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## SPOTLIGHTING ENGLISH PHRASAL VERBS

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**Abstract:** Phrasal verbs or multi-word verbs, such as *call off*, *go into* and *run up against*, etc. represent a very interesting and challenging aspect of the English language. In ELT there is a widespread view that familiarity with a wide range of phrasal verbs and the ability to use them appropriately in context are among the distinguishing marks of a native-like command of English. However, it is also generally recognised that these verb+particle combinations pose special difficulties for both learners and teachers of English partly because there are so many of them, partly because they have special semantic, syntactic and stylistic properties. Besides, quite many of them can be used as nouns, e.g. a *hideaway*, a *stowaway* and a *write-off*, etc. and adjectives, e.g. a *broken-down car* and a *knockdown price*, etc. What is more, again quite many of them have a single word equivalent of Romance origin, which, however, often differs from them in terms of style, collocation and meaning, e.g. *blow up* ~ *explode*, *do away with* ~ *eliminate* and *put out* ~ *extinguish*, etc. Furthermore, it is a misconception that phrasal verbs are mainly used in informal style and in spoken English. In fact, they can be found in many styles of writing, ranging from highly formal texts to slang, e.g. *call forth* vs. *gobble up*, etc. This paper sets out to explore the unique and complex nature of English verb+particle constructions in order to make them a more manageable part of the vocabulary of English.

**Key words:** phrasal verbs; semantics; syntax; nominalisations; single-word synonyms; style;

### 1. Introduction

Phrasal verbs, (often called Multi-Word Verbs), such as *turn down*, *take after* and *catch up with*, etc. are a common feature of the English language, and knowledge of a wide range of phrasal verbs and the ability to use them appropriately are parts of the native speakers' competence. While native speakers learn them throughout the normal acquisition process, foreign language learners have to train themselves in order to use phrasal verbs in the proper context. Phrasal verbs therefore deserve to be an important part of vocabulary learning. However, as they are a difficult aspect of the English language, they do not enjoy a good reputation in ELT.

In fact, phrasal verbs have always been common in English. They have, however, increased in number since the mid 19c and even more so since the mid-20c, especially in Am. E., and have only recently been described in detail. As some linguists e.g. de la Cruz (1975), Hiltunen (1983) and Brinton (1988) observe, from OE to Early Modern English the language underwent an important structural shift,

from a productive system of verbal prefixes to a new system of post-verbal particles with the phrasal verb becoming more and more common. In the OE period prefixed verbs were predominant, but phrasal verbs also occurred, with the particle both following and preceding the verb. As verbal prefixes continued to be weakened and overgeneralized, the phrasal verb extended its domain in ME and the figurative, idiomatic uses of phrasal verbs began to appear. They were quite common in Chaucer and Shakespeare, but as far as linguists are concerned, it is the 18c lexicographer Samuel Johnson (1755/1963: 5), who was among the first to consider them seriously. This is what he wrote about such formations in the Preface to the Dictionary of the English Language:

"There is another kind of composition more frequent in our language than perhaps in any other, from which arises to foreigners the greatest difficulty. We modify the signification of many words by a particle subjoined; as *to come off*, to escape by a fetch; *to fall on*, to attack; *to fall off*, to apostatise; *to break off*, to stop abruptly..... These I have noted with great care."

If even scholars are aware of the problems posed by them, no wonder that the mere-mention of phrasal verbs is enough to make the hair stand up on the backs of the necks of most-well-meaning EFL learners.

What is more, even the term itself is identified differently in various grammar books, dictionaries and the special literature. Some linguists use the term in a broader, others in a narrower sense, for example Quirk et al. (1985: 1150-1161) use the term 'multi-word verbs', which they divide into phrasal verbs (e.g. *put off*), prepositional verbs (e.g. *look after*) and phrasal prepositional verbs (e.g. *put up with*). Kennedy (1920) and Fraser (1976) call them verb-particle combinations, Live (1965) discontinuous verbs while Lipka (1972) and Lindner (1981) use the term 'verb-particle constructions' for them. In fact, the term 'phrasal verb' was introduced into the linguistic literature by L. P. Smith (1923: 172), who stated, however, that the OED editor Henry Bradley suggested it him.

Interestingly enough, dictionaries use the term 'phrasal verb' in a broader sense covering V+adverb, V+preposition and V+adverb+preposition constructions. Most up-to-date course books tend to use the term 'phrasal verbs' primarily for verb+adverb combinations, there are, however, also some which tend to prefer the term 'multi-word' verbs.

The primary aim of my paper is to reveal what makes phrasal verbs a much dreaded area of the English language for ELF learners, touching upon on their semantics, syntax, stylistic and register properties, their single-word equivalents and nominalizations.

## 2. The difficulties involved in learning and teaching phrasal verbs

Several difficulties seem to be involved in teaching and learning phrasal verbs. Consider the rather complex nature of *take off*, a common phrasal verb in English (*Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* 2002: 380-381):

- Remove or separate sth from a place where it was.  
V+ADV+N, V+N+ADV, V+PRON+ADV  
*Without moving the packing case from its position he took off the top.*
- Undress or remove your clothes.  
V+ADV+N, V+N+ADV, V+PRON+ADV  
*I had taken my clothes off because of the heat.*

- Use force or your authority to get sth from somebody (fairly informal).  
V+N+PREP, V+PRON+PREP  
*They were going to take some money off you.*
- Leave the ground and start flying  
V+ADV  
*Takeoff* is the beginning of a flight(N UNCOUNT)  
*A steady stream of aircraft was taking off and landing.*
- Suddenly become very successful and popular (a product or activity)  
V+ADV  
*Takeoff* is the stage in the development of a product or activity when it begins to be successful (N UNCOUNT)  
*It will be interesting to see how the campaign takes off.*
- Go away often suddenly or unexpectedly ((a fairly informal use))  
V+ADV  
*They took off for the weekend in the country.*
- Make sb go with you to a particular place  
V+N+ADV, V+PRON+ADV  
*They took him off to prison.*
- Stop sb doing a task or being on a list  
V+N+PREP, V+PRON+PREP  
*The next day, I found Laura had taken me off the list.*
- Spend time doing sth different from your normal routine or job  
V+N+ADV, V+ADV+N, V+N+PREP  
*Bill and I took time off from work and flew to France.*
- Subtract an amount of money or a mark from a total  
V+N+ADV, V+ADV+N, V+PRON+ADV  
*Your employer will take off some of your wages to pay your national insurance contribution.*
- Imitate a person's appearance or behaviour, usually in order to make other people laugh (an informal use)  
V+ADV+N, V+N+ADV, V+PRON+ADV  
*Mimic* means almost the same as *take off*  
*A takeoff of someone is an imitation of their appearance or behaviour.*  
*Mike can take off his father to perfection.*
- Stop a particular type of food, medical treatment from being given to you  
V+PRON+PREP, V+N+PREP  
*The doctor took her off insulin.*
- Stop operating and is no longer available for people to use (a bus, train or plane service)  
V+ADV+N, V+N+ADV, V+PRON+ADV, USUALLY PASSIVE  
*Be withdrawn* is a more formal expression for *be taken off*.  
*The 7.18 train was taken off for the winter.*
- End (the performance of a play/show)  
V+ADV+N, V+N+ADV, V+PRON+ADV, USUALLY PASSIVE  
*'My Fair Lady' was taken off when it was at the peak of its success.*

As is evident from the above examples, *take off*, some of the meanings of which EFL learners encounter at the very beginning of a course has enormous semantic, syntactic and stylistic complexity.

These are as follows:

- The majority of difficulties is no doubt caused by the semantics of phrasal verbs. In many cases such as *take off*, even though students may be familiar with both the verb in the phrasal verb and with the particle, they may not understand the meaning of the combination, since it can differ greatly from the meanings of the two words used independently. The fact that phrasal verbs often have a number of different meanings adds to their complexity.
- In some cases, they have a single-word equivalent, such as *take off* in 11, which is *mimic* but there is usually a stylistic difference between the phrasal verb and its single-word equivalent with the phrasal being usually more informal just like *take off*.
- Besides, their syntax is also governed by complex and unpredictable rules as illustrated above by the grammatical patterns they can occur in. The same particle like *off* can serve as a preposition (3, 8, and 12) or an adverb (1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, and 14) and the student can easily confuse these functions. In some of its meanings, *take off* is transitive (1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14), in others it is intransitive (4, 5). In addition, in some of its meanings, it is usually used in the passive (13 and 14).
- Like many phrasal verbs, in some of its meanings, *take off* is also used as a noun (4, 5, and 11).
- Sometimes phrasal verbs are used in very informal style such as *take off* in 3, 6 and 11.
- Finally, learners also have to be aware of the fact that some phrasal verbs may have the same grammatical patterns but their collocations are quite unlike as in:  
*take off*<sup>1</sup>.....O: fitting, knob, handle, door, top, paint;  
*take off*<sup>2</sup>.....O: coat, hat;  
*take off*<sup>4</sup>.....S: aeroplane, bird;  
*take off*<sup>5</sup>.....S: product, activity;  
*take off*<sup>10</sup>.....O: a few days, week, fortnight, weekend, Easter;

No wonder many learners tend to avoid phrasal verbs. Thus, instead of using them, they rely on rarer and clumsier words which make their language sound stilted and awkward.

Next let us see in details some of the semantic, syntactic, stylistic and register properties of phrasal verbs. Besides, mention must also be made of their single-word equivalents and their nominalized forms.

## 2.1. Semantic properties

The meaning of the components in phrasal verbs was regarded to be non-compositional and unanalysable for a long time and was assumed that they 'just have to be learnt.' Traditional linguists, such as Kennedy (1920), Curme (1931), Bolinger (1971), Lipka (1972) and Fraser (1976), etc. generally assumed that particles/prepositions have a literal meaning or no meaning at all although some of them noted the aspectual cast of some particles in phrasal verbs. Let us see what aspectual meanings of the two most common particles, *out* and *up* were identified by traditional linguists:

- OUT      compleative sense e.g. *die out* and *fade out*, etc. (Kennedy 1920: 24); Lipka 1972: 182), Fraser 1976: 6), ingressive e.g. *set out* and *come out*, etc. (Curme 1931: 379; Lipka 1972: 183), terminative e.g. *burn out* and *starve out*, etc. (Lipka 1972: 183).

- UPperfective value, e.g. *heat up*, *clean up*, *light up* (Kennedy 1920: 24-5), ‘perfective meaning as manifested in resultant condition’, e.g. *shrive up*, *break up* and *close up*, etc. ‘perfective in the sense of completion or inception’, e.g. *let up*, *give up* and *take up*, etc. (Bolinger 1971: 99-100), ‘ingressive’ mode of action, e.g. *take up*, *put up* and *sit up*, etc. (Lipka 1972: 182, 183-4; Curme 1931: 379), ‘completive sense’, e.g. *mix up*, *stir up* and *wind up*, etc. Fraser (1976: 6).

By contrast, cognitive linguists took up the challenge of the alleged arbitrariness of prepositional/adverbial particle usage and demonstrated that the meanings of particles are highly structured and analysable at least to some degree. Amongst the most outstanding contributions are the analyses by Lindner (1981), Lakoff (1987) and Rudzka-Ostyn (2003). They showed that particles/prepositions have various central, prototypical meanings, which are their literal meanings, and most of the other meanings depart from these prototypical ones in various ways, typically via metaphorical extensions forming a complex network of related meanings. They assume that the basis of a great many metaphorical senses is space and among there most common source domains are containers, journeys (with path and goal) and vertical obstacles. In numerous meanings of particles we can witness the transfer from the concrete domain of space to the abstract domain via metaphorical extension. We often talk about abstract entities or relations in concrete terms. This applies to the domain of time, emotions, thoughts or social relations. Let us see now how it can be interpreted in the case of the above mentioned *out* (Rudzka-Ostyn 2003: 15-46). The container/landmark may be whatever surrounds a given entity/trajector that moves out of it, note the following:

- An enclosure, a building, a room, a car, a cup, a pot, a nest, a hole, a shell, a tunnel, an outer cover, a field or any other enclosed area;
- A substance (liquid or solid), e.g. water, wood, rock or earth;
- A set of group of objects, animals or people;
- Our body, mind

#### OUT 1: Entities moving out of containers

He *jumped out* of the train while it was moving.

They decided to *throw out* most of their old clothes.

#### OUT 2: Eating or inviting to eat away from home

I would like to *ask you out* to lunch.

I might *eat out* with you tonight.

#### OUT 3: Sets, groups are containers

She *picked out* the most expensive dress in the shop.

Begin to *sort out* the problems you can do something about now.

#### OUT 4: Bodies, minds, mouths are viewed as containers

He *reached out* his hand to greet us.

Perhaps the best way to deal with one's grief is to *cry it out*.

#### OUT 5: States, situations are containers

He *dropped out* of school.

She managed to *talk him out* of this stupid project.

#### OUT 6: Non-existence, ignorance, invisibility also function as containers

Nobody knows how the secret *leaked out*.

The book *came out* yesterday.

#### OUT 7: Trajectors, i.e. moving entities increasing to maximal boundaries

Please *spread out* the map on the table.

I have been doing this job so long, I feel *burnt out*.

As is evident from the above analysis of *out*, its meanings are analysable at least to some degree. Nevertheless, the recognition of the link between the literal and idiomatic meaning of particles via metaphors has been a major contribution of cognitive linguistics to a better understanding of the meanings of phrasal verbs. More up-to-date dictionaries, such as *MacMillan Phrasal Verbs Plus* (2005) have also attempted to integrate the results of research done by cognitive linguists who took up the challenge of the alleged arbitrariness of particle, prepositional usage and demonstrated that their meanings are highly structured. As a result, we can find a detailed semantic analysis of the most common particles (*around, away, back, down, in, into, off, on, out, over, through* and *up*) in this dictionary. Using diagrams and tables, the dictionary reveals the relationship between the literal and figurative meanings of these particles. From these networks of meanings it becomes clear that in most cases the idiomatic meanings are the metaphorical extensions of the literal ones.

## 2.2. Syntactic properties

One of the most common errors students make is that of syntax, which is due to the fact that sometimes the same particle functions either as a preposition or an adverbial particle and it has an important significance to the word order. Compare the different grammatical function of *on* in the following pairs of sentences (*Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* 2002: 410-411):

The machine *turns on* a central pivot. (rotates)

Pop music *turns on* many young people. (stimulates, excites)

There is certainly a difference of function here: the NP cannot precede *on* in the first sentence, but it can in the second:

\*The machine *turns* a central pivot *on*.

Pop music *turns* many young people *on*.

Further evidence of the difference is the contrastive positioning of the pronouns 'it' and 'them' in the two sentences:

The machine *turns on* it.

Pop music *turns them on*.

It is on basis of such criteria that *on* can be said to function as a preposition in the first example and as an adverb (or adverbial particle) in the second.

Consider now the following sentences:

She *turned on* the shower.

She *turned* the shower *on*.

She *turned it on*.

Interestingly enough, *turn on* is less idiomatic in the above examples than in *Pop music turns many people on*, nevertheless it has no bearing on the grammatical status of the particle, *on* is also an adverb here.

Consider also examples like:

Amir's dogs *turned on* their master and tore him to pieces. (attack violently)

Danny *turned on* her, accusing her of betraying him. (suddenly start angrily criticizing sb)

The whole issue *turn on* the question of finances. (its success depends on)

For a moment my thoughts *turned on* that gross and stupid man. (be concerned with)

The meanings of *turn on* in the above examples are idiomatic unlike in *The machine turns on a central pivot*, still *on* is also a preposition in all three of them.

In fact, the idiomatic/non-idiomatic contrast does not seem to have an impact on whether a preposition or an adverb is in the combination.

Like *on* in the above examples, numerous other particles can function both as an adverb or a preposition, for example: *about, across, along, around, by, down, off, over, through* and *up*. It may be no problem for a native speaker of English but it is really bewildering for an EFL learner. In such cases, course books and grammar books usually recommend them to turn to a good dictionary, which will tell them if a particle is a preposition or an adverb.

In theory, particle movement is allowed only in the case of transitive verb + adverb construction where the particle is an adverb, but even Quirk et al. (1985: 1155) refer to examples when some phrasal verbs do not allow the possibility of placing the adverbial particle after the object NP:

They had *given up* hope. ~ ? They had *given hope up*.

They laid *down* their arms~? They *laid* their arms *down*.

Conversely, some phrasal verbs do not easily allow the placement of particles before the NP object:

I was *crying my eyes out*. \*I was *crying out my eyes*.

I was *laughing my head off*. \*I was *laughing off my head*.

There are several factors that govern the word-order alternation in the case of transitive phrasal verbs when the object is a NP (Chen 1986: 97; Quirk et al. 1985: 1154-55; Gries 1999: 110, etc.):

- Particle movement is not possible with contrastively stressed direct object NPs:  
He *bought back* the book. \*He *brought the book back*.
- The length or complexity of the DO is also an obstacle for particle movement:  
No one *brought up* the questions everyone most wanted to hear asked.  
\*No one *brought* the questions everyone most wanted to hear asked *up*.
- The presence of a directional adverbial after the construction can also be a determining factor of the order of the direct object NP and the particle:  
He *put the bag down* onto the floor.  
\*He *put down* the bag onto the floor.
- The co-ordination of particles also requires avoiding the VAO order:  
I *switched the light on and off*.  
? I *switched on and off* the light.
- When the pronouns are coordinated, the particle precedes them:  
*Bring along him and her*.  
His scheme was to *show up you and me* as a liar.
- Finally, idiomticity is also a crucial factor that governs the order of elements:  
VAO order tends to occur where there is a strong idiomatic bond between the phrasal verb and the O:  
She *eked out* a poor existence/her salary/a living by selling flowers.  
\*She *eked a poor existence/her salary/ a living out* by selling flowers.

Consider other examples with a fully idiomatic meaning like *bring in a verdict, drum up support, gum up the works, hand in your notice, hold down a job, live out your dreams, put in an appearance, rip up the notebook, shut up the shop, strike up a friendship, turn over a new leaf and take up arms*, etc. where the particle is never separated from the verb by an object NP.

### 2.3. Stylistic and regional varieties

It is often said that phrasal verbs are largely informal or spoken in register. As Live (1965: 429) and Lipka (1972: 161) observe, the word-formative productivity of phrasal verbs is more active in slang than in standard usage, and it seems to be considerably greater in American English.

The authors of the *Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* (1995: iv) also remark in their foreword that phrasal verbs tend to be rather 'colloquial' or 'informal' and more appropriate to spoken than written English. Although many phrasal verbs are used primarily in informal or spoken contexts, it is misleading to emphasise this as one of their most distinctive features. As pointed out by Malcolm Goodale (1993: iv), the author of the *Collins Cobuild Phrasal Verbs Workbook*, it is a common misconception that phrasal verbs are mostly used in the spoken language. They can be found in many styles of writing, including highly formal government reports. Consider the following examples (*Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs*, 2002):

- Informal: *gobble up* (use a lot of sth, especially money), *jabber away* (speak quickly in a way that is difficult to understand), *loaf about/around* (spend your time doing very little) and *swill down* (drink a large amount of alcohol quickly), etc.;
- Formal: *call forth* (make sth exist or happen), *rejoice in* (be very happy about sth) and *preside over* (be in charge of an event; a company), etc.;
- Slang: *piss away* (waste a large amount of money), *screw about/around* (treat sb badly by changing your mind a lot) and *squeal on* (tell sb in authority about someone who has done sth wrong), etc.

There are some differences in the set of phrasal verbs in the national standards of English such as British English, American English and Australian English. Consider the following examples (*Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* 2006):

- BrE: *lie up* (hide from people who are looking for you), *parcel up* (wrap and make it into a parcel) and *tail back* (form a long line and move very slowly (traffic), etc.
- AE: *brace up* (feel more hopeful about a situation), *face off* (disagree and start to fight) and *scout up* (try to find sth or say you need), etc.
- AustE: *bail up* (make sb late) and *belt into* (begin to do sth quickly and with a lot of effort), etc.
- British informal: *bunk off* (stay away from school or work), *crack on* (continue what you are doing with energy and enthusiasm) and *rabbit on* (talk for a long time about things that are not interesting to other people), etc.
- British slang: *Naff off!* (tell sb very rudely to go away), *Leave it out!* (stop doing) and *skin up* (make a cigarette using marijuana), etc.
- American informal: *dummy up* (stay silent and refuse to say anything), *mellow out* (relax and stop worrying) and *pork out* (eat a lot of food), etc.
- American slang: *cat around* (have sex with many different people), *fink on* (give sb secret information about someone else) and *scarf down* (eat or drink very quickly), etc.
- Australian informal: *bugger up* (spoil sth or do it very badly), *Eff off!* (tell sb very rudely to go away) and *goof off* (avoid work), etc.

- Australian slang: *frig around with* (*have a sexual relationship with sy who is not your regular sex partner*) and *Rack off!* (*tell sy very rudely to go away*), etc.

As is evident from the above examples, phrasal verbs tend to occur in different styles ranging from formal through informal style to even slang, where they are especially active.

In addition, phrasal verbs are used in various types of text including business, work, study, journalism, sport pop music and even technical language, etc. Consider the following examples related to work and business (English Phrasal Verbs in Use Advanced 2007: 68, 74):

### **Work**

*farm out* (a task) (give work to other people instead of doing it yourself)

*step aside* (leave a job or a position especially so that someone else can do it)

*slog away* (keep working hard especially for a long time)

*get passed over* for promotion (are not given a higher position because it is given to someone else)

*pack this job in* (*inf.* stopping doing something, especially a job)

*hand in* his notice (tell your employer that you will leaving your job soon)

*plug away* (work hard at something for a long time)

*beaver away* (*inf.* work hard at something for a long time)

*fling yourself into* your work (start to spend a lot of time and energy doing something)

*cobble something together* (make something quickly and not very carefully)

*coast along* (do only the things that you have to do without trying to go faster or be more successful)

*knuckle down* (start to work or study hard especially if you have not been working hard before)

*cut out* for teaching/nursing (have the right qualities for something, especially for a job)

*get off* (*inf.* leave the place where you work usually at the end of the day)

*ease off* (start to work less or do things with less energy)

### **Business**

*head up* a company (be in charge of)

*buy out* a rival (buy a company so that you own all of it)

*hive off* its residential department (separate one part of the company from the rest)

*set somebody up with* restaurants (given them the money to start a business)

*break into* a new market/work in the media (become involved in a type of business or activity that is difficult to become involved in)

*bring in* customers, clients (attract people encouraging them to buy products or services)

*bring out* a new product/a book (produce something to sell to the public)

*deal in* art/arms/drugs (buy or sell particular goods as a business)

*sign up* a new employee/ a film star/a basketball player (get someone to sign a document stating they will work for you)

*turn out* cars/films/computers (make or produce something for sale)

*turn over* £ 6 million (generate a specific amount of money in a particular time)

Pop music also abounds in phrasal verbs as illustrated by the following examples taken from *Runnin' Down a Dream* by Tom Petty and the Heatbreakers – (<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LkaVSVdOD9gyou>):

It was a beautiful day, the sun beat down  
I had the radio on, I was drivin'  
Trees flew by, me and Del were singin' little Runaway  
I was flyin'  
Yeah runnin' down a dream  
That never would come to me  
Workin' on a mystery, goin' wherever it leads  
Runnin' down a dream

As the above examples demonstrate, phrasal verbs are found in all types of text and are essential for expressing many ideas in natural English.

## 2.4. Single-word equivalents

It is also often stated that phrasal verbs are very frequently synonymous with simple verbs of Romance origin, e.g.; *blow up* ~ *explode*, *cut down* ~ *reduce*, *go in/come in* ~ *enter*, *do away with* ~ *eliminate*, *hand in* ~ *submit*, *put off* ~ *postpone* *back up* ~ *support*, *put out* ~ *extinguish* and *wipe out* ~ *eradicate*, etc. But in many cases phrasal verbs and their synonyms have different ranges of use, meaning, or collocation, so that a single-word synonym cannot be substituted appropriately for a phrasal verb. Single-word equivalents are often much more formal in style than phrasal verbs, so that they seem out of place in many contexts, e.g.: *retreat* is more formal than *back away*; *protrude* is more formal than *stick out* and *demolish* is more formal than *pull down*, etc.

Recognising the importance of semantic relations between phrasal verbs and their single-word equivalents, up-to-date dictionaries, such as *Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus* (2005) and *Oxford Phrasal VerbsDictionary for Learners of English* (2006) provide learners with some useful information about it. *Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus* (2005: 515-522) has an index of single-word equivalents, which lists over 1,000 English verbs and – for each one – gives one or more phrasal verbs that express the same meaning. It, however, pointed out that it is rare for two words to be exact equivalents as the meaning of one word may be more limited than the meaning of the other (e.g. *resemble* ~ *takeafter*, with the latter being used only to talk about people in the same family who resemble each other) or there is often a difference in register (e.g. *discharge* ~ *carry out*, with the former being a rather former word meaning 'to do something that you have a responsibility to do').

A unique feature of the *Oxford Phrasal Verbsfor Learners of English* dictionary (2006) is that it does not just provide learners with a list of verbs with related meanings as *Macmillan Phrasal VerbsPlus* does, but in many cases it also gives a detailed analysis of the difference between them, in terms of meaning, register and collocation. Consider the following example (*Oxford Phrasal Verbsfor Learners of English* dictionary 2006: 22):

*blow (sth) up* ~ to be destroyed by an explosion

*burst sth*~ to break open or apart, especially because of pressure from inside

*explode sth*~ to burst loudly and violently, causing damage, to make something burst in this way

*go off* (of a bomb) ~ to explode; (of a gun) to be fired

As far as their meaning and register are concerned, it pointed out that *blow up* has a similar meaning to *explode*, but *explode* is more formal. It is possible to say that a *bomb blows up* but it is more common to say that *it explodes or goes off*. Besides, these verbs with related meanings also have typical patterns and collocations:

- a bomb explodes/goes off/bursts
- a car/plane/vehicle explodes/blows up
- a fireworks/rocket explodes/goes off
- a shell explodes/bursts

Interestingly enough, it is sometimes possible to match the elements of phrasal verbs and Latinate verbs with more or less the same meaning (*The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology* 1966):

- descend from ~ climb down  
L. *descendere* formed on DE- (off, from) + *scandere* (climb)
- insert ~ put in  
L. *inserere* formed on IN- (in) + *serere* (plant, put into)
- interrupt~ break in upon  
L. *interrumpere* formed on INTER- (between) + *rumpere* (break)
- investigate~ search into  
L. *investigāre* formed on IN- (in) + *vestigāre* (track, trace)
- repel ~ drive, force back  
L. *repellere* formed on RE- (back) + *pellere* (drive)
- subtract~ take away  
L. *subtrahere* formed on SUB- (from/away) + *trahere* (draw)

In contrast to the large number of phrasal verbs, the number of their single-word equivalents is relatively small, which means that there are a lot of things and concepts in English that cannot be expressed in any other way but by phrasal verbs. Besides, as was pointed out above their single-word equivalents often differ in style, their typical objects and subjects and sometimes even in their meaning.

## 2.5. Phrasal verbs used as nouns

As is evident from the discussion above, verb + particle constructions create special problems for learners of English, mainly because they have special syntactic, semantic and stylistic properties. To make matters worse, some of them are also used as nouns and even in the functions of adjectives. As for their morphology, four major types of phrasal verbs used as nouns can be distinguished (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1652-54):

- Unsuffixified verb + particle  
*breakthrough, drop-out, hang-up, lookout, show-off, singalong, tailback*
- Particle + unsuffixified verb  
*downturn, intake, offshoot, overpass, outlet, throughput, upturn*
- Verbal element carries the – er suffix
  - i. *passer-by, hanger-on, getter-up, runner-up, knocker-up*
  - ii. *bystander, onlooker, overseer*
- Verbal element carries – ing suffix
  - i. *dressing-down, going-over, phasing-out, telling-off, swearing-in*
  - ii. *upbringing, uprising, uprooting, outpouring, outgoings*

Not surprisingly, the meaning of most nominalizations – due to their verbal element – is closely related to activities, processes as illustrated in such examples as (Kovács 2007: 110-113): *blast-off* (the movement when the rocket leaves the ground), *lie-in* (a rest by staying in bed later than usual in the morning), *stopover* (a short stay in a particular place between parts of a long journey), *singalong* (an occasion when a group of people sing song together for pleasure), *sit-in* (an event in which people protest against something by staying in a place until they get what

they want), *splashdown* (the landing of a space vehicle in the sea after a flight), *take-off* (beginning of a flight), *take-over* (act of gaining control of a company by buying it) and *tail-off* (the process of slowly becoming smaller in amount), etc.

A lot of phrasal nouns relate to events, situations, such as: *buy-in* (a situation in which a group of managers get some control over a company that they do not work for by investing a lot of money in the company), *mess-up* (a situation in which something has been done badly or wrongly), *round-up* (an occasion when many people are arrested or captured), *set-up* (a situation in which someone makes it seem as if an innocent person has committed a crime) and *stake-out* (a situation in which someone stays hidden near a building in order to watch anyone who enters or leaves it), etc.

Besides activities and events, deverbal nouns sometimes relate to the object or result of the activity, as is evident from examples like: a *blow-up* (a large copy of a photograph), *ahandout* (a paper containing a summary of information, or topics which will be dealt with in a lecture or talk), a *fry-up* (a breakfast food, such as bacon and eggs, etc.), *apin-up* (a photograph of an attractive person that appears in a magazine and that people often stick on a wall), *printout* (paper printed with information from a computer), a *write-off* (a car so badly damaged that it is written off the books of an insurance company) and a *tip-off* (a warning or secret information about sth), etc.

Furthermore, the ones formed with the –er suffix refer to people, such as *passer-by* (someone who is walking past a place), *onlooker* (someone who watches something happen but does not take part in it), *bystander* (someone who is in a particular place by chance when an accident or an unusual event happens), *hanger-on* (someone trying to be friendly with a richer or more important person, especially in order to gain an advantage for themselves), *runner-up* (someone who has finished in second place in a race or competition), *overseer* (someone whose job is to make sure that employees are working properly) and *washer-up* (someone who washes up the dishes), etc.

A lot of such nouns are formed by conversion without a suffix, such as *dropout* (someone who drops out of society or education), *gadabout* (someone who goes from place to place enjoying themselves), *layabout* (someone who lays/lies idly about), *pushover* (someone who is easy to influence or persuade), *stand-in* (someone who takes the place of a main actor in a particular scene of a film, especially a dangerous scene), *runaway* (someone who has left their home or escaped from somewhere), *stowaway* (someone who hides on a ship, plane or other vehicle so that they can travel without permission and without paying), *tearaway* (a young person who behaves badly and often gets into trouble), *show-off* (someone who tries to get attention and praise from other people by showing how clever they are), *castaway* (someone who has been left on an island surrounded by sea and cannot get away) and *outcast* (someone that other people will not accept as a member of society), etc.

Some of them relate to places, for example: *lockup* (a small prison in a village or town, where the police can keep a criminal for a short period of time), *checkout* (the place where you pay in a supermarket or other large shop), *hangout* (a place where a particular group of people like to spend time), *hideaway* (a private place where someone goes to relax or to be away from other people), *lay-by* (a space next to the road where vehicles can stop), *outlet* (a shop, company, or organisation through which products are sold), *pull -in* (a cafe on a main road where you can get

cheap meals) and *take-away* (a shop or restaurant that sells meals to be eaten somewhere else), etc. It is noteworthy, however, that the phrasal nouns that relate to people and places often tend to be dialectical, idiomatic, and slangy.

### 3. Conclusion

The specific area of phrasal verbs or multi-word verbs within lexis is of particular importance and forms a particular problem for language learners. As we can see above, phrasal verbs can be problematic for learners in several ways. No doubt their semantics causes the most difficulties as their meanings are not transparent in the majority of cases. The fact that most of them are polysemous also adds to their complexity. However, there is often a connection between the literal and idiomatic meanings of the particles via metaphorization forming a network of related meanings. The recognition of these links can considerably contribute to a better understanding of the meanings of phrasal verbs.

As for their syntax, particle placement is often governed by identifiable factors, such as the length of the NP, co-ordination of the particles or pronouns or idiomaticity, etc. Dictionaries of phrasal verbs are of great help to solve the mystery of both the multiple meanings and the word-order problems of verb+particle constructions.

The conversion possibilities of phrasal verbs into nouns and adjectives also prove that phrasal verbs are very productive in English. From the point of view of meaning, phrasal nouns can relate to actions, situations, the object or result of an activity, places or people.

It is also true that quite many phrasal verbs have a single word equivalent but in most cases they cannot replace each other since they differ considerably in terms of their style, register and collocation. Furthermore, phrasal verbs seem to occur mostly in informal style and in the spoken language, but it does not mean that they are not used in formal writings.

