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THE TASK TYPE EFFECT ON THE USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

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Abstract:
An argument that many foreign language students encounter oral communication problems while they try to express their meaning to their partners has encouraged a number of eminent scholars to analyze the use of communication strategies based on the type of the task activity and the level of proficiency. In this paper, the task type effect and the students' proficiency levels on the communication strategies employed by Kosovan and Bosnian speakers of English were investigated. The purpose of the study was to determine if the students' proficiency levels and the task type influenced the choice and the number of communication strategies at lexical degree in verbal communication. The study numbered 20 participants in total; Kosovan and Bosnian languages that use English as a foreign language. The subjects were selected upon their degree of proficiency (i.e. Elementary and Intermediate) levels and were asked to carry out three different types of the tasks: ten minutes of oral communication, picture story narration and photographic description. The data of the assigned tasks came from audio and video-recording. Thus, the current study used the taxonomy of communication strategies employed by Tarone (1977). Likewise, the communication strategies used by both levels of the students were observed and compared in special instances. It was summarized that the task type and the level of proficiency influenced the number and the choice of different communication strategies in verbal performances. To indicate the present observable facts, two main aspects of the nature of the given tasks were pointed out: context in the task and task demands, respectively.

Keywords: communication strategies; task type; proficiency level; language proficiency

1. Introduction

Communication is a crucial activity in daily life and it is regarded as a tool by which implication is allocated and the understanding between the students is developed. This type of the tool requires a *'vast repertoire of skills in intra and interpersonal processing, involving several individuals in the progression, paying attention, articulating, studying, monitoring, and assessing'* (Istifci, Lominadze & Demiray, 2011:2). There are different ways that communication can be used to convey meanings; some of these techniques are known as face to face (dyadic) interaction settings or through emails, and the main goal of this interaction is the successful communication of the messages to the listener (Somsai & Intaraprasert, 2011). On the other hand, Matsumoto (2011) emphasizes that most of the time learners argue special topics or describe actions in the form of comprehension in the course of interaction with their peers. Likewise, in some instances learners come up with interaction in which the message was not conveyed correctly during the communication with interactants, thus, high level students overcome these problems through compensated practices by using their ability in the target language (TL).

1.2 Literature Review

Scholars have defined communication strategies (CS) as learners' attempts to overcome linguistic problems during interactions due to their lexical deficiency in the TL. Thus, students employ different tools to solve communicative problems among their partners (Omar, Embi & Yunus, 2012). In the article of Cervantes and Rodriguez (2012), it is pointed out that CS are steps that learners take when they communicate with the purpose of transmitting the linguistic comprehension of the foreign language and the linguistic cognition among them in real communicative settings. Here, researchers usually measure students' produced items regarding the simplicity in comprehension, cognitive ability or intelligence, and their linguistic skills. Oral communication is a process of interaction among learners where students interchangeably take roles of speaker and listener. As a result, learners should try to develop their language learning competences in solving literacy skills, particularly speaking and listening abilities (Dörnyei and Schott, cited in Yaman, Irgin & Kavasoglu, 2013). In his paper, Dörnyei (1995), describes particular learners who try to communicate competently in the TL regardless of their linguistic deficiency, thus, they manage to interact by using their hands, imitating different sounds, narrating stories, employing code-switching, form new words, and utilize the CS according to their skills. In contrary, there are instances when oral communication cannot be successful in the TL acquisition, that is, learners frequently are not able to recall specific lexical items, they have insufficient command in grammar constructions and it might be as a result of cultural background related to the topic to be discussed. Additionally, when students attempt to convey their messages, they come across misunderstanding among their partners due to a problem of pronunciation. Hence, participants find very hard to understand a native speaker or non-native speaker because of their special pronunciation (Lewis, 2011). In his attempt to explain definitions of CS, Ghout-Khenoune (2012) assumes no unique definition of CS but researchers are in agreement that CS are learners' sufficient devices in the TL to convey their thoughts, ideas, and share knowledge with their peers. Here, CS are identified as students' spoken and non-spoken tools to solve communication breakdowns and discuss ideas in order to keep the flow of the dialogue. In line with this definition, Yani (2007) defines the CS as some methods that learners undertake to overcome communication problems in real life situations. Hence, when students are assigned to accomplish a task they encounters communication break-downs such as an appropriate expression and face difficulties with lexical items in the TL; likewise, participants cannot convey their meanings effectively, as a result they try to use some strategies to share their messages to their colleagues. Moreover, Lafford (2004) comments that the definitions of CS is mainly focused on learners' communication problems in the TL. The aforementioned breakdown may be accordingly to the learner's insufficient comprehension in a second language (SL) that arises by the interaction.

1.3 Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

The importance of developing different taxonomies of CS has been the main focus of many scholars to support the process of studying a foreign language. Tarone (1997) made efforts to construct the first taxonomy of CS that may assist learners in their attempts to communicate their meanings efficiently so that they can overcome communication problems due to their deficit in the foreign language. Tarone continuously has been working with other scholars to develop supplementary frameworks of taxonomies (Tarone, 1997; Faerch & Kasper, 1983:16-17, cited in Gumus, 2007:34). Table 1 shows the aforementioned framework of the taxonomy of the CS.

Table 1. Tarone's Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

1. Paraphrasing
a. Approximation
b. Word Coinage
c. Circumlocution
2. Borrowing
a. Literal Translation
b. Language Switch
c. Appeal for Assistance
d. Mime
3. Avoidance
a. Topic Avoidance
b. Message Abandonment

(Tarone, 1977; Faerch & Kasper, 1983:16-17, cited-adapted in Gumus, 2007:34)

1.3.1 Paraphrase

Approximation: speakers or learners use a particular vocabulary item or form of the TL despite the learner's awareness that the particular item is not correct but which in fact shares enough semantic characteristics in common with the item learner wanted to convey to his/her partners to fulfill his own needs (e.g. pipe for water-pipe).
Word Coinage: In this case students create a new word with the purpose of communicating their intended meanings in the target language (e.g. air-ball for balloon).
Circumlocution: 'learner describes the properties of the object or action instead of using the appropriate TL item or structure' (e.g. she is, us, smoking. I don't know its name. That's uh, Persian and we use in Turkey, a lot, Gumus, 2007:34).

1.3.2 Borrowing

Literal Translation: In order to convey their messages or describe an object, learners translate these items word for word from their mother tongue (e.g. He invites him to drink for they toast one another).
Language Switch: learner uses the native language term without trying to translate (e.g. balon for balloon, tirtil for caterpillar).

Appeal for Assistance: learner asks for the correct term (e.g. what is this? What called?).
Mime: learner uses non-verbal tactics in place of a lexical item or action (e.g. clapping one's hands to illustrate applause) or to accompany another communication strategy (e.g. it's about this long, Gumus, 2007:34).

1.3.3 Avoidance

Topic Avoidance: learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known.
Message Abandonment: learner begins to talk about a concept but feeling unable to continue stops in mid-utterance (Tarone, 1997; Faerch & Kasper, 1983:16-17, cited in Gumus, 2007:34).
Moreover, CS are not interrelated directly with learners' linguistic comprehension; *'rather they are descriptive of the learners' model of use of what they recognize as they try to interact with interactants of the TL'*. To find out whether 'CS are related to language use, is to bring into question the relationship of these strategies to communicative competence' (Tarone, 1981: 287).

1.4 Task Type and Proficiency Level on the Use of CS

Teaching a foreign language through the task type activities is the focus of many researchers who consider it as pedagogical instruments to build up learners' CS or 'communicative competences' (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012:772). Here, interactional task is described as *'a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form'* (Nunan, 1989:10). The Task type is also defined as the overall activity that students try to employ their comprehension in different sub-fields in the TL (grammar, phonology, developing lexical meanings), to reach their communicative goals (Collings & White, 2014). Some tasks, such as language play are used as the tools to learn grammar. Here, learners by performing in the tasks can repair their mistakes so that they could make out the correct and incorrect language form and see it as an informal language (Gholami & Gholizadeh, 2015). Likewise, it is important to select well-made tasks, in this way learners are triggered to participate in activities in the TL, and the comprehension of FL (foreign language) can take place. Investigators implementing a psycholinguistic point of view are more concerned with interactional tasks, that is, the learners' attempts to convey their messages, they way how learners come across communication breakdown in accomplishing tasks and the strategy to prevail over the mentioned problems. The abovementioned concerns try to point out that different tasks may convey various problems during the communication, which can affect students' degree of interaction (Jung-K, 2016). However, previous studies found that various tasks may influence the use of CS together with proficiency levels in difficult ways. Hence, Perez (2016) presents a study that investigated learners' motivation to participate in challenging but reachable tasks, thus, their inspiration maintained as they were more prone to talk about important aims; exchange and distribute information with their interactants; they were more active in completing the tasks due to their own efforts; learners benefited from the tasks as they included real-life situations; learners stated that the tasks also developed their literacy skills, critical thinking and problem solving. On the other hand, proficiency level plays great role in using linguistic items practically and creatively; hence, the more learners employ the mentioned resources the more proficient they become in the TL (Gholami & Gholizadeh, 2015). Furthermore, researchers found that, less proficient learners use more CS than more proficient ones. But, the situation differs in quality of employing CS. Lower proficient learners employ more L1-based strategies and higher proficient students use L2 more often (Karatepe, 1993; Philipson, 1984; Poulisse and Schills, 1989; as cited in Gumus, 2007:60).

