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CODE-SWITCHING AND CROSSTALK IN MULTINATIONAL NETWORKS

Abstract: The paper deals with communication problems of coherent management of multinational networks in which several working languages are used. It is argued here that the information literacy and proficiency in foreign languages underlie social mobility in the third (service) and fourth (information) sections of labor employment. The paper has two parts. In the first the macro level quantitative methods are used to display a competition among the major languages in the expanding circles. The second part is devoted to micro-level analyses of the covert models of code switching practice that can cause misunderstanding in an alien language used for professional purposes. The linguistic, pragmatic, conceptual and graphic types of crosstalk are specified on the data of talks in multinational networks.

Key words: Code-switching, crosstalk, information literacy, multinational networks, proficiency in foreign language.

Introduction: What is the problem?

Language expansion^[1] follows the changes in technologies^[2] in the inner, the outer and the expanding circles^[3] of the real and cyber information. Code-switching (CS) practice analysis of languages used in multinational networks of the international education, transnational business, and commerce show that code-switching and crosstalk^[4] can be estimated as the indicators of *language distance* (Uriel Weinreich^[5]) and as the markers of *social distance* (Rodolfo Jacobson^[6], Carol Myers-Scotton^[7]). Commerce and new technologies underlie an expansion of transnational companies and corporations (TC) and international organizations (IO) outside the national and geopolitical borders. It increases the needs of multinational networks in international management by using either own or alien languages. CS practice in the expanding virtual^[8] spheres of cross-cultural communication came into the focus of the recent CS surveys.

Some leading companies of the USA and EU tend to expand their business over continents. Thus, according to statistical data from 2001^[9], more than half of the 500 top TC belonged to the USA (197) and to the EU (143). There are also 88 Japanese TC. The European and American trade interests dominate in the Western and Eastern European regions and the Japanese dominate in the Asian market. It was the advertising agencies of American TC that first became aware of the cultural differences of consumers in other countries. The needs in “the cultural embeddedness of consumption” have introduced the concept of the “international style”^[10]. Being aware of the cultural embeddedness the USA TC went “softly into many foreign markets”^[11]. The needs for *language embeddedness* of advertising and commerce are discussed within the framework of the semiotic studies^[12] of the spreading of TC brands outside their nations. Recent problems of transnational business management under conditions of cross-cultural communication require more close attention of the social sciences. Meanwhile it is well known that the

perception, cognition and conceptualization of verbal and non-verbal symbols are properly embedded in one's own language cognitive matrix.

The role of one's own and alien languages in the exchanges in a multinational network of TC is in the focus of linguists and sociologists. Several questions arise. What (own and alien) languages are used as the working ones by employers of multinational networks of TC? What information literacy skills can effects benign and malign ends of business management of multinational networks? In which sections of labor employment and for what jobs is proficiency in foreign languages required? What types of code-switching practices occur in networks of TC under conditions of cross-cultural communication of different ranks of employers (white- and blue collar) whose native languages vary? In order to answer these questions both quantitative and qualitative approaches are needed.

Sources, Data, Measurement and Methodology

The sources of the statistic data are connected with surveys of managements of the International trade and business. Our survey is based on the statistical data available at the following sources: (1) websites: <http://www.uia.org/organizations/ybonline.phh> <http://www.uia.org/encyclodedia/home.php> (2) the printed sources, i.e., Yearbook of International Organizations (YIO) published in Geneva in 1948, 1949, and 1950. Statistic data about the international organizations activities from 1951 till 1980 were published by the Union of Institutional Associations in Brussels. After 1983 the information about the international organizations was published by the K.G.Saur Verlag in Munich; (3) the Encyclopedia of World Problems and Humans Potential (WPHP); the Yearbook of WPHP since 1976; the Yearbook of International Organizations with the five volumes of the Guide to Global Civil Society Networks (2006-2007). We also used statistic data and information available in press, e.g., in *Economist*, the *International Financial Times*, and local newspapers. Special attention was paid to the role of the official languages of the United Nations used as working languages in multilingual networks (Harnisch 2006) of the International Organizations (IO) and Transnational Corporations (TC).

The data for this research were taken from the Project known as SPUTNIK to deal with social problems and technological networks of information and communication (2004-2008). The SPUTNIK 2004-228 is a representative sample of 1200 respondents between 20 and 65 years of age from RF and other regions. The sample covers workers from food industries (15%), management and administration (5%), building and transport companies (10%), electronic industries (8%), sales (12%), service (20%), advertising and information (30%). The general target of the project was to examine and measure job satisfaction, job stress as well as psychological attitudes of individual workers in an international team and these between the workers and administration. Several blocks of interviewing were devoted to discussion of her/his experience of communication breakdowns on working place. There were questions that tap respondents' attitudes to representatives of other cultures that work together in a team and to find out their perception of the internationalization strategy of their organizations.

The integrative methods of the quantitative and qualitative survey were used. For the collecting data we used: the statistic data analysis; the interviewing of respondents and experts; the written and spoken testing; tape-recording and questioning. The data analysis of factual examples of verbal miscommunications included: the comparative methods of linguistic analysis; the methods of description; and the methods of typological classification of factual data etc. The results of the quantitative survey show an inequality in the use of the natural languages as the working languages in TC with English dominance. Other languages, e.g., French, Spanish, German, Russian, Japanese, Chinese and Arabic are less used as the working languages of the IO & TC. A distribution of the needs in one's own and alien languages being used for professional and personal purposes have been also estimated on data of statistic analyses and the quantitative approaches.

