategies in Russian Corpus

served as the main pillar of the projects” (President of Russia, 2021).

3. “шаг за шагом грубо и бесцеремонно создаются ... угрозы” translated as “threats which ... politicians created consistently, rudely and unceremoniously from year to year” (President of Russia, 2022).

4. “Откуда эта наглая манера разговаривать с позиции исключительности...” translated as “insolent manner of talking down from the height of their exceptionalism” (President of Russia, 2022).

5. “остаются кровавые, незаживающие раны терроризма” translated as “this created bloody, non-healing wounds and the curse of terrorism” (President of Russia, 2022).

6. “Начну с одной из самых острых проблем” translated as “poverty remains an acute problem” (President of Russia, 2024).

Furthermore, the strategy of substitution is also utilized in the Russian subcorpus, involving the replacement of the original metaphor with a different expression. In this subcorpus, 31 examples of metaphors translated with the strategy of substitution were found. Several examples of Substitution in Russian addresses include:

1. “преодолеем все испытания” translated

as “pull through” (President of Russia, 2021), which means physical overcoming of difficulties.

2. “вышли на передовую” translated as “found themselves in the thick of events” (President of Russia, 2021). In this sentence, the front line is used as a battle image.

3. “Несогласных ломают через колено” translated as “Those who refuse to comply are subjected to strong-arm tactics” (President of Russia, 2022).

4. “ситуация начала развиваться по другому сценарию” translated as “situation took a different turn” (President of Russia, 2022). The word scenario is translated as a turn.

5. “образ Запада ... оказался призраком, фальшивкой” translated as “the image of the West was a mirage” (President of Russia, 2023). Here the metaphor mirage replaces “призрак, фальшивка”, but conveys the same concept of illusion, deception, and unreality.

The provided data also includes one example of omission, where a metaphor present in the Russian text is not translated in the English version. An example of omission in a Russian address is: “вступает в борьбу за жизнь людей,” which has

a corresponding English translation “arrive first to save lives,” which does not retain the metaphorical meaning of “вступает в борьбу,” meaning entering the fight. This could be interpreted as an omission of the metaphorical element.

### GENERAL RESULTS OF METAPHOR TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

Retention is the most frequently employed translation strategy for metaphors from Russian into English across both the Kazakhstani and the Russian presidential addresses. The indications are 97 and 68 examples, respectively. This tendency suggests a possible purpose to preserve the original metaphorical imagery in translation, aiming to elicit a similar conceptual understanding in the target audience.

Substitution is the second most common strategy. However, this strategy is noticeably prevalent only in the Russian message texts, as among 103 metaphors, 31 metaphors are translated using the strategy of substitution. In comparison with the Kazakhstani message texts, substitution is noticeably less prevalent. There are only 10 metaphors among 109 examples. This strategy was possibly used in cases where a direct translation may not be culturally appropriate, be incomprehensible, or lose its impact in English. The pragmatic use of substitution probably reflects a strategic choice to prioritize clarity and cultural alignment over strict linguistic equivalence.

Explication and omission are less frequently used strategies in both presidential addresses based on the provided examples. Important to mention that both strategies are literally absent in the Kazakhstani subcorpus. Explication is applied to clarify the meaning of a metaphor that may not be immediately clear to the target audience. Omission, although not widely exemplified in the data presented, is used when a metaphor is deemed unnecessary, potentially confusing, or culturally inappropriate in the target text.

### CONCEPTUAL AND CONTEXTUAL SHIFTS

The comparative analysis of the translation of metaphors from Russian into English in the presidential addresses revealed distinct conceptual and contextual shifts. These shifts are primarily due to differences in language structures, cultural context, and expectations of the target audience.

First, in the selected texts, the conceptual shifts are related to a change in the cognitive pattern underlying the metaphor in translation. For instance, metaphors originally based on physical or spatial concepts in Russian often shifted towards abstract or generalized concepts in English. There are such examples as “эпидемия наступала” (epidemic was on the offensive), where the source concept is related to the epidemic, personified as actively attacking. The target concept of this example maintains a similar idea but abstractly frames it in terms of aggressive progression rather than literal physical attack. The retention strategy was applied, and the metaphor was retained to evoke urgency while remaining universally understandable for all political cultures. The next example is “вышли на передовую” (found themselves in the thick of events), which source concept represents physical positioning in the battlefield. The target concept involves abstract metaphor emphasizing involvement rather than physical location. Substitution was implemented and the original metaphor was replaced by a culturally neutral equivalent that maintains rhetorical intensity without militarism. One more example is “преодолеем все испытания” (pull through). Here the source concept means to physically overcome obstacles, and the target concept shows an abstract metaphor of survival and endurance. With the help of substitution, the metaphor is changed into a familiar expression in English to make it comprehensible for international audiences.

Regarding the contextual changes, they also occurred. There were several modifications that were driven by cultural, pragmatic, or strategic considerations in order to enhance the relevance and

understanding for the target audience. I have noticed these examples, like “тень на плетень наводит и всех пугать” (muddy the waters and scare people), where the source context refers to local idiomatic expression implying unnecessary fear. The target context was adapted into a culturally familiar expression with similar conceptual implications. Substitution was chosen to ensure that the figurative intent is maintained and to avoid culturally opaque images. In the phrase “несогласных ломают через колено” (those who refuse to comply are subjected to strong-arm tactics), the source context demonstrates physical violence, but the target context is translated into abstract political coercion, reducing explicit physical imagery. Using the tone management, here the substitution strategy transformed a vivid physical image into a diplomatic euphemism. In “ход происходивших тогда событий – это хороший урок” (that experience should serve as a good lesson for us) the source is related to educational metaphor emphasizing historical learning. The target context was generalized to emphasize experiential learning rather than direct educational terminology.

These results show that the dual role of the translator is to convey the original intent and simultaneously adapt the language to the sensitivities and communicative norms of the target culture and political context.

### **COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF KAZAKH-STANI AND RUSSIAN DISCOURSE**

A comparison of the translation strategies of metaphors used in the addresses of the presidents of Kazakhstan and Russia reveals intriguing similarities and notable differences. The most striking similarity is the shared preference for the preservation strategy. This shows that in both cases, the aim is to preserve the original metaphor in order to convey the rhetorical force and precise meaning of the original, which is important for official diplomatic discourse.

However, a significant difference is in the frequency of substitution. The Russian

corpus has a higher rate of this strategy compared to the Kazakh corpus (30.10% versus 10.1%). This discrepancy indicates a tendency in the translation of the Russian addresses to replace metaphors with more neutral or descriptive expressions. This may be done to adapt the speech to an international audience to soften the directness, cultural specificity, or to make the message more understandable and accessible.

Conversely, the lower level of substitution and the virtual absence of explicitation and omission in the Kazakh corpus indicate a desire to preserve the metaphorical structure of the original in translation. This may reflect differences in the rhetorical style of the originals, which are oriented toward more universally perceived metaphors, or indicate a translation strategy that prioritizes accuracy over cultural adaptation.