2. Research Amis and Questions

The main aim of this study was to investigate the students' use of CS based on the proficiency levels and task type effect. The use of CS was analyzed derived from the taxonomy employed by Tarone (1997).

The study tried to find answers to the following research questions;

1. Is there any difference between students' proficiency levels in terms of types and numbers of CS in the three given tasks?
2. What is the student's view towards the use of CS based on the tasks accomplishment?

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The subjects of this study numbered 10 Kosovan and 10 Bosnian speakers who were selected based on non-random quota sampling, that is, the required number of the respondents the researcher contacted. Five of the Kosovan participants had attended preparatory classes in the Turkish language. In the Kosovan group of speakers, there were some bilingual students, that is, along with their mother tongue they had also acquired a second language due to their intercultural communication (either Turkish or Bosnian) and one of the languages is dominant. Both groups were asked to accomplish the given tasks in dyadic interaction. In addition, one of the Kosovan students attended prep-classes at ELT department, Kocaeli University whose level was Intermediate (B1). The age range of all the participants was 18-28. An assumption was made that all the students attended courses of two different levels and had an equal degree of proficiency. Aside the students' attendance in an English course, control variable was established, that is, students stay in an English speaking country.

4. Design of the Study, Data Collection and Analysis

The present study was based on a qualitative research and placed into the group of Discourse Analysis. The novice researcher transcribed and decoded the data from audio and video-recordings of conversational interactions of the participants. Hence, natural conversational interactions among the students were regarded as more efficient and prone to employ the TL in a natural way; therefore, students were more at ease to produce language instances freely and felt comfortable to switch from topic to topic. Audio and video recordings provides linguistic and lexical information more than any other data collection tool as it allows us to retain every single utterance or word produced by the students. Moreover, the study consisted of three types of tasks: ten minutes of oral communication-interview, picture story narration, and photographic description. After the data collection, two weeks later a retrospective study was conducted regarding students' view towards the use of CS. Previous studies observed that the task type may manipulate the CS use in different ways according to the students' proficiency levels (Poulisse, 1990, cited in Dobao, 2002:7). The three tasks were administrated in 17 sessions, while the retrospective included 34 sessions of 110.7 hours. The students were interviewed individually about their view on the use of CS. The tapes of collected data were transcribed, decoded and analyzed qualitatively, and the students' responses on the three tasks were identified according to Tarone's taxonomy shown in table 1. The abovementioned researcher was focused on the students' expressions, filled and unfilled pauses, lengthening of syllables, false starts, repetitions, and more explicit statements that could cause conversational problems among the students. Moreover the researcher's aim was not only the verbal part of the communication but also nonverbal elements, such as gestures. There is a possibility of some ungrammatical constructions, incomplete sentences, and repetitions due to the repeated data of the CS. The data collection of audio and video-recording was transcribed using the convention employed in Dobao's (2002) study of CS, as follows:

TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEM

(.)	Pause of less than a second
(1)	Pauses measured in seconds
The:::	Lengthened sound or syllable
The-	Cut-off of the prior word or sounds
(Laugh)	Laughter and other nonverbal noises

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Research Question 1: Is there any difference between students' proficiency levels in terms of types and numbers of CS in the three given tasks?

To answer the first question, the results demonstrated that the subjects employed all the strategies in Tarone's Taxonomy. Previous studies on task accomplishment illustrated that some students are more successful than others due to their more efficient use of the CS (Griffiths and Parr, 2001). The findings illustrated that there is a difference in the number of these strategies used by each group of the students in total, and a difference in types and percentages as well. Analyses indicated that there is a difference between less and more proficient students in terms of the number of L1-based and L2-based strategies employed in the three given tasks. To begin with, in the first task- ten minutes of oral communication interview, both levels of the students employed L2 strategies dominantly (64.3% and 85.9% respectively). These findings were in agreement with earlier studies that confirmed the use of communication strategies employed by various proficiency levels and that their choice was for L2 based strategies (Ting and Phan, 2008). In comparison to L2-based strategies, L1 were used less frequently (35.7% and 14.1% respectively). Additional analysis on the second task – the picture story narration demonstrated that students of the lower and higher levels used both L1 and L2-based strategies in different percentages and numbers (L2-based strategies were used more by both levels of the students). For the lower level students, L2 constituted 64% of the communication strategies encountered by the students, and the higher level represented 89.7% of the total CS employed in the second task. In addition, L1 were 36% of the total for the less successful students and 10.3% for the more successful students. (Table 2. explains the difference of the CS in terms of numbers and percentages employed by both levels of the students in three different tasks).

Table 2. The Numbers and the Percentages of L1 and L2-Based Communication Strategies in the three given tasks

TASK	STRATEGY TYPE	ELEMENTARY STUDENTS		INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS	
		N	%	N	%
TASK 1	L1 BASED	143	35.7	44	14.1
	L2 BASED	257	64.3	267	85.9
	TOTAL	400	100.0	311	100.0
TASK 2	L1 BASED	98	36.0	22	10.3
	L2 BASED	174	64.0	191	89.7
	TOTAL	272	100.0	213	100.0
TASK 3	L1 BASED	51	31.0	16	11.9
	L2 BASED	114	69.0	119	88.1
	TOTAL	165	100.0	135	100.0

In the third task, students made use of L2 dominantly (the higher level employed slightly more 88.1% compared to the lowers level 69%). And L1 used less (11.9% and 31% by less proficient). The levels not only affected the number of CS but also the types as demonstrated in table 3.

Table 3. The Total Number and the Percentages of the Three Communicative Tasks

TASK	NUMBER	PERCENT
TASK 1	711	47.53
TASK 2	485	32.42
TASK 3	300	20.05
TOTAL	1496	100.0

Moreover, the findings also confirmed the numbers and the types used between the tasks. There was a substantial decrease in the number of strategies encountered during the first task (ten minutes of oral communication interview) than in the second task and a subsequent decrease in the third task. Here, 47.53% of the total numbers of strategies were employed in the first task, 32.42% in the second task, and finally 20.05% of the total was employed in the third task.

5.2 CS Based on the students' L1 Strategies

It is assumed that these strategies were mostly employed by lower level students. Thus, they often couldn't find proper tools in their inter-language to overcome communication problems with their counterparts. These strategies are not effective when there are native speakers of a FL (foreign language) engaged in communication (Dobao, 2002). The following are two of the many examples that influenced learners' L1 based.

Language switch: Language learners employed these strategies in their own language without trying to translate it in the target language.

> (1) EXTRACT: "Wallpaper"
>
> INTERLANGUAGE SENTENCE: Tapetat e shtepise. CS ANALYSIS: Language switch: The student switched to his mother tongue or his own first language because he could not find the appropriate word in English for that item "wallpaper".

Literal translation: Learners tried to describe objects word for word in order to convey messages in their native languages. The following sample of extract illustrates an instance of literal translation.

> (2) EXTRACT: "Corpulent boy"
>
> INTERLANGUAGE SENTENCE: A:: the main object is:: this one, was you are not the strongest man in the world (.) a::: you have more, a::: they have more powerful mass (.) before you. CS ANALYSIS: Literal translation: The student wanted to convey the original explanation, but used borrowing strategies, a literal translation of the Albanian expression as "qellimi I tij kryesore ishte ky; ti nuk je njeriu me I forte ne bote, ne jemi me te fuqishem para jush".

5.3 CS Based on the Students' L2 Strategies

Students used most of these strategies differently and they were more demanding regarding linguistic and cognitive aspects (Dobao, 2002). The following were two of the many examples that influenced L2 strategies.

Circumculation: Learners describe an object as a substitute of employing the proper target language item or form.

> (1) EXTRACT: "Baby-bed"
>
> INTERLANGUAGE SENTENCE: Right (.) here (1) there is like (.) a::: baby chair (1) not chair. CS ANALYSIS: Circumlocution: The student in this case tried to describe "baby-bed" in place of using the appropriate target language item.

Word Coinage: Learners create a new word to communicate their meanings.

> (2) EXTRACT: "Mother tongue"
>
> INTERLANGUAGE SENTENCE: I know Albanian because my:: (2) my home (1) language…CS ANALYSIS: Word coinage: The student used "my home language" instead of "mother tongue" to create a description which he thought was appropriate for the meaning he wanted to express.

5.4 Research Question 2: What is the student's view towards the use of CS based on the tasks accomplishment?

To answer this question, students' comments based on the use of CS were transcribed and analyzed by researcher. The sample demonstrated students' ideas on their interaction with their counterparts (dyads). These might include the following indications, excerpted from various comments of the lower and the higher level students.

Awareness about instances of communication breakdown: Throughout the process of the task accomplishment majority of the students confirmed that their conversational interaction with their counterparts was very effective. According to the lower level learners, they faced communication problems because they didn't use English actively and learning a new language such as Turkish at the same time was affecting their English skills. An excerpted example of students' responses is given below.