The survey had three stages. At the first stage the respondents (300) and experts (20) were interviewed in Russian and in English, if necessary. The interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. All examples were highlighted, the names of the speakers listed and the dates recorded. At the second stage of the survey the factual linguistic data were verified by checking special dictionaries and grammars of English and the grammars and dictionaries of native languages of users of English. English regional and national versions were also exemplified and checked as possible sources of crosstalk. The aim of the procedure at the third stage was to present analyzed factual data as the general corpus in order to specify them as the outcomes of crosstalk and miss link. By crosstalk the cases of the covert models of CS are defined. It was suggested that the conceptual and pragmatic types of crosstalk should dominate in professional talks in alien language. The results of the qualitative approaches show that it was linguistic types of crosstalk that cause a majority of communication breakdowns. The linguistics types of crosstalk occur when first language (L1) resources are used by a second language (L2) speaker (see: § 2, 2.1- 2.6). Crosstalk can be considered within the frame of linguistic interference theories that deal with substitution of elements of L2 with formally analogical but semantically different elements of L1.

Some notions are to be defined. Thus, e.g., the notion of *network*^[17] is used to mean the domain of exchanges (a) technical net (e.g., Internet), (b) a corporation, a company or any organization. The notion of *international team* is used to imply the participants of a network (a) employers of a multinational corporation, company working together, (b) the users of the same technical net, Internet, website), (c) a multinational pupils of a classroom, students of a seminar, (d) participants of the scientific international project, etc. A notion *miss link* is used for communication breaks that come in result of non-verbal and extra-linguistic contextual differences of the cultures on contact. Non-verbal differences in models of communicative behavior of various cultures can be seen as a case of miss links (see § 2.2). A communicative deficit of an alien culture rules and verbal idioms of etiquette are miss links of non-verbal type. Extra-linguistic context of setting and topic of a talk was regarded to specify a miss link as a misuse of L2 verbal and non-verbal signs. Thus, writing system is seen as a code of a language and it was assumed that a switching can occur at the graphic level in connection with transliteration

one's name and surname from English to Russian alphabets and vice versa (see: § 2.5 & § 2-6).

The sociolinguistic tests were used in order to specify the respondents' levels of English knowledge and the types of crosstalk displayed by respondents taken as occasional or typical examples. The testing dealt with the both spoken and written types of messages. Respondents were asked to translate a sentence from English into one's native language and vice versa and then to read it in the both languages. There were tasks to insert a missing term into a given written text. Respondents were asked to recognize tape-recorded words in English as pronounced by non-native English speakers. Associative tests were used in order to specify the conceptual validity of the idioms and professional terminology used by respondents in their talks.

The results of the qualitative surveys show that communication breakdowns in talks occur when there is some factual (different idioms) and semantic (various meanings) types of oppositions of a sign (symbol, word, gesture, etc.) are known. It can affect one's perception of a sign either within one's own or alien language semantic and linguistic matrixes. The overt and covert models of code switching in bilingual talk can be aware and not aware by a speaker (sender) but they are always aware for a listener (receiver). The overt models of CS can reduce a social distance^[13] among interlocutors in bilingual talk. The covert models^[14] reflect a linguistic distance among speakers involved into social communication.

1. The findings of the quantitative surveys^[15]

1.0. Working languages in IO and TC

English, French, Chinese, Russian, Spanish and Arabic are the official languages of the United Nations. They are also used as the working languages in TC and IO (Table 1). Thus, in 2004 these languages were used as the working languages of 2630 TC and IO.

The results of the quantitative surveys show that English is the preferable working language of 35% of TC and IO. The French language is also broadly used as the working language in 25% of TC and IO. The third position belongs to the Spanish language that is used as the working language in 15% of TC and IO (Table 1). The Russian keeps the fourth position and is used in 11% of TC and IO. The Chinese language is used as the working language in 8% of TC and IO. The Arabic language is the working language of 6% of TC and IO.

Comparison of available statistical data about TC and their working languages in 2006 and 2008 shows some slight changes, e.g., an increase (from 8% to 9%) in number of TC and IO with Chinese as a working language (Table 1). There are some changes in number of the TC and IO (from 35% in 2004 to 37% in 2006 and then to 36% in 2008) that use English as their working language. There was a decrease in number of the TC and IO (from 15% in 2004 to 14% in 2006 & 2008) with Spanish as a working language. A number of TC and IO that use Russian as the working language decreased in 2006 (from 11% to 10%) and increased in 2008 (from 10% to 11%). The English, French and

Spanish languages are the leading working languages of the transnational corporations and international organizations, as e.g., in the International Sociological Association.

Table 1. Working Languages^[16] of an international team of the IO and TC (in %)

Working Language/ TC & IO	English	French	Spanish	Russian	Chinese	Arabic
in 2004	35	25	15	11	8	6
in 2006	37	24	14	10	9	6
in 2008	36	25	14	11	9	6

1.2. Transnational Corporations with two working languages. In a majority of TC and IO two working languages are used. The most popular combination of two working languages is English and French. These two languages are used as working languages in 46% of IO & TC. The second position is held by the combination of English and German that are used as working languages in 26% of IO & TC. English and Spanish are used as two working languages in 15% of IO & TC. Only 5% of IO and TC use Russian and English as their two working languages. English and Arabic are used as working languages in 4% of IO and TC. English and Chinese are used as working languages in 4% of IO & TC. There are TC and IO in which three and more working languages are used. The needs in experts who can speak at least one foreign language are increasing in the third (service) and the fourth (information) sections^[18] of labor employment. English is used as one of the two working languages in TC and IO (Table 2).