Another interesting finding is that despite the common metaphorical patterns in both corpora, such as conflict, space, and construction, differences may be seen in the choice of specific metaphors and in the emphasis on certain conceptual domains. As noted in the literature, Russian political discourse often relies on militaristic metaphors, which was confirmed in the analysis of the corpus. Conflict metaphors are also found in Kazakh speeches, but a more accurate picture of national differences could be provided by a quantitative assessment of the frequency of domains.

In essence, while both translations demonstrate a common desire to preserve metaphors in the diplomatic discourse, the Russian approach appears more flexible, with frequent use of substitution, which may reflect a strategy of adaptation to an international audience. The Kazakh approach is more often focused on the direct transmission of metaphorical meaning. These differences reflect the peculiarities of rhetorical and translation norms in the political communication of the two countries.

## DISCUSSION

The main findings of this study confirmed that retention is the most frequent translation strategy in both the Kazakhstani and the Russian diplomatic discourse. This aligns with what Schäffner (2004) suggested about diplomatic translation, that it is crucial to preserve the metaphorical image to maintain rhetorical and cognitive effectiveness. It is interesting, though, that Russian texts used strategies like substitution and explicitation far more often than Kazakhstani texts. Initially, I hypothesized that translators would prefer keeping metaphors as close to the original meaning as possible. The findings definitely support this, reinforcing insights from scholars like Newmark (1988) and Schäffner (2004), who argue that metaphors are not just stylistic but also cognitive tools vital in political and diplomatic contexts. Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) and Charteris-Black's (2011) earlier studies also back up this point, emphasizing the power of metaphors in shaping audience perceptions.

However, the frequent use of substitution, particularly in the Russian subcorpus, caught my attention. I think that translators deliberately adjusted metaphors to better suit international audiences who might perceive Russian metaphors as overly aggressive, culturally unclear, or politically inappropriate. This corresponds with what Liu and Wang (2020) and Chilton (2004) mentioned about translators adjusting metaphors and content in political and diplomatic texts to fit geopolitical sensitivities. For instance, militaristic metaphors prevalent in Russian texts were sometimes toned down, confirming translators' strategic choices in managing diplomatic nuance (Junhui, 2018; Liu & Huang, 2022).

Conversely, the Kazakhstani translations rarely deviated significantly from the original imagery, consistent with previous observations by Aizhan et al. (2021), who noticed a tendency toward neutral and universally understood metaphors in Kazakhstani political speeches. This may

explain why fewer strategies of substitution or explicitation in the Kazakhstani subcorpus were observed.

The conceptual shifts I observed mainly occurred with substitution, where translators chose metaphors that resonated better culturally or contextually in English. Haif Si Haif and Touati (2022) previously noted this approach, underscoring the importance of adapting metaphors for cultural and diplomatic appropriateness. For instance, “тень на плетень наводить и всех пугать” (muddy the waters and scare people) involves an idiomatic image, and the translation of this example is visually strong. However, the Russian phrase contains a culturally specific metaphorical structure that could conceal meaning for a non-native audience. Therefore, translators employed substitution, opting for a more familiar English expression that conveys the same rhetorical purpose and ensures communicative clarity.

Furthermore, contextual shifts, particularly in the Russian translations, highlight an awareness of geopolitical dynamics and sensitivities. Again, it highlights Liu and Wang's (2020) insights into how diplomatic language is strategically softened for broader acceptance. In addition, the analysis revealed differences in metaphorical models between the two countries. While both utilized conflict, construction, and movement metaphors, Russian speeches leaned heavily on military and defensive imagery. This information is consistent with insights from Junhui (2018) and Anderson (2001), emphasizing ideological framing in Russian political language, which is distinct from the more neutral, development-focused metaphors widely used in Kazakhstani discourse.

Overall, while retention was the most preferred and widely applied strategy across both discourses, subtle variations in translation choices reveal distinctive rhetorical styles and cultural contexts. It is significant to highlight that the Russian

translations were notably more adaptable and pragmatic, indicating deeper ideological considerations, consistent with arguments made by Musolff (2016) and Chilton (2004). Finally, these differences emphasize the important role of translators in diplomatic discourse, identifying how countries represent themselves on the international stage through nuanced linguistic choices. Further research has the potential to examine the influence of these metaphorical adjustments on global perception and diplomatic effectiveness.

## CONCLUSION

The analysis revealed a wide variety of metaphors tied to national and cultural values, ideology, and rhetorical goals. Common translation strategies included retention, substitution, and, less frequently, explicitation and omission. Translators consistently aimed to preserve the tone and style of the original metaphors while ensuring the message remained accessible to international audiences. This approach often resulted in the neutralization of culturally specific idioms or the simplification of abstract metaphors to enhance clarity.

Although both Kazakhstani and Russian speeches addressed themes such as unity, strength, and stability, the metaphorical language in these texts reflected distinct historical and cultural influences. These differences significantly shaped translation choices, as evidenced by the analysis of the corpus and the interpretation of translation strategies.

The findings highlight the important role of metaphors in political communication not just as stylistic tricks but as powerful tools of persuasion and identity. Translating them well requires more than just language skills, because it demands cultural understanding and strategic awareness. While this study contributes valuable insights into metaphor translation within diplomatic discourse, it is important to acknowledge its scope was limited to presidential speeches from 2021 to 2024. Future research could benefit from expanding the corpus to include a broader range of political texts and incorporating qualitative data, such as interviews with professional translators, to further explore the complexities of metaphor translation in diplomatic and political communication.

## REFERENCES

- Aizhan, M., Bektay, G., & Kali, A. (2021, May 1). Peculiarities and difficulties of translating metaphors in the framework of Kazakhstani political discourse. KAZGUU Repository.
- Almass, S. E., & Hussain, S. A. (2021). The mechanism of metaphor in Russian political discourse. *Al-Adab Journal*, 137, 23–40. <https://doi.org/10.31973/aj.v3i137.1669>
- Anderson, R. D. (2001). Metaphors of dictatorship and democracy: Change in the Russian political lexicon and the transformation of Russian politics. *Slavic Review*, 60(2), 312–335. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2697273>
- Aristotle. (2017). *Poetics* (I. Bywater, Trans.; Preface by G. Murray). Digireads.com.
- Aristotle, & Kennedy, G. A. (2006). *On rhetoric: A theory of civic discourse*. OUP USA.
- Bakhodirova, M. (2024, November 22). Conceptual metaphor: bridging language and thought. *Journal of Science-innovative Research in Uzbekistan*.
- Balashova, L. V. (2022). “Diplomatic” and “undiplomatic” in the genres of diplomatic discourse:

based on metaphors of Russian foreign minister Sergey Lavrov used during press conferences and interviews on the special military operation in Ukraine. *Speech Genres*, 17(4), 272–284. <https://doi.org/10.18500/2311-0740-2022-17-4-36-272-284>

Boeynaems, A., Burgers, C., Konijn, E. A., & Steen, G. J. (2017). The effects of metaphorical framing on political persuasion: A systematic literature review. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 32(2), 118–134.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10926488.2017.1297623>

Charteris-Black, J. (2011). *Politicians and rhetoric: The persuasive power of metaphor* (2nd ed.). Palgrave Macmillan.