To make things worse, the set of English phrasal verbs is constantly growing and changing. On one hand, some of them become old fashioned just like: *peg away*, *rave it up*, *rig out*, *rub along*, *set to* and *shift for*, etc. On the other hand, new combinations appear and spread, which are particularly common in informal language, just like *big up*, *chill out*, *hype up*, *max out*, *rock up*, *sex up* and *veg out*, etc. The development of computer science has also brought a lot of new phrasal verbs into English, for example: *back up*, *boot up*, *connect up*, *dial into*, *hack into*, *key in/into*, *log in/into*, *log on/onto*, *log off*, *print out*, *power up*, *phish for* and *text back*, etc. In fact, many new combinations of verbs and particles arise from a creative use of English. Interestingly enough, in most cases new phrasal verbs are formed either from new combinations of existing verbs and particles, or through existing phrasal verbs acquiring new meanings. For example, the phrasal verb *bump someone off* originally meant 'to murder someone'. In its new meaning illustrated by 'I was *bumped off* the Net' it refers to the situation where the connection between a person's computer and the Internet is unexpectedly broken. Thus, new phrasal verbs also pose another challenge for not only foreign learners of English but also for lexicographers and course-book writers.

Nevertheless, phrasal verbs were a kind of Cinderella for lexicographers until the 1970s. In fact, the first dictionary of phrasal verbs appeared only in 1974 with the title *Collins Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs and Their Idioms* edited by Tom McArthur

and Beryl Atkins. Since then most important publishers have had their dictionary of phrasal verbs published, such as *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English. Volume 1: Verbs with Prepositions and Particles* (1975). *Longman Phrasal VerbsDictionary* (1983), *Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* (1995, 2002), *Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* (1993), *Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary for Learners of English* (2001, 2006), *Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus* (2005) and *Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* (1997, 2006). Such a dictionary is an invaluable aid for any learner who wants to use phrasal verbs with confidence.

It is heartening news for both learners and teachers of English that besides the dictionaries of phrasal verbs there are also some useful workbooks available to master phrasal verbs, for example Seidl, J. (1990). *English Idioms: Exercises on Phrasal Verbs*, Allshop, J. (1990) *Test Your Phrasal Verbs*, Gooddale, M. (1993/1995) *Collins Cobuild Phrasal Verbs Workbook*, Workman, G. (1993) *Phrasal Verbs and Idioms*, Milton,J., B. Blake and V. Evans(2000) *A Good Turn of Phrase Advanced Practice in Phrasal Verbs and Prepositional Phrases*, Dilys, P. (2005) *Really learn 100 phrasalverbs*, McCarthy, Michael and Felicity O'Dell (2004) *English Phrasal Verbs in Use Intermediate* andMcCarthy and Michael & Felicity O'Dell (2007) *English Phrasal Verbs in Use Advanced*.

Although phrasal verbs pose special problems for both learners and teachers of English, their productivity and complexity makes them a fascinating area for a linguist to study.

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# A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS ON THE MEANING OF SOME GERMAN ADJECTIVES COMPARED TO MACEDONIAN

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**Abstract:** This study is intended to serve as a guide for teachers of German who are teaching German as a foreign language (*DaF-Deutsch als Fremdsprache*), by making a contrast of the grammatical structures and the meaning of lexical items of both contemporary German and Macedonian language. This study is limited to the word class of adjectives only. By making the contrast between the two systems point-by-point, teachers can more readily see just those instances where dissimilarities and congruences occur between the two systems and where students of one, say Macedonians who wish to learn German, can more readily be made aware of what to look out for as they practice grammar in the target language. Firstly, the author presents the Macedonian word class of adjectives, then the German one, and in the next section makes a comparison between the meaning of the lexical items in both language systems followed by the summary and conclusion of the similarities and differences in both languages. The findings of this study will be important for teachers teaching German as a foreign language in Macedonia, as well as for the Macedonian students of German who study German as a foreign language (*DaF*) and for the teacher educators, too.

**Keywords:** adjectives; DaF; meaning; contrastive analysis

## 1. Background: contrastive analysis

Contrastive Analysis (CA) or Contrastive Linguistics is a linguistic approach which aims to describe the differences and similarities between two languages. In defining CA, Krzeszowski (1990) sets off from the learning circumstances and says:

When two or more languages are compared, it is possible to focus either on similarities or on differences. When a learner learns a new language, he usually focuses attention on differences and remains largely unaware of similarities. If he discovers some similarities, he is amused and surprised since he ordinarily does not find them. Grammarians, on the other hand, quite early became interested in discovering what various languages have in common, in the belief that making such similarities explicit for the learner may facilitate the process of foreign language learning. (Krzeszowski, 1990, p. 9)

As Gómez-González and Doval-Suárez (2003) have put it in their article *On Contrastive Linguistics: Trends, Challenges and Problems*, “every aspect of linguistic analysis can be approached from a contrastive perspective, and accordingly research in the field flows from numerous academic disciplines that are very different from one another” (p. 41). As a result contrastive descriptions can be applied in all fields of linguistics: speech sounds (phonology), written symbols (graphology), word formation (morphology), word meaning (lexicology), collocation

(phraseology), sentence structure (syntax) and complete discourse (discourse analysis, pragmatics, sociolinguistics).

Gast (n.d.) explained that: "Contrastive linguistics can be regarded as a branch of comparative linguistics that is concerned with pairs of languages which are 'socio-culturally linked'. Two languages can be said to be socio-culturally linked when (i) they are used by a considerable number of bi- or multilingual speakers, and/or (ii) a substantial amount of 'linguistic output' (text, discourse) is translated from one language into the other". (in: Zawaher 2013:429). The author accepts the theory on contrastive linguistics as a branch of comparative linguistics and tries to compare a pair of languages (German and Macedonian), presenting the different meaning of the lexical elements.

## **2. Purpose and significance of the study**

Since even languages as closely related as German and English differ significantly in the form, meaning, and distribution of their grammatical structures, and since the learners tend to transfer the habits of their native language structure to the foreign language, we have here the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the structure of a foreign language. Those structures that are similar will be easy to learn because they will be transferred and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language. Those structures that are different will be difficult because when transferred they will not function satisfactorily in the foreign language and will therefore have to be changed. (Lado, 1957, p.59). The main aim of this study is to present the probably problematic differences between some German adjectives and their possible equivalents in Macedonian (strong version of CA), to clarify and explain the differences in meanings when students translate German adjectives to Macedonian without considering the general context.

The analysis and the findings of this study will be important for teaching German as a foreign language in Macedonia and it presents the significant contributions to the understanding of German language teaching and learning for a group of people. This paper may be of a great importance for the target groups, such as for teachers of German who can use these analysis and results in the teaching/learning process in teaching German as a second and a foreign language, being aware of the role of Macedonian language as a first language. It will be also useful for the teacher educators who may use these analysis and findings in reexamining their foreign language teaching methodology. Moreover, the material writers and syllabus designers may make use of the findings in preparing teaching materials and designing the syllabus, as well as for the teaching methodology researchers who can use the findings in conducting more studies in the area, which could be helpful in developing new German language teaching methods and techniques, and finally for the Macedonian students of German as a foreign language who can use the findings to develop their translation abilities.

## **3. Adjectives in Macedonian**

For the examination of the word class adjectives in Macedonian the author uses the references of famous Macedonian grammarians, such as Koneski B. (1982), Kepeski K. (1978), as well as of foreign scientists, e.g. Lunt H.G. (1952), and Friedman V. (2001). Adjectives as a word class have no gender of their own, but change their form to indicate the gender of the substantives which they

modify. There are four forms; masculine, feminine and neuter singular, and a single plural form. The masculine form ends in zero (i. e. a consonant followed by zero), the feminine has the suffix -a, the neuter -o, and the plural -и. For example: *голем*, *голомо*, *големи*.

Many adjectives which have an -e, -o, or -a before the final consonant lose this vowel before the other suffixes: *дobar*, *добра*, *добро*, *добрi* (gut); *сilen*, *силна*, *силно*, *силни* (stark). Other changes may accompany the loss of this vowel. A relatively small group of adjectives ends in -и in the masculine form; nearly always they have the suffixes: -ски, -шки, -чки. This -и is dropped before the inflectional adjectival suffixes. *македонски*, *македонска*, *македонско* (Macedonian). (Lunt 1978: 34-35)

Most adjectives inflect for gender and number. A few inflect only for number and some do not inflect at all; these last two types are all of Turkish or more recent foreign origin. Most masculines end in a consonant, a few end in /-i/, feminines all end in /-a/, neutrals normally end in /-o/, a very few — all possessive — end in /-e/, plurals all end in /-i/. Masculines in /-i/ include derived adjectives in /-sk-/, some toponymic, anthroponymic and other lexicalized expressions, e.g. *dolen* 'lower' but *Dolni Saraj* 'Lower Saraj' (a neighbourhood in Ohrid), *premudar* 'extremely wise' *premudri Solomon* 'Solomon the wisest' *toj pusti/kutri...* 'that wretched...', also *nivni* 'their' (but also *niven* according to Koneski 1999), and a few ordinal numerals. A few adjectives also have an optional masculine vocative in /-i/, e.g. *drag* 'dear', *dragi moj* 'my dear!', *počituvan* 'respected' *Počituvani Profesore* 'Dear Professor' (opening for a semi-formal letter). (Friedman 2001: 26)

Comparison in Macedonian adjectives is entirely analytic. The comparative marker is /po-/; the superlative /naj-/ written unseparated from the adjective: *ponov* 'newer', *najnov* 'newest'. The only irregular comparative is *mnogu* 'much, many', *poveke* 'more', *najmnogu* 'most' (*najpoveke* is no longer literary; note: *poveketo* 'the majority'). The comparative and superlative markers can also be added to nouns, verbs, and adverbial phrases: *prijatel* 'friend', *poprijatel* 'more of a friend' *na jug* 'to/in the south', *ponajug* 'more southerly' *ne saka* 'dislike', *najnesaka* 'dislike the most'. If there are proclitic object pronouns attached to such a verb, however, each morpheme is spelled as a separate word: *naj ne go saka* 'he dislikes him the most' (Friedman 2001: 27).

#### **4. Adjectives in German (germ. *Adjektiv* engl. *adjective*; von lat. *adictum*, das *Hinzugefügte*)**

The adjectives as a word class in a language system have the function to express properties. Prototypical adjectives are words, such as: *groß*, *breit*, *kurz*, *jung* / large, wide, short, young. They refer mostly to nouns in the sentence or to pronouns: *die kurze Geschichte*; *sie ist kurz* / the short story; it is short, but they can refer also to verbs: *Sie sah kurz auf* / She looked up briefly. In German, the adjectives are inflected and can agree with the gender, case and number of the noun to which they refer. But, they can only be inflected when they are with a noun in attributive use: *ein schwerer Fehler* / a serious mistake. However, adjectives in German can also be predicatively used (they come after the verbs *sein/werden/bleiben*). E.g.: *Der Fehler ist schwer* / the error is serious, and in that case they are used without inflection. The same applies to their use as adverbials: *Er seufzte schwer* / He sighed heavily.

Helbig/Buscha (2011: 281) explained that there are relative and qualitative adjectives: 1) Qualitative (e.g., groß, klug, heilbar / great, clever, curable). 2) Relative adjectives (väterlich, bulgarisch, gestrig / paternal, bulgarian, of yesterday). According to Duden (2009: 340) they are so called relative adjectives. The relative adjectives cannot be compared (gestriger\*) and many of them cannot be used predicatively (Die Zeitung ist gestrig\*). Eisenberg (2006: 241) defines the relative adjectives as dimensional adjectives (groß-klein / big-small, kurz-lang / short-long). Adjectives which modify the nouns and pronouns may be classified into: 1) Descriptive: they describe a quality of the noun (lange Reise) 2) Limiting: they limit the noun they modify (sein Haus). Descriptive adjectives are of two types:a. Attributive adjectives: they come directly before the noun to attribute a quality to the noun they modify. The same noun can be modified by more than one adjective. For example: Sie wohnen im weißen und schönen Haus. b. Predicative adjective: they form a part of the predicate and appear after the verb to modify the subject of the sentence. For example: Dieser Junge ist klug. Regardless of howlong the adjective is, the comparative is formed by adding -er to the basicform: billig - *Dieser Laptop ist billiger*. interessant- *London ist viel interessanter als Paris*. The same principle applies to the superlative. The superlative as the highest form of comparison is formed by using *am* or the definite article (*der, die, das*) before the adjective, and by adding *-ste(n)* to the end of the adjective (e.g.: *die schnellste Läuferin/the fastest runner*) in attributive use, or the combination of *am* before the adjective and the ending –sten, in predicative use (e.g.: *sie läuft am schnellsten/she runs the fastest*).

## 5. The meaning of the out-of-context German adjectives compared to Macedonian

In the textbooks for the first and second semester of the first year of studies for the students studying DaF at the University in Štip, the new vocabulary is presented isolated at the beginning of each unit. Adjectives are the main important part of that vocabulary. Unfortunately, students use the dictionaries (mainly bilingual German-Macedonian) or let the others help them translate the new vocabulary out of context. Consequently, the process of finding and choosing the correct equivalents of Macedonian adjectives in German language when they translate out-of-context adjectives, is difficult and misleading in most cases. The student tries to translate Macedonian adjectives into German depending on his/her experience and influence of the mother tongue itself. In other words, the student finds the equivalents of those German adjectives in Macedonian and tries to translate them as they frequently appear in the communication of the Macedonian native speaker. We analyze the meaning of the adjective *frisch* and find its equivalents in Macedonian as they must be translated depending on the context:

According to Wahrig G. (1986: 503-504), the lexeme *frisch* has the following meanings: **frisch** <Adj.>1 *unverbraucht, nicht abgelagert, nicht abgestanden* (Lebensmittel); *neu, jung* (Gemüse); *erneuert, unermüdet* (Kräfte); *sauber, rein, unbunutzt* (Wäsche); *vor kurzem geschehen; eben erst getan*; *munter, keck, keine Scheu zeigend* (Person); *lebhaft, gesund blühend* (Aussehen); *kühl* (Wetter); *nicht verwischt, deutlich, gut erhalten* (Farben); <Met.> *nicht totgebrannt* (Erze) 2 *ein ~es Aussehen haben* *eine gesunde Gesichtsfarbe; ~es Brot; ~e Brötchen, Eier; noch unter dem ~en Eindruck des Geschehenen stehen; eine ~e Fährte, Spur;*

die **Farben** sind noch ganz ~; ~es **Gemüse**, Obst; der Anblick des ~en **Grüns** tut den Augen gut; ein ~es **Hemd** anziehen; mit ~en **Kräften**; ~e **Luft** schöpfen; ~en **Mut** fassen; ihr **Schmerz** ist noch ganz ~; jmdn. auf ~er **Tat** ertappen; ~e **Truppen** an die Front werfen; einen ~en **Verband** anlagen; ~e **Wäsche**; ~es **Wetter**<Bgb.>*Frischluft im Grubenbau*; ein ~er **Wind** kommt auf; die **Wunde** ist ganz ~3 ~ (und gesund) **aussehen**; die Betten~ **beziehen**; **sein**: es ist ~ draußen; das Haus ~ **verputzen** lassen 4 ~ , **fromm**, fröhlich (froh), frei (*alter Turnerspruch*); ~ **gebackener** Kuchen; ~ **gefallener** Schnee; ~ **gewaschene** Wäsche; ~ und **munter** sein 5 ~ **auf!** (*ermunternder Zuruf*) ; es steht mir noch ~ in der Erinnerung; etwas ~ im Gedächtnis haben; **von** ~ em beginnen von *neuem*, *erneut*, Milch, ~ von der Kuh; ~ von der Leber weg (reden) *rückhaltlos*, *offen*; Bier, ~ vom Faß.

According to the *Englisch-Deutsch & Deutsch-Englisches Wörterbuch* (1987: 408), the lexeme 'frisch' has the following meaning:fresh; cool, chilly; refreshing; brisk, lively; new, recent; clean; ~ frisch gestrichen (wet paint);frisch auf! (look alive, come on); es ist recht frisch draußen(there is quite a nip in the air; auf frischer Tat (in the very act of); frische Eier (new-laid eggs); frisches Grab (newly-dug grave); frische Wunde (green or raw wund; Frische, freshness (coolness; liveliness); frischer Stahl (natural steel).

In the Online Synonymie-Wörterbuch there are about forty different meanings of the lexeme (adjective) *frisch*. The author presents them in the following table.

**Table 1.** Synonyms of the adjective *frisch* and their meaning.

German adjective	Synonyms	Meaning
frisch	neu	gegenwärtig, glatt, grün, gut, leistungsfähig, neubacken, neugebacken, neugeboren, ofenfrisch, ofenwarm, präsent, rein, taufrisch, unbenutzt, frisch
	angenehm	aufnahmefähig, ausgeruht, blühend, durchblutet, erholt, faltenfrei, fit, frischbacken, frisch gebacken, gesund, jugendlich, jung, knackig, kräftig, frisch
	kühl	eisig, erfrischend, feucht, kalt, frostig, luftig, rau, frisch
	wohlauf	wohl, Frisch
	aufgeschlossen	aufgeweckt, empfänglich, flexibel, weltoffen, zugänglich, aufnahmefähig,frisch
	gesund	frisch, durchblutet
	belaubt	frisch, grün
	fit	gesund, kräftig, stark, strapazierbar, tüchtig, erholt, <b>frisch</b> , leistungsfähig
	frisch gebacken	frisch, neubacken
	anwesend	da, gegenwärtig, greifbar, hier, parat, verfügbar, vorhanden, zugegen, zur Verfügung, aufmerksam, dabei, dort, <b>frisch</b> , präsent
	frisch	frisch, warm
	dynamisch	blutvoll, farbig, feurig, heißblütig, lebhaft, mobil, temperamentvoll, unruhig, vif, vital, wild, aktiv,

German adjective	Synonyms	Meaning
		<b>frisch</b> , fröhlich, dynamisch, lebendig
	anschaulich	auffällig, bildlich, blutvoll, blühend, bunt, deutlich, eingängig, farbenfreudig, farbenfroh, farbenprächtig, farbig, feurig, <b>frisch</b> , greifbar, lebhaft
	erregend	spannend, spritzig, atemlos, <b>frisch</b> , packend, prickelnd
	lebhaft	munter, <b>frisch</b> , flink, röschen
	kräftig	hoch, zu teuer, überhöht, frisch, satt, saftig
	jung	blühend, halbwüchsig, heranwachsend, jungenhaft, knabhaft, lausbübisch, mädchenhaft, unentwickelt, unerfahren, unmündig, unreif, <b>frisch</b> , sportlich, jugendlich
	belebend	anregend, erquicklich, labend, wohl tuend, angenehm, aufmunternd, aufputschend, erfreulich, <b>frisch</b> , kurzweilig, stimulierend, wohlig, erfrischend
	bitterkalt	eisig, kalt, kühl, unterkühlt, winterlich, hundekalt, <b>frisch</b> , frostklirrend, lausekalt, saukalt, frostig
	knusprig	erholt, frisch, straff, krass, appetitlich, knackig
	munter	aufgeheiter, aufgekratzt, aufgelegt, aufgeschlossen, aufnahmebereit, ausgelassen, feuchtfröhlich, freudestrahlend, freudig, <b>frisch</b> , fröhlich, froh, frohgemut, froh gestimmt, fidel
	aufgeheiter	aufgekratzt, aufgelegt, aufgeschlossen, aufgeweckt, ausgelassen, feuchtfröhlich, freudestrahlend, freudig, frisch, fröhlich, froh, frohgemut, froh gestimmt, frohsinnig, lebenslustig
	auffrischend	<b>frisch</b> , kühl, böig, windig, bewegt, stürmisches, zugig, luftig
	kroß	knackig, lecker, anziehend, frisch, jung, appetitlich, delikat, blühend, resch, schmackhaft, knusprig
	kalt	abgekühlt, ausgekühlt, bitterkalt, eisig, eisig kalt, eiskalt, frisch, frostig, frostklirrend, unterkühlt, winterlich, schattig, unbehaglich, ungeheizt, kühl
	ausgeruht	blühend, fit, <b>frisch</b> , gesund, knackig, kraftvoll, lebendig, leistungsfähig, munter, rüstig, unverbraucht, erholt
	abgekühlt	ausgekühlt, bitterkalt, eisig, eisig kalt, eiskalt, <b>frisch</b> , frostig, frostklirrend, hundekalt, klamm, kühl, lausekalt, saukalt, schattig, kalt
	stark	kräftig, fit, mächtig, robust, <b>frisch</b> , dynamisch, erholt, handfest, heftig, scharf, stürmisches, stämmig, kernig, kraftvoll
	delikat	schmackhaft, wohlschmeckend, appetitlich,

German adjective	Synonyms	Meaning
		lecker, aromatisch, <b>frisch</b> , gewürzt, herb, herhaft, kräftig, scharf, wohlriechend, blumig, gehaltvoll, pikant, würzig
	rein	adrett, aufgeräumt, fleckenlos, <b>frisch</b> , genau, gereinigt, gewissenhaft, hygienisch, makellos, ordentlich, reinlich, sorgfältig, tadellos, unbenutzt, sauber
	blühend	<b>frisch</b> , gesund, gut, munter, strotzend, angenehm, geborgen, heil, kerngesund, wohlbehalten, gut beieinander, wohl
	jugendlich	frisch, gesund, jung, kerngesund, taufrisch, unverbraucht, erholt, wohl, munter, rüstig, strotzend, anmutig, blühend

Depending on the online DUDEN-Wörterbuch "Richtiges und Gutes Deutsch" (2013), we present in the following section the different meanings of the adjective "frisch" in German and Macedonian language with some examples:

1.
  - a. Fresh (especially food), not old. For example: frische Eier (MK: sveži jajca), Butter (MK: puter), frische Fische (MK: sveža riba), frische Blumen (MK: sveži cvekinja), das Obst war frisch (MK: ovošjeto bese svežo).
    - b. clean and pure, not old or spoiled, newly produced. E.g.: frische Luft (MK: svež vozduh), noch frische Kräfte haben (MK: se` ušte ima sveži sili). With metaphorical meaning: die Erinnerung daran war noch zu frisch(MK: sekavanjeto za toa beše se` ušte svežo).
    - c. Just arisen, made, executed. For example: eine frische Wunde (MK: sveža rana); ein noch frischer Blutfleck (MK: se` ušte sveža fleka od krv); der Fleck ist noch frisch (MK: flekata e se` ušte sveža); frisch gebackenes Brot (MK: svežo ispečen leb); Vorsicht, frisch gestrichen! (vnimanje, svežo bojadisano !).
    - d. Just formed, established: frisch von der Uni.kommen (MK: tukušto izlezen od univerzitet); ein frisch verliebtes Pärchen (MK: svežo vљubjen par).
2.
  - a. Rested, recovered (MK: osvežen, odmoren): frische Truppen, Pferde (MK: sveži/odmoreni trupi, konji); nach der Rast mit frischen Kräften weiterklettern (MK: po odmorot so sveži sili prodolžuva da se iskačuva).
    - b. Clean, pure: frische Handtücher bereitlegen (MK: novi šamivčinja položuva), das Bett frisch (*mit sauberer Wäsche*) beziehen (MK: postela krevet so čist veš), sich frisch machen (*sich waschen, frisieren, zurechtmachen*)(MK: se osvežuva, se mie, se frizira, se sreduva).
3. Healthy outlook, flourishing [good looking]: eine frische Gesichtsfarbe (MK: nova, sveža boja na liceto); sie ist wieder frisch und munter (umgangssprachlich; *wohlauf*) (MK: taa e zdrava i živa/prava).
4. Fresh color, bright: frische Farben (MK: sveži/novi boji).

**5.** Cold: ein frischer Wind (MK: studen veter); es weht ein frisches Lüftchen (MK: duva svežo vetrance); es ist ziemlich frisch heute (MK: prilično e ladno deneska).

Typical substantives that usually occur with this adjective are: *Wind, Tat, Geld, Obst, Kapital, Gemüse, Fisch*, then verbs, such as: *schmecken, riechen, wirken, duften, wehen, leuchten, sehen, fühlen*, and adjectives: *blühend, kühl, unverbraucht, knackig, geistig, getrocknet*.

In predicative use, the adjective in German is not inflected (e.g.: das Brot ist frisch/lebot e taze/e svež); Die Farbe ist frisch/Bojata e sveža. In German, predicative adjectives never take endings. Only the attributive adjectives take endings. In more technical terms, predicative adjectives are not declined, whereas attributive adjectives are declined (*klares Wasser, rote Tinte, grüner Tee*).

In Macedonian, the adjective is inflected depending on the gender of the noun: *bojata e sveža, lebot e svež, letoto e svežo*. Used attributively, i.e. preceding a noun, it is inflected e.g.: das frische Obst / svežoto ovošje; frisches Obst / svežo ovošje. The definite article in German is prepositive, unlike in Macedonian where the definiteness is expressed with an ending -ot, -ta, -to, -te (pl.) and the adjective is inflected (*svežata boja, svežiot leb, svežoto leto, svežite leta* (pl.).

Most adjectives may be used in the uninflected form as adverbs, e.g.: sie hat das Zimmer frisch gefärbt / taa ja bojadisa svežo sobata. In German we can say “frische Blumen”, MK: sveži cvekinja but not “taze cvekinja”. Frische Luft (“svez veter” with the meaning “cold wind” but not “taze veter”. *Frische Gesichtsfarbe* has the meaning of “sveza, nova boja na liceto” but not “taze boja na liceto”. Frische Truppen/Pferde has the meaning “svezi, odmoreni trupi/konji”, but not “taze trupi/konji” in Macedonian. Thus when choosing the right equivalent, we should pay attention to the collocations, part of speech and the context, too.

## **6. Conclusion**

The function of the adjectives in German and Macedonian language is very important in the process of describing nouns and giving meanings in sentences. The process of finding and choosing the correct and right equivalent of the German adjective in Macedonian language is sometimes difficult and misleading in many cases because of the probably problematic differences between some German adjectives and their possible counterparts in Macedonian.

When it comes to the point of understanding while teaching German as a foreign language to students who translate from Macedonian to German and vice versa, it is highly important to find the correct equivalents of Macedonian adjectives in German language. The students should also pay attention to the context, parts of speech and collocations.

## **7. Perspectives**

In the light of the results of the study, the researcher recommends conducting studies on using bilingual and monolingual dictionaries in the process of translation from Macedonian to German and visa versa. The effect of the cultural knowledge on choosing the right equivalents in translations should also be a topic for investigation. And, the differences between finding equivalents of adjectives in Macedonian and German and the other parts of speech such as nouns, verbs and adverbs seem to be useful for further analysis, too.

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# GENRE ANALYSIS IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

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**Abstract:** During their studies of general English at secondary school students obtain knowledge of the forms and meaning of words used in everyday situations, knowledge of grammatical components and frequently occurring language functions. Then they enroll in university to study a profession. English for Professional Communication is usually a part of their curriculum. Within it, they need to acquire communicative competence enabling them to enter a discourse community of experts. In addition to learning the terminology used in a profession they have to acquire sociolinguistic and discourse competencies as well including generic one. It is a challenge that English teachers face when they decide to enclose authentic genres into their teaching materials. This paper presents suggestions how written genres can be used in teaching English for nurses. Most of the discourse and genre analyses relate to face-to-face doctor-patient encounters and nurses' computer-mediated communications. To my knowledge, less attention has been given to written genres of the nursing discourse. Therefore the paper presents the most important concepts of genre, explains the roles of genre in organizational communication and gives a brief description of the discourse community of nurses and ways it uses task-oriented and patient-oriented genres as mechanisms of interaction. It also explains the purpose of individual genres. In the process of creating materials for learning professional English one of the most important tasks is the selection of suitable texts as they should meet learners' needs and represent texts used in practice. I consider a Nursing Care Plan for a key text. Therefore, I present a detailed analysis of its parts focused on their communicative functions, description of standardized lexis, grammar structures and broken grammar rules. I suggest a method how to teach the Nursing Care Plan genre in English lessons and present tasks leading to the acquisition of receptive and productive skills related to the use of this genre. I believe that the knowledge of genres can help students to make sense of the diverse types of communicative actions that are typical of the discourse community to which they will belong.

**Keywords:** Communicative competence; genres; genre analysis; discourse community of nurses; English for Professional Communication; English for nurses.

## Introduction

The word *genre* meaning *class* or *kind* is widely used not only in literary theory for conventional classification of various literary works but in the media and linguistics as well. The notion of genre is not merely interpreted as "a general complex name of text groups characterized by common literary features, such as composition,

topic or form, or by their combination" (Findra, 2004:26), but is connected with the texts produced in different communicative situations for various purposes, and directed to various audiences.

Within the applied linguistics in the English language contexts, a concept of genres as social action has along tradition. It was Carolyn R. Miller who examined "the connection between genre and recurrent situation and the way in which genre can be said to represent typified rhetorical action" (1984:151). In the course of years, three dominant approaches in applying genre theory have emerged. The non-linguistically oriented New Rhetoric Studies focusing on the social context of genres, ethnographic research and interpretation of the situational context in which the individual texts are used. Pedagogical focus is primarily oriented towards awareness of the situational characteristic and social functions of genres in different settings and not towards their linguistic structures. Unlike representatives of the New Rhetoric approach, analysts of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and the representatives of the Sydney School - Systemic Functional Linguistics are oriented linguistically, i.e. they focus their research towards linguistic realization of a genre and look at the situational context only to interpret language structures.

During the 90s of the last century, many other scholars showed interest in organizational communication and genres used for the purpose of communication in different institutions, (Yates and Orlikowski, 1992; Swales, 1990).

Some Slovak authors consider a genre for the model text (Findra, 2004; Mistrík, 1995) developed on the basis of the recurrent use of the same texts with the same contents and formal structure in similar communication situations. Others denote it as a norm, as a certain generalized sum of rules that should be followed while creating particular texts. They should be mastered by language users as a part of their communicative competence (Slančová, 1994).

## **1. Genres as organizational communication**

Yo Ann Yates and Wanda Orlikowski (1992) were the first authors who applied the term "genre" to the text used within institutional (organizational) communication, i.e. outside the academic setting and the literary theory with its traditional division of genres into epic, drama and lyric. They defined it as a typified communicative action characterized by a particular social purpose. They consider the genre to be a template according to which communication is performed as a standard rhetoric activity resulting from recurrent situations. Their suggestion that a genre is a typified communicative action is similar to the one of Carolyn R. Miller. Their main criterion for genre classification is the level of their abstraction, whereas Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993) emphasize communicative function of genres. Swales (1990) connects the use of genres with discourse communities (DC) and proposes six features that characterize a certain group as a DC. A DC has a repertoire of common public goals that can be written in documents or function as unwritten rules. It also has elaborated mechanisms of communication among its members. It uses both oral genres, such as meetings, seminars, conferences, and written ones, e.g. memos, letters and journal articles, etc. depending on the type of community. A DC does not use genres as a means of communication primarily to socialize, but to perform common goals - to provide information and feedback. Swales points out that a DC community "possesses one or more genres" (1990:26) and uses special

lexical units or technical terminology that often isolate a particular DC from other ones. Specialized lexis may not be fully comprehensible to non-community members as it is true for English words of Latin and Greek origin used in medicine, nursing and biology. According to Swales another typical feature of a DC is that it has a limited number of its members. Its novices should show a certain amount of expertise, including oral and written communicative skills so that they could be accepted by the particular DC as its respected members. To summarize Swales's suggestions, in an institutional setting, genres have their origin in the work, organizational and managerial activities closely interrelated to communicative activity of the particular DC.

## **2. Organisational communication of nurses**

Swales's characteristics can be applied to the DC of health care staff. Its public goals are explicit – they are written in the form of documents, such as *Standards of Nurses' Practice*, where the goals of nursing care including the principles of nurse-patient talk is enclosed. They were elaborated by the American Nursing Association and are used in the English speaking countries. The Slovak equivalent is so called *Standards of Nursing Care*.

Nursing DC uses all mentioned mechanisms of interaction by means of oral and written communication. In medicine and nursing, providing information and feedback is performed as in-group and out-group communications. In-group communication is carried out within the DC. It includes talks to colleagues, supervisors, other experts, or health care institutions, as well as various written texts addressed to them. Out-group communication is directed towards the lay public – patients and their relatives.

### **2.1. Written genres used in organizational communication of nurses**

As far as a health setting is concerned, the majority of discourse and genres analyses relate to face-to-face doctor-patient encounters and nurses' computer-mediated communications. To my knowledge, less attention has been given to the written genres of the nursing discourse, to their analysis and classification, in spite of the fact that writing is integral to nursing and represents a great deal of nursing tasks. The generally known mantra "If it is not documented, it never happened." confirms the importance of written genres. From the legal standpoint, documenting is crucial as it serves as evidence in the case of trials.

In the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century a dramatic turning point occurred in nursing that had a great influence on the variety of genres used by the nursing community. Nursing became autonomous in the field of theory and practice. Training performed exclusively in hospitals was transferred to the academic setting as nurses need to take bachelor degree courses to be qualified. At the same time nursing was established as an independent scientific discipline with its own research. From this it results that a genre repertoire used by the nursing community includes widely recognized *academic genres*, student-written as well as pedagogical ones, (conference posters, theses, dissertation abstracts, textbooks, etc.), *research genres* that are meant for expert audience and are written to promote one's research results (journal articles, reports, etc.) to disseminate information and discuss new contribution to the disciplinary knowledge (Stašková, 2005), as well as *specific genres* of organizational communication used in the clinical setting.