Table 2. English as one of two working languages used in IO & TC (in %)^[19]

English & French	English & German	English & Spanish	English & Russian	English & Chinese	English & Arabic
46%	26%	15%	6%	4%	3%

1. 3. The proficiency in foreign languages has become an advantage for one's career. Post-graduate students are eager to learn foreign languages being motivated by the social mobility. The proficiency in foreign languages is seen useful to improve the professional status and the income. Among 12664 VIPs (Table 2) the proficiency in the following foreign languages was indicated by males and females whose social status is high. A distribution of foreign languages used by VIPs for professional purposes is the following: English (45, 4%), French (33, 2%), Spanish (15%), Russian (3, 2%), Arabic (3, 1%) and Chinese (0, 2%). They are seen as important for their jobs and careers (Table 2) as the information literacy^[20].

Table 3. Knowledge of foreign languages among VIPs^[21]

Language	English	French	Spanish	Russian	Arabic	Chinese
Males	1394	1004	565	88	75	5
Females	4315	3159	1443	298	282	18
Total	5709	4163	2008	386	357	23
(In %)	45,4%	33,2%	15%	3,2%	3,1%	0,2%

1.3.1. The proficiency in foreign languages among females is higher than among males VIPs working in the multinational IO and TC. The proficiency in foreign languages was indicated by the females and males employed in the IO and TC. The results of the quantitative surveys show that the number of females with the proficiency in foreign languages is three times more than a number of males with the proficiency in foreign languages (The Table 3). This correlation remains true in general and for every language (Table 3) used for professional purposes in a working place.

1.4. Foreign languages are used by experts for their professional purposes. The data of interviews of 20 experts were analyzed to find out the domains of their use of English for professional and personal purposes. 12 males and 8 females working in business management, University and academies were asked to specify their needs in English for professional purposes. The results of interviewing show that they use English for the official negotiation (80%), translation (75%), traditional post and mailing correspondence (60%) with their colleagues abroad and international telephone talks (40%). For 80% of them English is not native language. They learnt English either as their primary profession or additional profession at the Universities (60%), foreign languages institutions (30%), and at the special linguistic courses (10%). Results of the interviewing of the experts show that English is used mainly for professional skills, i.e., translating, interpreting and teaching English. At workplaces English is used for official negotiations (80%), for emailing (65%) and usual postal correspondence (40%) with colleagues abroad. Outside of the job English is used for surfing on the Internet (35%); for reading English journals and books (30%) and watching films in English (20%).

1.4.1. Three groups of respondents who use foreign languages in TC

Results of the interviewing of 300 respondents were analyzed in order to find out their needs in English in their workplaces in TC. Respondents were males (60%) and females (40%) aged 20-25 years (60%), 25-35 years old (30%) and a few working pensioners - females over 55 years (8%) and males over 60 years (2%). The three groups of respondents were specified regarding their native (first) languages (L1). In the *first group* (40%) there were Russian native speakers who use English as a foreign (second) language (L2) for professional purposes. Some of them have knowledge of other languages (Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Spanish etc.) and indigenous (Abkhazian^[22], Azeri^[23], Armenian, Georgian, Ukrainian, etc.) The *second group* (30%) includes those who declare themselves to be the native speakers of some of the indigenous languages^[24] of the people and ethnic groups living in Russia. They are

bilingual since they can also speak Russian. And they are also trilingual because they can use English for professional purposes. The *third group* (30%) consists of foreigners who came to Russia to work.

1.4.2. Competence in English and Russian is demanded by all three groups. Within each group the respondents were distinguished into sub-groups taking into consideration their competence in English and Russian and their needs in English and Russian for the professional purposes and talks on a working place. Respondents of the first group and the second group learnt English as a foreign language though Russian. Some of them visited courses of English for special purposes (50%) and took private lessons (40%) to improve their knowledge of English. A few of them had experience of working abroad (20%) in English-speaking countries. The respondents of the first and the second group use Russian to speak with each other. They also use English to speak with the respondents of the third group. Respondents of the third group speak English as either their native language (40%) or a second language (60%). They came to Russia from the United States (30%), Canada (20%), from Europe (30%) and from the Asian countries (20%). Few of them (10%) had some knowledge of Russian. Besides the British English and the dialects of the Northern American English, the Canadian English, Spanish varieties of English, European English, Chinese and Japanese varieties of English were indicated as their second languages learnt in their countries. They use their varieties of English as the means of communication at a working place of a multilingual network with the respondents of the all three groups.

1.4.3. The respondents' jobs and duties were distributed regarding their professional and educational qualifications as the survey showed. The needs in English are recognized by respondents of the first and the second groups mainly for business negotiations (40%) and for the communication with the respondents of the third group (30%) at the working places. English is used by them for surfing the Internet and email business correspondence (30%). The needs in Russian are assumed by respondents of the third group to be communication with respondents of the first group and the second group (40%), for private talks (20%), for checking the bills (20) and personal talks outside the job (20%). Some of them take lessons in Russian. They also said that they prefer to have professional translators and interpreters for business negotiations and discussions with colleagues from the first and second groups.

Respondents of all three groups indicate their use of English on the Internet and for emailing. That is why a look at the top languages on the Internet and cyber space of information is needed.

1.5. Languages used in virtual flows of information

The virtual flows of information are available in the official languages of the UN in Internet and websites. They are also used for emailing. At least 40% of all Internet users can read and write English well enough to use it as a link of communication on-line and for getting information from Internet (Table 4). The number of PC owners and Internet

users are growing fast in Russia and the Eastern European countries. There is a kind of resistance to its spread in the Asian and African Islamic countries.