Chilton, P. (2004). *Analysing political discourse: Theory and practice*. Routledge.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. SAGE Publications.

Davidson, D. (1978). What metaphors mean. *Critical Inquiry*, 5(1), 31–47.

Dickins, J. (2005). *Thinking Arabic translation: A coursebook on translation method: Arabic to English*. Routledge.

Haif Si Haif, C., & Touati, O. (2022). A cognitive approach to metaphor translation in diplomatic discourse from English into Arabic. *Revue Sciences Humaines*, 55, 135–148.

Junhui, F. (2018). Political metaphor in the Presidential Addresses of the Russian Federation and its functions. *CyberLeninka*.

Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. The University of Chicago Press.

Liu, L., & Huang, Z. (2022). Analysis of the conceptual metaphor «war» in political discourse (using the example of the «Address of the President to the Federal Assembly»). *Politicheskaya Lingvistika*, (1), 126–134.

Liu, W., & Wang, Y. (2020). The role of offensive metaphors in Chinese diplomatic discourse. *Discourse Context & Media*, 37, 100418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcm.2020.100418>

Mammadov, A. (2010). Metaphors in the American and Russian political discourse. *Rask Journal*, 31(1), 67–87.

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A Guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.

Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan. (2016). *State Programme of Development of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2016–2019*. Presidential Decree No. 205.

Musolff, A. (2016). *Political metaphor analysis: Discourse and scenarios*. Bloomsbury.

Musaad, M. M. A. (2022). Strategies of translating political metaphors conceptually (English-Arabic). *International Journal of Comparative Literature & Translation Studies*, 10(4), 24–31. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijclts.v.10n.4p.24>

Musolff, A. (2016). *Political metaphor analysis: Discourse and scenarios*. Bloomsbury.

Newmark, P. (1988). *A textbook of translation*. Prentice Hall International.

Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan. (2021, September 1). President Kassym-Jomart Tokayev's State of the Nation Address: Unity of the people and systemic reforms – a solid foundation for the country's prosperity. Akorda.kz.

Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan. (2022, March 16). President Kassym-Jomart Tokayev's State of the Nation Address: New Kazakhstan – the path of renewal and modernisation. Akorda.kz.

Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan. (2022, September 1). President Kassym-Jomart Tokayev's State of the Nation Address: A fair state. One nation. Prosperous society. Akorda.kz.

Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan. (2023, September 1). President Kassym-Jomart Tokayev's State of the Nation Address «Economic course of a just Kazakhstan». Akorda.kz.

Official website of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan. (2024, September 2). President Kassym-Jomart Tokayev's State of the Nation Address "Just Kazakhstan: law and order, economic growth, social optimism". Akorda.kz.

Pragglejaz Group. (2007). MIP: A method for identifying metaphorically used words in discourse. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 22(1), 1–39.

[https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327868ms2201\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327868ms2201_1)

Prandi, M. (2017). *Conceptual conflicts in metaphors and figurative language*. Routledge.

Prandi, M., & Rossi, M. (Eds.). (2022). *Researching metaphors: Towards a comprehensive account* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003184041>

President of the Republic of Kazakhstan. (2012). Strategy "Kazakhstan 2050": New political course of the established state.

President of Russia. (2021, April 21). Presidential address to the Federal Assembly.

President of Russia. (2022, February 24). Presidential address to the Federal Assembly.

President of Russia. (2023, February 21). Presidential address to the Federal Assembly.

President of Russia. (2024, February 29). Presidential Address to the Federal Assembly. <http://en.kremlin.ru/events/president/news/73585>

Reisigl, M., & Wodak, R. (2009). The discourse-historical approach (DHA). In R. Wodak & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Methods for critical discourse analysis* (2nd ed., pp. 87–121). Sage Publications.

Semino, E. (2008). *Metaphor in discourse*. Cambridge University Press.

Siman, J. H., & Da Motta Sampaio, T. O. (2023). A new understanding of metaphors: From collective data to individual cases. *Crossroads a Journal of English Studies*, 43(4), 82–102. <https://doi.org/10.15290/cr.2023.43.4.05>

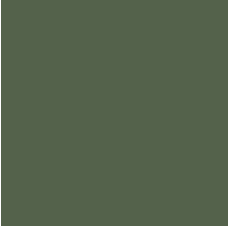
Schäffner, C. (2004). Political discourse analysis from the point of view of translation studies. *Journal of Language and Politics*, 3(1), 117–150. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jlp.3.1.09sch>

State Programme for Development and Functioning of Languages in the Republic of Kaakhstan for 2011-2020 (2011).

Van Den Broeck, R. (1981). The limits of translatability exemplified by metaphor translation. *Poetics Today*, 2(4), 73-87. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1772487>

Vestermark, I. (2007). Metaphors in politics: A study of the metaphorical personification of America in political discourse. DIVA Portal.

Zou'bi, A., & Kanakri, M. (2020). The translatability of metaphor in political speeches from English into Arabic. *International Journal of Language & Linguistics*, 7(3), 83-92. <https://doi.org/10.30845/ijll.v7n3p7>



УДК (UDC) 81'232:81'33:316.647.82

DOI 10.51634/2307-5201\_2025\_9\_92

## **MNU УНИВЕРСИТЕТІНДЕГІ АУДАРМА БАРЫСЫНДА ХЕДЖ ҚҰРЫЛЫМДАРЫН ҚОЛДАНУҒА ГЕНДЕРДІҢ ӘСЕРІ**

ЕЛИЗОВЕТА ФРОЛОВА

yelizaveta\_frolova@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

### **Аңдатпа**

Ерлер мен әйелдердің тілдік стильдерінің айырмашылығы аударма қызметі контекстінде де әрдайым зерттеушілердің назарын аударатын тақырып болды. Бұл мақалада синхронды аудармада хедж құрылымдарының (сенімсіздікті білдіретін тілдік бірліктер) қолданылуына гендердің әсері қарастырылады. Зерттеу MNU университетіндегі «Ілеспе және тізбекті аударма IV» пәнінің студенттері арасында жүргізіліп, сандық әдістер қолданылды. Студенттер ағылшын тілінен орыс тіліне хедж бірліктері енгізілген мәтінді аударды. Жүргізілген t-тест пен кросс-табуляция нәтижелері ерлер мен әйелдер арасында жалпы хедж қолдану жиілігі мен типологиясында айырмашылық жоқ екенін көрсетті. Сонымен қатар, екі топта да жиі қолданылатын хедж түрі – жеке (мен, біз) есімдіктермен байланысқан құрылымдар. Зерттеу нәтижелері бойынша, жыныс хедж қолдануға айтарлықтай әсер етпейді деген қорытынды жасалды.