Genres used in the clinical setting differ in terms of the theme as well as in terms of their purpose. Some genres are used to document patient's health status, progress, actual caring process or an unexpected occurrence involving physical or psychical injury or even death in a health care facility (e.g. Admission Chart, Incident Report, FlowSheet, Fluid Intake and Output Sheet). Nurses also record matters that are important from the patients' point of view, their hopes, needs and wishes regarding the care given (e.g. Nurse's Notes). Some genres occur in the form of lists (Clothing List, Nursing Diagnoses, Nursing Procedures) or rules of professional conduct (Code of Nurses, Ethic Code, Code of Midwives, Patient Rights) or are used to organize nursing work (Assignment Sheet, Safety Guidelines). All these genres are *task-oriented*. They serve as itineraries to organize care givers' work practices, as an institutionalized template for social interaction that influences the ongoing communicative action of members through their use of it within and across their community (Orlikowski& Yates, 1998).

Nursing staff also use *patient-oriented* genres which are produced to inform patients and their relatives (frequently asked questions, leaflets, brochures, posters).

Some genres have multiple purposes. For example, the Nursing Care Plan is used to document subjective and objective data about the patient in the part called Assessment and progress of health status in the one called Evaluation. But it also informs in the part referred to as Diagnosing and is used for directing orders to the writer herself and other members of the discourse community in the part called Planning.

Another characteristic feature of written nursing genus is that they are not used separately. Nurses, as well as doctors, record the same data in different documents, combine and recombine them. Observable aspects of genres relate to the medium, structural features and linguistic features. Genres can be handwritten (Nurse's Notes), typewritten, or computer generated.

### **3. Genres in teaching and learning English for Professional Communication**

Each discipline, including medicine and nursing, has its own conventions of language use and style. In the process of creating teaching materials, one of the most important tasks is the selection of suitable texts. They should meet learners' needs and represent texts used in practice. Genres are a good resource, as they contain content-based vocabulary as well as grammatical structures typical for individual genres. Using genres allows the teacher to a) collect real samples of appropriate texts, b) design activities to foster understanding of genres, (c) focus attention on key vocabulary and grammatical structures associated with the genre, and d) demonstrate to the student how these interact with the who, what, where, when, how, and why of the text in terms of situation and context allowing the relationship between the culture and language to be directly addressed (Bradford-Watts, 2003).

### **4. Analysis of the selected written genre in the perspective of teaching and learning English for Nurses**

I consider a *Nursing Care Plan* (hereinafter as the *Plan*) as a key written genre. It is a text worked out by a particular nurse being in charge of a particular patient. The *Plan* is the source of information about the patient, nurses' tasks related to his

treatment and evaluation of his progress. I use the *Plans* included in the nursing books (Kosier, 1995; Lewis and Timby, 1992).

Composition of the text includes standardized parts consisting of headlines which introduce the themes and sub-texts. They are as follows: *Diagnosis, Goals, Orders, Implementation* and *Evaluation*. Their sequence logically follows individual nurses' tasks.

Individual genres can be characterized by means of one of four discourse rhetorical modes. The *Plan* is a hybrid genre containing more than one mode.

*Plans* serve primarily interpersonal communication. Therefore the communicative register of the nursing DC is used in full extent: standardized "technical" lexis, typical phrases and grammatical structures.

#### **4.1. Analysis of the Assessment**

The sub-text *Subjective Data* deals with the patient's healthstatus. It is written mostly in the form of a first person narrative – account of connected events preceding the patient's admission to hospital. Lexis is colloquial English. It includes expressive and evaluative words and comparisons (States: "I feel like a semi-truck is parked on my chest." "I hate myself for agreeing to this operation."). Ellipsis – leaving out the subject of the sentence is common.

The sub-text *Objective Data* is written in the expositive mode. Its lexis can be characterized as "technical" English - standardized nursing language (e.g. "shortness of breath", "ineffective breastfeeding"), medical terms including Latin terms (e.g. "cerebral vascular accident", "femur"), accepted abbreviations (e.g. "CBC instead of "Complete blood count", "T" - "temperature"). Medical terms are preferred to colloquial ones (e.g. "perspires" instead of "sweats", "respiration" instead of "breathing"). Numbers showing different values are frequent, too. The communicative purpose of both parts is to supply other members of the nursing team caring for the patient with all information related to his condition on admission. *Subjective* and *Objective Data* are written on the basis of other genres, namely, the oral hybrid genre of the *Patient's Admission to Hospital* containing the sub-genre *Taking Patient's Health History* and the data taken from the written genre of the *Physical Assessment*.

#### **4.2. Analysis of the Diagnosis**

*Diagnosis* is an embedded genre as the list of diagnoses can be considered a separate text model. In the English speaking countries the North American Nursing Association's List of Accepted Nursing Diagnoses is used. The lexis of this genre consists of nouns denoting general diagnoses and a limited repertoire of obligatorily used evaluative words – adjectives and past participles, such as "impaired, altered, ineffective, chronic", etc. (e.g. "Skin Integrity, Impaired"). A complete nursing diagnosis is written as a combination of the components of the so called "PES" formula (problem – etiology – signs and symptoms). The first two parts of the formula have to be connected by the expressions: "related to", "based on" or "secondary to". The third part is attached by "as manifested by" or "as evidenced by" which are considered to be synonyms (e.g. "Fluid Volume Deficit related to inadequate oral intake" or Impaired Skin Integrity on the buttocks as manifested by/as evidenced by 1 cm x 2 cm red area."). The purpose of this sub-genre is a clinical judgement about the patient and eventually his family, and his possible health problems.

#### **4.3. Analysis of the Goal and Orders**

In these sub-texts, narrative rhetoric mode is used. Again, standard rules related to vocabulary and grammar structures have to be followed. When writing the *Goal*, the word “patient”, “client” or “resident” can be left out. The predicate should be in the simple future tense (“Will report feeling rested.”) or expressed by means of –ing verb form (“Inhaling normal volume on air on spirometer.”) Patient’s future progress has to be expressed by means of action verbs, such as “eat”, “drink”, “turn”, “sit”, “walk”, “demonstrate”, “tell”, etc. Verbs, such as “know”, “believe”, or “think” are not acceptable. The verb has to be followed by an object and/or adverbial modifier denoting what, where and when the patient will do including communicative activity – “express”, or “tell”. The adverbial modifier of time is a must (e.g. “in a week”, “within 3 days”). Expressions, such as “often”, “frequently”, “a lot of”, “enough”, etc.. are not acceptable as they are considered to be vague and too general. An example of the correct *Goal* is: “Body temperature will return to 98,6 ±1 °F in 24 hours”.

Verbs used in the *Orders* are in the imperative form as they express activities nurses have to perform (e.g. “Assess the gums.” “Instruct to avoid drinking liquids with meals when nausea occurs.”). The use of the modal verbs “may”, “must”, “should”, “can” or “could” is not appropriate. The sentence subject (“I”, “Nurse”) is omitted. The imperative verb is again followed by an object or/and adverbial modifiers (e.g. “Instruct to avoid drinking liquids with meals when nausea occurs.”). The last part of the subtext *Orders* contains the nurse’s name and the date when the *Plan* was written. The purpose of these two sub-texts is to formulate what the author of the genre wants to achieve in cooperation with other nurses, and to set clear instructions to themselves including communicative activities.

#### **4.4. Analysis of the Implementation and Evaluation**

The purpose of these parts is to describe the sequence of the tasks that nurses in charge of the patient have already performed and to record of data about the patient’s health condition during his stay in hospital in the form of exposition. All words that do not have any information value are omitted, i.e. the words “patient”, “client” or “resident”, indefinite and definite articles, and auxiliary verbs (“Tylenol given at 0300.” “Uses his crutches well.” “Goal met.”).

### **5. Didactic use of the genre in English lessons**

As I consider the genre of the *Nursing Care Plan* the most important of all written genres used by the nursing DC, I have included it in my teaching material (Valdmanova, 2008). My suggestions regarding this genre are as follows:

- Correct timing is necessary. Student nurses should have basic knowledge of what to ask and how to ask their patients to get necessary information and how to document it in their mother language. This should be a prerequisite enabling a teacher to omit discourse analysis, which is crucial in teaching oral genres. The teacher can focus on the function of language in the concrete written genre. I have included the *Plan* genre into units of my textbook studied in the last semester of English in Nursing course. My students have already managed subjects of Nursing, Clinical Training, Nursing Process and Communication.

- The genre can be used to practise receptive skills whereby a heuristic method of experience-based techniques for problem solving and learning has proved to be most relevant. Divide the activity into three parts. The first one focuses on the practice of the receptive skills – identification of the characteristic features of the nursing DC register and learning new vocabulary. The tasks include, e.g. “In the following text, look for and underline all abbreviations (medical terms, etc.). Identify their meaning (translate them into Slovak).” “Look for the expressions connecting individual parts of the PES format in the *Diagnosis* and translate them.” “Underline all verbs in the *Goals* and *Orders* and identify the tenses and voice.” A lot of similar tasks are possible.

An English teacher can make a profit of the positive transfer of knowledge from mother language and clinical practice into learning English for professional communication.

Focus on the language stereotypes –lexis and grammar structures used, but also the ones that are not accepted is of great importance. The explanation of the grammar rules that are broken in this written genre as the grammatical correctness is also required when students write other genres, such as bachelor theses and seminar papers, etc.

- The second phase consists of problem solving tasks leading to obtaining productive skills. The goal of the tasks is to teach students how to write individual parts of the *Plan*. I provide them with the text containing sample health problems, aetiologies, signs and symptoms. They are supposed to create a complete *Diagnosis* and *Orders*. Also a grammatically correct text related to the evaluation of the patient’s health status is at their disposal, and they have to re-write it in the way nurses do, i.e. they have to produce a “grammatically incorrect” text.
- If the students manage the partially genre-oriented tasks, they can be given a complete problem solving task – to write a *Nursing Care Plan* on the basis of the *Subjective and Objective Data*.

My experience shows that while designing the *Plan* students are able to apply positive transfer of knowledge from the theoretical nursing subjects and clinical practice in hospitals.

## **6. Conclusion**

If language users want to communicate in a second language effectively, they need to know to communicate appropriately within a DC, in addition to the knowledge of the forms of language (sounds, words, and sentence structure). They have to use linguistic units in different speech events appropriately. Students studying English for professional purposes in a non-English setting depend on textbooks, and hence on written genres to a large degree. They are primary and often the only source of pragmatic information. It means that genres demonstrate how members of the particular DC use the language to achieve their goals in different communicative situations, what culturally and socially suitable language forms they use and how they manage language breakdowns, etc. If second language learners understand how the language works in particular genres, they will be able to produce the genres.

As English teachers are rarely experts in the nursing profession, one of the most important challenges to them is to choose suitable genres from the genre repertoire, analyze them, prepare tasks and include them in their teaching materials.

I believe that knowledge of genres can help students to make sense of diverse types of communication actions that are typical of the discourse community to which they will belong.

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## THE U.S. FOREIGN LANGUAGE DEFICIT AND LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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**Abstract:** Within the framework of the U.S. foreign language deficit, the author addresses the case for Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP), and more specifically, Business Language Studies (BLS), through an examination of the relevant literature and building on her own recent doctoral research study on foreign language as a global competency within the U.S. undergraduate Global/International Studies major. Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) is one way to effectively address the U.S. foreign language deficit, highlighting the opportunities that exist for young people with foreign language skills. The role of foreign language (and of the foreign language educator) in developing intercultural competence has been addressed primarily through the European literature. Implementation of the recommendations of 2007 Modern Language Association (MLA) report, Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World, would increase the appeal of foreign language learning to the broader constituency of learners driven by career and professional goals. It is important for foreign language educators in the US to reach out and support the needs of all prospective foreign learners, and especially of those driven by career and professional goals, through a broad range of LSP and BLS programs. It is interesting to note that the collapse in U.S. foreign language enrollment, which occurred in the 1970s and 1980s and has never re-bounded in proportion to the impact of globalization, may be about to be reversed, based on the recent article by William P. Rivers et al. on the level of 'grass roots' support for foreign language in the U.S. Lastly, the importance specifically of Europe and of European languages is stressed, as the EU is the world's largest economy, and Europe is the largest trading partner of the U.S. In addition, Europe plays a major role on the world stage, and European culture and lifestyle have global appeal.

**Keywords:** foreign language deficit; business language studies; languages for specific purposes; cultural intelligence; intercultural competence

### 1. The US Foreign Language Deficit and Languages for Specific Purposes

Americans are among the least likely in the world to possess foreign language skills, or skills in a language other than English. This is not something that has occurred just recently, but the lack of foreign language skills among Americans is increasingly apparent in the globalized world.

Americans compete for jobs at home and abroad and often do not possess foreign language skills comparable to international peers. In terms of seeking employment abroad, foreign languages are desirable, even if the company/organization

conducts business in English, because much of the informal workplace "water cooler" conversations will generally be conducted in the local language, as will conversation at social outings or events.

An August 2013 Washington Post article on the Edward Snowden "black budget" leaks included a discussion of the foreign language proficiency at US security and intelligence agencies, reporting that only 903 are fluent in Chinese, and that only approximately 1,900 are fluent in all Middle Eastern languages combined.

The U.S. foreign language deficit has been a source of concern to government, industry, and to educators, as well as to the general public, and the current public conversation on the lack of foreign language skills has also included:

"America's Foreign Language Deficit," a 2012 Forbes blog post authored by the President of Cornell University

"Foreign Languages and US Economic Competitiveness," a 2012 blog post from the Council on Foreign Relations (CFR)

A 'Languages for Jobs' Initiative Policy Innovation Memorandum No. 24.," a 2012 blog post authored by the President of the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) from the CFR

All of these highlight the urgent need to develop foreign language skills in the US. Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP), an approach which expands the foreign language instruction paradigm, is part of a solution to the U.S. foreign language deficit, responding to the recommendation of "multiple pathways" to the major included in the 2007 Modern Language Association (MLA) report, Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World. Such an approach broadens the appeal of foreign languages to a wider cross-section of learners and benefits both the learner, as well as U.S economic and national security.

## **2. The Extent and Impact of the US Foreign Language Deficit**

Most Americans do not speak another language, and the percentage of college students who are enrolled in a course in a language other than English has decreased from 16% in 1960 to 8% at the present time, this at a time when globalization has made knowledge of other languages and cultures exponentially more important to our economic and national security, as well as to our own ability as individuals to effectively navigate our multicultural communities and to enjoy to the fullest the experience of and interaction with other cultures.

A 2001 Gallup Poll found that approximately 25% of Americans are capable of holding a conversation in a language other than English. However, after subtracting recent immigrants, their children, and other heritage language speakers, that number falls to around 10%. This is in contrast to Europe, where approximately 56% of the respondents to a Eurobarometer survey reported being able to converse in another language, and 28% reported being able to converse in two additional languages. Half of those Europeans who were proficient in one foreign language are actually proficient in two or more.

According to the Modern Language Association (MLA), 8% of American college and university students are enrolled in a course in a language other than English, and that figure is estimated at 1,682,627 in 2009, the most recent year for which figures are available. The most popular languages at the college and university level are Spanish, French, and German, all European languages.

According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), only 18.5% of K - 12 students are studying a foreign language, or 8.9 million students, were enrolled in foreign language courses in 2007-2008, the most recent year for which figures are available. The most popular languages at the K - 12 level are Spanish, French, and German, all European languages.

This is, again, in contrast to Europe where, according to Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe 2012, the overwhelming majority of students study foreign languages. In addition, students in the EU typically begin the study of foreign languages earlier, and with more class time devoted to foreign language than do students in the U.S.

In contrast to the United States, the European perspective offers an example of language policy and language planning. European Union policies of multilingualism and plurilingualism emphasize the importance of knowledge of both globally and locally important languages. The language policy, known as "MT + 2" (mother tongue + two additional languages) implies the importance of acquiring some knowledge of a locally important language and of a global language.

In Europe, English is generally the most popular foreign language, with correspondingly high achievement rates. In fact, to the recently-released EF English Proficiency Index -- Third Edition, the top 10 countries in terms of English-language proficiency are all EU member nations.

Since 2008, the U.S. fell to 7th place in 2012-2013 before re-bounding to 5th place in the World Economic Forum's current Global Competitiveness Index (GCI), following Switzerland, Singapore, Finland, and Germany, all with far stronger foreign language skills than the U.S. While the GCI takes into account a multitude of factors, it is interesting to note the difference in foreign language skills among the most globally competitive nations.

In addition, many American multinational corporations (MNCs) earn an increasing proportion of their revenues outside the U.S. The impact of a lack of foreign language proficiency on individual career prospects in the U.S. workplace and global marketplace, as well as on our economic and national security has been demonstrated in numerous studies, among the most significant being the 2009 report from the Language Flagship, What Business Wants: Language Needs in the 21st Century, the 2007 National Research Council (NRC) report, International Education and Foreign Languages: Keys to Our National Security, and the 2006 Committee for Economic Development (CED) report, Education for Global Leadership: The Importance of International Studies and Foreign Language Education for U.S. Economic and National Security.

Although it may be tempting to think that the current public conversation about the lack of foreign language skills in the US is a result of 9/11, this is only partly true. The lack of foreign language skills in the US was already being written about in the 1940s, and in 1976, the Joint National Committee on Languages (JNCL) was founded as a group for foreign language associations.

However, it is the 1979 Strength Through Wisdom: A Critique of U.S. Capability: A Report to the President from the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies that launched the current conversation. The National Council for Languages and International Studies (NCLIS) was founded concurrently, and JNCL and NCLIS are now affiliated. The report was followed in 1980 by the seminal book, The Tongue-Tied American: Confronting the Foreign Language Crisis, by Senator Paul Simon.

The National Security Education Program (NSEP), administered by the Secretary of Defense, which includes support for foreign language education, was established in 1991 by Congressional legislation.

It is important to remember that the precipitous decline in foreign language study in the US did not occur recently. According to the MLA Language Enrollment Survey, at the college and university level, enrollment dropped from 16% of students enrolled in a course in a language other than English in 1960 to 8% at present, but this 50% decrease occurred primarily during the 1970s and 1980s, and enrollment has been relatively stable and have even slightly increased since that time. The real issue is that the world has changed, primarily due to globalization, and that foreign language enrollments in the U.S. have not re-bounded proportionately, in response to globalization.

However, the events of 9/11 did bring the U.S. foreign language deficit to the forefront of the national conversation, a series of government initiatives, including Senate Hearings, GAO reports, the Defense Language Transformation Roadmap, and the "critical languages" initiatives publicly demonstrated the importance of foreign language skills and the existence of a U.S. foreign language deficit.

Political figures from both major national political parties have introduced legislation, or otherwise supported foreign languages and international education, including President Bill Clinton and President George W. Bush, and Senators Paul Simon, Daniel Boren, Norm Coleman, and Daniel Akaka. Most recently, in 2013, Senator Ralph Lautenberg and Representative Rush Holt, both of New Jersey, introduced legislation into the Senate and into the House respectively in support of foreign language education.

In April 2013, Clay Pell, grandson of Senator Claiborne Pell, was appointed Deputy Assistant Secretary for International and Foreign Language Education, a position the foreign language educators had long advocated to fill, only to leave in November 2013 to subsequently become a candidate for Governor of Rhode Island.

### **3. Foreign Languages and Higher Education**

The 2007 Modern Language Association (MLA) report, Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World, is an inspiration for paradigm shift in foreign language education at the postsecondary level.

While not entirely without controversy, it advocated for the goal of "translingual and transcultural competence, for "multiple pathways to the major," for "transforming the two-tiered system," and for "strengthening the demand for language competence within the university." It went on to set forth "continuing priorities," first of which was collaboration with the K-12 system, and offered research and support "going forward."

The broader setting for this report includes sobering statistics on the educational trajectory of foreign language majors. According to the 2007 MLA report, Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World, only 6.1% of foreign language majors go on to earn a doctorate. According to "Numbers of U.S. Doctorates Awarded Rise for Sixth Year, but Growth Slower," NSF 10-308, November 2009, of the 48,802 research doctorates awarded in the U.S. in 2008, only 627 were in the area of foreign language and literature, and between 1998 and 2008, the figure had fluctuated between 643 and 627.

Educational institutions have many options in the potential implementation of the recommendations of the report, including adoption/expansion of foreign language requirements and enforcement of existing ones, and informal, co-curricular, and experiential foreign language experiences, possibly involving international students already on campus, or local communities of native speakers.

In its discussion of "multiple pathways to the major," the MLA report explicitly mentions translation and interpreting, and the concept of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) is implicit among these.

The usefulness of learning any particular language depends on the individual and on the reason for learning the language. A foreign language major, an international/global studies or area studies major, a pre-med or nursing major, or a business major may select one or more languages based on perceived usefulness in one chosen profession.

Colleges and universities can also encourage interdisciplinary partnerships among faculty to develop courses in languages for specific purposes (LSP). Although the list of possibilities is endless, it is easy to imagine French for culinary arts or dance students, Italian for music and art majors, Spanish for healthcare professionals, etc., but the idea is to bring the student's area of academic and professional interest together with one or more appropriate languages. A major area within LSP is Business Language Studies (BLS).

#### **4. Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) and Business Language Studies (BLS)**

The traditional foreign language curriculum emphasized written language and grammar and reading of the literary and other great texts in the target language. Courses designed to support specific interests have long existed, albeit on the periphery of the traditional language program.

However, if U.S. students are to be prepared for "the jobs of the future," and if we are to effectively address the U.S. foreign language deficit, it is necessary that a paradigm shift within foreign language education expand the goals of instruction to include foreign language courses and programs to support a wide range of professional, career, and cultural interests. In many parts of the United States, knowledge of Spanish and other locally important languages is useful in effectively navigating our multicultural and multilingual communities.

Opportunities for students with foreign language skills abound. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics Occupational Outlook Handbook, demand for translators and interpreters will increase by 42% between 2010 and 2020, faster than the average for all occupations. The median salary is \$43,300 (May 2010), with 58,400 employed (2010), and 83,100 projected in 2020. According to Common Sense Advisory's "The Top 100 Language Service Providers," part of its The Language Services Market: 2012, the language services sector stands at US\$33.5 billion for 2012.

The author's 2010-2011 research study, reported in her 2011 doctoral dissertation, Foreign Language as a Competency in Education for Global Citizenship: From Mindset to Sustainable Skill Set, concerned the role and status of foreign language within the undergraduate major in Global/International Studies.

Foreign language educators have actively advocated for the development of the LSP approach. In April 2012, the first International Symposium on Languages for

Specific Purposes was held at the University of Alabama at Birmingham, and the second is scheduled for April 2014 at the University of Colorado, Boulder.

In 2012, Risner's video, "Are We Prepared for Jobs of the Future?????" highlights the need for language skills among U.S. students, and

In April 2013, Crouse's article on "Languages for Specific Purposes in the 21st Century" examines interesting and creative K-12 initiatives. The ACTFL website, "2013 Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers," delineates principles which include, importantly for LSP, including language and cultural proficiency, as well as disciplinary knowledge. According to the ACTFL's Languages as a Core Component of Education for All Students, foreign language skill is described as a "resume differentiator"

In addition, the Network of Business Language Educators (NOBLE) was established in 2009 with the goal of bringing together K-16 foreign language educators to collaborate in the development of foreign language skills for the 21st century workplace.

Beyond the foreign language education community, other reports have documented the need for foreign language skills in the workplace

In 2011, in The Languages of Business, the Bloomberg organization determined that English, Mandarin Chinese, French, Arabic, Spanish, Russian, Portuguese, Japanese, German, Italian, Korean, and Turkish were the most useful languages in global business. The November 2013 report, Languages for the Future, commissioned by the British Council, identifies Spanish, Arabic, French, Mandarin Chinese, German, Portuguese, Italian, Russian, Turkish and Japanese as the languages most important for the UK over the next 20 years.

The U.S. government has addressed the need for language skills among Americans for national and economic security through the federally-funded Language Flagship and the Centers for International Business Education and Research (CIBERs) respectively. Both programs are vulnerable to Federal budget cuts.

The Language Flagship, part of the National Security Education Program (NSEP), and a partnership between the Federal government and higher education institutions, are programs intended to provide instruction in languages perceived as critical to national security. According to the 2011 annual report, there were 36 Flagship programs in Arabic, Chinese, Hindi/Urdu, Korean, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, Swahili, and Turkish. The Language Flagship also produced the 2009 report, What Business Wants: Language Needs in the 21st Century.

The Centers for International Business Education and Research (CIBERs), funded by the Department of Education, have been providing resources, support and programs since 1988. The goal of the CIBER program is to increase intercultural understanding and the global competitiveness of the US. It now includes 33 centers, the most recent group selected competitively in 2009. According to the report, New Initiatives and Themes 2010-2014, new degree programs and initiatives, re-thinking American business education, are the current priority. According to Increasing US Global Competitiveness through International Business Education: 20 Years of CIBER 1989 – 2009, annual funding from the Federal government equals \$12,757,000 (96). The Department of Education's FY 2010 Project Abstracts: Centers for International Business Education Program further breaks out the cost to average cost \$386,576 (2). Although over 30 CIBERs exist

at the present time, a proposed 40% budget cut has jeopardized many of these programs.

Languages across the Curriculum (LAC) is a movement which encourages students to develop their language skills in interdisciplinary courses and in experiences beyond the classroom. The Cultures and Languages across the Curriculum Consortium (CLAC), in existence since 2005, has expanded LAC to explicitly include cultural knowledge and intercultural competence, emphasizing K-16 collaborations, service learning, and study abroad. Both the CLAC website and a 2010 article, "Languages Plus," by Redden, highlight the multiple models which characterize CLAC and recall the "multiple pathways" recommended in the 2007 MLA report, Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World.

## **5. The History of Languages for Specific Purposes**

In 1989, an article by George White, "U.S Executives Too Provincial, Study Finds," reporting on a survey conducted by Korn/Ferry International and the Columbia University Business School, which appeared in the Los Angeles Times, reported results critical of the foreign language skills of U.S. executives at that time.

In 1991, Christine Uber Grosse and Geoffrey M. Voght authored the seminal article, "The Evolution of Languages for Specific Purposes in the United States." In 1992, "Foreign Languages and International Business," by Voght and Ray Schaub, followed, published by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL). Grosse subsequently authored "Corporate Recruiter Demand for Foreign Languages and Cultural Knowledge," in 1998, and "The Competitive Advantage of Foreign Languages and Cultural Knowledge," in 2004. Grosse also published a 1982 article , "A Survey of Spanish for Business at AACSB Colleges and Universities in the United States," examining business Spanish in the curriculum.

A1998 article by Arn and Rogers, "Language Requirements for Baccalaureate Degrees in AACSB-Accredited Schools: Deans' Opinions," found widespread (71%) support for foreign languages among the Deans, with a lesser degree of implementation of foreign language course requirements (54%).

A 2006 article by Moore, "Foreign Language Requirements For Business Students: An Update," demonstrates that although business students believe that FL is important, B-schools have not increased offerings or requirements. In her 2011 article , "A B-School Lingua Franca,?" Iannarelli points out that English is no longer the only language important in international business education and that the future is likely to require proficiency in several languages. A 2012 article, by Lee, "Bilingual jobs: Foreign-language careers on rise," emphasizes the extent of the need for employees with foreign languages skills, as well as the specific areas where the need is strongest.

Also in 2012, the Modern Language Journal (MLJ), the flagship journal of the Modern Language Association (MLA), published a focus issue on languages for special purposes, which featured a reprint of the article by Grosse and Voght, among others. It also featured an article by Michael Scott Doyle, "Business Language Studies in the United States: On Nomenclature, Context, Theory, and Method."

## **6. Discussion**

The literature has demonstrated that foreign language skills are needed if U.S. companies are to remain globally competitive through reports such as the 2009 Language Flagship report, What Business Wants: Language Needs in the 21st Century, and the earlier reports mentioned above. In addition, the US government and military have demonstrated that there is a clear need for an increase in foreign language skills if the nation is to remain secure.

Foreign language skills are needed in the hotel and tourism industry, in multinational corporations doing business in the US and abroad, and in public and health services serving multicultural and multilingual communities here at home.

Hospitals and other medical facilities routinely employ staff fluent in a variety of languages and often subscribe to online or telephone translation services for well over 100 languages. Hotel and tourism workers all over the world study and learn a variety needed languages in order to better accommodate tourists and other visitors and to earn additional compensation. Schools all over the world serve students of diverse backgrounds, and effective educators at all levels recognize the importance of linguistic and cultural skills by the practitioner in the classroom. Each specific region and industry has its own subject areas and vocabulary needed, but the principles of communicative and cultural competence needed are the same.

Issues for the learner involve the selection of a foreign language, the time to begin foreign language learning, and the approach to foreign language instruction. The target language may be related to career and professional needs or location where the student envisions his/her career. Language may also be chosen because it is a heritage language or because it is easier to learn and closer to the student's native language. A language may be chosen because of a specific interest or because it is a locally or globally important language. An early start, and continuous progressive foreign language learning, and an immersion or immersion-like setting are best.

Issues for the educational institution include organization of foreign language instruction and related activities on campus or through study abroad. An interdisciplinary approach to instruction, with designated courses across the disciplines team-taught by a professor from the discipline and a foreign language professor, would be a workable approach, and it is easy to imagine French or Italian, in a art class, any number of languages in a political science or history class on a specific country or region, etc.

These courses could be designated with a special course code such as LI, language-intensive, as many courses already are with designations like WI (writing-intensive) etc., across the curriculum, with an agreed-upon number required in the student's major. An interesting article, written in 1998 by Mark Clayton, "Learning French While Dancing? Students Make the Leap With Panache," describes the use of French in a dance class at Bennington College.

Another approach is to embrace a double-major, with students majoring in a relevant foreign language along with their chosen major. According to a 2009 article by Lule, "Creating the Global Studies Curriculum – A Space for the Local?," this was explored, but not implemented, at Lehigh University, due in part to the challenge of the credit load of a double major on the undergraduate curriculum as a whole.

Challenges include difficulty in locating foreign language faculty with both the linguistic and professional knowledge to provide effective instruction in business and other specialized language courses. If educational institutions do not provide these courses, prospective students may well seek instruction elsewhere, in the for-profit sector, where instruction tends to be driven by a purely instrumental communicative approach rather than by an interest in the target culture.

Another challenge is reluctance of U.S. students to learn another language. The author's doctoral research was on the role and importance of foreign language skills in International/Global Studies undergraduate programs in the US, with case study findings that, although the idea of foreign language skills had strong support, curriculum requirements rarely exceeded the intermediate level, with the process, or "struggle," to learn another language the primary goal for English-speaking American students in the major.

## **7. Future Directions**

The JNCL-NCLIS and its member organizations continue to advocate for foreign languages and for foreign language education in the U.S.

In a 2012 presentation, *The Language Enterprise in the US: The Public and Private Sectors*, William P. Rivers, Executive Director of JNCL-NCLIS, addressed the scope of the language enterprise, which includes educators and language services providers, and public and private sectors, all in support of the needs of the globalized world for language skills. In "How Big is the Language Enterprise in the US?," he placed the value of the private sector at \$15 billion per year, and estimates the public sector, including Federal, State, and Local government at \$10 billion per year. In his conclusion, "Looking Ahead," he includes the predicted growth of the private sector, the need for effective advocacy at the local level, the predicted stability in many U.S. government programs, the increased collaboration among sectors, and increased JNCL-NCLIS engagement with the private sector. In a Fall 2013 article, "Language Votes: Attitudes Toward Foreign Language Policies," Rivers and his co-authors demonstrate that 'grass-roots' support for foreign language education far exceeds the level of government support it has been accorded.

Recent foreign language initiatives in the U.S. include the Fall 2013 conference on Languages for All?: The Anglophone Challenge, was held at the University of Maryland Center for Advanced Study of Languages (CASL). The tag line for the conference was "It's time to shift the discussion from 'Why should we learn a second language?' to 'Why aren't we learning languages?'" and focused on the global anglophone reluctance to learn foreign languages.

## **8. Concluding Thoughts**

Many believe that English is the global lingua franca, and the United States does not have an official language, or a language policy. For these reasons, foreign languages and the importance of foreign language skills may not be at the forefront in the awareness of many Americans. In order to increase interest in foreign language skills among Americans, a social marketing campaign for foreign languages is needed. Such a campaign would include outreach to bilingual and

multilingual celebrities in sports, entertainment, and the private and public sectors, in the hope that they would serve as language "role models."

When globalization and "critical languages" have been taken into account, Europe still matters, greatly, and so do European languages. As McCormick has written, in Why Europe Matters, in addition to being the largest economy in the world, Europe and its languages and cultures represent the next step in the evolving process of our interconnected world.