232 T how was your conversation with your partner?
233 S It was Ok. It wasn't very good but we understood each other.
234 T Did you experience any problems or communication breakdown?
235 S Yes, we had little bit problem because we don't know very well English and we used our mother tongues sometimes.

Source and problem solving of communication: most of the lower level students affirmed that they were the source of the problem due to their limited command in English. As earlier studies in literature indicated that learners often faces problems in producing lexical items in the target language during the conversational interactions, thus, they often ask for help (Jung, 2004).

174 T Did you experience any problems or communication breakdown?
175 S Yes, yes, especially when question came to, to:: describe the:: picture, that was difficult.
176 T How often did this problem occur?
177 S When I tried to communicate with my partner and sometimes when I tried to explain things that I had to explain.

6. Conclusion

In the present study, the analyses of the data illustrated that the participants used all the strategies as shown in Tarone's taxonomy. Throughout the three tasks the participants were involved in 1496 CS in total. Both levels of the students employed dominantly L2 in the three given tasks. The more proficient students employed more L2 strategies due to their sufficient command in English than when compared to lower level. An interesting finding revealed that there was a decrease in the numbers and percentages of the CS employed as they progressed from the first, second and third task. The reason students used strategies in terms of types and numbers is because of the task demand, types, and students' proficiency levels. The results are in line with previous studies, the difficulty and complexity of the task type may interact with students' proficiency and particular CS (Dobao, 2002). The task type influenced the use of CS as the students could speak about their individual topics in the first task. Here, the students could switch freely form topic to topic as in natural conversations (the topic based on their everyday life). The last two tasks were demanding because the students had to find appropriate lexical items to solve their communicative problems. In task II and III the pictures were presented in isolation, thus, the participants had to rely on their own CS to narrate and describe the pictures, while in the task I; the students could rely on the context. The higher level students made more use of paraphrasing strategies and produced more complex referential expressions compared to the lower level. These strategies led students to more successful communication. Thus, the more proficient students as a result of their sufficient command of the TL produced more language items that were more appropriate. The more achievement and reduction strategies learners employ the more frequently these strategies emerge in interactional situations, ultimately, influence the development of the TL (Wei, 2011:35). Learners have to be given more task activities in order to be aware of potential difficulties in completing the given tasks. Though, both levels of the students indicated that the shift from the oral communication task to the two other tasks brought some difficulties while completing the tasks as the students tried to find appropriate lexical items to describe the objects, actions and narrate the pictures. Finally, much further studies needs yet to be done to provide more understanding regarding the task effects and proficiency levels. Here, larger population and different degree of proficiency could be carried out to investigate the use of CS to show more reliable results. However, we hope that this paper will be an interesting source for those who want to know more about the CS of the Kosovan and Bosnian students used in the three different tasks.

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UNDERSTANDING OUR AUDIENCE: MESSAGES FROM CONCEPT TO COMPLETION

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Abstract: *The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a business hub for a great number of multinational and international companies that conduct daily communication activities in English, which has made efficient and audience sensitive written communication an essential requirement in today's workplace. With computer-mediated communication (CMC) taking over face-to-face communication, this has created an essential need for students to learn efficient and appropriate communication styles pertinent to communication via emails. This study presents a pragmatic approach for teaching the how of writing appropriate and effective professional email messages. Comparisons of pre-and post-teaching email messages point to significant improvements in the quality of post teaching email messages*.

Keywords: Writing email messages, professional business communication, computer mediated communication, audience awareness

1. Introduction

Dewey (1938:13) rightly argues that "we don't learn from experience. We learn from reflecting on experience." Here, Dewey makes a simple but powerful point: experience is not the source of learning, but rather it is reflection on this experience. Dewey's emphasis on reflecting on one's experience is critical in the Experiential Learning Cycle, a model that Kolb (1984) derived from Dewey's concepts. Students, rather than being told to write for someone in a specific context; they write for a genuine reason, because they need to conduct this communication to achieve something. Email messages are also valued because they provide an audit trail and record of the communication. And this is important for keeping a record of students' meeting decisions, calls for meetings, minutes and the role all these play in following up on those who have been assigned work to do/complete.

Crystal (2006) observes that email is formally and functionally unique. In my case, students use email to execute the following functions:

"Engineering graduates' requisite competencies and skills have been of interest to higher education accreditation agencies, academicians, researchers and the industry all over the world" (EL-Sakran & Awad, 2011:105). The past three decades have witnessed an increasing number of engineering job requirements surveys publishing details of employability skills employers seek in their prospective engineering employees. Some such studies (Australian Council for

Educational Research, 2001; Hill & Petty, 1995; Holden & Hamlett, 2007; Levenson, 2000; Patil & Codner, 2007; Prescott et al., 2012; etc.) have noted that employers want their prospective engineers to have the following employability skills:

1) Efficient oral and written communication skills
2) Interpersonal skills with colleagues and clients
3) Leadership skills
4) Problem solving skills
5) A clear understanding of social responsibility and ethical practices
6) Emotional intelligence
7) Ability to take initiative
8) Time management skills
9) Ability to work under pressure
10) Teamwork skills and ability to work in multidisciplinary and multicultural teams
11) “Global mobility” (Patil and Godner, 2007:649).

As a result and in line with the calls for global engineering graduates and the requirements of the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET), engineering colleges have become increasingly aware of the need to provide more than the traditional technical discipline-based education for their students, realizing the fact that sound knowledge of engineering theory and practice alone is no longer sufficient to meet the demands of the marketplace. Consequently, students graduating from engineering programs are expected to have an effective range of communication skills to meet labour market demands.

Writing context and status sensitive email messages have, therefore, become integral components of today’s workplace environment. Hewitt (2006) states that email has emerged to be the primary medium used in internal and external business communication in globalised business settings. Yet, from the researcher’s vast teaching experience, students in professional communication courses are found to always be reluctant and less susceptible to activities on the teaching and writing of audience sensitive and appropriate email messages. This is mainly due to the assumption that their communication skills, being graduates of American and British based English language medium schools, are far more advanced to the extent that they need not be paid any attention to. Thus, this resistance to more learning has created the need for the present researcher to create and design a teaching context through which those students feel that their email writing skills still need further polishing. This represents the focus of the arguments in the coming sections.

2. Objective of Study

In an attempt to prepare engineering undergraduates to meet the above companies’ requirements, this study presents a pragmatic approach for teaching the how of writing appropriate and effective professional email messages. Students needed to contact professors to arrange for meetings with them. Students were also required to send emails to team members on specific occasions to congratulate them on things that they did; for example, awesome poster presentation, weddings, engagements, etc.

3. Previous Studies

Evans' (2012) study titled 'designing email tasks for the business English classrooms: Implications from a study of Hong Kong's key industries', focused on the analysis of employees' email messages to build email writing tasks for Hong Kong's business students. Although the study presents some excellent conclusions concerning employees' online communication, the study may be considered highly rigid and prescriptive in nature since it tends to mould the students into the practices of some companies' employees, who may be operating under certain fixed communication contexts. It seems that whatever universities do, there will always be a gap between graduates` level of competences and practices in the work place. Research (e.g., Amare & Brammer, 2005) indicates that there is a difference in practice between what universities do as far as communication skills are concerned and what really happens in the labour market. This calls for greater co-operation between academy and industry to close any existing gaps between what is taught in universities and what is practiced in the work environment. This brings into attention the fact that universities should carefully examine on site labour market communication practices and try to use authentic materials from labour markets in teaching engineering students. Such a practice will guarantee that graduates have first-hand knowledge and experience of target discourse community communicative events. Colleges of engineering in non-English speaking countries such as the UAE should recognize the fact that English fluency is a necessary condition for success in a global economy (Kaewpet, 2011). Therefore, a strong emphasis should be placed on developing excellence in communication skills, both written and oral. We have seen how the UAE surveyed employers stress graduates' ability to write and produce sound and formal email messages, a point that international research in English speaking countries did not concern itself with.

Consequently, students should be presented with different purpose-driven and context-based writing scenarios, with certain required and sometimes optional steps/moves that the context of writing the message imposes on them. This way, instructors delegate the decision making process concerning the elements of the communication process to the students, which fosters students' autonomy and lifelong learning. In other words, it is the purpose of writing the message and the writing context that determine the structure and contents of the message as delineated below.Therefore, learners should be exposed to key issues pertinent to writing email message, and be left to make the necessary communication decisions.

Hence, writing instructors need to inculcate and foster this strategic writing skill in students to raise their awareness to essential factors that they need to consider when engaged or about to engage in a writing task. Some of those essential concepts are Halliday's key notions of *field, tenor* and *mode* (Halliday, 1985:12) which collectively constitute the register of a text, and offer a linguistic framework for guiding the writing of appropriate, effective and professional email messages. Context of situation consists of three aspects: field, tenor and mode. Field refers to what is happening, to the nature of social action that is taking place. It answers such questions as what it is that the participant is engaged in. Tenor refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their status and roles: what kind of role relationship obtains among the participants. Mode refers to what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organization of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic and the like. Context of situation is closely related to various texts. Certain situational context asks for certain text and in return, certain text creates certain context. *Field* is defined as what is happening, as the nature of the social interaction taking place. *Tenor* relates to those taking part, to the participants, their social/professional roles, their relationships and their status. *Mode* refers to the organization of text, to rhetorical modes such as persuasion, exposition, didacticism, description, narration and so forth; to the channel of communication whether spoken or written, monologic or dialogic, whether with visual contact or via computer-mediated communication or telephone and so forth.