**Түйін сөздер:** гендердің әсері, ілеспе аударма, хедж құрылымдары, хедж типологиясы

# ГЕНДЕРНОЕ ВЛИЯНИЕ НА ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ ХЕДЖЕЙ В УСТНОМ ПЕРЕВОДЕ В MNU

ЕЛИЗОВЕТА ФРОЛОВА

yelizaveta\_frolova@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## **Аннотация**

Противопоставление языковых стилей мужчин и женщин всегда вызывало научный интерес, особенно в контексте переводческой деятельности. Данная работа рассматривает влияние гендера на использование хеджей (лексических и грамматических маркеров неуверенности) в процессе синхронного перевода. Исследование было проведено среди студентов курса «Последовательный и синхронный перевод IV» в MNU с применением количественного метода анализа. Участники переводили аудиофрагмент с намеренно включёнными хеджирующими структурами. Статистическая обработка показала отсутствие значимых различий между мужчинами и женщинами в общем количестве и типологии используемых хеджей. Однако, как среди мужчин, так и среди женщин преобладали личные хеджирующие конструкции. Таким образом, гендер не оказывает статистически значимого влияния на использование хеджей в условиях учебного перевода.

**Ключевые слова:** гендерное влияние, синхронный перевод, хеджи, типология хеджей

# GENDER IMPACT ON HEDGES IN INTERPRETING AT MNU

YELIZAVETA FROLOVA

yelizaveta\_frolova@kazguu.kz

Maqsut Narikbayev University

## Abstract

The opposition of language styles among genders constantly drew research interest by posing male speech as succinct and confident in contrast to hesitant and intricate female discourse. This divergence seemed to be present not only in one-language communication but also in the interpretation as a special form of communicative act. The problem of the current study is based upon the contradictory findings of previous researches in relation to hedge usage in simultaneous interpretation among genders, which were conducted solely through corpus data. Hence, the value of this study is examining the patterns of hedge usage in interpreting among genders in a novel context of MNU. It aims to analyze the impact of gender on the number and typology of hedges by resorting to quantitative method. By random sampling, 18 out of 26 students in the “Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV” course were selected with the respective proportion of males and females in population as well as the sample. Then, participants were asked to simultaneously interpret an excerpt from English into Russian, which was subsequently transcribed and subjected to statistical tests in Jamovi software. Both independent sample t-test and cross tabulation demonstrated no differences in the general and type-restricted hedge usage. Meanwhile, according to descriptives, personal hedging structures dominated for both genders. Overall, the study spotted no impact of gender on hedging in interpreting, failing to reject H0.

**Keywords:** impact of gender, simultaneous interpretation, hedges, typology of hedges

## INTRODUCTION

The gender variation in speech came to the fore in sociolinguistics as one of the most ubiquitous realms consistently generating novel research subjects. Initially, gender problematics was prompted by the scientific thought of Lakoff (1973) and Tannen (1994), who put a great emphasis on the forms of expression, including degree of lexical preciosity and grammatical intricateness, in parallel with the content choice and manner of rendering ideas. For example, based on Lakoff's (1973) notes, by complementing speech with detailed adjectives and excessive politeness, females are pictured as seeking approval or acceptance (p. 51; p. 56). Thus, it is highly expected for females to linger, circumvent, elaborate, or reiterate points to reaffirm that their ideas are validly heard.

Following the gender wave in science, the gender variable started to be studied not only in the context of original speech acts, but also interpreted excerpts with the number of deriving limitations. To begin with, as Komissarov (1990) succinctly states, the interpreting process comprises doubled system of regular communication with two speakers and two receptors respectively (p. 44). Consequently, the outcome represents a mold of the original speech modified by the scope of variables that are either mediating or moderating in correspondence to gender. For instance, Tajvidi & Ferdowsi (2019) detected ability to manage one's mental state and modify strategies as a separate factor guiding interpretation performance regardless of gender (p. 16). Meanwhile, Cecot (2001), Amini et al. (2022), Magnificio & Defranq (2018) pointed out possible mediating variables, including pauses, working memory, and time between hearing and speaking, that are both under the effect of gender and may hypothetically drive the linguistic scheme of an utterance in simultaneous interpretation. As a result, the study of linguistic repercussions gender could evoke in the interpretation is chronically complicated by the chance of

statistical interference.

Additionally, the problematics of the research scrutinizing the effect of gender on the linguistic patterns in interpretation is illuminated by the remarks of Pan & Zheng (2017), who underscored the feasible statistical distortion in the generalizability of corpus data (p. 18). As a result, aforementioned research constraints form the gap for studying gender peculiarities in interpreting empirically by sampling interpreters from a certain population. In this regard, the value of the current research is amplified by shedding the light on a particular small population, namely students enrolled in the course "Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV" at MNU, which minimizes pitfalls in generalizing and considers new sampling context. Particularly, it aims to explore how gender affects the quantitative distribution of hedges and types of hedges as well as determine what functional type of hedges prevails in the interpretation of males and females respectively.

## QUESTIONS

The main question is the following:

- How does gender affect the usage of hedges among students of "Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV" course at MNU?

H1: Female students of "Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV" course at MNU use more hedges than male

H2: Male students of "Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV" course at MNU use more hedges than female

H0: There is no difference in the usage of hedges by male and female students of "Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV" course at MNU.

The subsidiary questions are:

- Does gender affect functional type of hedges among students of "Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV" course

at MNU?

- What functional type of hedges prevails in the interpretation of male and female students of “Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV” course at MNU?

## LITERATURE REVIEW

A close look at the general trends in gender influence on the linguistic product in interpreting proves most of the findings to be inconsistent. On the one hand, females remain surprisingly impartial to the excessive softening and explication, keeping pace with male interpreters in mitigating insulting expressions or conveying linking words (Bartłomiejczyk, 2020, pp. 475-476; Magnifico & Defrancq, 2020, p. 14). On the other hand, it was revealed to be characteristic of female interpreters to scrupulously conform to the original, which is exemplified by their attitude to unintentional distortions in interpreting, the repertoire of equivalents and transformations. For instance, when it concerns restructuring one’s utterance after a misinterpretation or slip of the tongue has come in the way, females outperform males (Ziobro-Strzypek, 2014, p. 13; Magnifico & Defrancq, 2018, p. 120). Similarly, in the syntactic and lexical choices in parallel with the degree of modification females tend more to opt for words ascertaining original message (Hu & Meng, 2018, pp. 129-131; Yuan et al., 2021, p. 474). Thus, contrary to the seeming verbosity and hesitance in the female discourse, linguistic organization in female interpreting adheres to the overall tendency towards precision and commitment.