Foreign language study may always reflect changing economic and geopolitical realities, but at this time, Europe remains the most important trading partner of the US. According to Facts & Figures: Why the Transatlantic Relationship Matters, from the U.S. Chamber of Commerce, "together the United States and the European Union account for nearly half of the global economic output, with each producing more than \$16 trillion in GDP. Total U.S.-E.U. commerce -- including trade in goods and services and sales by foreign affiliates -- tops \$6.5 trillion annually and employs 15 million Americans and Europeans."

Stephen Brockmann says it best, in the conclusion of his 2008 article, "A Defense of European Languages." "Above all it is important for us to understand that a really massive increase in focus on foreign languages and cultures -- and there can be little doubt that we need such an increase -- will necessitate not shifting resources from "old" languages to "new" ones but rather enhancing foreign language study overall. The United States has seen enough either-or, zero-sum thinking about foreign languages; it is time to change our approach."

## About the Author

My area of research is the US foreign language deficit, and my publications include The U.S. Foreign Language Deficit and Our Economic and National Security (Mellen Press, 2013), The U.S. Foreign Language Deficit and How It Can Be Effectively Addressed in a Globalized World (Mellen Press, Dec. 2013), "The U.S Foreign Language Deficit -- Why It Matters and What We Can Do about It." (Language Magazine, June 2013, [http://languagemagazine.com/?page\\_id=6466](http://languagemagazine.com/?page_id=6466) and a TEDx Talk, "The U.S. Foreign Language Deficit: What It Is; Why It Matters; and What Can Be Done about It." (Sept. 2013) <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8CZ7zu5Aeu0>

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## **COMMUNICATING THE STEREOTYPE OF “OTHERNESS” IN EUROPEAN ADVERTISING: CULTURAL AND NATIONAL “FAKE MULTICULTURALISM”**

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**Abstract:** *In its quest for the destination of an ‘all-encompassing’ communication, European advertising builds an image of complexity and oppositions. Constructed as a mingling of cultural values, intensive consumerism and creative touches, the story of advertising is a never-ending analysis of nowadays globalized societies. Moreover, its ramifying story of acceptance, assimilation, rejection and stereotyping brought advertising at a position in which the debate over intercultural representation and consumer behavior is crucial. Consequently, the main question that arises is: in the realm of the thirsty and goods-addict consumers, what type of discourse should advertising in Europe use, so as to emphasize pluralism and still maintain culturally personalized approaches. It is, therefore, the purpose of this paper to explore and analyze the congruencies and disparities between advertising and its social, cultural and economic repositories, on the background of Europe’s image. In this respect, some questions can be formulated: How does advertising pertain to organizing its communication with the overly globalized consumer markets? Is the stereotypical label hereby inserted in such a communicational direction with consumers, and if so, what are the features of an “addressing otherness” discourse with respect to ad typology? Another aim of the current paper is to evoke the level at which European advertising fails to stick to the intercultural framework of reference, through a presentation of the stereotypes of “otherness” and the implied “fake multiculturalism.” The idea behind this assumption is that, while representing ethnic groups differently or by use of a derogatory mechanism, the message cannot be that of Europeaness. Moreover, the focus on linguistic choice of advertising vocabulary is linked to the issue of “linguistic fetishism” and, more importantly, it shows that the variety of linguistic panel in Europe sometimes prevents consumers from decoding the message of advertising. The sphere of this domain allowed for a new analytical introspection in the appearance of this marketing mix, which led to further wanderings in the realm of an advertising that is both plural and rigid. Such an economic force, combined with intercultural representation, serves as an effective means of changing the fairytale of consumerism abuse into a fairly-oriented European happy-end story of multicultural consumers in the land of promising advertising.*

**Keywords:** communication in advertising; identity; linguistic fetishism; discourse; otherness.

## **1. European advertising in the context of identity**

The label of Europeanism that advertising gains is a landmark of pluralism and multiculturalism that ads carry throughout their messages. In fact, the pattern of identifying Europe with various identities and cultures has even become a creed of the European Union, whose motto is “United in diversity.” At the level of advertising, matters gain a new dimension, as markets that are fragmented in terms of linguistic, gender, ethnic or racial criteria require, from advertisers, call for a strenuous and multifaceted message. That is, advertising is faced with addressees that may easily not share common cultures, ideas and product preferences, but that, however, require equal attention. In a world where political correctness remains a major concern, the scope of advertising is to avoid discriminatory cues and, more importantly, to value multiculturalism above all, so that all national identities participate in this communication process.

## **2. Advertising and Cultural Identity Formation: Communication of Values in European Advertising Vocabulary**

Designed as a means of trespassing stereotypical beliefs and getting the message to the customer base, advertising is often required to mirror cultural identities within its messages. The issue of values in the context of advertisements is crucial and has a double responsibility: as a basis for the conception of advertising and as a defining trait for the target audience. Values are prerequisites of any culture, determined as a consequence of trying to rank what is important, accepted and desirable. Consequently, when dealing with cultural values, advertising becomes a mirror of good/bad actions and desirable/undesirable behavior to the customer country and the representation of values is tightly related to brand recognition and its identification with a specific country.

Using value appeals in advertising is essential for a proper communication between the producer companies and the customer base. There are two essential reasons that support this theory. Firstly, ‘it is possible to predict and explain cultural differences in the persuasiveness of different value appeals’ (Hoeken et al., 2007: 20), precisely because value differentiation accounts for a cultural dissociation from other nations. This means that, in countries where values are highly personalized, advertising must be essentially adapted so as to fit the frame of reference. Secondly, value appeals can be considered a trustworthy variable in advertising communication, since such values are identified and recognized as cultural traits to which customers respond.

In Europe, cultural differences and disparities at the level of value appeals represent a solid ground for the necessity to adapt advertising, but also show why Europe cannot be taken for granted as a single market. The leading premise for the analysis of values is Geert Hofstede’s (Hofstede, 2001: 241) value orientations applied to intercultural communication: individualism vs. collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, masculinity vs. femininity and short-term orientation. Accordingly, in order to present the interdependence between advertising and cultural values, Hofstede’s value orientations will be discussed in the context of European advertising.

At a first glance, the European cultural identities appear as nearly similar constructions, with few differences attached, due to their close interaction and geographical proximity. Indeed, according to Hofstede’s cultural dimensions’

representation, most European countries share common or close scores in three of the dimensions. Namely, ‘most European countries are positioned at the individualism extreme of the individualism-collectivism dimension, at the short-term extreme of the long versus short-term orientation and at the medium and low-power distance extreme of the power distance dimension.’(Hofstede, 2001: 356) Consequently, the main disparities occur at the level of the two other dimensions: uncertainty avoidance and masculinity, which account for the influence of value appeals.

The distribution of uncertainty avoidance dimensions on the European scale shows Portugal and Belgium at the top extremes, with scores of 104 and 94 respectively, Sweden and Denmark are located at the bottom extremes, reaching scores of 29 and 23, while, at a middle position one can identify Austria and Germany, with 70 and 65. Likewise at the masculinity pole, Austria and Italy are on a high rank - 79 and 70, whereas Sweden and The Netherlands stand for the feminine pole - 5 and 14 and Belgium and France occupy a middle ground position - 43 and 54.

Referring to the *uncertainty avoidance dimension*, the attached advertising value appeals are the following: “safety, tamed and durable” at the positive pole and “adventure, untamed, magic, youth, casual” at the negative one, each appeal having a series of values that are accounted for in the advertising content. Due to the fact that uncertainty avoidance translates, at a socio-cultural level - in the need for laws, regulations, religion, and technology support and, on the other hand, it refers to the presence of anxiety and a manifestation of security needs, the aim of advertising becomes more clearly oriented. That is, a successful advertisement addressing countries with high uncertainty avoidance index should ensure that the ad content shows the competence of the manufacturer, guarantees for the powerful and advanced technology and facilitates stability and absence of hazards.

Moreover, since “tamed” advertising appeal is one that is characteristic for the positive correlation with high uncertainty avoidance countries (Portugal, Belgium, Greece, and Poland), ads addressed to such nations must contain images of civilized, obedient and responsible individuals. An example to support the above allegations is the German trend of using testing within their advertisements: “Testing and test reports are favored in all medium and strong uncertainty avoidance cultures. Favorite German expressions are “ Die Besten im Testen” (The best in the tests) and “Testieger” (The test winner)” (Mooij, 2005: 180). The need to show that a product works and has been thoroughly tested is in accordance with the cultural value of recognized authority and acknowledged top position.

Countries that share a low uncertainty avoidance index (UK, Ireland, Denmark and Sweden) seem to praise distinct values appeals: youth, magic, wonders, courage, adventure, casual and untamed. In advertising vocabulary this means speaking a language that mentions the result and what the product can do rather than an appraisal of its qualities and performances as with the high uncertainty avoidance index. Also, there is no further need of introducing in advertisements the voice of an expert, as customers whose values are the above-mentioned prefer an authentic and spontaneous account instead of the rigid counterpart.

The other significant cultural dimension that fragments the European space is the *masculinity index*, which responds to the following advertising appeals:

“effective, convenient, productivity” on the top masculinity pole and “natural, frail and modest” at the feminine pole. Masculinity must be understood as the level at which male values (traditionalism) are stringent elements within society. Moreover, a country with a high masculine score (Austria, Italy, Hungary, Switzerland) commonly depends upon achievement ideals, assertiveness and materialism, which means that advertising addressed to such a country should be portrayals of the product’s performance capabilities, its effectiveness or accessibility. In addition to these advertising appeals, the cultural values that define high masculinity nations include ‘winning and the wish to dominate’ (Mooij, 2005: 186), represented in ads that proliferate the “simply the best” concept. Likewise, using the productivity appeal, advertising could also use the reference area of dreams and aspirations while conveying the message, since consumers from high masculinity countries are keen on the accomplishment, ambition and self-development ideal.

On the other hand, with countries that have low masculinity scores (Sweden, Netherlands, Norway, Denmark) new features of value appeals occur. Namely, feminine cultures thrive on images of caring, small, relationships, modesty, innocence, delicate and sensitive, and require advertisements that approach these country images in the proper vocabulary. There are two noteworthy and successful ads that have accomplished the proper representation of the feminine culture – Carlsberg and Sweden’s Volvo commercial.

In the first case, the logo of the commercial is “*Carlsberg. Probably the best beer in the world*”, which is in fact an understatement, therefore an indirect and delicate accomplishment, highly characteristic of low masculinity nations. The second, a product manufactured and advertised by Sweden, the country with the lowest masculinity index in the world, is a vivid image that focuses on “safety, protecting the family: in feminine cultures, showing-off is negative. The Volvo advertisement says: *True refinement comes from within*, meaning to say you don’t have to show off.” (Mooij, 2005: 175).

The starting premise in this debate was that, despite the geographical proximity and ideological similitudes that European countries share, there are still solid differences of cultural representation and perception. Such cultural disparities were considered in terms of *values*, which, in their own turn, were built upon the clusters of advertising appeals that Pollay (Pollay, 1983: 23) submitted. Eventually, it only took the exemplification of two of Hofstede’s (Hofstede, 2001: 142) dimensions to prove that European advertising can only represent cultural identity through adaptation and molding into cultural patterns.

If, on the one hand, the representation of cultural values and perceptions in advertising has distinct traits for the countries in the Western and Central Europe, the same premise does not apply in the case of Eastern European countries. Moreover, since only very few were granted attention in Geert Hofstede’s cultural dimensions scale, it is mandatory to draft a framework for the values that Eastern European consumers use when responding to advertising.

Literature review conducted in this area reflected a certain trend according to which ‘transition economies may be expected to have more information-rich advertising because their consumers consider it more important that the ads they face are clear, credible and simple to understand.’(Herpen et al., 2000: 257) A hypothesis for this condition could be that, being under the communist regime for an extended portion of time, these countries had had little if no impact with commercial representation and variation in advertising campaigns. Accordingly, the

uncertainty that governed society immediately after the 1990s imposed somehow a medium in which advertising had to bring forth clear content, rich in information and especially trustworthy and competent.

However, apart from the typology of advertising that Eastern Europe requires, the problem of the value content of the ads is more important. Customers' need for advertising that is intensively spreading assurances is, in this respect, an essential valued parameter. Cultural values of unbiased authority, relationship safety, and freedom of expression or free choice are popular appeals in Eastern European countries, as they represent the rupture from the previous domination systems. The design of advertising content should, therefore, refer to availability information, "country of origin" cues, and special offers and benefit that come attached to the product.

Furthermore, the cultural identity of Eastern European countries is defined by a "think advertising", a term coined by Rossiter, Percy and Donovan (Rossiter et al., 2000: 171)-typology, which stands for 'advertisements in which a product solves or avoids a problem and advertisements in which a buying decision is made based on logical arguments or objective criteria.' (Herpen et al., 2000: 253) This means that clarity and uniform representation is a landmark of advertising to Eastern European countries, because among the top cultural values, logics, easy accessibility and simplicity occupy top positions. What is more, the role that advertising plays in this context is purely informative, as opposed to western cases in which advertising becomes a power in its own, affecting consumer preferences.

Eventually, to speak of successful advertising in Europe is tantamount to referring to the largest possible array of cultural values that customers share. These values that advertising is required to have in view are in fact, the specific values of each European subcultural audience, since, addressing to a European homogeneous market is an impossible aim. Consequently, in order for advertising to instill a sense of identity in the target audience, it is mandatory to establish a bridge between the advertised product and the highest level of social values.

### **3. Language, Culture and Identity: the Spinning Whirl of Decoding Advertising to its Cultural Meaning**

Imagining the European space as a unified union that aims at constructing a unique market place in the spirit of the "united in diversity" motto is a difficult process. Advertising is perhaps the most important means of popularizing and acknowledging the idea of a joint sense of identity, and, through standardization and overall globalized trends, it nearly manages to accomplish its aim. The decoding methodology that advertising inserts within the proliferated messages is a combination of language, culture and identity, specific for each consumer market and country.

The occurrence of foreign languages in advertising is more problematic when considering the European locus, as compared to the United States, where the advertising vocabulary belongs almost exclusively to English language. Here, advertising must not only address a varied audience, but also, it must ensure the applicability of cross-cultural messages outside of the producer's borders. Nevertheless, sometimes, communication symbols that belong to one country are not understood by the other European nations. Consequently, the responsibility of advertising is to adapt the message and convey a larger meaning.

That English represents the link language of the entire world is no longer a secret, nor is its status as international vocabulary. But the problem arises both at the level of language competence and at the country's number of people who are fluent in English. Needless to say, when advertising a product using English as information and content vocabulary, the addressee cannot be filtered enough so as to comprise only those who are competent in speaking and understanding the language. In reality, such ads are visualized by a large audience, among which the majority is monolingual. What happens in such cases with the message contained in the ad, since the decoding cannot take place?

There are at least three possibilities that European advertising has in range when directing the message towards the multicultural audience. The first is the *translation of foreign language advertisements*, in which the strategy is a typical procedure: standardized ads are translated into the local language spoken by the target consumers, while the content and visual representation remains unchanged. Even if this is an easy and cheap solution, there is still the problem of creating stereotypical otherness by not addressing the consumer in its private language and vocabulary. 'When products are foreign, the significance must be domestic but its reverberation will be intercultural: a translated ad can simultaneously create or revise a stereotype on a foreign culture, while appealing to a specific domestic constituency, a specific segment of the domestic market. (Venuti, 1994: 220)

In other words, when the translation method is used, there is often a disparity between the culture that the advertised product carries and the cultural context to which it is addressed. This disparity is a stereotype of exclusion because the clash derives from the direction of the "country of origin" effect. Namely, the advertised product, manufactured in another country, also carries the image of the respective culture and, by translation of the message; the consumer is under the impression of an invasion. Such an invasion is accomplished at a psychological level: consumers view the use of their language in advertisements as an authority that recognizes local production, whereas with translated advertising the authority is reciprocated to other cultures. Consequently, consumers become deprived of the sense of assurance for their local products advertised in their own language, because, as a result of this advertising strategy, authority can be transferred to other cultures as well.

Secondly, another direction of addressing multilingualism in Europe is the *code-switching* technique, which can be defined as "alternation among different speech varieties within the same event." (Gumperz, 1996: 365) The switching between languages can be considered an appropriate approach of the multicultural European construction, because it uses both the link language-English- and other languages, among which the one that is spoken in the target consumer country. Of course, the main determinant for this strategy is 'the desire to mark, assert or adopt an ethnic or regional identity' (Holmes, 2000:69), which enables the contextual reference through advertising. This way, consumers become acquainted with information about a foreign product, through a vocabulary that is mixed: it can contain the link language, the language of the producer and, essentially, the language of the addressee.

Within the same field of code-switching reference, there is yet another sensitive impact area: the way European cultures accept and adopt foreign words in their vocabularies (especially in the field of economics and IT). Therefore the use of code-switching and loanwords in advertisements addressed to this niche market

are sure to have an impact, because it is already part of the social lifestyle. The case of Romania is interesting in the perspective of advertising otherness essentially from the point of view of consumers using and responding to foreign words as a means of “crossing”/ “passing” for someone else. It applies especially to the youth, however, the phenomenon has reached such a level that most conversations and specific niche market broadcasting television channels resort to the “Englishness” of Romanian language.

The third level in which advertising aims at an actualization of multiculturalism is *language fetishism*. Commodities- products - reach a stage in which they are “social hieroglyphics” - signifiers of socially and culturally determined meanings, which are themselves the products of social relations. How fetishism applies to intercultural advertising in Europe is of particular interest, because there is an occurrence of an intensively used communicative function of language. To fetishize language in advertising means to use, within an ad, foreign linguistic cues, not the same way as code-switching uses other languages. These cues are in fact indicatives of landmarks in certain countries and show that, by using a certain product, the consumer receives a confirmation from an authority expert in the field (the authority being the country whose language is used in the ad).

The premise that language heavily differentiates and divides cultures is mandatory for the description of linguistic fetishism as both ‘product and producer of another allied development in the Europe of the closing years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century: namely, the extent to which racist and nationalistic discourses are widespread across the continent.’ (Holmes, 2000: 69) The fetish of languages in advertising is responsible for replacing the multicultural ideal with a stereotypical identity creation, because it builds hierarchies among the countries’ images. Hierarchies here identified refer to the way in which, by the use of advertising linguistic fetish, specific competencies are assigned to certain countries, making the other producer countries unequal on the advertising background.

An accurate example of language fetishism and hierarchy building is the label “vin de pays” that France uses: all European countries are aware that France is the recognized authority in wine and cuisine, and, therefore, a product that originates in France benefits from the approval of its national experts. The language fetishism, therefore, applies when other European countries resort to borrowing the French authority in wine/cuisine, by the insertion of French words or even French expression “vin de pays” in advertisements that use another language and are addressed to a different language-speaking customers. Likewise, cosmetics also carry the Paris label, regardless of the country in which they are advertised.

Eventually, the framework of language in European advertising can be considered, on the basis of the cases presented above, a case of “fake multiculturalism”. The “fake” label best reflects the current situation in Europe, because even though there is an intensive use of foreign words in ads throughout the continent, the dominant language remains a monolingual one, just like the addressee’s typology. Namely, diversity cannot be approached entirely due to the fact of distinct levels of development that advertising has in countries.

#### **4. Ethnic Advertising and the Story of Ethnocentrism: how Commercials Build Stereotypical Imagery**

Ethnic advertising can function as the framework in which the consumers' stories of identity are told, often in subliminal cues and images. Rendering the profile of ethnic groups as a variable of marketing goods, advertising enables the making and deciphering of a jig-saw puzzle, whose pieces consist of ethnic consumer behaviour, dress codes, musical and culinary preferences etc. Even though the aspect of ethnic advertising is highly discussed with reference to the American markets, due to the large numbers of immigrants that cross the boundaries annually, Europe is not at all foreign of similar experiences. It is only the fact that "multiculturalism" has been adopted as European framework by the EU that the illusion of a fair and diversified advertising still exists. However, the disclosure of a varied and fragmented side of Europe is imminent, as more and more ethnic groups are claiming the recognition of their identity and their presence.

The most stringent need, in this respect, is to ensure a proportional representation of minorities within advertising, whether that implies the actually use of ethnic groups' representatives in ads or the addressing of media messages towards specific such groups. Needless to say, the problem of ethnic advertising also draws attention to the religious aspect, since certain ethnic consumers live exclusively in accordance to their religious code of conduct. However, one must take into account the fact that even though there are numerous ethnic groups in Europe, not all of them claim voicing. Also, "Europeans still have trouble identifying even second-generation immigrants as citizens. We tend to define them by ethnic origin, color or religion. The expression "a Turk with a German passport" is a telling example of this mentality."(Özdemir, 2008) Consequently, a brief reference imposes on each of the visible ethnic groups that Europe hosts: the French Muslims, the Turkish Germans, the British Hindi, and respectively the Roma population.

Firstly, the French Muslims' ethnic representation in France amounts to about 6 millions (Ketani, 2010: 2), which clearly states that a distinct advertising approach is required. Naturally, to address ethnic groups it is first necessary to have products and services that are especially directed towards such markets - in this case food and clothing articles being the most need-oriented products. The main failure of communication in advertising for ethnic groups occurs at the level of clashes between different ethnic groups and the mainstream society. For instance, in the case of French Muslims the veil affair (*l'affair du voile*), in which the wearing of full-face covering with burqas or niqabs led to endless debates, somehow affects the representation of Muslim women in commercials, which commonly portray stereotypical depictions of women as symbols of motherhood, sex-appeal or business. Consequently, how could advertising to this type of ethnic minority not come into conflict with the mainstream customer base? The most viable solution would be to advertise in such a way as to divert attention from clothing trends (which are considered to be a proof of religious radicalism) and focus mainly on textual cues and written support. (Nonetheless, one cannot ignore the commercial created by German lingerie retailer Liaison Dangereuse, where the stereotype of women as sex symbol crosses the boundaries of the veil issue and represents attraction regardless of the ethnic belonging.)

There is a similar situation with the British Hindi ethnic groups, whose population is 13% (about 700 000) of the total English population, according to the

British Census in 2011. A particularity presented by this group is the importance of word-of-mouth advertising, which functions due to the fact that 'the newly arrived trust peers and friends to inform them on the important aspects until they can find the information themselves.' (Neff, 2009) Advertising can therefore count on those customers who reacted to a specific ad and who are sure to use the word-of-mouth form of advertising the message. Moreover, such cultures are collectivistic nations and, therefore rely on the word-of-mouth communication, which, in turn, allows for a proper management of ethnic advertising. Consequently, to address the ethnic group of Hindis is hardly a challenge, especially since the linguistic aspect is not a problem for this type of advertising.

The German Turks, another numerically relevant ethnic group of Europe, pose yet another personalized problem to advertising. In fact, according to the 2003 Eurobarometer, the position of Euro-Turks in the context of Europeaness is not one of disparity, but instead, it appears as an ethnic group willing to blend in. 'Euro-Turks do not pose a threat to the political and social system of the countries of settlement, but rather have the willingness to incorporate themselves into the system.'(Kaya, Kentel, 2005: 154) This requires for a type of advertising that is bilingual; that is, one that addresses the needs of the ethnic groups but also that doesn't disentangle them from the mainstream German consumers.

Eventually, the Roma ethnic groups, predominant in Romania and Italy are, perhaps, the most interesting case, due to their derogatory position in the European perception. The powerful stereotypy to which the Roma are associated (criminals, thieves, uneducated people, etc.) prevents them from recognition of identity and from having a voiced identity. In terms of advertising, however, there is a specific tendency related to their representation, which could lead to an improvement both in terms of ethnic perception and in terms of advertising consumer diversity. This tendency refers to the fact that all ads related to the Roma ethnic groups are public awareness campaigns (be those education equal rights, violence against Roma women, anti-discrimination ads), conceived so as to address the mainstream population. Therefore, advertising only represents the Roma- in order to modify the general perception- but does not refer to their specific needs, nor does it orient any ads towards this ethnicity. Accordingly, the display of ethnic advertising is never entirely attained, instead, it is an unfinished project meant to cover the basics of ethnic voices.

To speak of a fair ethnic representation in advertising is tantamount to changing biased public attitudes in the European space. If the scope is to create through the media, a Europe in which immigrants and mainstream groups can relate efficiently and can forge solid grounds of communication, the rule is to facilitate a special advertising discourse in which ethnic groups can identify with their adopted countries and can also maintain their private cultural values.

## 5. Conclusion

In trying to regard advertising as a hybrid between culture and economy, there cannot be any pre-established direction: advertising is in as much a direct product of economy activity as it is a consequence of the cultural forces. In the eyes of consumers this reads as follows: individuals, who aim at displaying their social status, can only resort to the advertising consumerism frenzy so that they can locate themselves in a global society. Such a global village is extremely biased

however, because it imposes a specific role on advertising. Namely, the scope is a dual opposition: it aims at a global economic accomplishment of consumption patterns and it addresses the messages in a polyglot discourse.

The charges that economy and culture apply to advertising are, therefore, both favorable and biased. European advertising is in search of epitomes of cultural and national identities in the context of the growing globalised village, while, at the opposite pole, it is also in the impossibility of finding the solution to erase marring discrepancies. Its discourse must not be an overly stretched language of marketing, as consumers are no longer fooled by the glamorous images that appeal to extensive consumerism. The only level at which such a discourse can become a functional mechanism is at the crossroads of economy and culture. This way, should a pattern of mature and European engaged interest representation emerge from narrative of advertising, the story of great accomplishments could become embedded in the intercultural discourse and, therefore, change the current axis.

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## **ENHANCING INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE THROUGH PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES**

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**Abstract:** Nowadays, contacts between people from diverse cultural backgrounds are becoming more frequent and much closer. Highly developed skills in intercultural communication have a significant bearing on the quality of relationships between people from different cultures and nationalities. A recent rapid development in multicultural relationships therefore puts new demands also on university graduates. They need to be adequately prepared for new social situations and future job opportunities in their home country and also abroad. Achievement of communication competence is the principal objective in foreign language teaching and therefore intercultural competence is incorporated into the university curriculum. The findings of our survey *Implementation of Modern Technologies in Professional Language Teaching* (a part of a research project funded by the Kultúrna a edukačná grantová agentúra (KEGA) of the Slovak Ministry of Education, no. 049PU4/2012) highlighted the importance of professional communication teaching and emphasized intercultural competence as one of the key priorities in the university education. We used a specially designed questionnaire to find out if our respondents (students in the Faculty of Health Sciences, the University of Prešov, Slovakia) are sufficiently prepared to provide a proper care to clients/patients from different cultures. Our study showed that the language most used in professional practice was English, and that most respondents did not have any difficulty in communication with clients from different cultures. Sixty percent of the respondents also used non-verbal communication if verbal communication failed, and respected the cultural differences and individuality of patients; a small number of the respondents did not respect these factors. However, our findings also showed that there are still some language barriers between future healthcare professionals and clients/patients from diverse cultures, and that more practice in professional communication has to become an essential part of the foreign language teaching. It is also necessary to include more intercultural aspects into the foreign language teaching for healthcare professionals to be able to respect the individuality of people from different cultures. Hence, the professional language teaching at universities needs to place a greater emphasis on students' knowledge of different cultures in order to enhance their intercultural competence. Our study provides some recommendations for improving interactions between future healthcare professionals and clients/patients from different cultures.

**Keywords:** healthcare professionals; intercultural competence, professional communication in foreign languages; education

## **1. Introduction**

A global movement of people leads to the creation of multicultural communities. The political and economic efficiency of the globalization process depends on individual and collective skills of each member of a particular nation. We need to adapt to and respect the cultural differences, and know that the culture of each nation is unique and should be preserved. A recent rapid development in multicultural relationships puts new demands also on university graduates; the demands also include intercultural competence. Nowadays, there is a growing need to train professionals and use intercultural communication in all spheres of life. Contacts between people from diverse cultural backgrounds are becoming more frequent and much closer; therefore highly developed skills in intercultural communication can greatly improve the quality of relationships between people from different cultures and nationalities. In our education, we should address these issues at all levels, particularly in education of future healthcare professionals who, during their university studies, come to contact with patients from diverse cultures and have the opportunity to participate in mobility projects in foreign countries. These are only some of the reasons why there is a need to give attention to teaching intercultural communication. University graduates need to be adequately prepared for new social situations and future job opportunities in their home country and also abroad. Students need to achieve so-called "intercultural competence" (also called "cross-cultural competence"), which should include motivation and interest in intercultural contact with members of different cultures, respecting the habits and customs of people from different cultures, courtesy, friendliness, patience, empathy, tolerance, general knowledge of cultural differences and language skills as well.

The current processes in foreign language education differ from the traditional forms and methods of education. Achieving communicative competence in a foreign language is the principal goal in teaching communication skills, which also comprises knowledge of different cultures. "Cultural competence includes also intercultural communication, which is based on tolerance, understanding, recognition and a search for an objective assessment of a particular socio-cultural phenomenon, represented by verbally or nonverbally" (Stern, 2003). "In language teaching and learning cultural awareness has taken an important place. It has been widely recognized that culture and the language are interrelated, and that the language is used as the main medium through which culture is expressed." (Kominarecová, 2012).

Intercultural competence is an ability to successfully communicate with people from other cultures, to understand the culture-specific concepts of perception, thinking, feeling and acting. As the world is becoming more culturally diverse, intercultural competence plays an important role in providing a high-quality care to patients from diverse cultural backgrounds. Each person should improve his/her intercultural communication skills and professionalism through a dynamic dialogue; professionalism helps to overcome language barriers and to strengthen the relationship between a native person and a foreigner. "This even applies to the basic communication level which includes understanding and using appropriate greetings and physical contact, which can be an inter-culturally tricky area." (Lojová, Vlčková, 2011). "Mastering intercultural competence allows an easier social interaction and mutual understanding between people from different cultures." (Horňáková, 2011). Depending on the type of interaction, basic

requirements for intercultural competence should include *tolerance of ambiguity; behavioural flexibility; communicative awareness; knowledge about other cultures; respect for otherness; empathy (understanding the feelings and needs of other people)*. Healthcare professionals should be able to communicate smoothly and professionally with foreigners.

A growing process of internationalization and multiculturalism creates ever-increasing demands not only on professional, social, and intercultural competence, but also on university studies. In the context of globalization tendencies, it is very important to focus on the education of undergraduates - in our case the students in medical faculties - on intercultural relations and multiculturalism. Developing intercultural competence should be the principal goal of each university educational process, in which the foreign language teaching has a specific mission. Elzer and Sciborski (2007, p. 236) indicate that "our approach and attitude to migrants depends on their degree of assimilation, integration and interaction." Migrants often complain of language barriers and an inadequate health care treatment. Cross-cultural communication involves a skill component that can be best learned and mastered through a combination of theoretical knowledge and practice.

## **2. Objectives**

The aim of our study was to determine whether future healthcare professionals have sufficient foreign language skills to provide an adequate treatment and appropriate care to patients from different cultures. We hypothesized that there still exist some language barriers in communication with patients/clients from different cultures, that healthcare workers do not have enough knowledge and, in some situations, still rely on non-verbal communication.

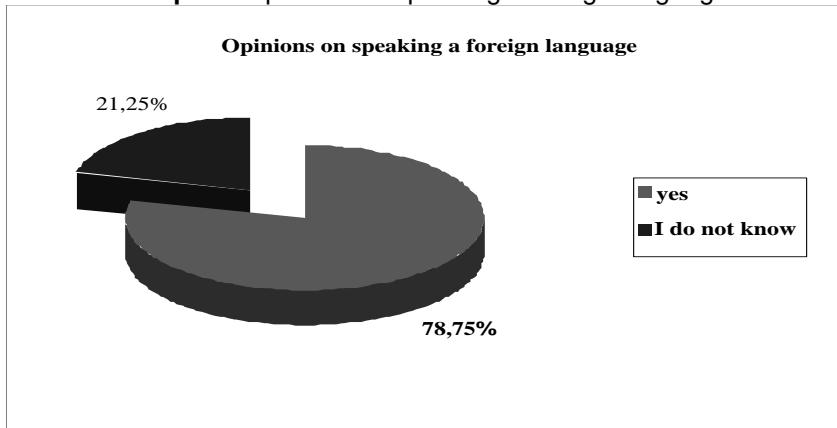
## **3. Methods**

Our research was a part of the KEGA project (049PU4/2012) *Implementation of modern technologies in professional language teaching*, and used the questionnaire „Professional language as a part of professional practise“ including 10 questions. The response rate was 100%. The researched group consisted of 80 respondents (56 females and 24 males) randomly selected, full-time and part-time students, aged between 20 and 60 years, in the fields of emergency health care, nursing and midwifery in the Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Prešov, Slovakia. As part of their studies, the respondents were also working in the paediatric, surgical, intensive cardiac unit, infectious, lung and gynaecological departments in the Faculty Hospital of J. A. Reiman in Prešov, Slovakia. The survey was conducted from January to February 2013. The results are summarized and showed in the graphs below. We present only the most important results of our survey (not all graphs).