Table 4. Languages in Internet

Based on Internet services official information 2008-2009.

Language	English	Chinese	Spanish	Russian	French	Arabic
Number of PCs	240 mln	76 mln	48 mln	36 mln	23 mln	2 mln

English (68, 4%) is the leading language and link of the websites (Table 6).

Table 5. The UN Official Languages on the Websites

Based on Internet services official information 2009. 100% is 313.000.000.000

Language	English	Chinese	French	Spanish	Russian	Arabic
Websites (in %)	68,4%.	3,4%.	3,0%.	2,4%.	2,0%	0,1%.

1.6. Languages used as the means of communication in the EU

English is used as a means of communication in social and public spheres of the European Union (EU) countries. It is used for shopping, tourism, mass media, long distance calls, SMS and computer mediated communication. English is one of ten preferred languages that are used in public spheres of the EU (Table 3).

Table 6. 10 Top Languages used in the EU* (in %) multinational networks

Language	English	German	French	Spanish	Russian	Italian	Polish	Turkic	Chinese	Arabic
In social public spheres	40	12	8	5	5	4	3	2	1	1

***Based on:** The official data of regional Departments for migrants available in mass media in 2007-2008. The official languages of the UN are boldly printed to show their role as common links in the EU in comparison with non-official ones.

The role of English, German, French, Spanish, Russian, Italian, Polish, Turkic, Chinese and Arabic as the means of communication in multinational networks is specified regarding their actual use in TC as working languages. The other professional domains of multinational networks, e.g., mass media, educational institutions, commerce, advertising, international scientific projects, are also to be considered. These languages can be also used while traveling and shopping abroad.

2.0. The qualitative surveys

The corpus (200 examples) of collected factual data was analyzed in order to specify the types of crosstalk that occur in English used by nonnative speakers. The linguistic, cognitive and pragmatic types of crosstalk are seen as the cause of code-switching practice^[25]. Their effects on mutual understanding of interlocutors are assumed as the objective of CS analyses.

The article deals with the linguistic, conceptual, grammatical and pragmatic types of crosstalk that occur in non-native speakers of English. The linguistic types of crosstalk (70%) occur mostly due to phonetic and phonological interference (70%). There are also cases of lexical and semantic interference (20%) of words. Grammatical and syntactic interference (10%) of the native tongues of English users can also lead to crosstalk in bilingual talk. The conceptual types (12%) and semiotic types (10%) of crosstalk are not often met. The pragmatic types of crosstalk (8%) occur (a) due to the objective differences in communicative codes of behavior (60%) shared by cultures in contact and (b) because of the subjective misinterpretations of communicative verbal behavior (40%). Some examples of these and other types of crosstalk are given below. Whether they are aware or not by interlocutors in their exchanges is not the matter of discussion here. The task of the article is to show various types of crosstalk that can occur in bilingual talks.

2.1. The linguistic types of crosstalk occur in result of the phonetic-phonological interference (See: Example 1; Example 2)^[26] of one's native tongue. They are viewed as the covert models of CS that are not always aware by a speaker, but they can affect a listener's perception and his/her verbal response and behavior.

Example 1. An Azeri S. (34, a male, an operator) mispronounced the English word screw as [E*sekerevu] word ice-cream as [Aijsekerim] in a talk with a German operator F. (23, male).

S: I have two screws [esekerevu] here. Do you see it?

F.: I do not know. What does your esekerevu look like? Is it Russian ice-cream?

S.: I know ice-cream [aijasekerim]. It is sweet. I eat it. Nobody can eat a screw [esekerevu]. It is metal. Ha-ha! It is a good joke.

*) Note that a stressed vowel is capitalized.

The consonant junctures are avoided in the Turkic language. That is why the vowel [e] is used in either initial position of the word or between consonants of a word. In the given example it is inserted between [s] and [k] of the English word *screw* [skrju:] (The Example 1). In the Example 2 English *television* is pronounced as [terebion] by a Japanese native speaker because [l] and [r] are not phonologically distinguished in the Japanese as well as [v] and [b].

Example 2. A Japanese T. (29, a male, a financial assistant) speaks about two TV sets to his boss, W. (American, 45).

T.: We need two [terebion] for customers in the waiting hall downstairs.

W.: What do you mean by “too terrible” for customers? What is it?

T.: Two [terebion] to watch.

W.: Ah! TV-sets?

T.: Yes. Terebion, terebion.

English is not the native language for all employers of a multinational TC. They use it for professional purposes as their second language. Most of them have been educated and trained in their native languages. Not many of them know English well enough. Even those who speak English as a foreign language fluently can display some interference or accent in their use of English which cause crosstalk.

2.2. The pragmatic types^[27] of crosstalk occur in result of the speaker’s misinterpretation of each other intentions even when they speak the same language. Under conditions of cross-cultural communication they can occur because different codes of verbal etiquette exist in various cultures. The codes of verbal politeness are fixed lexically (e.g., English *Dear Sir*; Russian *Уважаемый господин*). Up to now there have been no universal international rules of address.