At the same time, in hedging, phenomenon manifesting unsureness that the interpretations of females are found to be stripped of, the trend is again changing its trajectory. Opposite to the overall neglect towards hedges in interpreting detected by Fu & Tan (2024), Magnifico & Defrancq (2017) accentuated that not only interpreted texts comprised additional hedges, but also

females were excessively relying on them (p. 44). This statement is backed up by the identical findings of Götz (2021), who dived into the context of Hungarian-English and English-Hungarian language pair, and Xiong (2022), who dwelled upon Chinese-English interpretation. Nonetheless, Pan & Zheng (2017) came to the conclusion that male interpreters are not only abundant in hedging but also give preference to insert hedging units when the credibility of facts is doubtful or there is a need to appeal to the listeners (pp. 186-187). Therefore, the hypothesized vagueness of female interpretation via the use of hedges gets challenged providing an open field for the current research to take a look into which gender eventually hedge more.

To test whether female students hedge more than male students in the new context of English-Russian simultaneous interpretation, it is also crucial to elaborate on the theoretical framework, including definition and classification of “hedge”. As Crompton (1972) signifies, hedging structures is pragmatically any linguistic unit exhibiting “speaker’s lack of commitment in an utterance” (p. 281). From this perspective, apart from structural classification by lexical and syntactic strata applied by Boginskaya (2023) and levels of strategies summarized by Clemen (1997), the hedges may be alternatively subdivided into functional classes. Propped up by Caffi’s (1999) typology, featuring “bushes”, “hedges”, and “shields”, hedging units can modify the quality, express uncertainty from personal view, or third person (pp. 905-906). Hence, functionally this study stratifies hedges into modifiers, personal structures, and impersonal structures.

## METHODOLOGY

As the main strategy of inquiry, quantitative method was applied to look for patterns and study impact of gender on hedges in interpreting in the main and first subsidiary questions and to give the average numbers in the second subsidiary question (Muijs,

2004, p. 7). Since the research interest revolved around “Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV”, it was situated at MNU. As the first step of the research the random sampling featuring 18 persons out of the population with 26 students in the “Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV” course at MNU was conducted. As Patten & Newhart (2018) concur, in the study that sharpens the focus on groups as independent variable, stratified random sampling should spotlight all the groups in the same percentages (p. 110). Thus, having approximated the representational proportions, this study sampled 4 out of 6 males and 14 out of 20 females correspondingly.

The material for interpreting was generated by OpenAI (2024) on the topic familiar to students “Migration Policy in the USA” on the basis of the article by Gramlich (2024). To avoid the absence of hedges, ChatGPT was asked to add 26 hedging units (modal verbs, introductory structures, and adjectives) into the text that is available in Appendix A. After manual editing, the text was voiced over with the overall duration of 2 minutes 39 seconds. Before recording the participants signed the informed consent in English with one copy remaining for them

(Appendix B). Then, they were provided with the audio and glossary and asked to interpret it in simultaneous mode from English into Russian. Afterwards the audios were transcribed by Turboscribe AI and manually reviewed (Appendix C). Finally, data were entered into Jamovi software and exposed to t-test, cross tabulation, and frequencies.

## FINDINGS

To answer the main research question, one person was counted as the unit for analysis with gender coded as independent nominal variable and percent of hedges retained from the audio in the target text as continuous dependent variable. Independent Samples T-test was run to detect whether the gender of students has a predictive power on the proportion of hedging units conveyed with the exclusion of author-driven or added hedges. As it is exhibited in Table 1 and Table 2, female interpretation students ( $M = 28.8$ ,  $SD = 14.2$ ) do not overtake male interpretation students ( $M = 27.7$ ,  $SD = 14.1$ ) in sustained hedges,  $t(16) = 0.136$ ,  $p = .893$ . Put differently,  $H_0$  is proved inferring that gender cannot be a potential factor for hedge patterns in interpretation of students

	gender	N	Missing	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Percent hedges	1	4	0	28.8	14.2	15.38	46.1
	2	14	0	27.7	14.1	7.69	53.9

Table 1. Descriptives

		Statistic	df	p
Percent hedges	Student's t	0.136	16.0	0.893

Table 2. Independent Samples T-test

at MNU.

Note.  $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Concerning the classification of hedges, the second set of data was created with the target text hedge deemed as the statistical unit belonging either to male or female interpreter and adhering to modifying, personal or impersonal type of hedges. This way, the data were meticulously examined through cross-tabulation that brought to light no statistical significance in typological patterns of hedges in interpretation input among genders,  $\chi^2(2, N=147) = 0.396, p = .821$  (see Table 4). Furthermore, as illustrated by Table 3, not only the typological distribution was statistically inconsiderable, but also observed cases did not vary much from expected ones presupposing almost even results among genders. Thus, gender was not found to affect the typology of hedges preferred in simultaneous interpretation from English

	hedgetype				
gender		1	2	3	Total
1	Observed	5	15	14	34
	Expected	6.1	15.3	12.7	34
2	Observed	21	51	41	113
	Expected	19.9	50.7	42.3	113
Total	Observed	26	66	55	147
	Expected	26.00	66.0	55.0	147.0

Table 3. Contingency Tables

	Value	df	p
$\chi^2$	0.396	2	0.821
N	147		

Table 4.  $\chi^2$  Tests

to Russian.

Finally, to determine the predominant type of hedges for each gender, the filter setting was adjusted and frequencies report was generated. As Table 5 and Table 6 correspondingly display, from the overall number of units (N = 34, Mode = 2) hedges integrating personal pronouns predominated in the interpretation of male students – 44%, N = 15.

	hedgetype
N	34
Missing	0
Mean	2.26
Median	2.00
Mode	2.00
Standard deviation	0.710
Minimum	1
Maximum	3

Table 5. Descriptives (male)

hedgetype	Counts	% of Total	Cumulative %
1	5	14.7 %	14.7 %
2	15	44.1 %	58.8 %
3	14	41.2 %	100.0 %

Table 6. Frequencies of hedgetype (male)

Likewise, as it is clear from Table 7 and Table 8, personal hedging structures occupied overwhelming majority of 45.1%, N = 51 from the overall quantity of structures (N = 113, Mode = 2). Thus, not only male but also female students demonstrated proclivity towards referring

	hedgetype
N	113
Missing	0
Mean	2.18
Median	2
Mode	2.00
Standard deviation	0.722
Minimum	1
Maximum	3

Table 7. Frequencies of hedgetype (female)

hedgetype	Counts	% of Total	Cumulative %
1	21	18.6 %	18.6%
2	51	45.1 %	63.7 %
3	41	36.3 %	100.0 %

Table 8. Frequencies of hedgetype (female)

to themselves or conversational counterpart through first or second personal pronouns in hedging.

## DISCUSSION

Interestingly, male and female interpreting students from the course “Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV” showcased to translate approximately the same number of hedging units from English to Russian. Compared to the studies by Magnifico & Defrancq (2017), who brought to light the inclination of females to insert more hedging structures, and by Pan & Zheng (2017), who stressed the opposite dynamics for males to hedge more in interpreting, this research stated statistically even results for both genders. This contradictory perspective gets continuation in the second finding that presents the equal distribution of hedging types among genders in interpreting with personal structures dominating over remaining two classes. More pertinently, such typological patterns partially coincide with the conclusions of Pang & Zheng (2017) about the tendency of female interpreters to internalize hedges focused on the doubt from the point of speaker (pp. 186-187). In other words, female interpreters from both

studies are inclined to apply hedges to express the lack of sureness from the first person.