Of great and close relevance here is also Grice's (1975:166) four maxims. They delineate the essential rules that one should consider when engaging in communication with others. Grice's theory is a general principle which states:
"Make your contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged". Cooperative is indispensable in communication. Interlocutors engage several strategies to accomplish this goal. Grice labels these strategies "maxims of conversation".

These are:
Quantity: Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purpose of the exchange: Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
Quality : Do not say what you belief to be false; Do not say that for which you lack evidence.
Relation : Be relevant !
Manner : Avoid obscurity of expression.
Avoid ambiguity.
Be brief.
Be orderly.

4. **Methodology**

To train students in the writing of appropriate audience sensitive messages, they were presented with different writing contexts.
The proposed email messages writing contexts are:
-Complaint to professor about a course's final grade
-Complaint to a service provider (car dealer, restaurant/hotel management, etc.)
-Writing to a professor to ask for a make-up midterm exam
-Sending an apology to a professor for a class to be missed
-Sending a message to a research article writer to inquire about something in the article or request a copy of article
-Informing team members/co-workers about the death of a dear friend and asking them to attend the funeral

-Congratulating a friend on his/her wedding that you could not attend
Students were asked, in teams of 3 or 4, to respond by choosing to write on one of the topics given to them, and were required to use their personal mobile phones (Chwo, Marek and Wu (2016)) to email their writing outcome to the professors' email. Once the message arrived to the professor's inbox, he created a Microsoft Word Document, copied the message, pasted it in the WD, and projected it to all the class, after removing all students' identification details, to avoid causing any face-threats, or embarrassments to the writers. Then, the whole class engaged in an active discussion to judge the message Then, at the end of the writing activity, only one piece of writing was projected at a time, and a whole class discussion feedback was ensued. This was meant to make students sense and understand their need for email writing skills polishing, and open their eyes to essential missing information needed for full understanding of the message.
Students' written responses (see results below) exhibited several deficiencies represented in the lack of a clear identification of the writer, and not providing the intended audience with enough contextual details that would enable him/her to fully understand the message.

4.1. Procedures

To overcome those deficiencies, this study uses a methodology which creates a need for communication, requires students' involvement in checking the accuracy of the subject matter; a move that allows students to practice whole class editing of the presented subject matter, review information presented, and internalize the way of writing and apply to future natural writing contexts. Creating the need was executed through requiring the students to write in response to the different writing scenarios they were provided with. The class collective discussion of the written samples granted all students, with little support from the course instructor, the opportunity to judge the accuracy of the information, and know what was missing from the written piece. This was handled through supplying the class with a sequence of moves to be applied in each writing context. Some of these moves were common among all the different writing assignments, whereas others were specific to particular writing situations as detailed below.

4.2. Qualitative and Quantitative Analyses of Messages

Improvements in quality and quantity of written messages were measured by counting the number of moves used in the message, its elaborateness and clarity, relevancy to the writing purpose, recipient's informational needs, and the total number of words per message.

5. Writing Moves

A quick look at the email messages writing contexts given above, demonstrates that students were required to write to persons they know and others they did not know before the writing assignment. This necessitated several decision-making processes on the part of the students. In other words, they needed to decide whether the persons they were writing to would be able to clearly indentify the writer or not. That is, based on the students' analysis, they should be able to make a decision if they needed to introduce themselves in the writing or not. Although professors may know specific students by name, it should be made clear to

students that those professors may be teaching several sections with students carrying the same name (i.e., John, John). Such situations trigger a need for a student's full introduction/identification for the professor to fully identify who the writer is. Some may argue that professors need to check students' ID numbers for this purpose. The automatic response to this is: Why should professors bother? I believe it is the writer's sole responsibility to be as cooperative as possible by giving as much information as is needed to enable the reader to understand the Who?, the What?
Below some writing contexts are described:

Context 1:
1.1. Writing a complaint email to professor about a course's final grade
For this scenario, students need to follow the writing moves shown below:
1.1.1.

- *Introduce/identify* who you are unless you are 100% sure that the professors know who you are.
- Give credit (i.e., say something positive about the professor, his/her teaching, or the course that you finished with him/her.

This is an essentially required step in the case of writing such face-threatening email messages.

- *Supply accurate description* of course name and number, section number and section time, if multiple sections of the same course are covered by same professor.
- *Be logical and reasonable*

This move requires careful planning, since it demands that the complainant should have a record of his/her performance in the course. That is, marks obtained in exams, quizzes, etc. Having such a record will make the information more factual, give merit to the case, and help students stay away from subjective expressions such as, I was expecting X grade in this course; for grades are based on performance not expectations.

- *Request Action*

The conclusion of an email message is determined by the message's content. That is, if the message is seeking the verification/checking of someone's grade, then the conclusion should read:
Awaiting your kind response/reply or
Looking forward to hearing from you.
Then, the writer signs off by using any of the following:
Best regards/wishes
Yours sincerely/faithfully,
followed by the writer's name.

Context 2:
2. 1. Write a complaint to a service provider (car dealer, restaurant/hotel management)
For this scenario, students need to follow the writing moves shown below:
2.1.1.

- *Introduce/identify* who you are unless you are 100% sure that the intended reader knows who you are.

- *Give credit* (i.e., say something positive about the service provider. For example, I am a regular customer of your restaurant and have always enjoyed dinning with you, or I have been staying at your beautiful resort for the past 10 years and have always enjoyed my stay and the services that you provided).

This is an essentially required step in the case of writing such face-threatening email messages.

- *Supply accurate description* of the incident that triggered the writing of this message. You will also need to include the names of the persons involved in the situation, date of incident and location. This is extremely important in the cases of a chain of restaurants/hotels with the same names.
- *Request Action*

The conclusion of an email message is usually dependent on the message's communicative purpose. That is, if the message is seeking an apology, or punishment for someone, then the conclusion should read:
Kindly verify the issues, and let me know of the outcome.

- Then, the *writer signs off* by using any of the following:

Best regards/wishes
Yours sincerely/faithfully,
followed by the writer's name, and cell phone number for easy contact, if needed.

Context 3:

3. 1. Send a message to a research article writer to request a copy of an unpublished paper referred to somewhere, or inquire about the details of some mentioned technique.

For this scenario, students need to follow the writing moves shown below:
3.1.1.

- *Introduce/identify* say who you are, what you are doing, which university you are studying at, and where.

This is an essentially required step in the case of writing email messages to someone who does not know you.

- *Supply accurate description* of the incident that triggered the writing of this message. That is, what made you write this message.
- *Request Action*

The conclusion of an email message is usually dependent on the message's communicative purpose. That is, if the message is seeking academic support, then the conclusion should read:
Awaiting your kind response/reply.
Or,
Thanking you in advance for your support and cooperation.

- Then, the *writer signs off* by using any of the following:

Best regards/wishes
Yours sincerely/faithfully,
followed by the writer's name, and cell phone number for easy contact, if needed.

Context 4:

4.1. Write an email to inform your team members/co-workers about the death of a dear friend and ask them to attend the funeral

For this scenario, students need to follow the writing moves shown below:
4.1.1.

- *Supply accurate description* of the incident that triggered the writing of this message. You will also need to include the names of the persons involved in the situation, date of incident and location. This is extremely important for the recipients to act upon the information given.
- *Request Action*

The conclusion of an email message is usually dependent on the message's communicative purpose. That is, if the message is seeking participation in an event, then the conclusion should read:
See you all at the funeral.
Here, the writer may attach a map or a sketch showing the directions to the funeral's location (i.e., venue), or specify an assembly pick up point for those to participate in the funeral.

- Then, the *writer signs off* by using any of the following:

We pray that the deceased soul rests in peace or
Please keep the deceased and his/her family in your prayers,
followed by the writer's name..

6. Results

Comparisons of pre-and post-teaching written email messages point to significant improvements in accuracy, appropriateness, number of words and communicative functions of post teaching written email messages. Here are some examples:

Pre-teaching samples

1. Complaint to professor about a course's final grade

> Dear Professor,
>
> I hope you are enjoying the break. I would like to review my final exam paper. I was shocked with getting a B- as a final grade since I have scored a 95 and 88 in my midterms, done well in my quizzes, and submitted all homework. I was expecting a much higher grade to represent the effort I have put into this course.
>
> Regards,

A quick glimpse at the above message shows that the writer assumed that the professor knew who s/he was. Furthermore, no information is provided regarding the course taken with the professor. More importantly, the message lacks any signs of being tactful in addressing a person of a high status.

2. Writing to a professor to ask for a make-up midterm exam

> Dear Professor,
> Hope this email finds you well.
> I wanted to inform you that I will not be able to attend the midterm that will be held on Thursday, 25th of February 2016 at 6:00 pm, for I have a surgery

scheduled on the same day. Moreover, a medical report will be provided on request. Consecutively I would like to kindly ask you to assign a date in which I can take a make-up exam if possible.
Best Regards,

Similar remarks to those made above can be made on this message. Yet, after class discussions of the these messages, students were able to see the wider picture, that is, realize that they needed to tell the recipient who the writer is, what kind of relationship holds between the sender and the recipient, and add a touch of politeness to the message as illustrated in the below post-teaching messages.