2.2.1. The special rules of verbal communicative behavior in different cultures prescribe various forms of addressing^[28] in spoken and written forms of contacts. The rules are based on social and professional stratification regarding the speakers’ differences in age, gender, titles, positions and the power authorities of communicants. In some languages it is fixed as the opposition of the personal pronouns. Thus, Germans distinguish *Sie* ‘you’ and *du* ‘thou’. English has lost this opposition. The pronoun *you* can be used to mean the both ‘you’ and ‘thou’. In the official talks the forms of addressing require the titles like *Mr.*, *Mrs* (for *Miss* and *Missis*) that are used with his/her surname. The British stick to *Mr.* or *Mrs.* + surname. Omitting the title is possible mainly among friends and former schoolmates. Russians distinguish the pronouns *Вы* [vy] to mean the official ‘you’ and *ты* [ty] to mean the personal ‘thou’. English speaking Russians^[29] use the pronoun *you* and the first names while addressing each other. In Russian it is necessary to use the formal *Вы* [vy] in talks at a working place. The informal *ты* [ty] can be used in family and in private talks among friends. Russians address each other by using his/her first name + patronymic, which is derived from his/her father’s first name by adding the special endings like *-ovich*, *evich*, *-ich* (for males) and *-ovna*, *-evna*, *-ichna* (for females).

Nowadays Americans prefer to use the first name without any title in informal talks with their colleagues. The attempts to introduce the American ways of addressing into Russia are evident among the younger generations who prefer to address each other by the first names (without patronymic) in workplaces. Some previous Russian titles, as e.g., *господин* [gospodIn] ‘Mr.’ and *госпожа* [gospozhA] ‘Mrs’ were revived during the

post-Soviet period. They can be heard nowadays in political and business discourses.

The form of addressing *товарищ* [tɔvArisʃ] ‘comrade’ was used in the Soviet time but it was considered “politically incorrect” in the period of perestroika. Recently, it is used again as the neutral form of address to unknown persons, e.g., in traffic, shops. It has lost its political connotations.

2.2.2. Differences in the national codes of addressing include both verbal (idioms) and nonverbal (behavior) rules. Under conditions of cross-cultural communication the interlocutors are to regard these differences, which can be seen as the national traditions of etiquette, in order to avoid communication breakdowns. A Russian manager M., 39, told that he used to give his visiting card^[30], printed in English and Japanese, to his Japanese colleague, with the Japanese side open. He thought that it would show his respect towards Japanese colleagues and their native tongue. But his Japanese colleague said that he knew English well enough to read visiting cards written in English. He was offended because he thought that his knowledge of English was doubted. The pragmatic types of crosstalk of this kind can be avoided when the nuances of cultural codes differences are known and respected by communicators. In our survey there is 8% of crosstalk of this type.

2.3. The conceptual types of crosstalk can occur in result of different interpretations of scientific concepts. They can be seen as the result of various models of international education. They are recognized on the basis of the international values and scientific reputation of universities^[31]. There are at least five models of international education known as based on universities’ traditions in Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia and the USA. British, German and French universities were famous as the models for universities in other countries in the past centuries. The Russian model of university education was formed under the influence of German and French models. The American model was formed under the influence of British model. It has also adopted other models of university education since a great number of professors came to the USA from Germany, France and Russia during the 20th century.

2.3.1. Conceptual homonyms occur when the same concept is used to mean different things. Example 3 below shows that the same object can be called differently. Thus, in English oriented models of education the term *computer* is used. Meanwhile in French-oriented models of education it is called either *le ordinateur* or *la calculatrice*. The *calculator* in English and Russian is used to mean ‘a calculating machine’. Anglicisms are avoided in French and other languages in which own terms are coined. The English word *computer* is of Latin origin. It had come into English from Old French. Nevertheless, in the modern French language it is substituted by own term that sounds like [kalkilatO].

Example 3. An English P. (male, 34, a technician) to an Algerian H. (male, 28, technician) speaks about a calculator while the latter thinks that he speaks about a computer:

P.: My calculator is lost. Can I use yours?

H.: How can it be lost when it is on your desk?

P.: Where? I do not see it.

H. (*coming to H's table to show at his PC*) Here it is.

P.: It is my computer. And I want a calculator now not a computer.

2.3.2. Misusage of terminology and professional idioms can cause crosstalk in bilingual talks on a working place of a multinational network. The introduction of new technology evokes the formation of new terms and words like *automobile, calculator, computer, cybernetics, telephone, television*, etc. which were coined as the combinations of Latin and Greek elements. They can sound differently in various languages, as e.g. *Television* sounds in English as [televizhin], in Russian as [televidenije] and it sounds as [terebion] in Japanese (see Example 2 in this paper). They can also have different meanings in various languages (see Example 3). The problems of the usage of own-language terms versus borrowed terms are regarded by linguists as the markers of the stylistic effects. Own idioms are met in common talks and mass mediated texts. The international terms are preferable in scientific publications and professional discourses^[32]. Under the conditions of cross-national and cross-cultural verbal exchanges in TC and IO the standardization of the international scientific terminology is wanted.

2.4. The grammar adaptation of a borrowed word indicates its complete acceptance by a new language structure. Some scientific terms come into Russian through morphological adaptation, e.g., the Russian verb *отксерить* [otkserit'] 'to make a copy by Xerox' is made of the loaned root *ксер* [kser] with the help of adding the prefix *от* [ot-] and the formant of the infinitive *ить* [-it']. The Russian verb *копировать* [kopirovat'] and the Japanese verb [kopii-suru] are made by adding the corresponding morphemes e.g., Russian [-rovat'] and Japanese [-suru] to derive a verbal form from English *copy* [kopi]. The English term *E-mail* 'electronic post' is morphologically adapted to Russian and it has the plural form *имейлы* [imejly] to mean 'E-mails'. It can be used as the verb, e.g., *имейлить* [imejlit'] 'to send E-mails'.

2.4.1. The grammatical types of crosstalk occur usually at the initial stages of a second language acquisition under the influence of one's own language. It leads to grammatical interference. It can occur in result of language deficit. Sometimes mixtures of grammar rules occur in the talk of bilinguals with good competence in both languages. The reasons of it are still mystique.