#### 4. Results

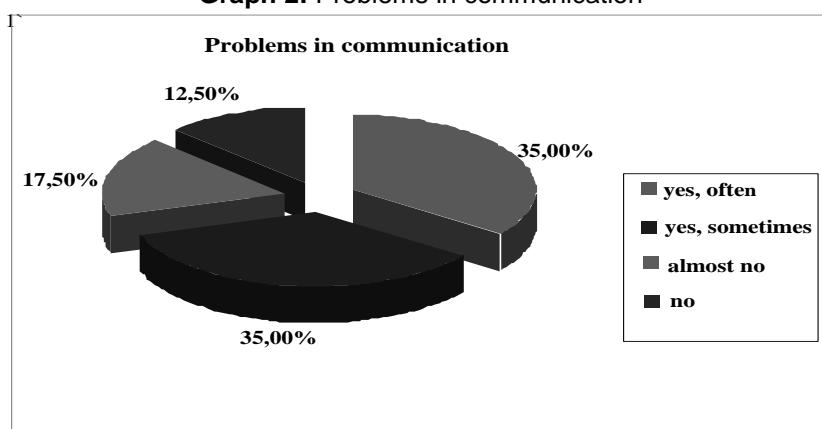
Note: The graphs in this study have been drawn by the author using the results of the survey.

**Graph 1:** Opinions on speaking a foreign language



Graph 1 illustrates that 78.75% of respondents considered speaking a foreign language helpful and motivational in their studies. A bit over 21 % were unsure. Our results also point out the usefulness to practise speaking in a foreign language in the classroom in order to successfully use it in the professional life. Our findings support Ager (2012) who said that “the more languages you know, the more you understand our species, and that is beneficial no matter what the situation is”.

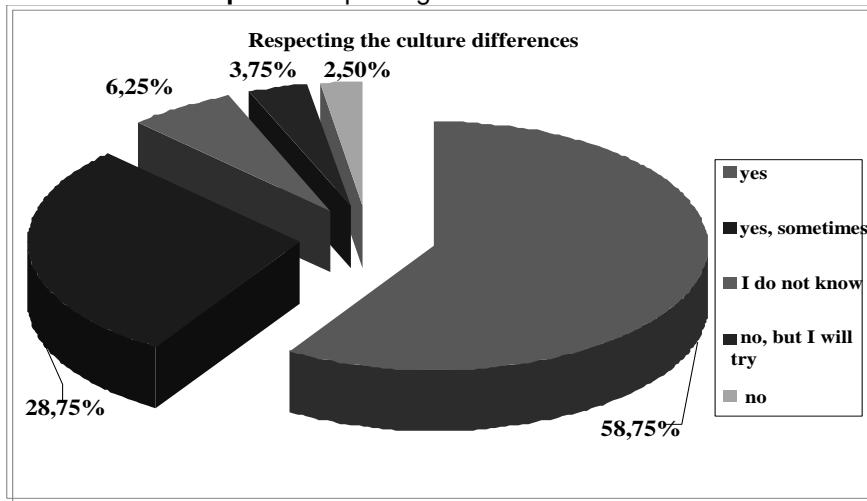
**Graph 2:** Problems in communication



Graph 2 presents that 35% of respondents had great difficulty in communication with foreigners, 17.5% had a few problems only sometimes, 35% answered that they hardly had any problems, and 12.5 % did not have difficulty at all. According to Fernandez (2011) “the main source of problems in caring for patients from diverse cultural backgrounds is the lack of understanding and tolerance. Our results agreed that the same word does not necessarily mean the same thing to people from

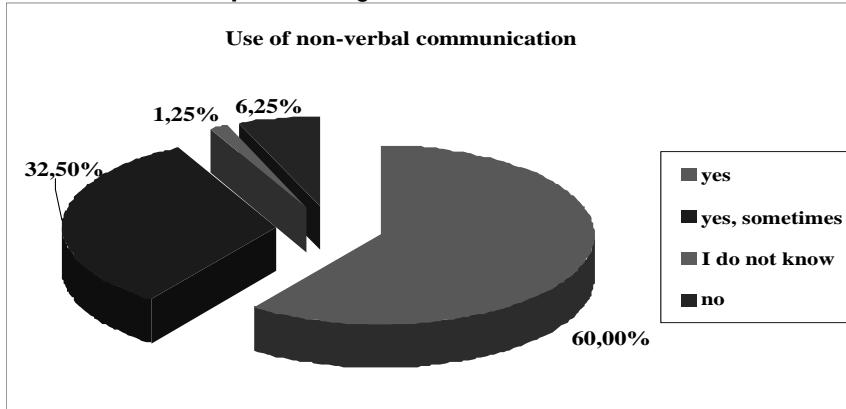
various cultures, even when they talk “the same” language. That is why it is necessary to have some knowledge of the history, customs, and cultural specifics of diverse ethnic groups. Based upon the presented problems in foreign language communication we have concluded that this issue requires a deeper analysis.

**Graph 3:** Respecting the cultural differences



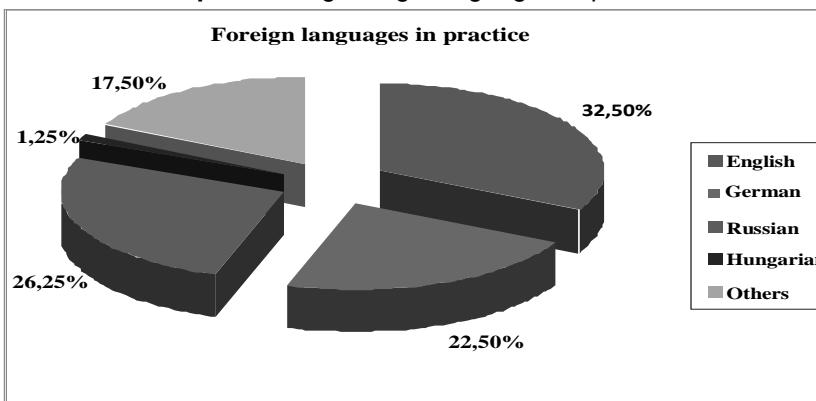
How the respondents respected the cultural differences and individuality of patients from different culture is presented in Graph 3. More than a half (58.75%) respected individuality of different culture patients, cultural habits, religion and their differences, 28.75% respected, but not always, 6.25% were undecided, 3.75% did not respect, but they will try in future and 2.5% did not respect them at all. Respecting the culture style differences is one of the biggest challenges of cross-culture communication, but still there is small number of people who do not respect cultural differences. Relationships between healthcare professionals and patients from different cultures should be based on trust and respect. It should be kept in mind that a mistake in medical profession may not be the mistake of carelessness, misunderstanding and confusion. It should endanger patient's health and life. Our study confirmed Fernandez's findings (2011) that “cultural competence usually means listening to the patient, finding out and learning about his/her believes of health and illness”.

**Graph 4:** Using non-verbal communication



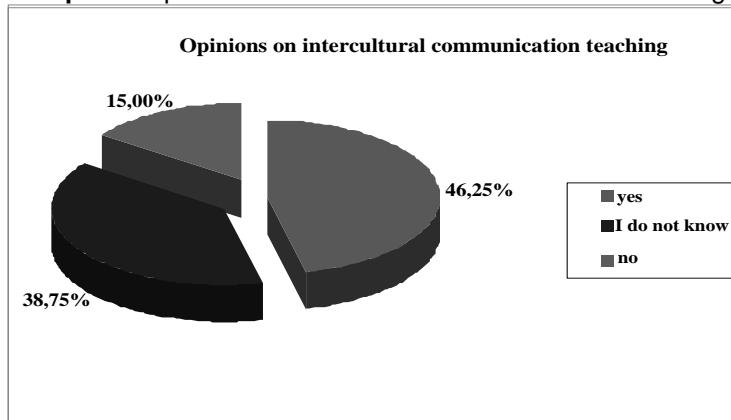
Graph4 illustrates that 60% of respondents used non-verbal communication with a client from a different culture, 32.5% of respondents used it sometimes, and 1.25% were undecided. 6.25% of respondents did not use non-verbal communication at all. Our results supported Edmonds's' findings (2012) that "our body always says something, even when we do not speak".

**Graph 5:** Using foreign languages in practice



Graph 5 shows that the languages most used in practise were English (32.5%), followed by Russian (26.25%), German (22.5%), Hungarian (1.25%) and others (17.5%). Our younger respondents speak English and German languages which are compulsory components in our curriculum for students to select their preferred language; the older age respondents only use Russian language which they learnt at primary or secondary school. Romani language was most frequently used of other languages. The Romani ethnic group is relatively dominant, but has a considerable difficulty to adapt in our country. Other languages also included the languages of immigrants and refugees, such as Chinese, Vietnamese, Hebraic, Turkish, etc.

**Graph 6:** Opinions on intercultural communication teaching



The opinions on intercultural communication are presented in Graph 6. Almost a half of respondents (46.25%) proposed to include intercultural communication in the university curriculum, 38.75% were undecided and 15.00% think that it is not necessary.

#### 4.1. Results Evaluation

The results of the survey show that intercultural competence is becoming an integral part of a full acquisition of teaching communication skills and has a primary role in university education. It is necessary to apply more speaking, listening, questioning, learning professional vocabulary into foreign language teaching. We totally agree with Fobelová (2006) who says that "if we want to be accepted in a foreign country, it is not enough to speak the language, it is also necessary to have some knowledge and will-power to "listen to" its culture and respect the differences". While treating a client from different culture we should always have in mind that we can use social communication in real life terms, while the medical professional life requires professional communication including intercultural communication, which reflects professional behaviour and contains therapeutic elements.

#### 4.2. Recommendations for Successful Intercultural Communication with Patients from diverse cultural backgrounds (Hornáková, 2011, p. 133).

It is necessary to:

- perceive a patient as a unique individuality
- find an efficient way of communication, which also includes a simple language, such as using simple words and expressions which the patient will understand and can use, too
- speak slowly and clearly, repeat words several times and require the same from the patient
- learn words for basic communication in the patient's language and use them adequately
- check the patient's understanding
- use smiles, gestures, pictures for better understanding
- pay attention to the non-verbal communication expressions of the patient

- compromise, find solutions to the problems, accept and respect cultural varieties and ethical principles
- encourage and help the patient to express his/her feelings, ideas, opinions and needs
- include schemes, drawings, boards and other aids
- be patient and tolerant to all non-verbal expressions of the patient
- make sure that the patient understands the information given to him/her
- listen patiently
- use dictionaries and/or an interpreter if it is necessary

## 5. Conclusion

The survey results demonstrate that our respondents are prepared quite sufficiently to provide an adequate care to the patients from different cultures. We found out that intercultural communication includes not only verbal, but also non-verbal communication, respect for patients' customs, religions, specific needs and values. Our results confirmed that certain problems in communication still exist and can create misunderstanding. In the future, these issues will need to be more thoroughly studied.

It is expected that foreign languages will be increasingly used in communication with patients across different cultures. Therefore, future healthcare professionals should learn more about how to respect communication etiquette of people from diverse backgrounds, and the foreign language education at universities needs to reflect this growing phenomenon.

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# THE ROLE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

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**Abstract:** *By now it is well-known that the role of modern education is to equip students with several types of competences necessary for their future personal and professional life. One of these competences, namely communication skills, has a component whose development is, according to the author's opinion, mainly in charge of foreign language teachers. It is their role to create the shift from the ethnocentric level of students' attitude towards cultural issues to the ethnorelativistic stage that is to make their students aware of and accept cultural differences and to help them acquire skills necessary for intercultural encounters. The two main topics present study is focusing on are: to what extent it is necessary to intervene in this respect and which are the ways teachers can develop intercultural sensitivity and competence.*

*The results of a questionnaire applied to more than 200 students of the University of Oradea, Romania - studying Economics, Medicine and Law - confirmed the author's hypothesis that in spite of the extended international relations and travel opportunities Romanian students are not really aware of cultural diversity and its overwhelming impact upon people's behaviour, reactions and way of thinking.*

*To change this situation, teachers, especially foreign language teachers may resort to techniques and methods like simulation games on cultural differences (Barnga, Ecotonos, BaFá BaFá, Randömia Balloon Factory etc.) that intercultural communication trainers use successfully in their seminars to make participants aware of cultural diversity and help them manage real life situations involving international encounters and/or appeal to the opportunities offered by information and communication technologies and the internet, through youtube and different socialization platforms.*

**Keywords:** communication skills; intercultural communication competence; cultural differences; foreign language teaching; simulation games; intercultural encounters

## 1. Introduction

In a world full of changes teaching foreign languages has undergone a change of paradigms well. When at the very beginning of the XX<sup>th</sup> century in teaching and learning foreign languages accent was laid on grammatical accuracy, later on in the development of didactics, primarily at a lower level of language competence, there followed a considerable shift from correctness to communication, i.e. conveying and perceiving a message, and, at a higher level, to fluency of speech. As communication in a foreign language does not mean just change of ideas among individuals but interaction among persons belonging to different nations and

cultures their communication reaches another dimension, that of intercultural communication. With this change of paradigm in language teaching from accuracy focus to initiating intercultural communication, a spectacular change of language teachers' role is inherent. While language teachers of the past had the role of teaching their students how to speak correctly and thus acquire language competence in the respective foreign language, nowadays they take more and more the role of cultural mediators developing intercultural communication skills with their students (A. Hamburg, 2011).

## **2. Theoretical Overview: Communication, Intercultural Communication, Intercultural Competence, Intercultural Communication Skills**

Terms like communication, intercultural communication, intercultural competence or intercultural communication skills one could come across in the previous passage are very fashionable in present days and frequently used but maybe a closer analysis and interpretation of the concepts are still necessary. What is communication in fact? One definition could be that it denotes an interaction between individuals in which message is transported bidirectionally, perceived and decoded by the participants disposing of the same decoding system. Synthesising the various definitions circulating in literature, Lustig and Koester present communication in their reference work on intercultural competence in the following way: "Communication is a symbolic, interpretive, transactional, contextual process in which people create shared meanings." (M.W. Lustig, J. Koester, 2010: 13). Let's analyse the components of this definition one by one. When conveying message people use a set of common symbols to create shared meanings, hence the symbolic character of communication. As symbols transmitted by others have to be interpreted and meanings be attached to them so that the message can be understood, communication is an interpretive process in which all participants collaborate to create and sustain meaning and their transactions take place in a certain setting. This is a physical context - referring to location -, a social one - referring to events-related expectations - and interpersonal one - pointing to one's expectations about people's behaviour depending on the relationship between them. Having a fluid character, there is no doubt communication is a process in which people share ideas transporting meaning from one person to another. Extending the aforementioned definition of communication to the field of international interactions, intercultural communication could be seen as a "symbolic, interpretive, transactional, contextual process in which people" coming from different cultures "create shared meanings." (see Lustig and Koester)

This communication is different and definitely more difficult than the interaction among people of the same nation as the symbols shared meanings are based on are strongly culture-related, the expectations, beliefs, values, norms guiding one's behaviour and the way of interpreting symbols may be very different across the world. People may speak the same language even as a mother tongue or speak a common language but still think in a collectively determined way very differently about things. While Americans and New Zealanders are very informal and direct in their interactions, willing to stress upon their qualities, not so are the British who prefer to be vague in communication and modest in their appearance and style. Thus, to be able to interpret and accept the symbols conveyed by people having different cultural backgrounds and to convey one's own symbols in a way

acceptable for them, one needs intercultural communication skills, i.e. the competence to communicate in an effective way and appropriate for the physical, social, interpersonal context. This means that intercultural competence is contextual - the same behaviour might not be appropriate in different cultural backgrounds or with different members of this cultural group - and needs to be appropriate - meeting the expectations of the counterpart - to be effective in achieving communicational goals.

In developing intercultural competence one has to go through different stages from awareness, through acquiring knowledge and skills, up to being motivated to apply intercultural skills when dealing with foreigners. The first stage refers to the state of being conscious of the fact that people from different cultures might think, react and live differently from what one is accustomed to. This awareness combined with acceptance shows that one has passed the ethnocentric phase (see Bennett's model of intercultural competence, 1986). To get to the ethnorelative stage and acceptance, one should acquire knowledge about different cultures and cultural attitudes. Putting this theoretical knowledge into practice is necessary for developing skills for intercultural interactions. One's motivation to apply these skills in interactions with people from different cultures is strongly related to the acceptance of respective cultures and the willingness to look at the world through the eyeglasses of relativity, i.e. not to consider elements in other cultures worse or better than the same aspects in one's own culture, but just different.

In my opinion, in making students aware of cultural differences, of the existence of not only individually but to a great extent collectively determined culture-based differences in beliefs, value systems, norms etc., language teachers and especially foreignlanguage teachers should play a relevant role. Of course there rises the question if on the background of extended travel experiences, students' exchange programs, growing globalization and last but not least of a society where more ethnic groups live side by side it is still necessary to draw people's attention upon these differences.

### **3. Methodology**

In my research I started from the idea that in spite of the existing contacts to the representatives of other cultures students are not really conscious of different cultural patterns guiding human behaviour. To check my hypothesis I have chosen to apply a questionnaire consisting of seven questions five of which point to various cultural aspects and the other two inquire about contacts to foreigners/other cultures. The passage below reproduces the questionnaire as follows:

#### **Questionnaire**

Please mark on a scale from **1** to **5** to what extent the following statements match your opinion.(1 means "not at all" and 5 stays for "to a great extent").

1. There is a single condition so that people from different nations can communicate efficiently with each other and this is the knowledge of a common language.
2. Knowing the culture of a nation doesn't only mean knowing its history, art, literature and so on, but its set of beliefs, symbols, convictions, too.

3. People not having a personal/individual opinion of things and the world in general are indifferent, indolent and dispose of a limited intellectual capacity.
4. Not being punctual at meetings shows lack of education and indifference to one's partner.
5. In business life everywhere in the world primary goal is to develop good relationship with one's business partner.

Answer these 2 supplementary questions, please!

1. Have you ever spent more than 3 weeks in a foreign country? If yes, on what occasion?
2. Do you have personal contacts to foreign students (e.g. Erasmus students) at the faculty you are studying at or to foreigners in general in your private life? If yes, how often do you meet each other or how intense is your contact to them?

### **3.1. Context of Study**

This questionnaire was distributed to about 250 students of the University of Oradea, Romania - 77 of them studying Economics, 88 Law, respectively 75 Medicine - having foreign language classes in English, German and French. The latter target group is supposed to have more intense and frequent contacts to other cultures because of the foreign students studying at the Faculty of Medicine and maybe even answering to the questionnaire. The first target group was chosen because of the author's affiliation and the necessity to train students for their future professional life.

### **3.2. Results**

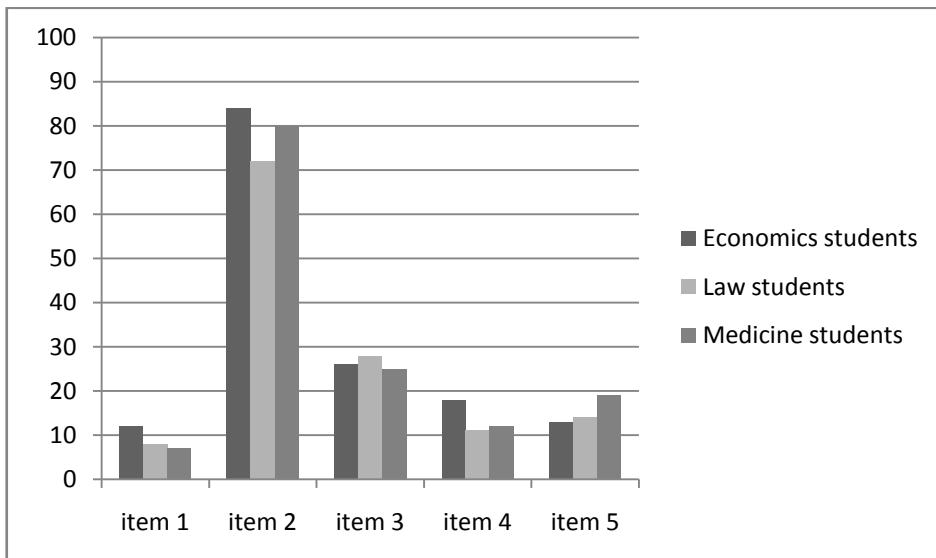
According to the values given to the first affirmation merely about 12% of the questioned Economics students present awareness of cultural differences, 70% of them show no awareness at all and there is a segment of 18% of medium values representing persons feeling that there should be something in the background but not being very conscious of the existence of cultural differences among people. The results are quite the same with Law students with just 8% of them showing intercultural sensitivity versus 70% ignoring cultural issues and with Medicine students with about 7% culturally sensitive and about 74% lacking any competence in this respect.

Almost all respondents were inconsistent giving to the first item answers that show little awareness of cultural differences but presenting at the second one much more sensitivity to these aspects or vice versa. As about 84% of the responding Economics students, about 72% of Law students, and respectively 80% of the students studying Medicine seemed to agree to a great extent with the content of the second assertion, as a sign of intercultural sensitivity just opposite to their attitude in the case of the first affirmation, it is likely they had misunderstood or misread it and answered accordingly.

With the third assertion the values indicating different levels of intercultural competence are not so dispersed any more either in the case of Economics or in that of Law or Medicine students. The results are as follows: about 41% of responding Economics students showed no awareness at all, the rate in the case of Law students is about 47% and with Medicine students 40%; 26% of the students studying Economics, 28% of those studying Law, respectively 25% of

Medicine students proved to be culturally sensitive while 33% of Economics, 25% of Law and 35% of Medicine students presented medium values on the scale of intercultural competence. The relatively low rate of answers proving no awareness of culturally different perceptions is to a great extent due to Romanian society's cultural profile. Being rather collectivist, Romanians do not necessarily condemn not having a personal opinion of things, the assertion corresponding thus to their cultural pattern.

The last two affirmations produced once more diffuse values, with assertion number 4 about 68% of Economics students turned out to lack awareness of cultural differences regarding punctuality, only 18% presenting intercultural sensitivity in this respect and further 14% being somehow conscious of the existence of different cultural patterns. The relation in the case of assertion number 5 is 71% indicating total ignorance while only 13% showing signs of awareness and 16% supposing that people might have different attitudes according to their cultural belonging, too. 76% respectively 65% of responding Law students presented with the last two affirmations no awareness of cultural differences while the ratio of culturally sensitive students was only 11% respectively 14% and further 13% respectively 21% were to some extent conscious of people all around the world living and acting according to different sets of rules. Medicine students had a rate of 68% of answers proving lack of cultural sensitivity with affirmation number 4 respectively 61% in the case of the last assertion. 12% of the questioned people presented in the case of assertion number 4 full awareness and about 17% showed some awareness of cultural issues and these values are about 19% respectively 20% with the last affirmation. Following chart offers a synthetic overview of the results of the questionnaire regarding students' awareness of cultural differences.



**Figure 1:** Ratio of the awareness of cultural differences with Economics, Law and Medicine students of the University of Oradea (data given in percents)

Source: own creation

Thus the results of the questionnaire confirm the initial hypothesis and show that in foreign language class it is not enough to teach/learn the respective language as real life encounters in a globalised world require from participants not just linguistic, but at least to an equal measure, intercultural competence as well. The research presents at the same time some surprising findings: quite many of the Economics (23), Medicine (18) and Law students (20) taking part in this survey and having some contact to foreign cultures - either through visits abroad or personal contact to foreigners - are not really aware of cultural diversity while some other participants (14 Economics, 18 Law and 15 Medicine students) with no experience of other cultures and countries still show a certain sensitivity to cultural issues.

Practical studies on intercultural competence like the one conducted by Inkeri Ruokonen and Seija Kairavouri (*Intercultural Sensitivity of the Finnish Ninth Graders*, 2012) show that there are societies like the Finnish one where due to the multi-ethnic composition of the country and arts education youth has reached the ethnorelativistic level of intercultural sensitivity (see Bennett's model, 1986) and proves to be thus interculturally more competent or at least aware of the importance of cultural background in people's lives.

The second step in acquiring intercultural competence is to get acquainted with different cultures and to learn about them for the sake of getting to know each other better, of learning to interpret other people's reactions and manifestations right and to think in terms of relativity when interacting with other cultures. When students realise that different cultures may have different attitudes to time, power, hierarchy, gender roles, success, task and performance, the place of the individual in society, to the unknown and so on, they are likely to give, later on, in professional situations, the correct interpretation of representatives of other cultures being late on an appointment or keeping them waiting in the lounge while being busy with several other apparently not so important matters and answering even to private phone calls. This knowledge due to the research work of Geert Hofstede (1991), Richard Gesteland (1997) and others would prevent them, at the same time, from losing temper and inherently face when dealing with people whose task/relationship orientation is different from theirs or would help them manage situations involving items of gender, age or status in a way convenient for all parts. I consider it is primarily the task of foreign language teachers to introduce students at least into the culture of nations whose language they teach and of related nations. For instance a teacher of German should offer a general overview of the cultural patterns of Germanic people including not only Germans and Austrians but also other people of Germanic origin like the Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Norwegians, a teacher of English should present the cultural portrait of the British, Americans, Australians, New Zealanders and accordingly a French teacher is supposed to outline the characteristics not only of French culture but even the cultural patterns of other Latin people, too.

To extend students' horizon regarding cultural differences teachers of different foreign languages could resort to co-teaching so that their students get to know even more cultural profiles or, as Sorina Chiper recommends it in one of her studies (2013), to the opportunities offered by information and communication technologies and the internet, through youtube and different socialization platforms. Furthermore, increasing awareness of cultural differences, in the process of cognition and parallelly in developing and training intercultural skills, simulation games such as Barnga, Ecotonos, BaFá BaFá, Randömia Balloon Factory and

others described by Hofstede and his co-workers in their practical work (2002) prove to be very useful. All these games developed for professional business environment by experts and trainers in intercultural communication are based on participants experiencing an “aha-effect” in their encounter with diversity and aim to develop skills for managing these situations and for problem solving. When items of interculturality come up in foreign language class, to the didactic situation and existing facilities adapted versions of these games could be applied. In most cases, students will like them and they will contribute to creating a link between theory and practice.

## **4. Simulation Games in Developing Intercultural Competence**

### **4.1. Barnga**

One of the simulation games mostly applicable for classroom conditions and most suitable for creating awareness of cultural differences is Barnga created by Sivasailan Thiagarajan and Barbara Steinwachs (1990). The game consists of building several groups of students/participants and giving them the assignment to play the same card game but with a slightly different set of cards or according to different rules. The trick is that they do not know it and are not allowed to communicate verbally - in oral or written form - with each other, they may use just signs, body language, mimic, drawings. After having read the set of rules according to which they should play each group begins to play. After a few minutes one member of each group should move to another team and the game continues with such changes occurring periodically until each group is made of participants playing according to different rules without knowing it. In the state of confusion created by these circumstances some participants may think the others are cheating when winning the game or something is wrong with the cards, other people may suppose that the rules are different without having the certainty that it is really so. In the debriefing (discussion) stage of the game there follows a discussion upon what happened and upon participants' feelings and thoughts related to the events. This is the point where students become aware of the game simulating real life situations in international contacts where the counterparts may have good intentions but just “play” according to different culturally determined rules.

### **4.2. BaFá BaFá**

In another simulation game called BaFá BaFá two teams are built: “Alpha culture” and “Beta culture”- where Alpha culture has a relationship-oriented, collectivist, hierarchical profile and Beta culture is on the contrary a highly competitive, individualist trading culture. The participants learn the behaviour rules of “their culture”, begin to act according to them and to interact with the other “culture”. At the end of the simulation phase after having “lived” in another culture, according to other rules than they might be accustomed to or having encountered behaviour norms different from theirs, participants should speak about their feelings related to it. These are usually varying from confusion, to withdrawal, anger, ignoring or even despising the values of other cultures. The misunderstandings and stereotypes resulting from this interaction build the starting- point for the debriefing stage where situations and problems are discussed and solutions are sought for, thus “BaFá

BaFá shakes participants out of thinking in stereotypes of anyone who is different.” ([www.stsintl.com/business/bafa.html](http://www.stsintl.com/business/bafa.html))

#### **4.3. Ecotonos**

Ecotonos developed by Nipporica Associates and Dianne Hofner Saphiere (1997) offers a multicultural problem solving simulation of real workplace situations by dividing participants into three fictitious cultural groups: Aquila, Delphinus and Zante. All the three groups operate according to “culture rule cards” pointing to such characteristics as leadership style, teamwork, gestures, listening style, problem solving, each type of card having three variations representing different positions regarding to the respective characteristic (e.g. leadership style can be consensus-oriented, democratic or autocratic). All teams get one variation for a few characteristics building their cultural profile. After discussing in the group the rules according to which they are supposed to act, all teams get the same task. During the working process teams are recombined in such a way that finally they consist of representatives of all three cultures in different proportions in order to simulate real life situations such as joint-venture, multicultural, majority-minority teams.

#### **4.4. Randömia Balloon Factory**

Simulation of working across the cultural Divide (Western individualist cultures versus Eastern or Southern more collectivist societies) is the purpose of Randömia Balloon Factory created by Cornelius Grove and Willa Hallowell (2001), too. In this game Western trainers (US-Americans, Anglo-Canadians, British, Irish, Germans and others of the same cultural type) from the country of Richland want to train workers in a manufacturing plant in the Third world (Randömia) to achieve more efficiency. The trick in this game is that only one group gets instructions regarding the cultural rules they should follow, the other one is supposed to act just as they would do in real life. That means, if participants come mainly from Western cultures, part of them building one group are asked to be collectivist, harmonious, indirect and hierarchical while in the case of participants being representatives of the other cultural type one group should act as individualistic, direct, egalitarian and assertive people without telling what culture they represent just introducing themselves in a way one representative of that culture would do. As a result of the simulation game participants realise that applying one's own approach to treat and solve problems is not very productive in real life situations and disdaining the other culture's values is no way to follow either.

### **5. Conclusions and recommendations**

The present study offers conclusions on more levels. The results of the questionnaire applied furnish educators more pieces of vital information: on one hand that Romanian youth is to a great extent not even conscious of the existence of cultural differences and their impact on people's behaviour, and on the other hand that encounters with members of other cultures or visits abroad do not produce automatically awareness of cultural issues. Thus, it is necessary to tackle and verbalise them in class as part of the foreign language course even if it is time-consuming, because the benefits are much greater than the aforementioned disadvantage. While making acquaintance with different cultural patterns and training intercultural skills by means of simulation games, students use foreign

language in real life-like situations and develop thus their linguistic competence, too.

Consequently, foreign language teachers should acquire also some competence as intercultural communication trainers because offering students means of efficient communication with representatives of other nations and developing, besides language skills, intercultural communication skills as well, they do their students good and contribute even to a better understanding among cultures.

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## **ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH: A STUDY OF MOTIVATION AND RESPONSIBILITY AS AIDS TO HUMAN RESOURCES**

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**Abstract:** *The paper presents the results of a survey carried out at the Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea, in order to identify attitudes, beliefs, motivation and self-responsibility among students when it comes to learning the English language. The main issue investigated was motivation set at the basis of the learning process together with students' attitudes regarding the use of English in the Romanian social and educational context, as well as the use of the English language in general. A valid questionnaire was designed and tried to a convenient sample of students; the results of the study are discussed in terms of the principal components that were established including attitude towards motivation, self-responsibility, and language learning approaches. Research and experience show that English is of utmost importance in the academic and future professional lives of students majoring in economics. Therefore, this paper provides some theoretical aspects of motivation, beliefs and responsibility in the context of second language acquisition. Among the important achievements of the study we should mention the observations of students' behaviour concerning responsibility. It appears that most students are not ready to take complete responsibility for learning. They are either afraid of the teacher, or feel embarrassed, and are ashamed to openly utter their ideas. Thus, teamwork and pair-work facilitate the effective learning of the foreign language and encourage students' collaboration. The teacher is not the central actor, the controller anymore; s/he becomes the facilitator and source of knowledge. It is important for the teacher to know the basic needs of his/her students and cater for these according to level of their importance, to be aware of the reasons that propel students towards learning, improving or just surviving English as a foreign language.*

**Keywords:** *human resources; motivation; responsibility.*

### **1. Introduction**

English is the language which can be internationally used for communication. It is the language of science; all university students, regardless of their specialization, will need to look for information and acquire knowledge, hence most of the universities worldwide include English as one of their requirements. One of the greatest challenges after 1989 in Romania has been to provide sufficient Foreign Language education so as to meet the ever growing demands of the labour market. Research and experience in the field of economics showed that the

English language is or should be, of utmost importance in the academic and professional lives of students. The knowledge of how to stimulate students to participate meaningfully in the classroom will greatly assist the learning. Therefore, this paper provides some theoretical aspects of motivation, beliefs and responsibility in the context of second language acquisition, to better understand what they are, how they function, and how to apply them to the day-to-day classroom teaching/learning activities.