Post-teaching samples

1. *Complaint to professor about a course's final grade*

Subject: ENG207 final letter grade

Dear Professor X,

Good morning.

My name is X and I took with you an ENG207 course this past semester. It was really fun taking this course with you, and I really benefitted, both personally and professionally.

However, based on my performance throughout the semester in the quizzes and midterms, as well as the final exam which I believe I did well in; I feel that my final letter grade could be higher.
Therefore, I was wondering if you would be kind enough and consider reviewing my final grade for this course. I have attached to this email a record of my exact grades in all the quizzes and midterms for your reference.

Sorry for any inconvenience.

Looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Kind regards,

2. Writing to a professor to ask for a make-up midterm exam

Subject: Request for a make-up midterm
Dear Dr. **X**,
I hope this email finds you well.
My name is X (@00054222), and I am a student in your ENG 207 class, section 6 (9:30-10:45 am). I am sending you this email regarding the midterm I missed, which was scheduled for Thursday, 25th of February, due to a serious car accident. I am extremely sorry for any inconvenience, but I was wondering if it would be possible for you to give me a make-up exam. Most probably I will be discharged from the hospital by next Monday, 7th March, and I can take the exam at any date

that suits you.
I have attached to this email a copy of my schedule and free times, as well as the hospital's report of the accident.

Looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Best regards,

7. Discussion

Besides utilizing accurate personal forms of address, appropriate tenor, mode, and field of language, correct spelling, providing sufficient general personal identification details, and appropriate layout of written messages (i.e., spacing, paragraphing, etc.), the post-teaching samples exhibited more sense of readers' informational needs, greater clarity represented in the length of the message, and good use of politeness tactics (Kozel, Hawrysz, Vilamová, Hys (2017). In a nutshell, the steps reported in this study have contributed in shifting the focus from teacher-centered practices to students' collaborative learning-centered environments, resulting in improved student autonomy, positive self-perception and responsibility. That is, through careful examinations of deficient messages, students were able, with minimum guidance from the professor, to take full responsibility of their writing and make sound judgements as to their audience's informational needs. Moreover, this practice provided learners with real opportunities to create their own texts, engage in real communication tasks and reflect on the outcomes of their communication processes. This was manifested in email messages written to professors and other recipients for genuine communication purposes. In this regard, Rilling and Dantas-Whitney (2009:2) rightly argue that "[t]he goal of using and creating language for real-world purposes within language instruction is to bring authenticity to the learning experience…." In addition, students have become more knowledgeable about the steps involved in composing appropriate email messages, which has helped in their gaining "transferable skills and knowledge" (Chun 2010:24).

8. Conclusion and Recommendation

To conclude, writing formal email messages (Wang & Aaltonen, 2004) should be given precedence in communication courses and other engineering courses. Students "develop the proficiency that would enable them to communicate effectively and appropriately with target language speakers in various social settings and circumstances" (Liaw and Johnson, 2001). The concept of *interpersonal relationships* was of great importance so that students know where they stand from their addressees. Students, as a result of writing to different people of different social and hierarchical statuses, were able to use varied "discourse … strategies to negotiate the power differentials" (Liu, 2011:268) and maintain appropriate rapport.

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AN ANALYSIS OF CONVERSATIONAL DISCOURSE IN MEDICAL SETTINGS FOR LEARNERS OF GERMAN: LANGUAGE, COMMUNICATION AND PEDAGOGY

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Abstract: *The recent sociopolitical circumstances in Germany have led to the popularization of teaching German as a foreign language (Deutsch als Fremdsprache, DaF) within the country. To cater to the different needs or goals of learners, various DaF materials including those for specific occupational purposes have been designed. Assuming that dialogues in contemporary DaF textbooks constitute the important means of socializing learners into the use of the target language in real-life communication, this paper examined 29 conversations provided in an audio recording of a DaF textbook for non-physician healthcare workers. The healthcare sector was chosen because it is the profession in which DaF foreigners are often recruited. The major objective of the current research is to identify any pedagogic values of the dialogues. To this end, the utterances of the medical personnel in the dialogues were analyzed in accordance with Halliday's (1975) model about the seven functions of language. Attention was also paid to how these functions are linguistically manifested for medical communication as well as the construction of professional identity. The findings underscore the different roles which healthcare employees play in their workplace. These roles include providing or gathering information, building up rapport and regulating patients' behavior. Besides, the function-form correspondence is evident in the data. For instance, where the "instrumental" function is concerned, the healthcare workers tend to articulate their medical routine as a desire with ich möchte [I want to]. On the other hand, the "personal" function is typically realized by phrases like ich glaube [I believe], which preface the healthcare workers' medical judgment or advice. Last but not least, the data offer insights into how healthcare workers perform their professional identity during communication. One example is the simultaneous use of medical jargon and its generic equivalent (e.g., Amlodipin [amlodipine] versus Blutdrucktabletten [blood pressure tablets]) to display their expertise without jeopardizing patients' understanding. Given the findings of this study, DaF practitioners working in the field of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP)are advised to use the dialogues in textbooks to systematically cultivate learners' consciousness of how linguistic resources can be mobilized for communication in their profession.*

Keywords: German as a foreign language; language for specific purposes; medical communication; conversational discourse; textbooks; professional identity

1. Introduction

Being one of the strongest economies in the world (The World Bank, 2017),

Germany is a popular destination for immigrants. It was reported that the population of Germany was 82.27 million in March 2016 and out of the total, 8.86 million were foreigners (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017). People settle in Germany for various reasons, which typically include studies, work and family reunification. Throughout the years attention was explicitly paid to the integration of immigrants into society. This madethe field of teaching German as a foreign language (*Deutsch als Fremdsprache*, or *DaF* in short) important. From 2007 onwards, foreigners without a sufficient level of German proficiency are required to attend language classes (Wegmann, 2014: 134). Many schools like the *Volkshochschule* offer the state-run integration program to equip immigrants with the necessary German language skills. Recently, the surge of asylum seekers has given a further boost to the entire *DaF* industry.
A multitude of *DaF* textbooks and educational materials have been developed to cater to the needs of learners. For example, some textbooks were written specifically for *Langsamlerner* ("slow learners") or people who are not familiar with the Latin script (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, 2017). Textbooks can also be classified according to learners' goals. Apart from General German, German for Professional Purposes becomes a target of textbook writers as well. In this study, I will examine 29 dialogues identified in a *DaF* textbook for healthcare workers by capitalizing on Halliday's (1975) framework about the functions of language. The selected dialogues resemble communication in medical settings. Like many developed countries, Germany experiences a shortage of labor in the medical sector and relies on import of skilled migrant workers to fill vacancies (Astheimer, 2014). It is essential for healthcare employees to communicate effectively in the workplace because any miscommunication can result in undesirable consequences. The assumption of the present research is that textbooks for language learners are the crucial means of socializing them into the use of the target language in real-life communication (Curdt-Christiansen, 2017). They provide language samples for learners to model. What's more, it is believed that the way linguistic resources are mobilized in communication is intricately linked to identity construction(Kong, 2014: 106). While healthcare workers engage in communication at work, they are constructing their professional identity. Thus, it can be argued that the dialogues investigated in this study demonstrate to the *DaF* learners (probably in an implicit manner though)how such professional identity is performed. It is hoped that by the end of this article, the pedagogic values of the dialogues will have been clear.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The German-Speaking World

German is one of the prominent languages around the world. Despite the fact that English is by default the language for global communication, German is the most widely spoken first language within the European Union (European Commission, 2012: 10). People who speak German as their mother tongue amount to 76.8 million whereas nearly 53 million people are non-native speakers of the language (Simons and Fennig, 2017). In five countries (i.e., Germany, Austria, Liechtenstein, Switzerland and Luxembourg) German is the official language. German-speaking communities exist not only in Europe, but also in America

(Ammon, 2015: 208).
Being the largest German-speaking country, Germany has played an active role in enhancing the status of the language. Within the country, the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (*Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge*, *BAMF*) oversees the implementation of the language benchmark for foreigners who intend to stay in Germany on a long-term basis. Several institutions such as the German Academic Exchange Service (*Deutscher Akademischer Auslandsdienst*, *DAAD*) and the Goethe-Institut are responsible for promoting the German language and culture abroad (Salerno, 2016).It was said that the motivation to learn German is reasonably high due to the strong economic performance of German-speaking countries (Deutsche Welle, 2015).

2.2 Language for Specific Purposes

Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) is customarily discussed under the domain of second/foreign language instruction. Different from general language courses, LSP courses focus on specific use of the target language in accordance with an identified range of learners' specialized needs (Trace, Hudson and Brown, 2015: 2). Some concrete examples of LSP courses are Chinese for business, English for pilots and Spanish for tourism. Usually the content of LSP courses is limited to a particular social situation or even a specific type of tasks and skills (Trace, Hudson and Brown, 2015: 2).
Three remarks made by Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore (2015) regarding LSP are worth mentioning. First, LSP studies have been dominated by research into English, although LSP is an area which in principle covers all other languages (2015: 11). In fact, German for Specific Purposes (GSP) has aroused the interest of some researchers (for an overview, refer to Byrnes, 2013). Second, LSP involves much more than technical vocabulary, as possession of lexical items per se does not guarantee successful communication (Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore, 2015: 14). Third, within the field of pedagogy, LSP is mostly examined from the functionalist and pragmatic perspectives as it cannot be detached from language use in context (2015: 3). Adhering to this convention, the present research will adopt the functional approach to language for data analysis.