Some examples of grammatical crosstalk are found in translations from Russian into English. The strict order of words is required within an English sentence: the subject (S), predicate (P), object (O). This restriction does not apply in Russian language syntax and its speakers enjoy the free order of words in a sentence. When a Russian sentence is translated word by word into English it can change its meaning, as e.g. Russian *Чай*

пьет Петр утром [tʃAj p'Jot pjOtr Utrom] means: ‘in the morning Peter drinks his tea’. Not ‘Tea drinks Peter in the morning’. Russian sentence structure is O-P-S that is possible in English only in the passive constructions like: ‘the tea is drunk by Peter in the morning’.

2.4.2. Grammatical crosstalk occurs when the English propositions are misused under the influence of Russian analogous constructions. There are some differences in the usage of the Russian and English propositions of the space and time **на** ‘on; and **в** ‘in’. The meaning of Russian preposition **на** ‘on’ can correspond to English prepositions **to, in, by, for**, e.g., Russian *остаться на час* = English ‘to stay for an hour’. Russian *быть на улице* = English ‘to be **in** the street’. The English preposition **on** referring to time can correspond to the Russian proposition **в** ‘in’, e.g. Russian: *в понедельник* = English ‘**on Monday**’ (Example 4). The Russian verbs of movement require the propositions **на** ‘on’ to mean that some traffic was used. The English constructions of this type require the preposition **by**, e.g. Russian *ехать на автобусе* means English ‘to go **by** a bus’ (Example 4).

Example 4. American manager P., 36, and Russian technician I., 25, who was late.

P. You are late today.

I. Yes. I know. Sorry. **On** ten minutes. {calque from Russian *на 10 минут*}

P. You were late yesterday.

I. Oh, yes. Sorry. Problems with traffic. Strong traffic. {to mean **heavy traffic**}

P. Heavy traffic (correcting).

I. Yes, very heavy **to go on bus**. {Russian *ехать на автобусе*}

P. **On** the bus? Oh, you mean **by bus**? Could you come by **underground**? {American word for *metro*} I mean **by metro**?

I. Yes, **I go on metro** {Russian *на метро*}. But before **I go on bus**. And it is heavy **on the streets**. {Russian *на улицах*} And buses come **not always**. {Russian *не всегда*} And...

P. O.K. There are problems. I see. Well! **On Monday** you are to stay for an hour after your usual work time to finish the program. What about it?

I. Good. O.K. I'll stay **on one hour** {Russian *на один час*} **in Monday** {Russian *в понедельник*}.

P. And please do not be late tomorrow.

I. O.K.

2.5. Graphical adaptation of an alien word can be argued as a diachronic case of code-switching in the processes of borrowing. Usually loan or borrowed words go through the graphical adaptation initially. Recent loans from English are adapted to Cyrillic letters in Russian e.g. *Internet* is written in Russian as *Интернет*. Meanwhile *E-mail* preserves their Latin spelling in Russian. The login, email address and parole for websites and emailing in Internet are mainly used in Latin letters. It can be also due to the uncertainty how to spell its first vowel. Two variants are possible: (1) accordingly to its sounding [imajl] with the first vowel [i] and (2) regarding its derivation from the word *электричество* [əlectrichestvo] with the first vowel [ə]. The former requires spelling as *И-мейл* with the first letter И [i]. The latter requires the spelling *Э-мейл* with the first letter Э [ə]. Meanwhile Russian students have settled the problem by introducing the new meaning of the Russian word *Емеля* [jemelja] that is the person name of a popular hero of Russian folklore and fairytales. They ask each other *послать Емелю* [paslat' jemelju] 'to send an email letter' and have no problems with it.

2.5.1. The graphical adaptations of the names of foreign companies into Russian occur when the company is presented in the country for a certain period. Initially it is accepted as it is sounding, as e.g. IBM was graphically adopted into Russian as Ай-Би-Эм [ajbi:əm] and there were no problems with it what so ever. In the end of the 70s some official authorities decided to transliterate the abbreviation of the company name and to write it as *ИБМ* [ibi:jem]. It looks fine, but sounds bad for Russian speakers. The other example can be given in connection with the name of Russian automobile company *Жигули* [zhigull]. It sounds not good for Italian speakers. And it was changed into *Лада* [lAda] when the Russian company wanted to cooperate with the Italian one. These examples can be considered as the cases of code-switching practice at the level of international business under conditions of cross-cultural communication.

2.6. The problems of transliterations

The transliteration is a switch from one code of the writing system into another. It can lead to the graphical types of crosstalk. Some Latin letters can be transliterated in different ways into Russian letters. The letter h in borrowed words was adopted into Russian spelling as г [g], х [h] and as a zero consonant. Thus, e.g. *hygiene* is written in Russian as *гигиена* [gigiEna]; *гимн* is adopted as *гимн* [gimn] with Latin h transliterated as Russian г [g]. Some words were borrowed into Russian with the zero consonant when the letter h was used at the beginning of the word, as e.g., Russian words *алло* [allO] is from *hello* and *отель* [otEl] is for *hotel*. In the recent borrowings like *хоккей* [hokEj] 'hockey' and *хобби* [hObi] 'hobby' the Latin letter h is transliterated as the Russian letter х [h]. It shows that the same letter can be transliterated differently mainly due to different levels of interpretation of the sound presented by the letter.