On the whole, the even patterns in hedging demonstrated by current study present a challenge to previous views concerning the influence of gender on language, which singled out the subordinate role of a woman that either downplays the straightforwardness of an utterance by applying more hedges in speech or meticulously follows the original by using less hedges in interpreting. Chiefly, if being underpinned by similar studies in the future, the current one may act as a benchmark for the establishment of seeming linguistic equality in hedging among genders. However, taking into account academic context and quantitative nature of current study, the equal results between genders may have been under the effect of participants’ varying interpretation skills or relatively small proportion of males in the population. Finally, the small-scale nature of the research and quite specific population also makes it problematic to draw conclusion about massive shifts in gender-based linguistics.

## CONCLUSION

Overall, leaning on the previous studies examining the effect of gender on hedge use in the interpretation, this study aimed to elucidate the hedge patterns among genders in the course “Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpretation IV” at MNU. By resorting to the quantitative method, it stated a scientific inquiry to see how gender impacts the number of translated hedges alongside with their typology and determine the preponderant type of hedges from modifiers, personal, and impersonal constructions for both genders. Chiefly, the findings revealed that both variables appeared to be uninfluenced by gender, which presented a controversy with existing researches. Meanwhile, according to cross tabulation and descriptives, the categorical division of hedges was found to be almost equal among genders with personal structures prevailing both for males and females. All in all, current results may veer from the absolute due to population and time constraints that embody certain hurdles in conducting research. Thus, it is recommended in the future to draw bigger sample as well as account for feasible interference of interpretation level and language level of students. Finally, it will be also desirable to dwell on other dependent variables, such as transformations, syntactical patterns, emotive words, and complement findings with qualitative interviews of participants to explicate the data in the right manner.

## REFERENCES

- Amini, M., Dabaghi, A., & Nejadansari, D. (2022). Working Memory and Consecutive Interpreting Performance in Proficient Bilinguals: A Gender Perspective. *InTRAlinea: Online Translation Journal*, 24.
- Bartłomiejczyk, M. (2020). Parliamentary impoliteness and the interpreter’s gender. *Pragmatics*, 30(4), 459-484. <https://doi.org/10.1075/rag.18064.bar/>
- Boginskaya, O. A. (2023). Russian lexical and syntactic hedges in dissertation reviews. *Russian Language Studies*, 21(1), 18-32. <https://doi.org/10.22363/2618-8163-2023-21-1-18-32/>
- Caffi, C. (1999). On mitigation. *Journal of pragmatics*, 31(7), 881-909. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166\(98\)00098-8/](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(98)00098-8/)
- Cecot, M. (2001). Pauses in simultaneous interpretation: A contrastive analysis of professional interpreters’ performances. *The interpreters’ newsletter*, 11(1), 63-85.
- Clemen, G. (1997). The concept of hedging: Origins, Approaches and Definitions. In R. Markkanen & H. Schröder (Eds.), *Hedging and Discourse* (pp. 235-248). De Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110807332.235/>
- Crompton, P. (1997). Hedging in academic writing: Some theoretical problems. *English for specific purposes*, 16(4), 271-287. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906\(97\)00007-0/](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(97)00007-0/)
- Fu, R., & Tan, J. (2024). Hedges in interpreted and non-interpreted English: A cross-modal, corpus-based study. *Interpreting and Society*, 4(1), 44-66. <https://doi.org/10.1177/27523810231224149/>
- Götz, A. (2021). Hedging in interpreted speech: Cognitive hedges in English and Hungarian interpreting. In A. Almanna & Ch. Gu (Eds.), *Translation as a Set of Frames* (pp. 147-164). Routledge.

Gramlich, J. (2024, October 1). Migrant encounters at U.S.-Mexico border have fallen sharply in 2024. Pew Research Center. Hu, K., & Meng, L. (2018). Gender differences in Chinese-English press conference interpreting. *Perspectives*, 26(1), 117-134. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2017.1337209/>

Komissarov, V. N. (1990). *Teoriya perevoda: Lingvisticheskiye Aspekty* [Translation Theory: Linguistic aspects]. Moscow: Higher School.

Lakoff, R. (1973). Language and woman's place. *Language in society*, 2(1), 45-79. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500000051/>

Magnifico, C., & Defrancq, B. (2017). Hedges in conference interpreting: The role of gender. *Interpreting*, 19(1), 21-46. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.19.1.02mag/>

Magnifico, C., & Defrancq, B. (2018). Norms and gender in simultaneous interpreting: A study of self-repairs. In S. Granger, M. A. Lefer, & L. Aguiar De Souza Penha Marion (Eds.), *Book of Abstracts: Using Corpora in Contrastive and Translation Studies Conference (5th ed.)* (pp. 119 – 120). CECL Papers.

Magnifico, C., & Defrancq, B. (2020). Norms and gender in simultaneous interpreting: a study of connective markers. *Translation & Interpreting: The International Journal of Translation and Interpreting Research*, 12(1), 1-17.

Muijs, D. (2004). *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS*. Sage Publications.

OpenAI. (2024). ChatGPT (Nov 5 Version) [Large language model]. <https://chat.openai.com/chat/>

Pan, F., & Zheng, B. (2017). Gender difference of hedging in interpreting for Chinese government press conferences: a corpus-based study. *Across Languages and Cultures*, 18(2), 171-193. Patten & Newhart (2018). *Understanding Research Methods: An Overview of the Essentials*. Routledge.

Tajvidi, G. R., & Ferdowsi, S. (2019). The effect of EQ and gender on oral cloze performance of simultaneous interpreting students. *Applied Research on English Language*, 8(2), 165-186. <https://doi.org/10.22108/are.2018.112455.1342/>

Tannen, D. (1994). *Gender and discourse*. Oxford University Press.

Xiong, B. (2022, December). Gender Difference in Vague Words: A Corpus-based Study in Chinese-English Political Interpreting. In In A. Holl, J. Chen, & G. Guan (Eds.), *2022 5th International Conference on Humanities Education and Social Sciences (ICHESS 2022)* (pp. 2470-2480). Atlantis Press. [https://doi.org/10.2991/978-2-494069-89-3\\_284/](https://doi.org/10.2991/978-2-494069-89-3_284/)

Yuan, X., Shi, Y., & Wan, H. (2021). Investigating effects of gender identity on interpreters' styles: A case study of multidimensional analysis. In K. Hu, J. B. Kim, Ch. Zong, E. Chersoni (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 35th Pacific Asia Conference on Language, Information and Computation* (pp. 463-475). Association for Computational Linguistics.