2.3 Medical Discourse

As mentioned by Gotti and Salager-Meyer (2007: 13), research on medical discourse among linguists is expanding. Broadly speaking, analysts of medical discourse make use of linguistics to decipher the connection between language, health issues and contexts. Examples of data which are frequently collected for analysis are interactions between medical providers and patients, medical counseling and people's retrospective accounts of their illness (Hamilton and Chou, 2014: 1). It should be noted that medical providers do not only include doctors, but they also encompass other health professionals such as nurses, therapists and even caregivers.
Medical discourse can be considered a type of professional discourse because it is generated in professional settings. According to Linell (1998: 143), professional discourse is divided into three kinds: (i) "intraprofessional discourse" (viz., communication among individuals within the same profession); (ii) "interprofessional discourse" (viz., communication between people from different fields); (iii) "professional-lay discourse" (viz., communication between experts and

laymen). Linell's (1998) classification is applicable to medical discourse as well. For instance, an encounter between a physician and a patient is an example of "professional-lay discourse."

2.4 Relevant Empirical Research

Given that the present research deals with dialogues found in a language textbook designed for healthcare workers who are learners of German, I will provide a review of previous studies on interactions which occurred in medical settings. Besides, prior empirical work on *DaF* materials will be discussed.

Slade and her associates (2008) analyzed the spoken discourse between English-speaking medical professionals and patients in an emergency department of an Australian hospital. Part of the research was to find out how the professional roles of doctors and nurses were related to their discursive practices. One interesting finding was that the nurse, when interacting with the patient, took on a "boundary-spanning role." On the one hand, the nurse projected himself as a member of the medical professionals while their knowledge was drawn into the conversation. On the other hand, where rapport management was concerned,the nurse distanced himself from the medical professionals and sided with the patient (2008: 281). The shift in discourse roles of nurses in their encounters with patients was reported by Candlin (2006) as well. In her study, the conversation between an experienced nurse and a patient during a health assessment conducted in English was analyzed. While formal language and directness were employed by the nurse when information was being elicited from the patient, the nurse also engaged in "idle talk" about housework. Candlin (2006: 79) interpreted this as a strategy to facilitate the interaction. She also argued that in their communication with patients, nurses have to strike a balance between their skills (viz., the "nursing world") and the patients' needs (viz., the "life world").

Unlike Slade et al. (2008) and Candlin (2006), Pryor and Woodward-Kron (2014) focused on 12 telephone conversations between junior and senior doctors—an example of "intraprofessional discourse." The junior doctors sought clinical advice from the senior doctors in each of these English conversations. Pryor and Woodward-Kron (2014) intended to derive from the conversations their generic structure. It was found that "instructional sequences" (where the senior doctors utilized a range of strategies to teach the junior doctors) appeared in conversations which were deemed to be less successful (2014: 48). The researchers recommended that examples showing what constitutes more and less effective communication be incorporated into the training program for doctors (2014: 51).

The journal *Die Unterrichtspraxis/Teaching German*specializes in research related to *DaF*, albeit within the American context. Studies on *DaF* textbooks can be identified from the journal. Two examples are the work of Lipinski (2010) and that of Snider (2005). Lipinski (2010) examined three *DaF* textbooks used by first-year undergraduates in the United States. The scholar compared the vocabulary lists of these textbooks with the high-frequency words found in the *Frequency Dictionary of German*. It was discovered that not more than 65% of the top 1000 high-frequency words were introduced in any one of the three textbooks. Lipinski (2010) remarked that textbook writers should have included a larger variety of high-frequency words because it is vital for learners to receive exposure to words which occur frequently (2010: 173). Snider's (2005) corpus came from six *DaF*

textbooks used at American universities. His objective was to reveal the proportion of communicative to non-communicative activities offered by these textbooks. Snider (2005) found that communicative activities outnumbered non-communicative ones in all textbooks. It was concluded that there was progress in materials design because authors and publishers were moving away from mechanically drilling learners in grammatical forms (2005: 169–170).
As demonstrated in this subsection, researchers of medical discourse have mostly worked with English speakers. The current research will deviate from this tradition by examining German data. Furthermore, previous scholarly work on *DaF* materials has generally been undertaken from a non-LSP perspective. This somehow creates a research niche which the present study may fill.

3. Data and Methodology

The data of the present study are 29 dialogues found in a textbook of a *DaF* series called *Menschen im Beruf*. This series was designed for LSP learners of German and contains textbooks for various professions. The one developed for healthcare workers (entitled *Menschen im Beruf—Pflege B1*) was selected for analysis. Although there is a textbook for medical doctors in this series, I decided to focus on healthcare professionals who are not medical doctors. As the title of the textbook suggests, its target users are those working in the medical field who aim for B1 Level of German proficiency based on the Common European Framework (CEF). The textbook was published in 2016 and consists of 118 pages. All the 29 chosen dialogues which amount to 6296 words come from the accompanying audio recording. Despite the fact that there are 37 tracks altogether in the CD, only 29 of them resemble dialogues in which healthcare workers interact with other people and thus constitute meaningful data for analysis.
The transcript of each dialogue was first examined to find out its interlocutors (e.g., healthcare workers talking to their colleagues, healthcare workers conversing with patients, etc.). This is an important step because only when such contextual information is available can educated guesses about the discursive practices of healthcare workers as reflected in the dialogues be made. Next, the utterances from healthcare workers were identified for detailed analysis. This means that the patients' utterances, for instance, were not analyzed, even though they would be taken into account during the discussion of the findings. To systematize the analysis, the framework suggested by Halliday (1975) was utilized. While discussing the language development of a child, Halliday (1975: 18–21) proposed seven functions which language serves. These functions are listed in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Functions of language [adapted from the work of Halliday (1975: 19–21)]

Function	Explanation	Examples
Instrumental	To express desire and needs	"I want …"
Regulatory	To control the behavior of others	"Take the medicine." "Call me."
Interactional	To establish or maintain relationship with others	"Hello." "Good morning."
Personal	To express one's own	"I like helping others."

	uniqueness, personal feelings and opinions	"I agree with you."
Heuristic	To find out more about the physical or social environment	"Can you tell me why this happened?" "What is the best solution?"
Imaginative	To create an imaginary context	"Let's pretend we're not happy."
Informative	To convey information	"I've got something to tell you." "This disease is called cholera."

Two remarks concerning the use of Halliday's (1975) framework have to be made. First, although Halliday (1975) related these functions of language to child language acquisition, his framework is transferable to the examination of language use in other situations because these seven functions are in some way fundamental to human communication. In the present study, this framework was employed only as a springboard for unpacking the conversational discourse in medical settings designed for *DaF* learners. Second, one feature of this framework, as Halliday (1975: 51) acknowledged, is its assuming the "un integrated uses of language," i.e., the seven functions being separate from one another, which may not be the case in reality. Due to the constraint on space, it is not feasible to elaborate on this issue. Nonetheless, I would like to emphasize that Halliday's (1975) framework enables a systematic analysis of the data in the current research, as the next section will show. In fact, Kohandani, Farzaneh and Kazemi (2014) have made use of this framework to investigate conversations in textbooks for learners of General English. After the data had been analyzed according to Halliday's (1975) framework, attention was paid to the salient linguistic manifestations of the functions. The findings would also be discussed in relation to the construction of healthcare workers' workplace identity.

4. Findings and Discussion

The 29 dialogues were divided into four main categories on the basis of their interlocutors. Table 2 demonstrates the distribution of these four categories. Conversations between healthcare workers and patients make up the largest amount (nearly 50%) of the dialogues. This is followed by conversations with colleagues (around 35%). It is interesting to note that three dialogues involve the family members of patients. Generally, the dialogues provided in the textbook are extensive enough to cover the major communicative situations which non-doctor healthcare workers encounter, except for the occasions where they have to communicate with medical doctors.

Table 2: An overview of the 29 dialogues analyzed

Category	Interlocutors	Quantity
Conversations with patients (e.g., hospital admission interviews, dialogues with inpatients and follow-up health checks)	• Healthcare workers • Patients	14 (48.28%)
Conversations with colleagues (e.g., meetings in the office and telephone	• Healthcare workers	10 (34.48%)

exchanges)		
Conversations with family members of patients (e.g., face-to-face encounters and telephone enquiries)	• Healthcare workers • Family members of patients	3 (10.34%)
Others (viz., incoming telephone calls from people whose role cannot be determined)	• Healthcare workers • Unidentified people	2 (6.90%)
Total		29 (100%)

Table 3 presents the distribution of Halliday's (1975) seven functions of language identified from the healthcare workers' utterances in the 29 dialogues. As the table displays, "interactional," "informative" and "personal" are the three most common functions. On the other hand, no instances of the "imaginative" function have been identified. This comes as no surprise because the healthcare sector is not an industry which is dependent on the workers' creativity. Healthcare professionals are not expected to engage in creative work while carrying out their duties.