2.6.1. The graphical types of crosstalk

Nowadays one depends on the use of credit cards, electronic tickets and shopping on the Internet. And variability of transliteration of one's surname in the credit card from Russian into Latin letters can cause real problems. The Russian letter Ш for the consonants [ʃ] is transliterated as English SH, as French CH and as German SCH. Two variants are possible for Russian letter X for the sound [h], i.e., KH and H. The Russian letter Я for the vowel [ja] is transliterated as YA, JA and even IA. The letter У for the vowel [u] can be transliterated as English U and OO and as French OU. As a result there are several transliterations of Russian surname *Бушев*, i.e., *Bushev*, *Booshev*, *Bouchev*. The surname *Харнуш* is transliterated as *Kharnish*, *Kharnich*, *Harnish*, *Harnich*, *Harnisch*. Those varieties are read as the names of quite different persons. It can cause problems for the holder of the international credit cards and passports when traveling abroad. In official Russian documents the surname is written first with the first name and the patronymic as following it. In European cultures the first and second names are written first with the surname at the end. When my colleague *Lynne Ciochetto* from New Zealand was expected in Moscow it was not easy to find out about her arrival, because her first name *Lynne* was taken as her surname. Her surname *Ciochetto* was taken as her first name. When it was settled, the problems of her surname transliteration and reading by Russians came out. There were several versions of her surname that sounded as [tʃiotʃeto], [kiodzheto], [tʃitʃeto], even [sioketo] and [tsiotʃeto]. I had managed to meet her after a rather exciting experience with code-switching practice at the international airlines and tourism agencies in Moscow.

3. Discussion

3.1. Competition among languages

Access to scientific information underlies the competition among languages. English is officially accepted as a means of communication for international aviation and navigation. The terminologies of new technologies and electronics come from the English language. It is also preferred as a foreign language at schools. English for special purposes (ESP) has got a special task for the teaching of English to foreign students. English prevails as the world language and as access to scientific information. Competition among major world languages exists in the domains of scientific information.

A special survey had been organized by Ulijn and Strother^[33] in order to find out how languages supply information about new achievements in the sciences worldwide. They managed to calculate the coefficient of a language's potential importance in natural sciences and technologies as an average output based on the functional consideration of four factors: the number of speakers and users of a given language; the quantity and quality of patents, scientific projects and the value of national contributions to the world sciences; the number of experts and students educated in a language; the amount of printed and virtual scientific information in a language. The results confirm the leading position of English as a means of information about sciences in the world. Its coefficient is 1.6. But it is Russian that follows English. Its coefficient is 3.0. Russian keeps the

second position as a means of information about international sciences and technologies worldwide. The Japanese occupy the third place with a coefficient of 3.8. French takes the fourth place (5.6) before German (5.9)^[34].

3.2. Competition between verbal and non-verbal symbols as the means of communication also exists. A multiplication of networks and their links has revived the question about a common link and languages for international exchanges. The verbal means of communication exploit a natural language. Non-verbal means of communication are symbols and signs that can be used internationally. There are certain reasons to argue in favor of nonverbal means of communication for national (local) or international (global) networks in a multilingual environment. The non-verbal symbols can overcome the variability of verbal names for the same object, as e.g., the chemical symbols for elements. The calls for nonverbal means of communication and codes come out of the practical needs to supply the safe and secure lines of connection among transnational networks. The needs in the unification of the nonverbal signs used at the international levels, e.g., the traffic signs, are also recognized.

3.3. Cross-cultural communication in workplaces is a routine of local and transnational networks. There are certain social tendencies that underlie it. First of all, labor migration leads to the internationalization of the staff. Either external or internal migrations bring representatives of different cultures together into an office, a factory, a network etc. Secondly, transnational corporations tend to spread abroad because of low employment, easy transportation of natural resources and an increase in financial profit for local economies. And lastly, the indigenous languages and cultural traditions are wanted to be promoted for their social and functional application.

3.4. Language expansion^[35] from the inner to the outer circle in the pre-industrial and industrial ages occurred mostly due to territorial^[36] and demographic changes^[37]. The postindustrial ages face the virtual^[38] types of language expansion due to the spread of languages into cyberspace and due to an acceleration of virtual flows of information. New technical devices for traveling and communication have introduced new domains for language usage, language contacts and language switching. In the 1980s and 1990s a shift from macroeconomic policies to the microeconomic policies^[39] had led to a spread of business and markets outside of their national boundaries. It became possible due to “new communication and transport technology, combined with new management practices and the liberalization of trade barriers, brought a new intensity to globalization”^[40].

3.5. Transnational corporations have spread their business being free from national responsibilities in order to increase their “productivity and profit within globe market where there was a bounty of consumers, cheap labour, and less stringent environmental requirement. Released from regulations, corporations became multinational consolidating globally”^[41]. New technologies of transport and communication make possible “more rapidly cycled objects, ideas, and people across the earth”^[42]. They also make possible more rapidly spread of verbal exchanges in own and alien languages^[43].

3.6. Cross-cultural and cross-lingual management of transnational corporation demands business negotiations among nations, states and continents in the languages reliable for business exchanges. The space and time of transnational business cross national borders and the time zones. Business talks take place twenty-four hours a day. The pace of work and money is accelerated. During 1981 “a new one-day record was set in the New York Stock exchange, with 147,070,000 shares traded, signaling a vast increase in financial speculation. Global monetary flows, which had once been a few hundred million dollars daily, reached \$2 trillion a day”^[44]. An increase in dependence of industries on science knowledge and technologies expanded the power of technicians, experts in natural sciences and R&Ds. The information literacy and the proficiency in languages have become necessary for the service of white-collar officers in the national and transnational networks.