## 2. Definition of concepts

### 2.1. Motivation

*Motivation* is a concept quite difficult to define, as Gardner rightly considers it to be, "a very complex phenomenon with many facets", impossible to contract it to one simple definition only, an inspiration that propels someone into an action, successively seen as "the anticipation of reward" (Gardner, 2006:242). In Brown's view, motivation refers to "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid", or as the individual's decisions within certain social contexts (Brown, 2000:160). In spite of all the very different approaches and explanations, the importance of motivation in the process of second/foreign language learning is a fact. According to Oladele, motivation is a process by which the learner's internal energies are directed toward various goal objects in his/her environment (Oladele, 1998). These energies push an individual in achieving his goals. The individual may be highly motivated to perform well in a task and completely unmotivated in another. As a result, when people get motivated, they will work ceaseless to achieve their aspirations. Lifrieri underlines that "when asked about the factors which influence individual levels of success in any activity – such as language learning –, most people would certainly mention motivation among them" (Lifrieri, 2005:4), while Brown stresses once more that when it comes to foreign language learning, "it is easy to claim that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation" (Brown, 2000:160). It is undeniable that being equipped with motivation it is easier to manage the acquisition process. In other words, "if one is motivated, he/she has reasons (motives) for engaging in the relevant activities, expends effort, persists in the activities, attends to the tasks, shows desire to achieve the goal, enjoys the activities, etc" (Gardner, 2006:243).

Specialists make a clear distinction between several types of motivation in the studies referring to second language learning: namely, *instrumental*, *integrative* and *developmental* motivation on account that they are either internally or externally driven (Cooper and Fishman, 1977: 239-276).

*Instrumental motivation* represents the external or environmental factor which sets the individual's behaviour into motion; it is the wish, desire and willingness to learn a language for external purposes such as: getting a job, a promotion, passing an exam, being able to communicate when abroad, meeting the requirements of the syllabus etc. (Schrader, 1999:37-55) or, as Gardner defines it as "learning a language because of someone or less clearly perceived utility it might have for the learner" (Gardner, 1983:203).

A student that is extrinsically motivated will execute an action in order to obtain some reward or avoid some sanctions. For example, a student who read hard for the examination did so because of the desire to obtain a better grade.

The questions included in the survey aimed at revealing the instrumental motivation of students of the Faculty of Economics, Oradea, are:

*English will be important for my future career; English will help me get a better job; English will help me get a job abroad; English will help me pass my exams/ perform my academic research; English will help me when travelling abroad; Studying English can be important for me because I think it will someday be very useful/useful/ neutral/ useless in getting a good job. English is going to be needed for: explaining/ giving information/ asking for information, negotiations, making presentations/ writing texts/ reading reports/ email/ internet use/ traditional correspondence/ talking on the phone/ face-to-face communication.*

Integrative motivation is considered to be the wish to learn a foreign language only for the sake of it, of finding out more about the culture, mentality and values of the people speaking it. Thus, it is an inner force or motive within the individual which pushes him/her to perform certain behaviour. This type of motivation can make an individual have the feelings of self-confidence and competence. A student who is intrinsically motivated may carry out a task because of the enjoyment he/she derives from such a task.

The following set of questions was meant to depict the integrative motivation of students:

*Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language. My priorities at the English course are: personal development/ communication skills/ improving pronunciation/ improving grammar issues. Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with other people who speak English. Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.*

Developmental or personal motivation refers to motivation relating to "personal development or personal satisfaction", comprising leisure time activities, meant to fulfill you at the very personal level: listening to /understanding music, watching movies and reading books in English (Cooper and Fishman, 1977:243).

Instrumental, integrative and personal reasons will count when identifying the economics students' type of motivation in the process of learning the English language.

Here are the questions aimed at identifying students' developmental motivation.

*In your spare time you prefer: watching movies in English/ reading books/ reading newspapers/ magazines/ researching topics for academic tasks/ your hobbies/ your specialization. When working on-line you prefer: discussion lists, browsing dictionaries/ encyclopedias/ reading online books/ watching movies/ chatting and socializing.*

## **2.2. Responsibility**

*Responsibility* means duty, obligation to perform a task in such a way as to be able to meet certain imposed requirements, and which has a consequent penalty in case of failure. Anderson and Prawat consider that responsibility is a two sided story: it has "both visible components (behavior) and invisible components (cognition, affect, and attitude)" (Anderson and Prawat, 1983:62-66).

The traditional educational pattern sees the teacher, who passes the knowledge, to be the only one in charge of the process of learning, taking full responsibility for the success or failure of the process. Nevertheless, this attitude brings along students'

passivity and fails to stimulate their active participation in the teaching/learning process. Thus, it has been argued by more and more authors that the responsibility of learning should reside increasingly with the learner who clarifies his/her own understanding and that s/he does not simply mirror and reflect what s/he reads (E. von Glaserfeld, 1989:162-163).

In order to successfully learn, students should be put in charge of their own education. Teachers have to encourage students to take greater responsibility in their instruction by facilitating their access to resources, expectations, and opportunities for contribution and collaboration. This attitude determines not only a sane educational process, but it also builds the profile of the modern student: a mature, creative, responsible person, who is involved in life-long development of own abilities. In the new setting, the characters play reversed parts: the student is the subject of the process, fully responsible for his/her learning, whereas the teacher turns into the facilitator of the learning process, he/she is no longer the only source of knowledge. According to A.B. Knox, "active interest and participation are likely in the cases when students help to set aims, to make decisions, to select tasks" (Knox, 1985). The development of self-confidence and responsibility will foster better results for the performed activity and, as D. E. Schrader states, giving possibility to choose the way and content of studies determines the high quality of learning (Schrader, 1999:37-55).

Questions regarding the presence/ lack of responsibility in students' learning habits:

*During the English classes I prefer working: in a pair (peer-work), in a team (team-work), alone, on the computer. Your work/ activity during the English class should be assessed by the teacher/ by the computer/ by another person. English classes should focus more on: reading exercises/ writing tasks/ conversation on a given topic/ presentations/ grammar exercises/ vocabulary exercises.*

### **3. Purposes of the work**

- a. Investigating the reasons behind satisfactory/ less satisfactory learning performance in English of university students at the Faculty of Economic Studies, University of Oradea, in order to improve the level of proficiency.
- b. Substantiation of responsibility development possibilities in communicative English learning classes.

### **4. Tasks of the work**

The investigation of students needs for foreign language studies; to determine the motives of foreign language learning and fields of its use; to analyze the methods of foreign language learning; to discuss the responsibility development possibilities in practical foreign language classes.

### **5. Methodology of the work**

#### **5.1. Methodology - Figures and Tables**

The research is based on the research carried out at the beginning of 2012. To achieve the objective of the study, a questionnaire was used. The respondents -

the 1st and 2<sup>nd</sup> year students from the Faculty of Economics, University of Oradea, enrolled in the academic year 2011-2012. Traditionally it is believed that students of the Faculty of Economics have a good knowledge of English and a logical thinking well anchored in the economic and social reality.

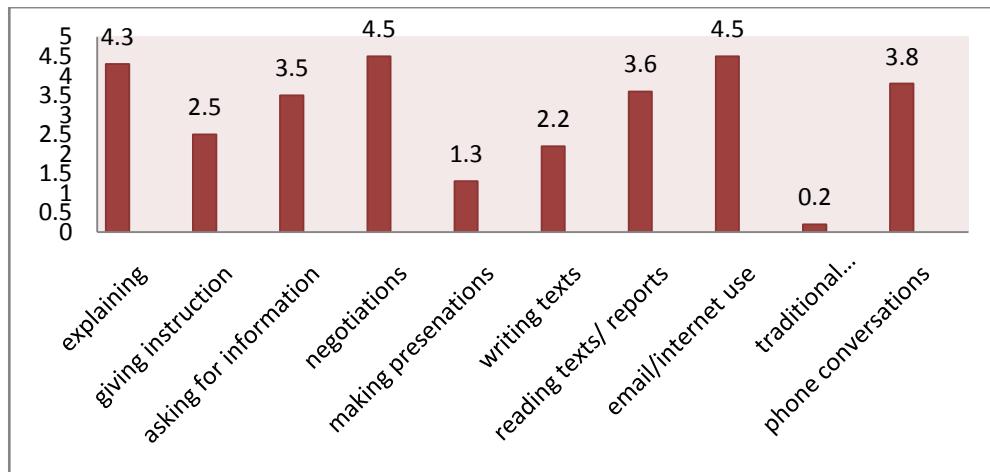
At the Faculty of Economics, University of Oradea, the curriculum provides three years of instruction that qualifies the students to graduate with a BA degree in Economics. All students are taught a two year course of English (general issues in the first year and Business English in the second year). Later on, if they choose, they can study Business Correspondence in the third year. Out of the total number of students enrolled, 70 first and second year students were selected as a sample to fill in the questionnaire.

## 5.2. Results

The questionnaire was meant to determine the motives of foreign language learning; the foreign language skills students consider to be important for their professional carrier; the fields of language activity that are essential for students as future specialists; the foreign language teaching/learning method that is the most acceptable for students and the advantages of this method.

The analysis of the collected data revealed the students' need for foreign language studies.

The questionnaire asked students to assess the following motives of foreign language learning: use for future professional career, need in everyday academic activity (to perform academic research, pass the exams), for getting a job abroad, travel abroad.



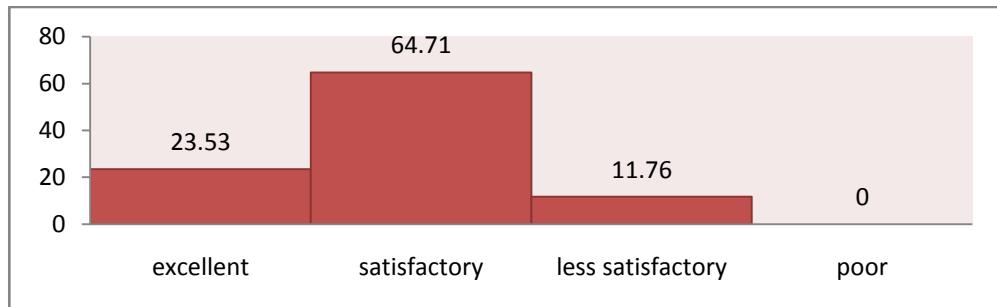
**Figure1.** Types of motivation

Source: Authors' investigations

Figure1. depicts the three types of motivations all the stated reasons fall into: *instrumental motivation*, *integrative motivation* and *developmental motivation* with the resulted percentages. From the three motivational constructs, the instrumental motivation received the highest scores of all the subjects' results. For example, the students highly favoured learning English for the purpose of getting a job or as an

aid for their future carrier as this reason had received the highest score. Learning English to perform their academic tasks or research was followed next in order).

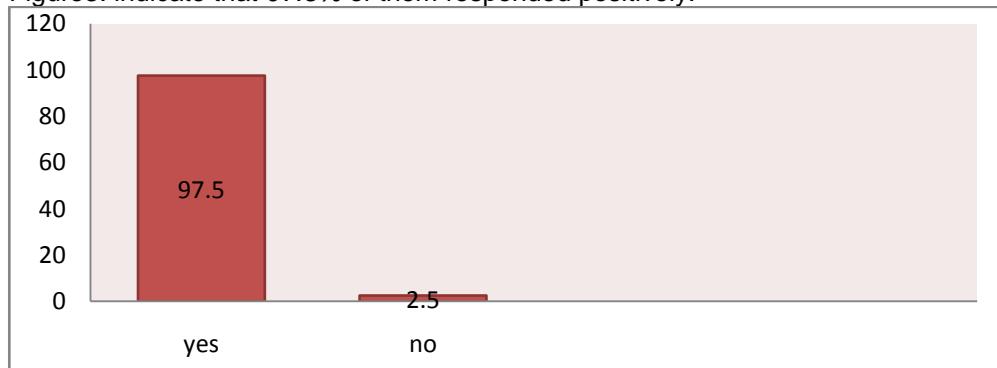
The analysis of responses about the most important fields of foreign language application (Figure 2.) showed that students are truly aware of the need of English in the future, and that they can imagine themselves in various foreign language related situations where different abilities are needed.



**Figure 2.** English is going to be needed for

Source: Authors' investigations

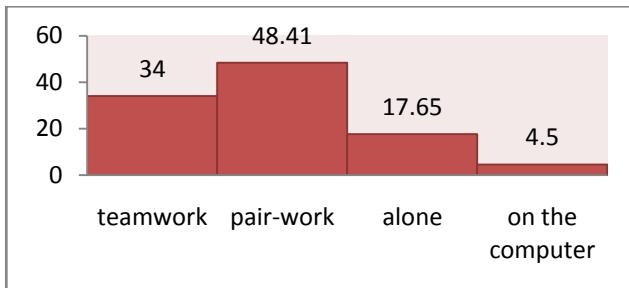
Given the multitude of reasons to learn the English language, students were asked to specify their own opinions to the idea of attending more English language training courses that would help them improve their proficiency. The results in Figure 3. indicate that 97.5% of them responded positively.



**Figure 3.** How do you rate your English proficiency?

Source: Authors' investigations

The analysis of the students' opinions about learning individually and in groups showed that the greatest scores were given to learning in pairs, followed by teamwork; the analysis of students' attitude towards work enables us to distinguish two aspects: the willingness to assume responsibility while working and carrying tasks as well as the self-development as personality. Approximately half of the respondents indicated that they preferred pair work and 34% were for teamwork which reveals the fact that students are more secure when sharing responsibility in solving exercises. Students agreed that teamwork determined the development of creative thinking and collaboration.



**Figure 4.** During English classes I prefer working:

Source: Authors' investigations

## 6. Conclusion

The present study was conducted to identify the type of motivation, the attitudes and degree of responsibility that lie behind the performance in English language acquisition of students in economics. The results demonstrate the students' emphasis on instrumental motivation for learning the English language (getting a job, performing academic tasks etc.). This stresses the idea that students see English as playing a vital role in their lives, either at present or in the future. This conclusion is relevant as students seem prepared to face the status of English as the international language of science and technology since resources, books, papers, handbooks, journals, etc. written in English are included in their reading lists. Moreover, the English language is one of their most valuable resources in the labour market.

Among the important achievements of the study we should mention the observations of students' behaviour concerning responsibility. It appears that most students are not ready to take complete responsibility for learning. They are either afraid of the teacher, or feel embarrassed, and are ashamed to openly utter their ideas. Thus, teamwork and pair-work facilitate the effective learning how to use of the foreign language and encourage students' collaboration. The teacher is not the central actor, the controller anymore; s/he becomes the facilitator and source of knowledge. To conclude, it is important for the teacher to know the basic needs of his/her students and cater for these according to level of their importance, to be aware of the reasons that propel students towards learning to be aware of the reasons that propel students towards learning, improving or just surviving English as a foreign language. Students' views and needs have to be respected, so their confidence boosts and develops, the attitude grows positive, and motivation activates, which are all the necessary ingredients for the successful language course.

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## **HUNSRIK LËRNE ‘HUNSRÜCKISCH LERNEN’. DIALEKTUNTERRICHT IN DER DEUTSCHEN SPRACHINSEL SÜDBRASILIENS**

## **HUNSRIK LËRNE ‘LEARNING HUNSRÜCKISCH’. TEACHING THE DIALECT IN A SOUTH BRASILIAN LANGUAGE COMMUNITY**

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**Abstract:** The didactic description of the language islands has been very little noticed in research so far. The literature concerning the German didactics in that field must be seen as poor. Especially the speakers of German as a minority language outside of Europe, as the Hunsrik (Hunsrückisch) in Southern Brazil, get hardly recognized. The main focus of this article lies on this dialect enclave. The theoretic perspectives as well as the empiric ones, try to get to the bottom of the major aspects of teaching methodologies of minority languages. The aim of this paper is to portray the sociolinguistic context of the Hunsrik, focalizing on its usage amongst children growing up in a bilingual environment. Secondly it pictures possibilities how German as a dialectal minority language can be integrated in school. For this purpose the experiences of Project “Hunsrik” from Santa Maria do Herval were taken into account. Before the detailed description of the situation of Hunsrik in an educational environment, the introducing chapters give a short overview of this German variety. Further on the reasons for the decrease of competence and frequency of usage of the dialect in German minorities are discussed, considering especially the situation of language islands overseas. The aspect of bilingualism, which is considered to be a constitutional part of members of a linguistic enclave, is taken into account. The third chapter discusses the advantages of language courses for members of German dialect language islands. The purpose and the content of teaching the mother tongue of members of language islands are highlighted in this chapter. The aims of teaching the first language in an educational environment are the propagation of the variety, the empowerment of minorities and the transmission of cultural identity of linguistic enclaves and of their original homeland. The following chapter presents the materials that were published by the team “Hunsrik” so far. They can be seen as an important contribution to the propagation of that variety and the empowerment of its speakers.

**Keywords:** German language island in Southern Brazil; Hunsrik (*Hunsrückisch*); dialect teaching; educational material; language and culture cultivation; bilingualism

## **1. Einleitung**

### **1.1. Übersicht über Hunsrückisch in Brasilien**

Die deutsche Sprache wird insgesamt auf sechs Kontinenten der Welt gesprochen, darunter auch in mehreren Ländern Südamerikas. Der Fokus des vorliegenden Beitrags liegt auf der brasilianischen Sprachinsel des Deutschen. Je nach Quelle schwankt die Anzahl ihrer VertreterInnen zwischen 700.000–900.000 (vgl. Altenhofen, 1996: 56) und zwei Millionen (vgl. Bost, 2012: 42), von denen viele den südlichsten Bundesstaat, Rio Grande do Sul, bewohnen. Deutsch in Lateinamerika geht auf die erste Hälfte des 19. Jh. und die damals in die Wege geleitete deutsche Auswanderung nach Brasilien zurück. Die Möglichkeit der Immigration nach Südamerika nahmen Leute aus dem gesamten deutschsprachigen Raum in Anspruch, die zahlreichste Gruppe kam aber aus dem Hunsrück (vgl. Altenhofen, 1996: 14). Obgleich erstens „Hunsrück“ ein rein geographischer Begriff ist und zweitens die regionalen Varietäten, die auf seinem Gebiet gesprochen werden, Mosel- und Rheinfränkisch heißen, bildet der Hunsrück die morphologische Basis für die Bezeichnung der deutschen Sprachinsel in Brasilien: Hunsrückisch. Diese kann, wie in Maselko (vgl. 2013a: 47–48) vorgeschlagen, als *Transcontinental Interdialect Area* spezifiziert werden, weil sie einerseits durch den Atlantik von europäischer Urheimat getrennt ist und somit keinen Kontakt zu dem Standarddeutschen bzw. gegenwärtigen deutschen Dialekten, sondern lediglich zu dem Brasilianischen Portugiesisch als umgebender Amtssprache aufweist und andererseits weil sie sich durch Einflüsse mehrerer Dialekte kennzeichnet. Die sprachliche Heterogenität der EinwanderInnen trug nämlich zur Entstehung einer neuen Varietät bei, wobei hervorzuheben ist, dass die von ersten und zahlreichsten MigrantInnen repräsentierten Dialekte, also Mosel- und Rheinfränkisch, im Ausgleichsprozess dominant waren und somit positiver selektiert wurden als andere. Hunsrückisch, das erst mit Altenhofen (1996) zum *Terminus technicus* der Varietätenlinguistik wurde, lässt sich als eine Art lokaler Standard klassifizieren.

### **1.2. Projekt „Hunsrik“ und Fragestellung**

Das in Santa Maria do Herval laufende Projekt „Hunsrik“ setzte sich zum Ziel, einen Beitrag zur Erhaltung, Anerkennung und Verbreitung des Hunsrückischen in Südamerika zu leisten. Wichtig für die Bewahrung und Förderung einer Sprachvarietät in einem großteils anderssprachigen Umfeld, wie es Hunsrückisch gegenüber dem Portugiesischen in Brasilien darstellt, ist v. a. auch die orthographische Kodifizierung. Die Ergebnisse der vierjährigen Arbeit an der Vereinheitlichung des Schreibsystems werden ausführlich in Wiesmann (2008) präsentiert. Zu den weiteren Erfolgen zählen u. a. Integrierung des Hunsrückischen in den Volksschulunterricht, Ernennung zum Kulturerbe in jenen Regionen Brasiliens, in denen der deutsche Dialekt gesprochen wird, und Eintragung in den Weltsprachenkatalog *Ethnologue*.

Im Folgenden wird näher auf einen ausgesuchten Tätigkeitsbereich der Arbeitsgruppe „Hunsrik“ eingegangen, und zwar den schulischen Unterricht, an dem hunderte Kinder aus der Gemeinde Santa Maria do Herval täglich teilnehmen.

In diesem Betreff ist zu hinterfragen, welche Methoden bzw. Themen für den Unterricht ausgewählt werden. Von besonderem Interesse sind zudem die Lehrmaterialien, die speziell entwickelt wurden und in der Lehre regelmäßig eingesetzt werden. Weiters stehen Probleme bzw. spezielle Bedingungen, die typisch für eine Sprachinselsituation sind und mit denen LehrerInnen alltags konfrontiert werden, zur Diskussion.

## 2. Grundlegende Probleme und Rahmenbedingungen

### 2.1. Schwundprozess

Seitdem die ersten deutschsprachigen AuswanderInnen nach Brasilien gekommen waren, vergingen schon fast zweihundert Jahre. So eine lange Zeitspanne bewirkte, dass sich nicht nur fast lediglich mündlich tradiertes Hunsrückisch selbst veränderte, sondern, aus der Sicht der Sprachdynamik quantitativ und qualitativ betrachtet, sich auch die Anzahl der SprecherInnen und deren Kompetenzniveau verringerten. Darüber hinaus wuchs im Laufe der hunsrückischen Sprachgeschichte der Anteil an Personen, die den Dialekt nur passiv beherrschen, wodurch sich analog zu anderen Sprachinseln die Sprachfunktionalität einschränkt und der Dialektgebrauch großteils nur mit strikten Diskursdomänen verbunden ist. Wie die aktuelle Studie zur Eigeneinschätzung der Dialektkompetenz ergibt, stufen v. a. junge Menschen der postadoleszenten Phase ihre Dialektkenntnisse niedrig ein. 20–29jährige dürfen schlimmer als mäßig und nur etwas besser als schlecht Deutsch sprechen. Nur geringfügig mächtiger des Dialekts sind SprecherInnen mit Geburtsjahren 1974–1983 (vgl. Maselko, 2013a: 79–80).

Die beobachtbare Rückgangstendenz der Dialektkompetenz und -gebrauchsfrequenz hat zur Folge, dass seitens deutschbrasilianischer Kultur- und Sprachvereine wie auch der Bundesuniversität von Rio Grande do Sul Initiativen in die Wege geleitet werden, die zur Förderung des deutschen Sprachinseldialekts in Brasilien beitragen sollen. Das bestehende Problem wird heutzutage teils auch von Eltern selbst erkannt, die sich entweder nicht ausreichend kompetent finden, um den Dialekt an ihre Kinder weiterzugeben oder dem Hunsrückischen lange Zeit ein negatives Bild zuwiesen und es als „schlechtes, nicht richtiges, fehlerhaftes, verfälschtes, einfaches, anderes, [...] nicht verständliches oder mit Brasilianisch gemischtes Deutsch“ (Maselko, 2013a: 77) konnotierten. Aus diesem Grund verzichtete man auf die innerfamiliäre Konversation im Dialekt. Diese Erscheinung tritt auch heute noch auf, scheint sich aber mit der Zeit abzuschwächen. Einen Einfluss darauf üben bestimmt regionale deutschfreundliche Medien, einige Bildungseinrichtungen bzw. lokale Verwaltungen aus. Diese versuchen die Theorie zu widerlegen, dass Kinder in der portugiesischen Amtssprache erzogen werden sollen, damit sie künftig keine Schwierigkeiten in der Kommunikation mit der landesweit größeren Gruppe der Nicht-Deutschsprechenden haben und sich stilistisch wie auch grammatisch korrekt auf Portugiesisch verständern. Das Absehen vom Tradieren des Deutschen im Alltag bewirkt, dass potenzielle NeusprecherInnen die Varietät ihrer Vorfahren nur aus Erzählungen viel älterer Generationen kennen, diese aber höchstens fragmentarisch verstehen können und gleichzeitig unfähig sind, sich mündlich und umso mehr schriftlich auszudrücken (vgl. Maselko, 2013b: 151).

## **2.2. Bilingualismus**

### ***2.2.1. Sonderfall Sprachinsel***

In einer Sprachinsel stößt man auf ein besonderes Modell der Mehrsprachigkeit, worauf auch Knipf-Komlósi (2008: 52) hindeutet: „Für Sprachinselsprecher[Innen] in der Gegenwart ist ihre Mehrsprachigkeit etwas Selbstverständliches, genauso wie für viele in mehrsprachigen Ländern und Gebieten aufwachsenden Menschen.“ So kann man in Hinblick auf Südbrasilien sagen, dass die Minderheitensprache Deutsch heutzutage nicht von der umgebenden, jedoch nicht überdachenden Amtssprache Portugiesisch abzutrennen ist, während es noch im ersten Jahrhundert nach der Einwanderung keine Selbstverständlichkeit war. Spuren davon sind vereinzelt noch heute bei SprecherInnen ältester Generationen nachweisbar.

Die bilinguale und zugleich bikulturelle Kompetenz der HunsrückerInnen hat ihre Basis in einer lebendigen sprachlich-kulturellen Dauer-Kontaktsituation, mit welcher SprecherInnen ständig konfrontiert werden. Die Koexistenz und das Aufeinanderwirken beider Sprachen lassen sich sogar als Existenzbestimmungen einer Sprachinsel ansehen (vgl. Knipf-Komlósi, 2008: 52). Wie in Maselko (vgl. 2013a: 44) betont, treten Hunsrückisch und Portugiesisch parallel auf und nicht als Konkurrenzvarietäten. Beide geben nämlich die Möglichkeit zur sprachlichen Äußerung; für den Einsatz einer bestimmten Form scheint eine Reihe von soziolinguistischen Aspekten wie „Gesprächspartner[In], Domäne (Tätigkeitssphäre, wie z. B. Familie, Arbeit, Schule), Thema, Ort, Interaktionstyp (wie z. B. Rede, Geschäftsverhandlung, freundschaftliches Gespräch), Rollenverhältnis“ (Clyne, 1980: 642) eine Rolle zu spielen.

### ***2.2.2. Vor- und Nachteile***

An der Wende des 19. Jh. wurde die Zweisprachigkeit als Nachteil empfunden und daher zur Einsprachigkeit angeregt. Es ging hierbei v. a. um politisch ausgerichtete Beiträge, soziökonomische Theorien und auf Intelligenztests beruhende Studien. Die gegenwärtige Forschung zeigt jedoch, dass Mehrsprachigkeit und Intelligenz separat zu behandeln sind. Zugleich wird bewiesen, dass sich bilinguale Personen u. a. durch schnellere Trennung von Form und Inhalt, höhere verbale Kompetenz und hohe Reflexionsfähigkeit kennzeichnen (vgl. Clyne, 1980: 642). Die Mehrsprachigkeit ist also als potenzielle Ressource anzusehen, die von Bilingualen ausschließlich für eigenen Mehrwert zu halten ist und von der nicht nur eine zweisprachige Person selbst, aber auch ihre nahe Umgebung wie Familie, Schule, Arbeit profitieren kann. Derzeit wird besonders viel von der Mehrsprachigkeit im schulischen Kontext diskutiert. Unbestritten ist, dass SchülerInnen in ihrer Mehrsprachigkeit unterstützt werden sollen. Sie haben sich nicht nur sicher und wohl zu fühlen, wenn sie eine andere Varietät wie Amtssprache gebrauchen, sondern auch ausreichend viele Möglichkeiten zu erhalten, sich in der Muttersprache zu äußern. Wie aktuelle Studien ergeben, können bilinguale Kinder einfacher mit fremden Formen der Kultur, Sprache etc. umgehen. Weiters ermöglicht ihnen die Sprachvariation eine mentale Flexibilität bzw. Vielseitigkeit,

die u. a. bei der Entwicklung der Ebenen wie Abstraktion, Verallgemeinerung und Kreativität eine wichtige Rolle spielen (vgl. Gonçalves, 2003: 55–56).

### **3. Dialekt im Schulunterricht**

#### **3.1. Fachdidaktik deutscher Sprachinseln**

Die modernen Bildungsinstitutionen Südbrasiliens haben dialektfördernde Aktivitäten durchzuführen und somit Vorurteile einiger deutschsprachiger Familien zu bekämpfen, welche, wie oben geschildert, den Verzicht auf die Dialektweitergabe mit der Eliminierung der Gründe zur Scham gleichsetzen. Keinesfalls gehört es aber zu den einfachen Aufgaben, die EingeborenenSprache zu pflegen und zu verbreiten, damit sie noch weitere hunderte Jahre erhalten bleibt. Einen besonders schwierigen Aspekt stellt im diesem Zusammenhang der Dialektunterricht dar. Da es nur sehr wenig Fachliteratur, eigentlich ausschließlich Artikel, zur Sprachdidaktik in deutschen Sprachinseln, und schon gar nicht zum Hunsrückischen gibt, müssen diejenigen, denen die Dialektpopularisierung am Herzen liegt, auf eigene Faust handeln, was, wie bereits Knipf-Komlósi (2008: 52) beobachtet, mit einer Vulnerabilität verbunden ist, „die den Sprecher[Inne]n viel Energie und Aufwand zur Erhaltung und Bewahrung der indigenen Sprache und Identität abverlangt.“ Allerdings dank engagierter Kräfte wie der MitarbeiterInnen des hier vorgestellten Projekts „Hunsrik“ können die Prognosen zum Dialektverfall, die auch aus dem geschlossenen europäischen Raum des Deutschen bekannt sind und bereits beinahe zur Tradition der germanistischen Dialektologie zählen, nicht in Erfüllung gehen. Die Dialektalität, inkl. kindlicher Dialektalität, variiert ebenfalls in Brasilien je nach Ort oder Gebiet. Allerdings auch wenn man Areale in Betracht zieht, in denen fast kaum mehr Sprachinseldialekt gesprochen wird, also v. a. Mittel- bis Großstädte wie Porto Alegre, scheint, für Südbrasiliens gesehen, der totale Schwund des Deutschen in naher Zukunft unrealistisch zu sein. Dazu hat auch die Institution Schule bedeutsam beizutragen.

Die Notwendigkeit des Angehens der Dialektfrage seitens der Bildungseinrichtungen ist unumstritten. Die Schule soll Kindern die Möglichkeit verschaffen, ihre Sprachkompetenz zu vervollkommen, und die Fähigkeit beibringen, unterschiedliche sprachliche Register im eigenen Interesse situationsabhängig einzusetzen. Die besondere Berücksichtigung jener Varietäten, die einen Teil der Familiengeschichte ausmachen bzw. nach wie vor daheim verwendet werden, muss einen festen Platz im Schulcurriculum einnehmen (vgl. Niebaum und Macha, 2006: 208). Hierbei soll außerdem hervorgehoben werden, dass der spezifische Deutschunterricht bzw. der auf Deutsch gehaltene Unterricht in einem beliebigen Sachgegenstand keinesfalls rein sprachfördernd zu betrachten sind. Der Dialektunterricht vermittelt viel mehr Werte und interdisziplinäres Wissen als man vielleicht auf den ersten Blick glaubt. Diesbezüglich darf v. a. der geschichtlich-soziale Aspekt nicht stillschweigend übergangen werden. „Sprache ist Sein im Werden und Werden im Sein [...]. Sie ist statisch und dynamisch zugleich und damit der wahre Ausdruck menschlicher Wesenheit. [...] Sie ist ein Haus im Raum und ein Fluß in der Zeit, immer beides zusammen, immer konstant und fluktuierend in einem“ (Fausel, 1959: 3). Mittels der Sprache kann man sich also nicht nur aktiv an Prozessen der Gegenwart beteiligen, sondern auch das bereits geschichtlich Gewordene, das gemeinsam Erlebte, abbilden.

Deutsch in Südbrasiliien fungiert als Bindeglied zwischen Generationen, als Basis der gemeinsamen Geschichte von EinwanderInnen und deren Nachkommen. Der Dialekt erfüllt daher eine identitätsstiftende Funktion, indem er Hunsrückisch-SprecherInnen ermöglicht, sich als Deutsche, DeutschbrasilianerInnen oder KolonistInnen zu definieren. Dieses Phänomen trifft auch die jüngste Generation zu, und zwar v. a. dort, wo sprachfördernde Maßnahmen getroffen werden. So kann auch als Ziel des Dialektunterrichts angesehen werden, bei Lernenden einen „stärkeren persönlichen Bezug[-] zur Minderheit selbst, mittelbar zur deutschen Sprache und Kultur in einer anderen Rolle“ (Müller und Knipf-Komlósi, 2012: 216) herauszubilden. Idealerweise behandelt man im Unterricht volkskundliche Themen und verbindet diese mit Spracherlebnissen in und mit dem Dialekt, wodurch Lernende einen erlebten Bilingualismus ihrer Vorfahren und den Nutzbarkeitswert des Deutschen erfahren (vgl. Müller und Knipf-Komlósi, 2012: 215). Zusammenfassend lassen sich folgende Ziele des Dialektunterrichts in deutschen Sprachinseln definieren: aktiver Dialektgebrauch, Gewinn der Einblicke in die Struktur und Funktion von Sprache, Pflege und Erhalt der MinderheitenSprache und -kultur, Entfaltung und Stärkung der Minderheitenidentität, Kennenlernen der Geschichte und Kultur der Sprachinsel und Urheimat.