Table 3: Instances of Halliday's (1975) seven functions of language in the healthcare workers' utterances

Function	**Tokens**	**Percentage**
Instrumental	11	2.27
Regulatory	52	10.72
Interactional	159	32.78
Personal	80	16.48
Heuristic	48	9.90
Imaginative	0	0
Informative	135	27.84

The "interactional" function is salient in the healthcare workers' utterances. Out of the 159 tokens, 73 involve the use of vocatives. In all the dialogues, the healthcare workers consistently address their patients by their surname (plus title). Nevertheless, only the given name is used when the addressee is one of their colleagues. Two examples are:

(1) *„So alt sind **Sie** doch noch gar nicht, **Herr Topak**!"* (Lektion 8 Einen Verband wechseln, Aufgabe 3)
[You are not that old at all, **Mr. Topak**!] (Lesson 8 Change a bandage, Exercise 3)

(2) *„**Natalia**, schmeckt **Dir** denn indisches Essen?"*(Lektion 12 Teambesprechung, Aufgabe 3b)
[**Natalia**, so do you like the taste of Indian food?](Lesson 12 Team meeting, Exercise 3b)

Apart from the forms of address, there is a difference in the use of the second-person pronouns between Examples 1 and 2 (viz., *Sie* [formal nominative "you"] versus *Dir* [informal dative "you"]).
The "interactional" function also materializes when healthcare workers express gratitude, apologies, greetings or concern about the patients, as the following examples show:

(3) *„**Vielen Dank**. Ich lege den Arztbrief gleich in Ihre Patientenakte.“* (Lektion 1 Patienten aufnehmen, Aufgabe 3)
[**Thanks a lot**. I put the doctor's letter in your medical file straightaway.](Lesson 1 Admit patients, Exercise 3)

(4) *„Ja, die Tochter habe ich auch schon kennengelernt. Äh, ja, **entschuldige**, sprich bitte weiter.“* (Lektion 3Mit dementen Menschen umgehen, Aufgabe 3)
[Yes, I have already met the daughter too. Oh, yes, **excuse me**, please continue speaking.](Lesson 3 Deal with demented people, Exercise 3)

(5) *„**Guten Tag**, Herr Gentner. Gehen wir doch in mein Büro. Da können wir in Ruhe über die Sache sprechen.“*(Lektion 10Auf Beschwerden reagieren, Aufgabe 3)
[**Good day**, Mr. Gentner. Let's go to my office. There we can talk about the thing in peace.] (Lesson 10 Respond to complaints, Exercise 3)

(6) *„Ich bin gleich wieder bei Ihnen.“* (Lektion 11 Schwierige Gespräche, Aufgabe 1)
[I will be right back to you.](Lesson 11 Difficult conversations, Exercise 1)

While the “interactional” function has to do with the rapport between the interlocutors, the “informative” function pertains to the transmission of information. Two relevant examples are:

(7) *„Herr Zumwirth schwitzt aber ziemlich stark, sodass seine Bettwäsche sicher bald wieder gewechselt werden muss und er ein neues Hemd braucht.“* (Lektion 22 Kollegen bei der Übergabe über Patienten informieren, Aufgabe 3c)
[But Mr. Zumwirth sweats quite intensely, so his bedding certainly has to be changed again soon and he needs a new shirt.] (Lesson 22 Brief colleagues on patients at the handover, Exercise 3c)

(8) *„Die Tabletten hier sind **Blutdrucktabletten** und heiβen **Amlodipin**. Sie bekommen drei Stück, das reicht Ihnen genau bis Montag-früh.“* (Lektion 24 Patienten überleiten, Aufgabe 1a)
[The tablets here are **blood pressure tablets** and are called **amlodipine**. You receive three pieces. This is exactly enough until early Monday.](Lesson 24 Transfer/discharge patients, Exercise 1a)

In Example 7, the healthcare worker gives her colleague information about a specific patient during a handover meeting. Here she reports on the patient's symptom and the necessary follow-up actions. In Example 8, another healthcare worker briefs his patient on the medication before the patient is discharged from the hospital. What appears in Example 8 corroborates Candlin's (2006) idea about the interface between the “nursing world” and the “life world.” When talking about the tablets, the healthcare worker employs both the medical jargon *Amlodipin* [amlodipine] and the generic term *Blutdrucktabletten* [blood pressure tablets]. In this way, he can simultaneously construct his professional identity and appeal to the patient's “life world.”
The professional identity of the healthcare workers is evident in places where the “personal” function of language is realized, as the three excerpts below indicate:

(9) ***„Ich glaube**, Frau Meier denkt, dass Herr Müller ihr Mann ist..."* (Lektion 3 Mit dementen Menschen umgehen, Aufgabe 3)
[**I believe** Mrs. Meier thinks that Mr. Müller is her husband…](Lesson 3 Deal with demented people, Exercise 3)

(10)***„Ich rate Ihnen**, in der nächsten Zeit nicht länger als ein paar Minuten zu duschen oder zu baden."* (Lektion 7 Dekubitus und Dekubitusprophylaxe, Aufgabe 3)
[**I advise you** to shower or bathe no longer than a few minutes in the future.] (Lesson 7 Bedsore and its prevention, Exercise 3)

(11)***„Ich empfehle Ihnen**, sich mit einer Wasser-in-Öl-Emulsion einzucremen."*(Lektion 7 Dekubitus und Dekubitusprophylaxe, Aufgabe 3)
[**I recommend** that you apply a water-in-oil emulsion.](Lesson 7 Bedsore and its prevention, Exercise 3)

In Example 9, the healthcare worker is commenting on the behavior of a female patient with Alzheimer's disease. This patient has been trying to hug another male patient. By using her knowledge of the disease and the patient's history, the healthcare worker rationalizes what the female patient has done. The "interpersonal projection" (Thompson, 2014) *ich glaube* [I believe] signals not just her opinion, but also her professional self. Examples10 and 11 come from a conversation between a healthcare worker and a patient who has a hard-to-heal wound. The healthcare worker is giving the patient advice on treatment. Again the "personal" function of language is manifested via the projecting clauses *ich rate Ihnen* [I advise you] and*ich empfehle Ihnen* [I recommend you], which at the same time foreground the expertise (viz., professional identity) of the healthcare worker.
The "regulatory" function of language identified in the healthcare workers' utterances is marked by the use of imperatives or deontic modality:

(12)***„Achten Siebitte** auch darauf, dass Ihre Mutter in der nächsten Zeit viele Vitamine, viel Eiweiß und ausreichend Flüssigkeit zu sich nimmt."*(Lektion 7 Dekubitus und Dekubitusprophylaxe, Aufgabe 3)
[**Please** also **notice** that your mother will take a lot of vitamins, protein and sufficient fluid in the near future.](Lesson 7 Bedsore and its prevention, Exercise 3)

(13)***„Setzen Siesich**doch **bitte**, Frau Wilke."* (Lektion 1 Patienten aufnehmen, Aufgabe 3)
[**Sit** down **please**, Mrs. Wilke.] (Lesson 1 Admit patients, Exercise 3)

(14)*„Sie **sollten** uns nur Bescheid sagen, wenn Sie die Station verlassen."*(Lektion 1 Patienten aufnehmen, Aufgabe 3)
[You **should** only tell us when you leave the ward.](Lesson 1 Admit patients, Exercise 3)

Example 12 is part of a conversation between a healthcare worker and the daughter of a patient whereas Examples13 and 14 happen during a hospital admission interview. In Example 12, the healthcare worker uses the imperative *achten Sie* [(formal "you") notice] to tell the daughter how her mother should be taken care of. In Example 13, the nurse utilizes the imperative *setzen Sie sich* [(formal "you") sit down] to get the patient ready for the interview. As highlighted in Example 14, the deontic modality *sollten* [should] is employed to increase the level of politeness and tentativeness.The politeness marker *bitte* [please] attached to

the imperative in Examples 12 and 13 performs a similar function. Undoubtedly, one of the important tasks for healthcare professionals is to “regulate” the behavior of their patients within the medical settings. The three examples illustrate how particular linguistic forms can be applied to mitigate the imposition caused.
Since the “heuristic” function of language concerns the search for unknown information,it coincides with the use of interrogatives very often. Two examples are:

(15)*„Sie haben einen Hautausschlag. Haben Sie denn auch Schmerzen?“*(Lektion 16 Pflegeberichte I, Aufgabe 3)
[You have a skin rash. So, do you also have pain?](Lesson 16 Care reports I, Exercise 3)

(16)*„Wissen Sie, wie Sie die Fersen frei lagern?“*(Lektion 7 Dekubitus und Dekubitusprophylaxe, Aufgabe 3)
[Do you know how to keep the heels free?](Lesson 7 Bedsore and its prevention, Exercise 3)

In Example 15, the healthcare worker wants to know whether the patient’s skin rash causes any pain so that the appropriate remedy can be determined for the symptom. In Example 16, the purpose of the question is to check if the family member of a patient knows how to look after the patient who suffers from pressure ulcers.
Though the “instrumental” function of language is rather infrequent in the healthcare workers’ utterances, its occurrences exhibit an interesting pattern. The healthcare workers tend to articulate their medical routine as a desire when interacting with patients, as the following examples show:

(17)*„Aber bevor ich einen neuen Verband anlege,* ***möchte ich*** *sie (die Wunde) noch ausmessen.“* (Lektion 8 Einen Verband wechseln, Aufgabe 3)
[But before I apply a new bandage, **I** still **want to** measure it (the wound).](Lesson 8 Change a bandage, Exercise 3)

(18)*„**Ich** bin **Schwester** Uta und **möchte** jetzt das Aufnahmegespräch mit Ihnen führen.“*(Lektion 1 Patienten aufnehmen, Aufgabe 3)
[**I** am **Nurse** Uta and **want to** administer the admission interview with you now.](Lesson 1 Admit patients, Exercise 3)

In both examples, the medical step which the healthcare workers have to take is statedin the clause introduced by *ich möchte* [I want to]. Example 18 also demonstrates that within the medical scene, *Schwester* (which is the short form of *Krankenschwester* [nurse]) is used as a formal title (plus surname) for nurses.