3.7. New forms of literacy are essential for population of a modern society. They were recognized when new management and new relations of work were accepted. The urgent demands for professionals and managers who can operate with digital technology, to manipulate social and technological systems of finance, promotion and market, and to speak at least one foreign language “politically correct” to express and support the interests of the corporation – have become obvious. The following forms of literacy are specified: the traditional language(s) literacy, information literacy and management literacy. The concept of traditional literacy is broadly used to mean the capacity to write, read and speak one’s own language grammatically correctly. The concept of languages literacy is used to mean the capacities to write, read and speak alien language(s) beside one’s own.

3.8. Information literacy is a concept to imply required technical skills to access to information cumulated in the data-banks of networks. It is also wanted for verbal exchanges over technical devices (teletype, telephone, fax, computer, etc.). In order to distinguish the technical skills (operating the new business machinery in an office in order to get information) and the intellectual skills (comprehending and analyzing the content of information) the following skills are specified: *computer skills* and *critical skills*. It is argued that one needs also *language skills* to understand the content of information available in alien languages. *Management literacy* is one’s ability to work as a manager. It means also one’s skills to use new electronic forms of financial (credit cards, etc) and official documents (electronic tickets, passport for traveling, etc.). It is called **banking literacy**. The new forms of literacy, e.g., information literacy and the proficiency in languages are especially required for employers of the third and the fourth sectors of labor employment.

3.9. The Information society^[45] has been suggested as a concept for a society based on knowledge economy that can exploit high technologies; apply achievements of the natural sciences’ experts; produce and sale dematerialized goods. The attempts to regard the inequalities of wealth created at the national level within the knowledge economy show that the gaps between rich and poor countries have become more drastic at the global levels. In a postindustrial society there are demands to increase the levels of education for special purposes. The experts who have computer skills, critical skills and

languages skills can improve their careers, income and social mobility^[46]. The proficiency in foreign languages used as working languages of TC is recognized as valuable factor for one's social mobility. Employees of a network with different linguistic and ethnic backgrounds work together as an international team. A working language is wanted to overcome their linguistic and cultural diversity. Their verbal exchanges are possible in own and alien languages. Their mutual understanding depends at a certain extend on their literacy in languages that are used as the working language in the network.

3.10. Crosstalk, code-switching practices and communication breakdowns can refer to misunderstandings in the contemporary industries and are dependent on the various forms of the development of the branches of industry in one country or in several countries, e.g., in the wood industry, the metal industry, the clothes industry etc. The language usage in technical companies and scientific international research can differ widely from the one in the chemical companies. And it can present different forms of abstractions. It is possible to suggest that communication breaks can be in results of formal differences as well.

3.11. An increase of English as a leading means of business and science communication will not minimize the amount of misunderstandings in Europe. The countries (nations) within the European Union^[47] and outside of it^[48] have developed their own traditions of trade, sciences, commerce and military circles and their own languages, symbols and hierarchies. Breaks in communication can result from different functions and formal forms of verbal behavior in parliamentary monarchies and in the parliamentary democracies within Europe. They require more precise consideration as the objective of the quantitative and qualitative surveys to be looked and estimated more seriously within the frameworks of the social sciences theories. It is a paradox but the more the number of language users the less codified it can be. The more progressive the role of English as the international means of communication the more variables it has. It is argued that misunderstandings that occur in talks due to a variability of English can lead to communication breaks. English varieties^[49] are known due to its spread into the outer circles and into the expanding circles. It has also the varieties in the inner circle.

3.12. The third and the fourth sectors of labor employment have been developed in the post-industrial ages side by side with two main traditional sectors (agriculture and industry) of labour employment. A new division^[50] of labor was introduced within an industrial society with a dominance of dematerialized industries, which supply *service*, *entertaining* and *information* in developed countries. The third sector (service) developed mainly in the 19-20th centuries. The 20-21st centuries face the rise of the fourth sector (information). In developing countries it is agriculture and manufacture industries that dominate as the sections in which majorities of population are employed (Table 4). The numerals 1, 2, 3, 4 in Table 4 are used to indicate how many jobs are available in different sectors of labor employment in various countries, i.e. the numeral 1 means the maximum; and the numeral 4 means the minimum of population occupied in a given Sector.

The Table 4. The four main sectors of labor employment (on the data of different countries for aged over 16 being occupied in 1990-2006)

SECTORS/ COUNTRIES	Agriculture	Industries	Service	Information Entertaining
Japan	4	2	1	3
China	1	2	4	3
Russia	4	1	3	2
Hungary	2	1	3	4
Germany	4	2	1	3
The USA	4	3	2	1

Conclusion:

1. The results of the quantitative surveys show that English dominates as a working language of the TC and IO. It is not a surprise since eight of ten top transnational corporations belong to the USA. English is also officially accepted for the international exchanges in aviation and navigation. Proficiency in English has become essential for certain trades, e.g., in international trade, business, translation and interpreting, mass media agencies, commerce, advertising and tourism.

2. The results of the qualitative approaches show that under conditions of cross-cultural and cross-lingual communication in an international team of multinational TC the cases of code-switching, crosstalk and breaks in communication can occur due to (1) interlocutors' language and communicative competence deficit; (2) variability of English versions spoken by its native speakers; and (3) a lack of standardization of professional terms and non-verbal signs used along the international lines. The needs in the standardization of international terminology and the unification of nonverbal signs along international business lines of communication are emphasized.

3. It is argued that English for professional purposes may overcome the linguistic diversity of an international team. Results of the surveys show that communication breakdowns, crosstalk and CS can occur due to misuse of English by its non-native speakers. The needs in the standardization of English for special purposes and the needs in the unification of the scientific international terminology are emphasized.

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