Ziobro-Strzypek, J. (2014). Gender-bound differences in the application of self-correction as a strategy in simultaneous interpreting. In M. Wierzbicka & L. Wille (Eds.), *In the Field of Contrastive and Applied Linguistics*. Rzeszów: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego.

## АВТОРЛАРҒА АРНАЛҒАН АҚПАРАТ

### ЖАЛПЫ ТАЛАПТАР:

Мақала түпнұсқа болуы тиіс, бұрын жарияланбаған және басқа басылымдарға қарауға ұсынылмаған. Мақаланың тақырыбы журналдың тақырыбына сәйкес болуы және ғылыми қоғамдастық үшін өзекті болуы керек. Плагиатқа жол берілмейді. Мақала түпнұсқалылыққа тексеруден өтуі керек.

### 1. Мақала құрылымы:

Мақала атауы: қысқа болуы және жұмыстың мазмұнын көрсетуі қажет. Аңдатпа: көлемі 200–250 сөз, зерттеудің негізгі мақсаттарын, әдістерін және нәтижелерін қысқаша баяндауы керек (үш тілде: ағылшын, қазақ және орыс). Кілт сөздер: 5-7 сөз немесе сөз тіркесі, мақаланың негізгі тақырыптарын көрсетеді. Кіріспе: зерттеу мәселесін сипаттау, әдебиетке шолу, зерттеудің мақсаттары және/немесе сұрақтары. Зерттеу әдістері: әдістемені нақты және егжей-тегжейлі сипаттау, зерттеуді қайта өндіруге мүмкіндік береді. Нәтижелер және талқылау: нәтижелерді егжей-тегжейлі баяндау, оларды талқылау және бұрын алынған деректермен салыстыру. Қорытынды: зерттеудің негізгі қорытындылары және олардың ғылыми қоғамдастық үшін маңыздылығы. Әдебиеттер тізімі: мәтінде дәйексөз келтірілген өзекті дереккөздерді қамтуы және журнал талаптарына сәйкес рәсімделуі тиіс (қазақ және орыс тіліндегі мақалалар үшін ГОСТ 7.1–2003 «Библиографиялық жазба. Библиографиялық сипаттама. Жалпы талаптар мен ережелер», ағылшын тіліндегі мақалалар үшін APA 7th). ӨОЖ нөмірі (Өмбебап ондық жіктеу)

### 2. Техникалық талаптар:

Мақала .docx форматында ұсынылуы керек. Мақаланың көлемі: 5000-8000 сөз (әдебиеттер тізімін қоса алғанда). Қаріп: Times New Roman, 12 кегль, жоларалық интервал 1.5. Жиектер: әр жағынан 2,5 см.

### 3. Кестелер мен суреттерді рәсімдеу:

Кестелер мен суреттер мәтінге енгізілуі, тақырыптар мен нөмірлері болуы керек. Барлық суреттер жоғары сапалы болуы тиіс (кемінде 300 dpi). Кестелер мен суреттер рет-ретімен нөмірленуі және мақала мәтінде оларға сілтеме болуы тиіс.

### 4. Этикалық талаптар:

Егер зерттеуге адамдар қатысса, автор зерттеудің этикалық нормаларға сәйкес жүргізілгенін және этикалық комитеттің тиісті мақұлдауын алғанын растауы тиіс. Барлық авторлар жариялауға жазбаша келісім беріп, зерттеуге қосқан үлесін көрсетуі керек. Қызығушылықтар қақтығысы болған жағдайда, олар ашылуы тиіс.

### 5. Рецензиялау процесі:

Барлық мақалалар қосарлы жасырын рецензиялаудан өтеді. Автор рецензенттер сұрауы бойынша қосымша материалдар ұсынуға немесе түсініктемелер беруге дайын болуы керек.

### 6. Ұсыну тәртібі:

Мақалалар журналдың ресми электрондық поштасы арқылы ұсынылады. Қосымша хатта авторлар жұмыстың басқа журналдарға ұсынылмағанын және рецензиялауға келісім бергенін көрсетуі керек.

Толығырақ ақпарат журнал сайтында

(Сілтеме: <https://mnu.kz/kk-kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/>)

Редакция мекенжайы және байланыс деректері: 010000, Қазақстан Республикасы, Астана қ. Maqsut Narikbayev University, Қорғалжын тас жолы, 8. тел.: 8(7172) 70 30 07 <https://mnu.kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/> e-mail: [liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz](mailto:liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz)

## ИНФОРМАЦИЯ ДЛЯ АВТОРОВ

### ОБЩИЕ ТРЕБОВАНИЯ

Статья должна быть оригинальной, не опубликованной ранее и не поданной на рассмотрение в другие издания. Тема статьи должна соответствовать тематике журнала и быть актуальной для научного сообщества. Не допускается наличие плагиата. Статья должна пройти проверку на оригинальность.

#### 1. Структура статьи:

Название статьи: должно быть кратким и отражать содержание работы. Аннотация: объём 200-250 слов, должна кратко излагать основные цели, методы и результаты исследования (на трех языках: английском, казахском и русском). Ключевые слова: 5-7 слов или фраз, которые отражают основные темы статьи. Введение: описание проблемы исследования, обзор литературы, цели и/или вопросы исследования. Методы исследования: чёткое и подробное описание методологии, позволяющее воспроизвести данное исследование. Результаты и обсуждение: подробное изложение результатов, их обсуждение и сравнение с ранее полученными данными. Заключение: основные выводы исследования и их значимость для научного сообщества. Список литературы: должен включать актуальные источники, цитируемые в тексте, и оформлен в соответствии с требованиями журнала (ГОСТ 7.1-2003 «Библиографическая запись. Библиографическое описание. Общие требования и правила» – для статей на казахском и русском языках, APA 7th – для статей на английском языке). Номер УДК (Универсальный десятичный классификатор)

#### 2. Технические требования:

Статья должна быть представлена в формате .docx. Объём статьи: от 5 000 до 8 000 слов (включая список литературы). Шрифт: Times New Roman, 12 кегль, межстрочный интервал 1.5. Поля: 2,5 см с каждой стороны.

#### 3. Оформление таблиц и рисунков:

Таблицы и рисунки должны быть встроены в текст, иметь подписи и нумерацию. Все рисунки должны быть высокого разрешения (не менее 300 dpi). Таблицы и рисунки должны быть пронумерованы по порядку и иметь отсылку на них в тексте статьи.

#### 4. Этические требования:

Если в исследовании принимали участие люди, автор должен подтвердить, что исследование было проведено в соответствии с этическими нормами и получено соответствующее одобрение этического комитета. Все авторы должны дать письменное согласие на публикацию и указать свой вклад в исследование. Конфликты интересов, если таковые имеются, должны быть раскрыты.

#### 5. Процесс рецензирования:

Все статьи проходят двойное слепое рецензирование. Автор должен быть готов предоставить дополнительные материалы или разъяснения по запросу рецензентов.

#### 6. Порядок подачи:

Статьи подаются через официальный электронный адрес журнала. В сопроводительном письме авторы должны указать, что работа не подана в другие журналы, и согласие на рецензирование.