## 3.2. Hunsrückisch-Unterricht in Rio Grande do Sul

### 3.2.1. Rahmenbedingungen

Die Einführung des Hunsrückisch-Unterrichts geht auf die Initiative „Option für Dialekt Hunsrückisch“ aus 2004 zurück. Die ersten Schritte in Richtung Eingeborenen- bzw. Muttersprachenunterricht wurden aber erst ein paar Jahre später getan. Im Februar 2011 fand das erste Weiterbildungsseminar für KindergartenbetreuerInnen und LehrerInnen aus Santa Maria do Herval und Umgebung statt, die zukünftig Hunsrückisch unterrichten sollen. Insgesamt 24 Personen bekamen von erfahrenen PädagogInnen des Teams „Hunsrik“ wertvolle Hinweise, wie sie in ihrer Unterrichts- bzw. Betreuungstätigkeit zu handeln haben, um Kinder in deren Sprachentwicklung zu unterstützen und die Zweisprachigkeit zu fördern. In Santa Maria do Herval und ein paar anderen Gemeinden Rio Grande do Suls erweist es sich nicht nur als empfohlen, sondern geradezu als nötig, weil diese einen Sonderfall darstellen und es dort fast kaum Kinder gibt, die Deutsch zumindest auf dem Basisniveau nicht beherrschen.

Der spezifische Dialektunterricht im Ausmaß von einer Wochenstunde fing im August 2011 an, betreut wurden 15 Klassen an drei Schulen, was eine Lernendenzahl von etwa dreihundert ausmacht. Diese Verhältnisse bleiben bis heute erhalten, nur mit dem Unterschied, dass im April 2013 eine zweite Lehrerin angestellt wurde, was nach sich eine Aufteilung der Unterrichtsstunden zog. Die Sprachausbildung ist für sechs Schulstufen geplant, beginnend ab der Vorschulkasse mit Fünfjährigen und endend in der 5. Klasse der Volksschule mit Zehnjährigen. Im Juni 2013 ging das zweite Weiterbildungsseminar zum Hunsrückisch-Unterrichten vonstatten, an dem großteils dieselben Lehrkräfte teilhatten, wie vor etwas mehr als zwei Jahren. Lehrende nutzten die gegebene Chance und tauschten im Forum ihre bisherigen Erfahrungen mit dem Einsatz des Dialekts in ihrem Sprach- bzw. Fachgegenstandsunterricht aus. Im Rahmen des Seminars wurde zudem die Publikation *Klasik Literatur: Kexichte Puuch fer Khiner in te Hunsrik Xprooch* ‚Klassiker der Literatur: Geschichtebuch für Kinder auf

Hunsrückisch' konzipiert. Diese soll aus den ins Hunsrückische übersetzten Texten der deutschen „Kanonliteratur“ bestehen und zum Ziel haben, SchülerInnen, die bereits ein zufriedenstellendes Niveau in Fertigkeit Lesen erreichten, für die interdisziplinäre Sprachinselthematik zu sensibilisieren und primär in literarischer und historischer bzw. sekundär in sprachlicher Bildung zu unterstützen.

Der Notwendigkeit des Deutschunterrichts sind nicht nur die in der Gemeinde Santa Maria do Herval tätigen Lehrpersonen bewusst, sondern auch die *Prefeitura* 'Gemeindeverwaltung'. Die lokale Verwaltung hält die in der Region gesprochene Varietät des Deutschen für eine wertvolle Ressource, auf die man stolz sein kann, aber gleichzeitig nicht vergessen darf, sie zu pflegen. Demzufolge wurde im Februar 2009 vom Bürgermeister Santa Maria do Hervals ein Dekret darüber erlassen, dass bis in die 4. Klasse der Volksschule 50 % des Unterrichts, und zwar unabhängig vom Gegenstand, im hunsrückischen Dialekt abgehalten werden kann. Insofern unterscheidet sich die Gemeinde Santa Maria do Herval von einigen anderen im Bundesstaat Rio Grande do Sul, die den Wert des Deutschen völlig unterschätzen. Auf solcher Politik basierend können die MitarbeiterInnen des Projekts „Hunsrik“ auch mit dem Zuschuss aus öffentlichen Mitteln rechnen. Die Verwaltung zahlt den Gehalt zweier angestellter Lehrerinnen, stellt Transport und alle nötigen Büromaterialien zur Verfügung. Ohne Unterstützung seitens der Regierenden wäre die Sprach- und Kulturpflege im schulischen Kontext nicht möglich, ggf. nur in beschränktem Umfang. Hilfe leisten ebenfalls SchuldirektorInnen, selbst MuttersprachlerInnen des Hunsrückischen, die sich sehr bemühen, damit Lernende deutschen Ursprungs die Möglichkeit haben, ihre Migrationssprache und -geschichte besser kennenzulernen.

### **3.2.2. Lehrstoff und Unterrichtsgestaltung**

Kinder eignen sich im Rahmen des Unterrichts auf der einen Seite alle aus modernen Curricula bekannten Sprachfertigkeiten wie Sprechen, Schreiben wie auch Lese- und Hörverstehen an. Sie bekommen von Lehrpersonen populärwissenschaftliche bzw. literarische Texte vorgelegt, die zunächst (vor)gelesen und nachher intensiv diskutiert werden. Dabei wird explizit auf das neue bzw. aus morphophonologischen Gründen schwer zu erlernende Vokabular eingegangen. Sollte die Dialekttrainerin einen Text vorlesen, ohne ihn zuvor an SchülerInnen zu verteilen, wird die Hörfähigkeit der Kinder gefördert. Lernende werden sowohl nach dem Inhalt als auch nach der bereits behandelten Lexik und Grammatik gefragt, was darauf abzielt, zum einen das Verstehen eines gehörten Textes zu messen und zum anderen den Wortschatz und Grammatikkenntnisse der Kinder zu festigen. Der gelesene oder gehörte Text hat eine weiterführende Aktivität zu evozieren. Dieser wird als Anreiz zur mündlichen oder schriftlichen Sprachproduktion verstanden. Als ihre möglichen Formen sind Gruppen- und Klassenforumdiskussion, Auffassung eines Textes, wie z. B. einer Postkarte, Zusammenfassung oder Fortsetzung, und Posterausarbeitung aufzuführen. Ähnliche Aufgaben verbindet man auch mit Bildern, die als ein divergentes, hier leicht verständliches, da viele Möglichkeiten offenlassendes Medium, besonders intensiv sinnliches Wahrnehmen, Vorwissensaktivierung, Interpretationsvermögen und schließlich Sprechfertigkeit und -motivation fördern.

Auf der anderen Seite setzen SchülerInnen sich mit ihrem deutschen Kulturerbe auseinander. Behandelt werden Themen wie Festlichkeiten, Glaube, Geschichte, familiäre Alltagsgewohnheiten, Musik, Literatur mit Schwerpunkt auf Kinder- und

Jugendliteratur, Malerei, Architektur, Gastronomie usw. Eine besondere Bedeutung wird jedoch dem geschichtlichen Aspekt zugewiesen, weil es zu erwarten ist, dass durch Kenntnis der Migrationsgeschichte die Rolle der deutschen Sprache und gleichzeitig die individuelle Einstellung der Kinder zu ihr aufgewertet werden. Weiters lässt sich feststellen, dass durch den sprachlich-historischen Unterricht die innerfamiliären Verhältnisse und somit die Relationen zwischen Generationen gefestigt bzw. verbessert werden. Kinder werden nämlich zum Kultauraustausch ermutigt, indem sie die Aufgaben bekommen, die großteils auf die Konversation zu den geschichtlichen, volkskundlichen, sprachlichen und kulturellen Themen mit anderen Familienmitgliedern abzielen. SchülerInnen haben viel Freude und Spaß damit, denn sie können persönlich die familiäre bzw. volkstümliche Geschichte „erforschen“, während sich Eltern bzw. Großeltern aufgewertet fühlen, weil sie somit die Möglichkeit bekommen, einen Teil ihrer Lebenserfahrung bzw. Sprachkompetenz wie Dialektlesen und -schreiben mit der jüngsten Generation zu teilen. Durch die Auseinandersetzung mit den Aspekten der EinwanderInnengeschichte wird freilich nicht nur die individuelle Kompetenz der Lernenden erweitert, sondern auch das kollektive Kulturerbe gefördert.

## 4. Unterrichtsmaterial

### 4.1. Ausgangslage und Grundsätze

Die Pflege einer Migrationssprache unter Kindern fordert ein geeignetes, mit der sozialen, kulturellen und sprachlichen Situation des Zielpublikums und -orts einhergehendes, d. h. auf eine bestimmte Sprachinsel bezogenes Unterrichtsmaterial. Da die Lehrmittel, trotz beinahe zweihundertjähriger Geschichte des Deutschtums in Südbrasiliens, nicht vorhanden waren, mussten sie zuerst erstellt werden, was aber bestimmt nicht zu den leichten Aufgaben zählt. Auf diesen Umstand deutet Silvia Dal Negro (vgl. 2012: 196) hin, die in Hinblick auf alemannische Dialekte Nordwestitaliens eine Reihe von Problemen aufzählt, mit welchen man bei der Lehrmaterialentwicklung konfrontiert wird. Das sind u. a. die territoriale Zerstreuung, die reduzierte Sprachkompetenz sowie die Normunsicherheit. Aus diesem Grunde ist es notwendig, über eine Art Ortsgrammatik zu verfügen, die v. a. das dialektale Schreiben regelt. Die Bearbeitung des Graphembestands und exakter Rechtschreibregeln war daher eine der ersten Aufgaben der Arbeitsgruppe „Hunsrik“. Die entwickelte Schreibweise, welche auf dem phonetisch-phonologischen System des den meisten Hunsrückisch-SprecherInnen sehr gut vertrauten Portugiesischen basiert, gilt als Ausgangspunkt für viele dialektalisierte Lehrmaterialien, die im Zuge des Projekts „Hunsrik“ erschienen. Anzumerken ist, dass auch die vereinzelten Dialektangaben in diesem Artikel nach orthographischen Regeln der Arbeitsgruppe „Hunsrik“ gemacht werden. Nicht nur die innovative Schreibweise, die ausführlich in Maselko (vgl. 2013b: 167–176) besprochen wird, sondern auch die Inhalte und das Layout wurden in den herausgebrachten Lehrmitteln so ausgewählt, damit sich die Zieladressaten der meisten Publikationen, Kinder und Jugendliche, mit ihnen identifizieren können. Dem Projektteam war von besonderer Relevanz, dass die erschienenen Materialien mit dem Kompetenzumfang junger SprecherInnen einhergehen und auf sie unkompliziert bzw. gebrauchsfreundlich wirken. Die klare und nachvollziehbare Struktur der Lehrmittel hat die im bilingualen Milieu

aufwachsenden SchülerInnen anzureizen und einzuladen, aus diesen Nutzen zu machen und ihre sprachliche bzw. historisch-soziologische Kompetenz zu festigen bzw. wünschenswert zu erweitern. Im weiteren Sinne kann damit erwartet werden, dass Kinder, die ihre aus dem Haus mitgebrachte Varietät womöglich unterschätzen, dieser einen anderen, positiven, Wert verleihen (vgl. Maselko, 2013b: 151).

#### **4.2. Vorstellung**

Auf Anregung des Projektteams „Hunsrik“ wurden verschiedenste Materialien herausgegeben, die sich primär an Kinder und Jugendliche richten und sehr gut im schulischen Kontext angewandt werden können. Neben einem Bildwörterbuch, in dem auch die selbst entwickelten Rechtsschreibregeln erklärt werden, handelt es sich hierbei um literarisierte Texte unterschiedlicher Gattungen wie Comics, Gedichte, Sprüche und Bibelgeschichten. Alle haben einerseits zur Wortschatzerweiterung und Beherrschung der Dialektgrammatik und andererseits zum Kennenlernen des historisch-kulturellen Hintergrunds der deutschen Einwanderung beizutragen. Weitere Ziele wurden bereits in den vorangegangen Kapiteln definiert.

2009 erschien der erste Teil des Comics *Nutrinho* unter dem Titel *Nutrinho keet in ti xuul* ‘Nutrinho geht in die Schule’. Die Fortsetzung *Em xrëklich Rees* ‘Eine schreckliche Reise’ wurde ein Jahr später veröffentlicht. In beiden Publikationen wird von Ereignissen erzählt, die zum kindlichen Alltag gehören. Das Zielpublikum ist also mit den Themen, die dort angesprochen werden, bestens vertraut. Die Gattung Comic zeigt sich als erfolgreiche Methode, das Gesprochene abzubilden und somit die Beziehung zwischen einzelnen Generationen der Sprachinselgesellschaft zu stärken. LeserInnen treffen hier auf zahlreiche Interjektionen, Ellipsen und den parataktischen Stil. Beide Hefte lassen sich hervorragend für den Wortschatzunterricht sowie die Vermittlung grammatischer Inhalte wie Tempus-Modus-Aspekt, Personal- und Possessivpronomina, Konjunktionen sowie Interrogativsätze anwenden. Durch die Umsetzung originaler, primär in Dialekt verfasster Texte vermittelt man Lernenden eine kreative und lebendige Verwendung der Sprache (vgl. Dal Negro, 2012: 198).

Die nächste Publikation aus dem Jahre 2010 trägt den Titel *Mayn éyerste 100 Hunsrik wérter* ‘Meine ersten hundert Hunsrückisch-Wörter’. Es handelt sich um ein für Kinder geschaffenes Bildwörterbuch, das einerseits, aus funktionaler Perspektive, als ein normativ-präskriptives Gebrauchswörterbuch und andererseits, unter dem Blickwinkel des Umfangs bzw. der Struktur betrachtet, als großlandschaftliches onomasiologisches Handwörterbuch zu klassifizieren ist. Das herausgegebene Wörterbuch verschafft den JungsprecherInnen des Hunsrückischen die Möglichkeit, in Unsicherheitsfällen nachzuschlagen, wie ein unbekanntes Wort im Dialekt lautet, wie man es richtig ausspricht bzw. wie es nach neu konzipierten graphematisch-orthographischen Regeln verschriftlicht werden kann. Aufgrund des beschränkten Umfangs lassen sich im Wörterbuch natürlich nicht alle gesuchten Wörter finden. 118 Einträge bilden jedoch einen guten Ausgangspunkt für die weitere Auseinandersetzung mit dem Dialekt. Wie sich im bisherigen Unterricht erwies, kann das Wörterbuch sowohl bei Fließendsprechenden als auch denjenigen SchülerInnen in Anspruch genommen werden, die zwar aus einer Familie deutscher Abstammung kommen, aber nur sehr geringe Dialektkenntnisse nachweisen. Für die ersten gilt das Werk als

Festigungs- bzw. Wiederholungsmaterial, für die zweiten als Lehrbuch und eine Art ABC-Buch. Die Auflagenhöhe betrug zwölftausend Exemplare, welche in vielen Orten Rio Grande do Sul ausgeteilt wurden. Zehntausend davon wurden für SchülerInnen gewidmet und zweitausend für Lehrkräfte (vgl. Maselko, 2013b: 153–156).

Innerhalb von zwei Jahren, 2010–2011, erschienen zwei Bücher, die es ermöglichen, den katholischen Religionsunterricht im Dialekt abzuhalten und ihn interdisziplinär mit dem lexikalisch-grammatischen Sprachtraining zu verbinden. Die erste Publikation *Piiplike Kexichte: Mit Pilter: In Hunsrik – User Taytx* ‘Biblische Geschichten: Mit Bildern: In Hunsrückisch – Unserem Deutsch’ beinhaltet 80 auf Hunsrückisch verfasste bzw. ins Hunsrückische übersetzte Bibelgeschichten, die sich besonders gut für etwas ältere SchülerInnen mit bereits sicheren Dialektkenntnissen eignen. Das zweite Buch mit dem Titel *PiiplikeAventuure* ‘Biblisches Abenteuer’ richtet sich an kleinere Kinder. Die in vier illustrierten Erzählungen verwendete Lexik wurde so ausgewählt, dass sie auch für SchülerInnen der ersten Klassen mit wenig Aufwand verständlich ist und sie demzufolge nicht von der Befassung mit dialektalen Inhalten entmutigt. Wie Dal Negro (2012: 196) feststellt wird mit der eher selten angewandten Methode der lokalen Wiedergabe von berühmten Texten der Weltliteratur ein Versuch gemacht, „dem Dialekt literarische Modelle anzubieten, um eine [regionale] Standardsprache aufzubauen, die nicht unbedingt an die lokale Welt gebunden sein muss“.

Das letzte 2012 publizierte Buch *Hunsrücksprüche* ist ein Abdruck der in der ersten Hälfte des 20. Jh. gesammelten Sprüche aus der Region Hunsrück. Teils dialektale, teils standardsprachliche Kurztexte wurden von HerausgeberInnen zusätzlich in zwei weitere Sprachvarietäten übertragen, sodass eine dreisprachige Sammlung entstand. Es handelt sich um Hunsrückisch, Standarddeutsch und Portugiesisch. Der hunsrückische Text wird zudem auf zweierlei Arten dargestellt, erstens nach den der Standardsprache ähnlichen Schreibregeln und zweitens gemäß den vom Arbeitsteam „Hunsrik“ entwickelten Richtlinien. LeserInnen können von der kontrastiven Publikation sehr gut profitieren. Sollten sie gewisse Schwierigkeiten mit dem dialektalen Text haben, haben sie die Chance, eine unverständliche Passage mit der portugiesischen Übersetzung abzugleichen. Diese Art der Herausgabe fördert die Mehrsprachigkeit bei SchülerInnen, indem dem Dialekt zumindest derselbe Wert wie den Standardvarietäten des Deutschen und Portugiesischen verliehen wird. Inhaltlich gesehen, liefern die Texte jede Menge Informationen über Sitten, Traditionen, Esskultur und Alltagsgewohnheiten der deutschen Urheimat, die die ersten AuswanderInnen nach Brasilien mitbrachten. Für SchülerInnen bedeutet die Auseinandersetzung mit dem Buch die beste Möglichkeit, die Geschichte ihrer Vorfahren kennenzulernen.

## 5. Schlussfolgerung

Die Varietätenvielfalt des Deutschen innerhalb und außerhalb des deutschsprachigen Raums Europas muss als ungewöhnlicher Kulturschatz angesehen werden. Einen Teil dieses Sprach- und Kulturerbes bildet die Sprachinsel des Hunsrückischen in Südbrasilien, welche aber wie andere indigene Varietäten des Deutschen, v. a. jene in Übersee, besondere Förderung benötigt. Wie in diesem Artikel am Beispiel des südbrasilianischen Projekts „Hunsrik“ nachgewiesen, zeigt sich als ratsam, auch die Institution Schule in die Initiativen

zur Pflege der Sprachinseldialekte zu involvieren. Erhalt und Verbreitung der Minderheitensprache, Vermittlung von Geschichte und Kultur der Sprachinsel und Urheimat bzw. Stärkung der sozialen Identität sollen nicht nur als Ziele speziell gegründeter Vereine fungieren, sondern auch als wichtige Zwecke lokaler Bildungseinrichtungen und Verwaltungen. Es sollen Kindern aus den AuswanderInnenfamilien optimale Bedingungen geschafft werden, die Sprache, Geschichte und Kultur ihrer Vorfahren auch im schulischen Umfeld kennenlernen zu können. Die Schule hat meistens bilingual und bikulturell aufwachsende Kinder zur aktiven Teilnahme am Leben einer Sprachinsel einzuladen wie auch sie von Vorteilen der Mehrsprachigkeit und dem Wert des Deutschen zu überzeugen. Man darf dabei aber die Qualität des Sprach- und Kulturunterrichts nicht vergessen. Von großer Bedeutung ist, Weiterbildungsseminare für Lehrkräfte zu organisieren, an denen neben SprachtrainerInnen auch LehrerInnen der Sachgegenstände teilhaben, weil der Dialektunterricht nicht nur in speziellen Stunden stattfinden soll. Weiters ist über die Lehrinhalte und die für ihre Vermittlung benötigten Materialien akkurat nachzudenken. Ihre Themen sind so auszuwählen, dass sie erstens dem Wissensumfang und Interesse der SchülerInnen entsprechen, zweitens in Verbindung mit der Sprachinsel bzw. Urheimat stehen und drittens formenreich sind sowie die interdisziplinäre Bildung, die sowohl die fachliche als auch sprachliche Dimension berücksichtigt, ermöglichen. In Rio Grande do Sul erweisen sich u. a. Geschichte, Kultur, Kunst und Religion als gut geeignet. Eine wichtige Rolle im Lern- und Lehrprozess spielt zudem der Aspekt der Rechtsschreibung. Obgleich die Sprachinseldialekte wie Hunsrückisch in Südbrasilien an sich nur mündlich tradiert sind, ist als Erleichterung für SchülerInnen, die sich mit dialektalen Inhalten auseinandersetzen, zu betrachten, über ein vereinheitlichtes Schreibsystem zu verfügen, das den BenutzerInnen keine Schwierigkeiten bereitet.

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# ILLUSTRIERENDE UND PERSÖNLICHKEITSENTWICKELNDE FUNKTIONEN VON BILDERN IM DAF-UNTERRICHT

## PICTURES AS ILLUSTRATION AND A MEANS FOR PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT IN TEACHING GERMAN AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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**Abstract:** *The following article focuses on pictures and their functions in teaching German as a Foreign Language. The questions of the article are based on two approaches, namely on the cognitive turn and the communicative turn. In spite of the fact that they led to certain developments, they had also some negative consequences. The cognitive turn focuses less on individuals in foreign language teaching and the communicative turn focuses on intellectually simpler learning materials. The major question of the article is how these deficits can be reduced. The article considers the conscious application of pictures to be a potential way of overcoming the shortages. Several German as a Foreign Language coursebooks will be analysed from the following points of view: What aims is the application of pictures based on? To what extent do coursebooks try to integrate the emotional and intellectual dimensions of the teaching and learning process? Among different functions of pictures, the function of pictures for personality development will be especially highlighted because secondary school students are in a period in which they need a certain kind of value based orientation. The reason for choosing pictures as a possible way of achieving these aims is that today's students are surrounded by pictures everywhere. Day by day they come across different pictures which obviously have an effect on them. Foreign language teaching is supposed to consider these facts and intensify the reflection on the functions of pictures. New approaches need to be developed because pictures can function not only as illustration but they can also contribute to students' intellectual and emotional enrichment. With the help of the coursebook analysis, the article intends to give an answer to the question whether the chosen coursebooks use pictures' full potential they offer for personality development. The article proposes the hypothesis that the chosen German as a Foreign Language coursebooks have deficiencies in exhausting all of the potential offered by pictures because they disregard pedagogical aims. The article will prove this hypothesis because the majority of the pictures is used for illustrative or semantic purposes but not for supporting students' personality development. Through a presentation of theoretical guidelines and practical suggestions the article intends to show that a combination of texts and pictures can reduce the deficits caused by the cognitive and communicative turn.*

**Keywords:** fachübergreifende Zielsetzungen; kognitive Wende; kommunikative Wende; Bilder; Persönlichkeitsentwicklung.

**Keywords in English:** educational and pedagogical aims; cognitive turn; communicative turn; pictures; personality development.

## **1. Ziele des Fremdsprachenunterrichts. Ein Überblick über die Anforderungen in Ungarn**

Die Zielsetzungen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts haben sich während der Geschichte der Fremdsprachendidaktik kontinuierlich gewandelt (vgl. Henrici, 2001: 843). Grundlegende Veränderungen in den Zielsetzungen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts hat der kommunikative Ansatz in der Mitte der 1970er Jahre mit sich gebracht. Im Mittelpunkt der Zielvorstellungen des kommunikativen Ansatzes steht die Fähigkeit der Lernenden, sich in der Zielsprache zu verständigen und in verschiedenen Lebenssituationen sprachlich angemessen handeln zu können (vgl. Eintrag von Faistauer, in Barkowski und Krumm, 2010: 158). Dieses theoretische Konzept findet sich auch im *Gemeinsamen europäischen Referenzrahmen* (vgl. Trim et. al., 2001: 21) (im Weiteren als ‚GER‘ abgekürzt), der bei der Formulierung der Zielsetzungen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts als vorrangiges Dokument gilt. Dieses Dokument geht von der Vorstellung aus, dass Kommunikation soziales Handeln ist und Sprachlernende vor allem als sozial Handelnde betrachtet werden sollen.

Da sich die vorliegende Arbeit auf den DaF-Unterricht im ungarischen Kontext beschränkt, sollen die ungarischen bildungspolitischen Dokumente bei der Feststellung der Zielsetzungen in die Analyse einbezogen werden. Unter ihnen ist der *Nationale Grundlehrplan 2012* (vgl. Borókainé, 2012) (im Weiteren als ‚NAT 2012‘ abgekürzt) am wichtigsten, da die dort festgelegten allgemeinpädagogischen Zielsetzungen für das ganze ungarische Schulwesen gelten. Das Dokument beschreibt die Zielsetzungen, die die Lehrenden der einzelnen Fächer während des Lehr- und Lernprozesses verwirklichen sollen. Zuerst sollen die Zielsetzungen untersucht werden, die für den Fremdsprachenunterricht vorgeschrieben sind. Diese Ziele sind die folgenden: Förderung der kommunikativen Kompetenz, der interkulturellen Kompetenz, der IKT-Kompetenz und der Lernstrategien. Unter diesen Zielen hat aber die Förderung der kommunikativen Kompetenz einen besonderen Stellenwert (vgl. Borókainé, 2012: 10685 f.).

Diese Zielsetzungen, unter denen in erster Linie die Förderung der kommunikativen Kompetenz und der Handlungskompetenz gefasst werden, werden als fachspezifisch betrachtet, da sie die Sprachkenntnisse und die Entwicklung der fachlichen Kompetenzen der Lernenden betreffen. Der Fremdsprachenunterricht besitzt jedoch eine andere Dimension. Der Artikel hält sich an eine Zweiteilung dieser Dimensionen. In der einen Dimension sollen die fachspezifischen Zielsetzungen verwirklicht werden, in der anderen sollen Ziele realisiert werden, die die Persönlichkeit der Lernenden betreffen und deswegen erzieherische Ziele genannt werden können. Sie beziehen sich auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht und alle anderen Fächer. Der *Nationale Grundlehrplan* gibt auch klare Hinweise hinsichtlich dieser erzieherischen Dimension. Die wichtigste Aufgabe der öffentlichen Erziehung ist, die nationalen Werte und die universalen Kulturgüter weiterzugeben und die geistig-emotionale Empfindungsfähigkeit zu vertiefen. Außerdem soll sie zur Entwicklung solcher Fähigkeiten beitragen, die für die Entfaltung einer harmonischen Persönlichkeit unentbehrlich sind (vgl. Borókainé, 2012: 10637).

Aus den oben dargestellten Dokumenten geht hervor, dass der Fremdsprachenunterricht zahlreiche Aufgaben leisten soll. Über die Vermittlung von Sprachkenntnissen und Förderung der kommunikativen- und Handlungskompetenz der Lernenden hinaus soll er auch erzieherische Ziele realisieren. In der Komplexität der Ziele und Erwartungen bestehen neue Herausforderungen, die gegenüber dem Fremdsprachenunterricht gestellt werden.

## **2. Schwierigkeiten bei der Umsetzung der komplexen Ziele**

### **2.1 Auswirkungen der kognitiven Wende**

Die Erfüllung der dargestellten Zielsetzungen ist jedoch nicht problemlos. Ein Phänomen, das bei der Umsetzung von komplexen Zielen eine Schwierigkeit bereitet, ist die kognitive Wende und ihr Einfluss auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht. Die kognitive Wende hat die Leistung des Gehirns und das Lernen als einen kreativen Prozess in den Mittelpunkt der Aufmerksamkeit gestellt (vgl. Surkamp, 2010: 132-133). Die Vorstellungen der kognitiven Psychologie vom Menschen und Lernen haben das Verständnis vom sprachlichen und fremdsprachlichen Lernen weitgehend beeinflusst und haben das früher existierende behavioristische Bild von Lernenden völlig umgekehrt. Es besteht daher kein Zweifel, dass der bedeutendste Ertrag der kognitiven Wende die Akzentverschiebung war, die in der Entstehung der Lernerinnenzentriertheit resultiert hat (Bausch, 1982: 14, in Schmid-Schönbein, 1998: 162).

Die kognitive Wende hat aber auch negative Tendenzen mit sich gebracht. Krumm (1998: 114-116) beklagt, dass Kognition in einem zu starken Maße in den Vordergrund der Fremdsprachendidaktik gerückt wird. Die kognitionswissenschaftliche Orientierung der Erforschung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts hat zur Vernachlässigung zentraler Faktoren, wie beispielsweise der emotionalen und sozio-kulturellen Dimension des Fremdsprachenlernens geführt.

Ein Fremdsprachenunterricht, der sich auch allgemein-pädagogische Ziele setzt, kann sich aber mit einer solch verkürzten Orientierung nicht zufriedenstellen: Eine Integration von Kognitions- und Emotionsforschung soll daher angestrebt werden. Eine kognitive Wende hat sich schon vollzogen, die die Fremdsprachenforschung und den Fremdsprachenunterricht hin zu einer einseitigen Orientierung verschoben hat. Im vorliegenden Artikel wird von Zimmermanns (1998: 210-211) These ausgegangen, wer neben der kognitiven Wende auch für die Notwendigkeit einer 'emotionalen Wende' plädiert. Eine neue Sichtweise, in der der Mensch sowohl in seiner Kognition als auch in seiner Emotionalität erfasst wird und in der der Fremdsprachenunterricht unter Berücksichtigung dieser zwei Dimensionen durchgeführt wird, liegen die Chancen für eine Erneuerung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts (vgl. Schwerdtfeger, 1997: 599).

### **2.2 Auswirkungen der kommunikativen Wende**

Der andere Ausgangspunkt des Artikels ist die kommunikative Wende, über die ab den 1970er Jahren gesprochen wird (vgl. Feld-Knapp, 2009: 60). Dieser Ansatz hat den Fremdsprachenunterricht einerseits positiv beeinflusst. Grundprinzipien wie beispielsweise die Angemessenheit im Hinblick auf die gewählten Textsorten und Situationen, Simulationen, Projekte, Situiertheit der Aktivitäten, sprachliches

Handeln, kreatives Schreiben und Rollenspiele wären heute ohne die kommunikative Wende nicht selbstverständlich (vgl. Rösler, 2008: 116). Andererseits hat aber die kommunikative Wende auch einige Nachteile mit sich gebracht. Der starke Fokus der Lehrwerke auf ritualisierte Alltagssituationen kann nicht unbedingt als ein Fortschritt bewertet werden (vgl. Kwakernaak, 1992: 12, in Rösler, 2008: 124). Die größten Nachteile sind im Bereich des Verhältnisses von Form und Inhalt und von kommunikativer Orientierung zur Bildung und Erziehung entstanden (vgl. Rösler, 2008: 117). Feld-Knapp (2009: 62-63) hebt auch hervor, dass sich besonders große Defizite bei der praktischen Umsetzung der Prinzipien des kommunikativen Ansatzes im Bereich der Erziehung und Bildung zeigen. Eine Unterrichtspraxis, die diese intellektuelle und erzieherische Lücke schließen will, setzt eine Orientierung an Piephos Definition (Piepho, 1974: 35) von Sprachunterricht voraus. Er hat Sprachunterricht folgenderweise definiert: 'Sprachunterricht ist demnach nicht nur ein Fertigkeitserwerb im engeren Sinne, sondern ein Erziehungsvorgang, der die gesamte Persönlichkeit eines Schülers ansprechen und erziehend verändern muss.' Die Einbeziehung von Inhalten und der erzieherischen Dimension dürfen also keinesfalls vernachlässigt werden, weil der Fremdsprachenunterricht viel mehr auf der menschlichen Ebene anbieten kann als das bloße Einüben von Redemitteln (vgl. Bredella, 2008: 61).