Более подробная информация на сайте журнала

(См.: <https://mnu.kz/kk-kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/>).

Адрес и контактные данные редакции: 010000, г. Астана, шоссе Қорғалжын, 8, Maqsut Narikbayev University, тел.: 8 (7172) 70 30 07

<https://mnu.kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/> e-mail: [liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz](mailto:liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz)

## INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

### GENERAL REQUIREMENTS:

The manuscript must be original, not previously published, and not under consideration for publication elsewhere. The article should align with the journal's scope and contribute to the advancement of knowledge in the relevant field. Authors must ensure the manuscript is free from plagiarism. A 100% of originality is required, verified through plagiarism detection software.

### 1. Manuscript Structure:

**Title:** Concise and accurately reflective of the content. **Abstract:** A brief summary of 200-250 words outlining the research objectives, methodology, and key findings (in three languages: English, Kazakh and Russian). **Keywords:** 5-7 keywords or phrases that capture the main topics of the article. **Introduction:** Describes the research problem, provides a literature review, and outlines the purpose and/or research questions of the study. **Methodology:** Detailed explanation of the research methods, allowing replication of the study. **Results and Discussion:** Presentation of findings, followed by a discussion comparing these with existing research. **Conclusion:** Summary of the key results, implications for the field, and recommendations for further research. **References:** A complete and properly formatted reference list (APA – for publications in English, GOST (ГОСТ 7.1-2003 «Библиографическая запись. Библиографическое описание. Общие требования и правила») – for publications in Kazakh and Russian). The UDC number (Universal Decimal Classification)

### 2. Technical Specifications:

Manuscripts should be submitted in .docx format. Article length should range from 5,000 to 8,000 words, including references. **Font:** Times New Roman, size 12, with 1.5 line spacing. **Margins** should be set to 1 inch (2.5 cm) on all sides.

### 3. Figures and Tables:

Figures and tables must be integrated within the text and include clear, descriptive captions.

All images should be in high resolution (at least 300 dpi). Figures and tables must be numbered consecutively and referred to within the text.

### 4. Ethical Considerations:

For research involving human subjects, ethical approval must be obtained, and this must be stated in the manuscript. All authors should confirm their contribution to the research and give written consent for publication. Conflicts of interest, if any, should be disclosed.

### 5. Peer Review Process:

All submitted articles undergo a double-blind peer review process. Authors may be required to submit additional data or address reviewer comments during the review process.

### 6. Submission Guidelines:

Articles must be submitted through the journal's official email. A cover letter should accompany the manuscript, indicating that the article is not under review elsewhere and confirming the authors' consent for peer review.

More detailed information is available on the journal's website

(See: <https://mnu.kz/kk-kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/>).

Editorial office address and contact details: 010000, Republic of Kazakhstan, Astana.

Maqsut Narikbayev University, Korgalzhyn highway, 8. Tel.: 8 (7172) 70 30 07 <https://mnu.kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/>, e-mail: [liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz](mailto:liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz)



**РЕДАКЦИЯНЫҢ  
МЕКЕНЖАЙЫ:**

010000, Астана қ.,  
Қорғалжын тас жолы,  
8, Maqsut Narikbayev  
University, тел. 8 (7172) 70  
30 07 web-site: <https://mnu.kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/>  
Email: [liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz](mailto:liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz)

Журналдың толық электрондық нұсқасы және әр жеке мақала журналдың сайтында, Maqsut Narikbayev University репозиториінде орналастырылады және жалпыға қолжетімді болып табылады.

ISSN 3005-9100

Журналдың дизайны: Нуранова А.

Жарияланған: 31.06.2025

© Maqsut Narikbayev University, 2025

© «Liberal Arts Digest» журналы, 2025.

**АДРЕС РЕДАКЦИИ:**

010000, г. Астана, шоссе Коргалжын, 8, Maqsut Narikbayev University

тел. 8 (7172) 70 30 07

web-site: <https://mnu.kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/>

Email: [liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz](mailto:liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz)

Полная электронная версия журнала и каждая статья отдельно размещаются на сайте журнала, в репозитории Maqsut Narikbayev University и являются общедоступными.

ISSN 3005-9100

Дизайн журнала: Нуранова А.

Издан: 31.06.2025

© Maqsut Narikbayev University, 2025

© Журнал «Liberal Arts Digest», 2025.

**EDITORIAL ADDRESS:**

010000, Astana, 8 Korgalzhyn highway

Maqsut Narikbayev University Phone numb. 8 (7172) 70 30 07 web-site: <https://mnu.kz/mnu-liberal-arts-digest/>

Email: [liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz](mailto:liberal.arts.digest@mnu.kz) The full e-journal and articles separately are publicly available on the journal's website and in Maqsut Narikbayev University's repository.

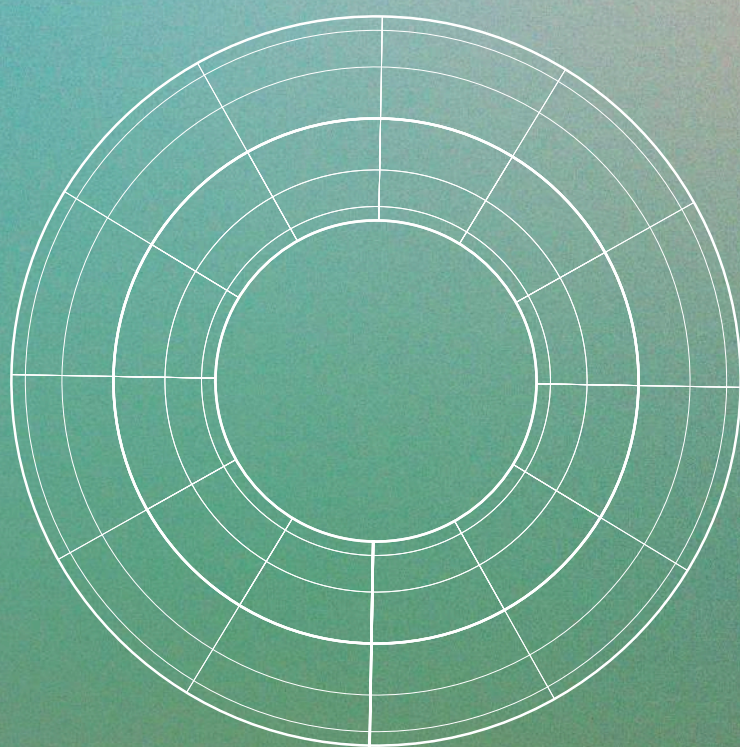
ISSN 3005-9100

Design of the journal: Nuranova A.

Published: 31.06.2025

© Maqsut Narikbayev University, 2025

© «Liberal Arts Digest» journal, 2025.



**MNU** MAQSUT  
NARIKBAYEV  
UNIVERSITY

Astana, Kazakhstan  
№1 (9)