### **3. Bilder im Fremdsprachenunterricht**

#### **3.1 Bilder im Fremdsprachenunterricht im Überblick**

Trotz der oben dargestellten Schwierigkeiten öffnen sich Lösungen. Es wird hier davon ausgegangen, dass Bilder und ihre Anwendung in der Praxis die bisher genannten Defizite ausgleichen können. Bevor über die Rolle von Bildern berichtet wird, soll es geklärt werden, dass Bilder im Sinne der folgenden Definition verstanden werden. Nach Toman (2006: 143) ist ein Bild eine „flächige, visuelle Darstellung eines begrenzten Ausschnitts von realen Gegebenheiten, eines Originals oder von imaginären Sachverhalten.“

Die Verwendung von Bildern im Sprachunterricht blickt auf eine lange Tradition zurück. Eine ausführliche Darstellung der Geschichte von Bildern in der Fremdsprachendidaktik gehört nicht zu den Schwerpunkten des vorliegenden Artikels. Es ist aber wichtig anzumerken, dass die kommunikative Didaktik als ein Meilenstein während dieser Geschichte zu bezeichnen ist. Nach der Bildabstinenz und der Bildmonotonie der audiovisuellen und audiolingualen Phase kam nämlich eine plötzliche Vielfalt der Bildverwendung (vgl. Sturm, 1991:5). Die Behandlung von Bildern war aber unzulänglich: Der Weg zur Bilddeutung wurde ausgeklammert. Später wurde erkannt, dass die kompetente Bildinterpretation auch Gegenstand des Fremdsprachenunterrichts sein muss (vgl. Lademann, 1993: 148, in Hecke und Surkamp, 2010: 21).

Gegenwärtig lässt sich ein Wandel im Umgang mit Bildern im Fremdsprachenunterricht beobachten. Dieser Wandel wurde von der starken Medialisierung unserer Welt hervorgerufen und dies führte zu einem Überdenken der Rolle und Funktionen von Bildern im fremdsprachlichen Klassenzimmer. Zur verstärkten Reflexion trug auch eine Wende, die sogenannte *iconic turn* in den 1990er Jahren bei. Diese 'visuelle Zeitenwende' (Frey, 1999: 27, in Hecke und Surkamp, 2010: 22) beinhaltete eine Verschiebung vom Text zum Bild.

Die Tatsachen, dass Bilder uns überall begegnen und visuelle Botschaften einen wichtigen Teil unserer Alltage bilden, begründet die Relevanz der eingehenden Untersuchung der Bedeutung von Bildern für die Lernprozesse. In der heutigen, stark von Bildern geprägten Welt soll die Funktion von Bildern durchdacht werden. Dabei sollen neue Wege der Verwendungsmöglichkeiten entdeckt werden. Dieses Thema behandeln die folgenden Unterabschnitte.

### **3.2 Funktionen von Bildern im Fremdsprachenunterricht**

Die Funktionen und Verwendungsbereiche von Bildern sind zahlreich. Einige von ihnen wird auch dieser Artikel behandeln. Der vorliegende Artikel sucht aber in erster Linie Antworten auf die Frage, wie Bilder in einer Unterrichtspraxis, die fachübergreifende Zielsetzungen realisieren will, einzusetzen sind. Hier wird von Hallets (2010: 33-39) Kategorisierung ausgegangen, wer insgesamt sechs Funktionen von Bildern unterschieden hat. Diese sind die folgenden:

- die *illustrative* Funktion (Bilder als bloße Beigabe zu einem fremdsprachlichen Text);
- die *semantische* Funktion (Bilder als Vermittler von neuen Bedeutungen und Sachverhalten);
- die *repräsentative* Funktion (Bilder zum landeskundlichen Lernen)
- die *kognitive* Funktion (Bilder zur Darstellung von sprachlichen Strukturen und Phänomenen);
- die *instruktive* Funktion (kodierte Piktogramme der Lehrwerke);
- die *ästhetische* Funktion (Behandlung der Bilder als visuelle und ästhetische Texte).

Wie die Funktionen, so sind auch die didaktischen und methodischen Konsequenzen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht vielfältig (vgl. Hallet, 2010: 52). Die eingehende Auseinandersetzung mit den Funktionen von Bildern soll in einem verantwortlichen und bewussten Umgang mit Bildern in der Unterrichtspraxis resultieren und die Gestaltung anspruchsvoller Lehrwerke sowie die Entwicklung von zusätzlichen Unterrichtsmaterialien befördern.

### **3.3 Beitrag von Bildern zur Persönlichkeitsentwicklung**

Das von Bildern angebotene Potential ist unerschöpflich. Der vorliegende Artikel bestätigt diese Tatsache, indem sie die oben vorgestellte Liste von Hallet (2010: 33-39) noch mit einer zusätzlichen Funktion, mit der persönlichkeitsentwickelnden Funktion von Bildern ergänzt. Eine gründliche Analyse dieses Potentials von Bildern bedarf zunächst einer Definition der Persönlichkeitsentwicklung. Unter Persönlichkeitsentwicklung versteht das vorliegende Unterkapitel die „Stärkung von Selbstbewusstsein, Sozialkompetenz und Teamfähigkeit“ (Beschlüsse der Kultusministerkonferenz. Bildungsstandards im Fach Deutsch für den Mittleren Schulabschluss. Beschluss vom 4.12.2003, in Frederking, 2010: 421). Wenn über Bilder in ihrer persönlichkeitsentwickelnden Funktion gesprochen wird, geht es darum, ob Bilder nur einen rein dekorativen Charakter haben, oder auch dazu eingesetzt werden, SchülerInnen in ihrer Persönlichkeit anzusprechen und Fragen bezüglich ihrer Lebenswelt zu stellen (z. B. Werden SchülerInnen im Zusammenhang des Themas Konflikte dazu bewegt, über ihren eigenen Umgang mit Konflikten und ihre eigenen Erfahrungen zu reflektieren oder nicht? (siehe dazu Beispiele im 5.2)). Im vorliegenden Artikel wird eine Verbindung zwischen

Emotionen und Persönlichkeitsentwicklung gesucht. Indem Lernende nicht nur in ihrer Kognition sondern auch in ihrer ganzen Persönlichkeit angesprochen werden, wird ihre Gefühlswelt aktiviert. Da können sich Lernende mit ihren Gefühlen konfrontieren und etwas Neues über sich selbst erkennen.

Eine grundlegende Voraussetzung für eine persönlichkeitsentwickelnde Arbeit mit Bildern ist, dass sie nicht ausschließlich auf der Ebene der Beschreibung behandelt werden (vgl. Wenrich, 2010: 225). Bilder dürfen nicht als bloße Träger von Informationen angesehen werden; sie können viel mehr leisten, wenn eine reflexive Beschäftigung mit ihnen im Unterricht erzielt wird.

Als eine andere wichtige Voraussetzung für eine solche Arbeit – und auch für die Verwirklichung fachübergreifender Zielsetzungen – gilt das richtungsweisende Prinzip der SchülerInnenorientierung. Ein Einsatz von Bildern, der sich die Persönlichkeitsentwicklung von Lernenden zum Ziel setzt, soll offensichtlich Lernende in den Mittelpunkt stellen. Es soll ein Kontakt zwischen den Lernenden und dem Bild zustande kommen, in dem Lernende die Hauptfiguren sind. Sie sollen das Bild betrachten und es auf sie wirken lassen. Es soll in diesem Prozess berücksichtigt werden, dass jeder Lernende an das Bild von seinem/ihrem eigenen Erfahrungshintergrund herangeht (vgl. Grätz, 1997: 6).

Nach der Auffassung von Hosch und Macaire (1991: 21) werden sogenannte mentale Schemata (d. h. das Wissen über Dinge, die in unserem Erfahrungsbereich häufig auftreten) während der Betrachtung aktiviert. Da diese Schemata individuelle Unterschiede aufweisen, ist es wichtig, dass Lehrende SchülerInnen in ihrer ganzen Persönlichkeit behandeln, mit ihrem Wissen und ihrem diversen Erfahrungshintergrund, die zu verschiedenen Bilddeutungen führen können. In einer solchen Attitüde liegt ein möglicher Weg zur Auflösung der stark kognitiven Orientierung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts.

Die Arbeit mit Bildern endet aber mit ihrer Betrachtung und Wahrnehmung natürlich noch nicht. Ein Bild ist nämlich viel mehr als ein Produkt der Wahrnehmung. Die aktiven Lernenden, die das Bild betrachten, kreieren ihre eigenen Bildvorstellungen (vgl. Singer, 2004: 70, in Michalak, 2012: 109), denn Bildbedeutung wird von den RezipientInnen in einem Prozess konstruiert. Dabei sollen RezipientInnen dessen bewusst werden, dass Bilder nie die Wirklichkeit an sich sind, sondern nur Interpretationen der Wirklichkeit. Das wirkt sich auf die Vorgehensweise bei der Erschließung der Bedeutung von Bildern aus. Eine erfolgreiche Bildanalyse beachtet nicht nur die Absichten des Bildproduzenten, sondern auch die Bildbedeutung, die von BildrezipientInnen selbst aufgebaut wird (vgl. Scholz, 2004: 140, in Michalak, 2012: 109).

Im Folgenden wird untersucht, welche Wege der Persönlichkeitsentwicklung sich durch die ganzheitliche Behandlung von Lernenden und Bildern öffnen. Aus der oben genannten Definition des Begriffs Persönlichkeitsentwicklung folgt, dass sich dieser Prozess in zwei Dimensionen vollzieht. Persönlichkeitsentwicklung kann einerseits mit dem Selbst, andererseits mit der sozialen Umgebung verbunden werden. Dementsprechend werden hier die Ich- und die Wir-Dimension eingeführt. Ausgehend von dieser Zweiteilung wird das Potential von Bildern untersucht.

Während der ersten Begegnung mit einem Bild realisiert sich die Ich-Dimension. Eine Beziehung entsteht zwischen den Lernenden und dem Bild, wobei Lernende angeregt werden sollen, die folgende Frage zu stellen: Was hat dieses Bild mit mir zu tun? Damit wird die Wahrnehmung auf eine persönlich Ebene gebracht. In diesem Prozess geht es darum, dass Lernende ermuntert werden, sich als

Individuum mit den eigenen Erfahrungen, Kenntnissen und Gefühlen auf einen Dialog mit dem Bild einzulassen. Indem Lernende Berührungspunkte suchen und auf Bilder persönlich reagieren, entdecken sie nicht nur etwas über das Bild selbst, sondern auch etwas über sich selbst und über die eigene Denkweise (vgl. Heuer, 1997: 14). Dabei können Lernende zu neuen, wichtigen Erkenntnissen über sich selbst kommen. Lernende sollen dabei bewusst zur eigenen Reflexion motiviert werden.

Die Persönlichkeitsentwicklung findet aber nie isoliert statt und endet nicht mit der Ich-Erfahrung. Bilder ermöglichen eigene Assoziationen und Interpretationen, die weit über die eigene Person hinausgehen. Das wesentliche Moment besteht darin, dass Lernende ihre Eindrücke und Reaktionen nicht für sich selbst behalten, sondern auch angeregt werden, in einen Dialog mit anderen zu treten. Das Merkmal von Bildern, dass sie eine Tendenz zur Mehrdeutigkeit aufweisen, ist häufig der Grund für den gegenseitigen Austausch von Gedanken (vgl. Sturm, 1991: 6). So initiieren Bilder und ihre Wirkungen interessante und ergiebige Gespräche, wodurch Lernende neuen Perspektiven begegnen und erfahren, dass man Dinge auch ganz anders sehen kann. Solche Begegnungen sind hervorragende Möglichkeiten zur besseren Selbsterkenntnis, und sie öffnen gleichzeitig auch Türe zu anderen Mitmenschen im Klassenzimmer. Lernende können auch erkennen, dass Unterschiede, die entdeckt werden, etwas mit der eigenen Person und dem eigenen sozio-kulturellen Hintergrund zu tun haben. In diesem Prozess ist es nach Heuer (1997: 14) wichtig, Folgendes zu beachten: 'Es geht dabei nie um ein „richtiges“ oder ein „falsches“ Sehen, sondern um das Interesse an anderen Sichtweisen, die vielleicht die eigene ergänzen, verändern oder bereichern können.'

Bilder können ohne Zweifel ein Mittel zur Persönlichkeitsentwicklung von Lernenden sein. Durch die Behandlung von Bildern können sich Lernende mit ihrem eigenen Selbst und mit neuen Sichtweisen auseinandersetzen und dabei Eigenes und Fremdes entdecken. Der Fremdsprachenunterricht, der den Anforderungen des *Nationalen Grundlehrplans 2012* (vgl. Borókainé, 2012) gerecht werden will, soll dieses Potential von Bildern ausschöpfen.

## 4. Empirische Untersuchung

### 4.1. Darstellung der Arbeitsmethode

Um einen Einblick über die Verwirklichung allgemein-pädagogischer Zielsetzungen im DaF-Unterricht an ungarischen Schulen zu bekommen, wurden Lehrwerke untersucht, weil sie Kenntnisse über die Funktionen von Bildern liefern können. Natürlich kann man dadurch keine weitgehenden Informationen über die Geschehnisse im Klassenzimmer gewinnen, weil außer den Lehrwerken noch andere, von der Lehrperson selbst entwickelte Lehrmaterialien genutzt werden können. Lehrwerke erfüllen aber wichtige Funktionen im Lehr- und Lernprozess, deshalb kann ihre tiefgehende Analyse aufzeigen, wie sie mit ihrer Herangehensweise an Bilder zur Persönlichkeitsentwicklung beitragen.

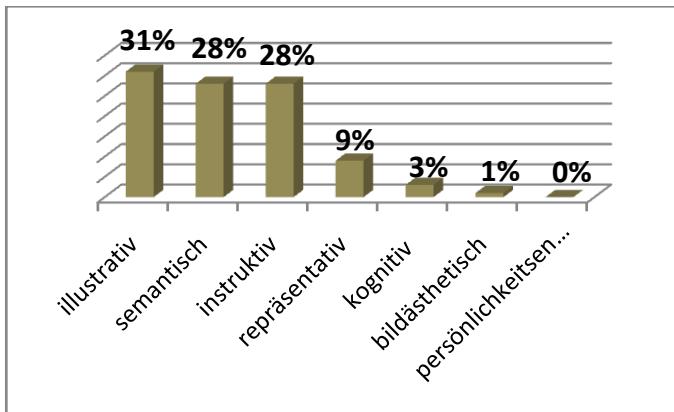
### 4.2 Ergebnisse der Lehrwerkanalyse

Die ausgewählten sechs DaF-Lehrwerke aus zwei Lehrwerkfamilien orientieren sich an den Prinzipien des kommunikativen Fremdsprachenunterrichts. Der

Schwerpunkt der Lehrwerkanalyse wird auf der Frage liegen, wie viele Bilder und zu welchen Funktionen diese Lehrwerke einsetzen. Da eine spezielle Funktion von Bildern im Mittelpunkt dieser Arbeit steht, werden die Lehrwerke auch unter dem Aspekt analysiert, ob sie das Potential, das Bilder zur Persönlichkeitsentwicklung anbieten können, ausreichend ausschöpfen. Dabei wird die Hypothese aufgestellt, dass die ausgewählten Lehrwerke eine Vielzahl von Bildern einsetzen, wobei die illustrative Funktion überwiegt. Das Potential von Bildern, das zur Persönlichkeitsentwicklung von Lernenden beitragen könnte, wird nicht ausgeschöpft.

Der Grund für die Auswahl dieser Lehrwerke ist einerseits die Tatsache, dass sie heute weit verbreitet sind und daher die Unterrichtspraxis widerspiegeln können. Die Analyse basiert auf die Funktionen von Bildern, die Hallet (2010: 33-39, siehe im 3.2) vorschlägt. Außer den von Hallet vorgeschlagenen Funktionen wurde auch eine zusätzliche Funktion, die persönlichkeitsentwickelnde Funktion in die Analyse einbezogen (Was genau unter der persönlichkeitsentwickelnden Funktion von Bildern verstanden wird, siehe genauer im 3.3.). Die Analyse konzentriert sich in erster Linie auf die Lehrbücher, weil sie im Bereich der Bilder eine vorrangige Rolle spielen und bei der Planung und Durchführung des Lehr- und Lernprozesses ein bedeutenderer Faktor sind. Die Analyse weist dann auf die Ergebnisse einer Untersuchung hin, deren Schwerpunkt auf der Menge und Funktionen von Bildern in den einzelnen Lehrwerken liegt. Im Rahmen dieser Untersuchung wurden die Bilder (Zeichnungen, Fotos, Kunstbilder) in jedem Lehrwerk gesammelt und ihrer Funktion (vgl. Hallet, 2010) zugeordnet. Unten wird in zwei Diagrammen dargestellt, wie viele Bilder zu welcher Funktion gehören. Eine eindeutige Zuordnung war in mehreren Fällen schwierig, da Bilder zugleich auch mehrere Funktionen erfüllen können. In dieser Analyse wird die Hauptfunktion der einzelnen Bilder berücksichtigt. Der Schwerpunkt der Analyse liegt auf den Funktionen von Bildern, daher werden hier andere Merkmale der Bilder wie ihre Größe, Platzierung und Auffälligkeit in die Analyse nicht einbezogen.

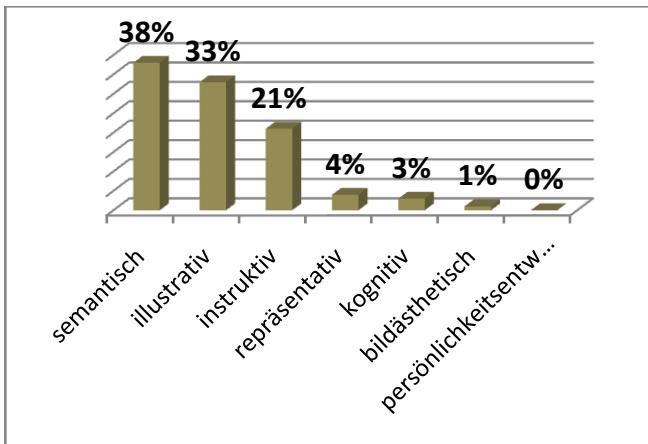
Die Lehrwerkfamilie KON-TAKT ist eine vierbändige Reihe. In diese Analyse wurden die ersten drei Bände (KON-TAKT 1(Maros, 2009), 2(Szitnyainé und Maros, 2010) und 3(Maros, 2011)) einbezogen, die die Lernenden von der Stufe A1 bis zur Stufe B1 führen. Die dargestellte Lehrwerkfamilie ist reich mit verschiedenen Arten von Bildern versehen. Bei den Funktionen überwiegt aber die illustrative Funktion (siehe Diagramm 1). Bilder werden also lediglich als Dekoration, ohne didaktische Zielsetzung eingesetzt. Die Aufgabenstellungen zu den Bildern bleiben auf der Ebene der einfachen Beschreibung. Auf diese Weise wird eine Interaktion zwischen Lernenden nicht angeregt, in der sie ausgehend von dem Bilderlebnis über sich selbst sprechen würden. Eine Lehrperson, die die visuelle Dimension mit Inhalt und Zweck zu erfüllen sucht, soll die vorhandenen Materialien natürlich nicht verurteilen, sondern darüber kritisch reflektieren und sie sinnvoll umgestalten, so dass sie allgemein-pädagogische Zielsetzungen verwirklichen können.



**Diagramm 1:** Bilder und ihre Funktionen in der Lehrwerkfamilie KON-TAKT

Die andere Lehrwerkfamilie war *Studio d*. *Studio d* besteht aus drei Bänden, die sich an die Niveaustufen A1 bis B2 des *Gemeinsamen europäischen Referenzrahmens* (vgl. Trim et. al., 2001) orientieren. Die vorliegende Lehrwerkanalyse hat die Lehrbücher *Studio d A2*(Funk et. al., 2010 (a)) *B1*(Funk et. al., 2010 (b)) und *B2/1* (Kuhn et. al., 2010) aus dieser Reihe behandelt. Hinsichtlich der Vielfältigkeit von Bildern hat diese Lehrwerkfamilie ein breiteres Angebot als die KON-TAKT Lehrwerke. Problematisch ist, dass Bilder, die als Illustration zu Texten fungieren, meistens keinen didaktischen Zweck haben. Wenn Bilder literarische Texte und Gedichte illustrieren, wird ihr Potential auch nicht ausgeschöpft: Bilder als Sprechchancen werden hier nicht thematisiert und Kontakte zwischen den Eindrücken von Lernenden und Bildern werden nicht gesucht.

Bilder werden zu ganz unterschiedlichen Zwecken eingesetzt und die Aufgabenstellungen zu ihnen sind auch lernfördernd (z. B. Bilder beschreiben oder vergleichen, Geschichte aufgrund angegebener Bilder schreiben), aber zusammenfassend lässt sich feststellen, dass die semantische Funktion eine überwiegende Rolle spielt (siehe Diagramm 2). Die Vorteilhaftigkeit dieser Funktion kann nicht in Frage gestellt werden (z. B. bei der Wortschatzerweiterung). Die Lehrwerke weisen aber Defizite in der persönlichkeitsentwickelnden Funktion auf. Im Gegensatz zu den KON-TAKT Lehrwerken wenden diese Lehrwerke viel mehr Bilder an, die diese Funktion erfüllen könnten. Diese Bilder werden aber aus diesem Aspekt nicht behandelt. Das begründet die Notwendigkeit der Erstellung zusätzlicher Materialien, die diese Mängel ausgleichen können.



**Diagramm 2:** Bilder und ihre Funktionen in der Lehrwerkfamilie *Studio d*

## 5. Anregungen für die Praxis

### 5.1 Theoretischer Hintergrund

In diesem Kapitel werden praktische Anregungen präsentiert, die auf bisher vorgestellten theoretischen Kenntnissen basieren und eine gewinnbringende Arbeit mit Bildern im DaF-Unterricht ermöglichen können. Dieses Unterkapitel wird einen kurzen Überblick in den theoretischen Hintergrund geben, die die Grundlage für die praktischen Vorschläge liefert.

Im kommunikativen Fremdsprachenunterricht gilt die Themenorientierung als ein grundlegendes Prinzip. Die sprachliche Progression erfolgt im Unterricht durch die Behandlung von verschiedenen Themen, die dem Alter und Interesse von Lernenden entsprechen sollen (vgl. Lademann, 1997: 120). Die folgenden praktischen Vorschläge werden auf der Erkenntnis basieren, dass die Kombination vom Text und Bild eine ganzheitliche Behandlung eines Themas ermöglicht. Wie die Lehrwerkanalyse bestätigt hat, werden Bilder, die zu Texten eingesetzt werden, im Hinblick auf ihren unterrichtlichen Zweck nicht definiert. Bilder sollten aber bewusster eingesetzt werden, weil sie über solche besondere Eigenschaften verfügen, die der sprachliche Text nicht in dem Maße besitzt. Bilder können Informationen vermitteln, die ein Text unzulänglich ausdrücken kann (vgl. Sturm, 1991: 10).

Hinsichtlich der Rezeptionsweise bergen sich gewinnbringende Potentiale in Bildern. Im Gegensatz zu Texten lassen sich Bilder nämlich schnell überblicken. Sie sind allgemein zugänglich und für die meisten Menschen schnell zu entziffern. Deshalb können sie zu unterschiedlichen Assoziationen führen, die schneller die Empfindung- und Gefühlswelt des Betrachters aktivieren und damit spontane Reaktionen hervorrufen können. Da Bilder eine neue Wirklichkeit darstellen, bei der vieles offen bleibt, wird auch der 'Ein-bild-ungskraft des Betrachters' (Eichheim, 1991: 29) ein breiterer Raum gegeben, mit der sich die sprachliche Ausdrucksfähigkeit verbinden lässt.

Ein wichtiges Prinzip, das bei der Kombinierung von Texten und Bildern beachtet werden soll, ist die ausdrückliche Bezugnahme von Texten auf Bilder (oder

umgekehrt). Um die Entdeckung von Bezügen zu erleichtern, ist es vorteilhaft, Texte und Bilder möglichst nicht gemeinsam zu präsentieren, sondern das Bild entweder vor der Textlektüre (z. B. als Einführung in ein Thema, zur Erweckung der Motivation) oder nach der Textlektüre als erweiternde Informationsquelle (vgl. Hosch und Macaire, 1991: 25).

In einer Kombination vom Text und Bild können Bilder diverse Funktionen erfüllen. Sie können zum Lesen motivieren, das Textverständnis unterstützen, die Lernerfahrung intensivieren oder zum Sprechanlass dienen (vgl. Hecke und Surkamp, 2010: 12 f.). Die vorliegende Arbeit plädiert dafür, dass ein bewusster Einsatz von Bildern auch zur emotionalen und persönlichen Bereicherung von Lernenden beitragen kann. Davon werden die hier dargestellten praktischen Anregungen zeugen.

## **5.2 Praxisorientierte Vorschläge für die Bearbeitung des Themas „Konflikte und Versöhnung“ (geeignet für Niveaustufe A2)**

**Text:** Mutter: Wo warst du gestern Abend?

Sohn: Was kümmert dich das?

Mutter: Man wird doch noch fragen dürfen?

Sohn: Deine ewige Fragerei geht mir auf die Nerven.

Mutter: Hast du ein schlechtes Gewissen?

Sohn: Jetzt halte aber das Maul.

Mutter: Du, Bürschchen, werde nicht frech.

Sohn: Du bist mir zuerst frech gekommen.

Mutter: Saubub, mit dir ist nichts anzufangen.

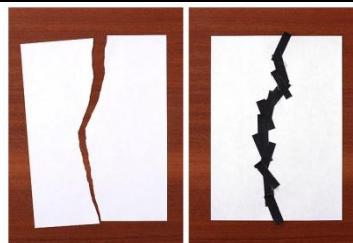
Sohn: Jetzt reicht's mir aber. (Tür knallt.)

Quelle: <<http://www.bruehlmeier.info/konflikt.htm>> (Stand: 30.11.2013)



**Bild 1**

Quelle: [http://www.eandh.hu/konfliktus\\_kezeles/konfliktus.html](http://www.eandh.hu/konfliktus_kezeles/konfliktus.html) (Stand: 30.11.2013)



**Bild 2**

Quelle: [http://www.liturgie.ch/ds/dcems/sites/lich/portal/artikel.html?f\\_action=show\\_article&f\\_article\\_id=138](http://www.liturgie.ch/ds/dcems/sites/lich/portal/artikel.html?f_action=show_article&f_article_id=138) (Stand: 30.11.2013)



**Bild 3**

Quelle: <http://sethsoasis.wordpress.com/2012/05/02/forgiveness-and-reconciliation/>  
(Stand: 30.11.2013)

Unterrichtsschritte	Ziele
<p>Lernende sehen sich das <i>Bild 1</i> an. Sie teilen ihre ersten Assoziationen mit. Impulse zum Austausch von ersten Eindrücken:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Was für eine Situation ist auf dem Bild dargestellt?</li> <li>- Welche Gefühle ruft das Ansehen des Bildes hervor?</li> <li>- Wie fühlst du dich in solchen Situationen?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Einleitung des Themas</li> <li>- Aktivierung der Vorkenntnisse und des Erfahrungshintergrunds</li> <li>- Erweckung der Motivation</li> <li>- Ermöglichung der Selbsterkenntnis</li> </ul>
<p>Lernende sammeln verschiedene Konfliktsituationen aus ihrem Alltagsleben. Sie lesen dann den kurzen Dialog (siehe den Text). Sie äußern ihre Meinung.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Einbeziehung von Lernenden</li> <li>- Verknüpfung des Themas mit der Lebenswelt der Lernenden</li> <li>- Erweiterung des Wortschatzes</li> </ul>
<p>Lernende sammeln die möglichen Konsequenzen eines Konflikts. Sie sehen sich das <i>Bild 2</i> an.</p> <p>Impulse zum Gespräch:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Wohin kann ein Konflikt führen?</li> <li>- Welche Gefühle hast du in solch einer Situation?</li> <li>- Was ist der Unterschied zwischen den zwei Fotos?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Thematisierung der möglichen Konsequenzen eines Konflikts</li> <li>- Förderung der kommunikativen Kompetenz</li> <li>- Förderung der Fähigkeit, die Bedeutung eines Bildes zu entschlüsseln</li> </ul>
<p>Lernende sehen sich das <i>Bild 3</i> an und teilen ihre persönlichen Reaktionen mit.</p> <p>Impulse:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Wie wird der Konflikt auf dem Bild gelöst?</li> <li>- Was ist die Voraussetzung für einen solchen Ausgang?</li> <li>- Wie könnte der Konflikt des Sohnes und der Mutter mit einer Versöhnung beendet werden? Ist dies überhaupt möglich?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Darstellung eines positiven Ausgangs von Konflikten</li> <li>- Lernende zum Nachdenken über ihre Einstellung zu Konflikten anregen</li> <li>- Einbeziehung der emotionalen Dimension</li> <li>- Förderung der Schreibfertigkeit und des kreativen Denkens</li> <li>- Bewusstmachung des positiven Ertrags von Konfliktsituationen</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Kann man von Konflikten profitieren?</li> </ul>	<p>Lernende können einen Aufsatz über eine Konfliktsituation aus ihrem eigenen Leben schreiben, die mit einer Versöhnung beendet wurde.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ermöglichung einer eigenen Reflexion auf das Thema</li> <li>- Förderung der Schreibfertigkeit</li> </ul>
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## 6. Fazit

Der vorliegende Artikel hat sich mit Bildern und ihren Funktionen im DaF-Unterricht befasst. Dabei wurde der Schwerpunkt auf zwei bestimmte Funktionen, auf die illustrative und persönlichkeitsentwickelnde Funktion von Bildern gelegt. Anhand von zwei Dokumenten hat der Artikel dargestellt, welche Zielsetzungen der Fremdsprachenunterricht verwirklichen soll. Außer der Förderung der kommunikativen Handlungskompetenz dürfen weitere grundlegende Ziele nicht ausgeklammert werden. Der institutionelle Fremdsprachenunterricht soll – wie es auch im ungarischen Nationalen Grundlehrplan 2012 steht – zur harmonischen Entfaltung der Persönlichkeit der Lernenden beitragen. Der Artikel hat durch die Darstellung der von den kognitiven und kommunikativen Wenden verursachten Defizite gezeigt, dass die Verwirklichung der genannten fachübergreifenden Ziele nicht problemlos abläuft. Zur Ausgleichung der Defizite, die auf diese Wenden zurückzuführen sind, bietet die Disziplin Deutsch als Fremdsprache zahlreiche Mittel an. Dieser Artikel ist davon ausgegangen, dass Bilder, wenn sie bewusst eingesetzt werden, zur Ausgleichung der emotionalen und intellektuellen Mängel beitragen können. Dieses Potential von Bildern wird aber nicht ausreichend ausgeschöpft. Um diese Tatsache zu beweisen, wurden sechs Lehrwerke analysiert, deren Bilder einseitig verwendet werden: entweder zur Semantisierung oder zur Illustration. Wenn aber Bilder mit einem gründlich überlegten didaktischen Zweck eingesetzt und den in Lehrwerken bereits zur Verfügung stehenden Texten sinnvoll zugeordnet wären, könnten sie nicht nur eine reine dekorative Funktion erfüllen, sondern auch Lernende in ihrer Persönlichkeit ansprechen und bereichern. Eine kombinierte Bild- und Textarbeit, wie es auch in den praktischen Anregungen des Artikels vorgestellt wurde, setzt natürlich eine konsequente Arbeit und grundlegende theoretische Kenntnisse von der Seite der Lehrperson voraus. In einer Bildarbeit, die Verknüpfungspunkte zwischen der Botschaft der Bilder und der Lebenswelt der Lernenden herzustellen sucht und Bilder mit neuem Inhalt erfüllt, liegen die neuen Chancen für einen Fremdsprachenunterricht, der nach der kognitiven Wende eine emotionale Wende verwirklichen will.

## 7. Ausblick

Das Thema des Artikels wurde im Kontext des schulischen Fremdsprachenunterrichts behandelt. Da hier SchülerInnen im Alter von 14-18 Jahren im Mittelpunkt der Aufmerksamkeit stehen, spielt die Verwirklichung der allgemein-pädagogischen Zielsetzungen in diesem Kontext eine bedeutende Rolle. Der Einsatz von Bildern kann sich aber in anderen Bereichen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts wie auch im fachsprachlichen Fremdsprachenunterricht als gewinnbringend erweisen. In diesem Bereich ist die Persönlichkeitsentwicklung wegen dem Alter der Lernenden zwar nicht von höchster Relevanz, aber Bilder können hier auch eine Rolle in der Erhöhung der Motivation, in der

Semantisierung, in der Förderung der kommunikativen Kompetenz oder auch im Landeskunde eine Rolle spielen. Da der vorliegende Artikel für eine ganzheitliche Behandlung von Lernenden im Unterrichtsprozess plädiert, darf die emotionale Dimension auf keinen Fall ausgeklammert werden. Zur Integrierung dieser Dimension in die Unterrichtspraxis tragen Bilder sowohl im schulischen als auch im fachsprachlichen Fremdsprachlichen Fremdsprachenunterricht im erheblichen Maße bei. Das Thema eröffnet daher Perspektiven für weiterführende Studien beispielsweise im Bereich des fachsprachlichen Fremdsprachenunterrichts. Eine Studie, die eine andere Perspektive auf das Thema bietet, wird im zweiten Band der Reihe der Cathedra Magistrorum Lehrerforschung im Jahre 2014 erscheinen.

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