5. Conclusion

By using Halliday’s (1975) framework about the functions of language, this study explored 29 dialogues in a *DaF* textbook for healthcare workers. As mentioned before, the dialogues are important resources for LSP learners of German to get exposed to the target language, although strictly speaking they are not authentic conversations recorded in medical settings. The findings yielded reveal the pedagogic values of the dialogues. First of all, they highlight the various roles which healthcare employees play in their workplace. These roles include providing or gathering information, building up rapport and regulating patients' behavior. More importantly, the analysis exemplifies systematically as well as in concrete terms the contexts under which these roles are assumed. For instance, concerning their role of gathering information, healthcare workers ask questions not just for making an informed decision on the remedy needed, but also for checking the interlocutors' knowledge of essential healthcare techniques. On the other hand, the healthcare workers act as information providers when they inform their colleagues of the patients' conditions during handover meetings or when they talk to their patients about post-hospitalization treatment before their discharge from the hospital.

Another contribution of the present research is that the tendency for certain linguistic forms to serve specific functions in medical communication has been made explicit. The function-form correspondence is also connected to identity construction. One example is the "personal" function which is typically realized by phrases like *ich glaube* [I believe] in the data. Such expressions tend to be accompanied by the healthcare workers' medical judgment or advice. Thus, it can be inferred that they are indicative of the workers' professional identity. Given the findings of this study, *DaF* teachers working in the field of LSP may consider making more strategic use of the dialogues given in textbooks to develop learners' awareness of how linguistic resources can be mobilized for effective communication in their profession.

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GLOBALIZATION, COMMUNICATION, EDUCATION

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Abstract: *The paper focuses on the issues of globalization, communication and education. Globalization has become the fundamental theme of political discourse, through its economic dimension, namely by opening up the economic markets in search of new stability points of contemporary developed capitalism; a phenomenon that has led to the free movement of labor, thus involving the social dimension, the circle being closed with the educational dimension because the individual, regardless of the cultural context in which he/she lives, needs training. The global economy cannot be conceived without international communication, which has become a premise of economic success in recent decades. Such communication on which the economic partnerships and multinational organizations are based presupposes an accurate perception and interpretation of the different cultures other than those in which the economic activity takes place and a permanent negotiation of the symbols and reference systems. Education undoubtedly plays an important role in any attempt to address communication networks in these moments of explosive development, networks that mediate communication between people and can thereby help to bring them closer together. Education must directly follow the transformations and new requirements in order to support future changes and professional training. In this direction, education will have as an educational purpose the development of the consciousness of the links between the different components and participants, regardless of the geographic area in which they operate, and on this basis the building of the partnership. Education needs to efficiently and extensively convey that knowledge and information adapted to the new civilization of globalization that does not overwhelm but contribute to the development of people at individual and community level. It must also trace the transformations of the new world that is constantly moving, and at the same time make available to people the tools of guidance with which they can find their way of affirmation and continuous development.*

Keywords: globalization; communication; education; economic environment; transculturality; multiculturalism

1. Preliminary considerations

Launched in 1980, the phenomenon of globalization has been particularly manifested in the economic field, materialized among other things in the expansion of world trade. Globalization has led to the redrawing of the global economic map, to the establishment of scientific and technological networks linking research centers to major business circles around the world. We assist in both the political and economic fields to the tendency to engage in international action as a means of finding satisfactory solutions to issues of global concern. In this ensemble, those who can contribute to these networks either through information or through funds manage to join them. However, researchers and businesspersons in poor countries can remain very easily outside of these networks because of their lack of resources. The rapid changes of society, which we all witness, operate at two levels: in parallel with increasing internationalization, there is the tendency to return to their own values. Such changes subject those who live or direct them to contradictory tensions. Pressed from all sides by a post-modern society that still lacks all the means to adapt and integrate quickly and efficiently, people are not prepared to play an important role in the new globalized situation. There is a deep conflict between the desire to show loyalty to the various local communities and the need to respond positively to the demands of the complexity of the modern world, which dilutes fundamental supportive points, among which family remains a priority. The feeling of disorientation is determined by a number of factors that are essential: the inability to cope with the peculiarities and the dynamics of globalization; fear of the occurrence of disasters and conflicts that endanger people's lives; the feeling of vulnerability to unemployment; mistrust in the ability to address efficiently and timely the malfunctions generated by the new shock of globalization.

The free flow of images and words across the world through new conventional technologies that prefigure the world of tomorrow has helped transform not only international relations but also people's understanding of the world. Information systems are still relatively expensive, and for many countries it is difficult to access them. Control over them provides them with real cultural and political levers, unlike those who have not benefited from a type of education that gives them the chance and the opportunity to evaluate the information they receive according to their importance, so that they can then interpret and appreciate it. The emergence of the new global culture, made not only by access to information networks, postulates a strong reference to what we could call the international civil society. The speed of globalization is more rapid as the flows are less and less material and increasingly concern services, data, telecommunication, audio-visual messages, e-mail, internet consultations. Now there is so much talk of globalization because everything tends to be organized according to the following criteria: exchange rates, trade, monetary values, information, communication, television, multimedia, cyber culture. Globalization is a total phenomenon that involves widespread competition in all nations, in the analyzed areas. Thus, it is considered that the technological and informational revolution and the opening of the financial markets “have contributed to the provision of the means of disseminating the phenomenon only to the extent that the global economy has identified the degree of variability these factors have with each other”.(Cucos, 2010:59)

Globalization has made its triumphant entry, becoming the fundamental theme of political discourse, through its economic dimension, namely by opening up the economic markets in search of new stability points of contemporary developed capitalism, a phenomenon that has led to the free movement of labor, thus involving the social dimension, the circle being closed with the educational dimension because the individual, regardless of the cultural context in which he/she lives, needs training: “being a cultural human being and thus educated, permeable to contacts, dialogues, influences and cultural idiosyncrasies". (Antonesei, 2005: 21) The transcultural man, apt to be plenary in a multicultural context through intercultural dialogue, is characterized by two interdependent dimensions: an objective dimension of knowledge, which provides information and procedures for their processing in order to adapt to the environment, and a subjective dimension of the relationship with the environment, with the other members of different human groups, but also with one's own experience, making the individual less vulnerable to new, unknown interaction situations. A first step in building these dimensions is through intercultural education.Two opposing trends therefore characterize contemporary society: globalization / mondialisation and customization / regionalization / localization. If the former concerns the planetary dimension, the latter is the natural response to globalization, the return movement towards the narrow spaces: small territories (regions, districts), small cultures, human groups formed on the basis of identity factors, such as language, religion, ethnicity. However, both are the effects of the internationalization of economic, cultural, and informational phenomena, and although they obviously do not have the same goals, “they complement themselves in maintaining an absolutely necessary balance by seeking unity in diversity and identity in difference”.(Giddens, 2005:65) The dynamics of the movements are provided by a dominant force, represented in principle by a geopolitical and cultural ensemble, which tends to universalize its values, cultural products, language.

2. Economic environment and transculturality

The homogeneous society in which expectations of action and human behavior are fully stabilized, and the individual is not confronted with unforeseen situations, is already in many parts of the globe undergoing changes. Obviously, in many countries cultural heterogeneity is not a recent feature, ethnic minority groups have always existed in the geographically delimited spaces of many human groups defined as nations. However, irrespective of ethnicity, the individuals of a national state were identified with the national state they live in. An effect of globalization is precisely the change of this image of the nation. The German philosopher Ulrich Beck sees in globalization “a break in the architecture of thought”. (Beck, 1997: 116)

The process of globalization is, according to the same philosopher, a transition from the first modernization (Erste Moderne), which aimed at forming, stabilizing and imposing national states on the second modernization (Zweite Moderne), which tends to streamline national boundaries and implicitly of identities. Globalization puts into question the basic premise of the first modernization, namely the conceptual image or methodological nationalism: the contours of society are largely conceived as being congruent with the contours of the national state. By globalization, in all its dimensions, there is, contrary to this image, a new variety of relations and transversal relations between states and societies. Going further, the structure of basic concepts collapses, where so far societies and states, as territorial units delimited by each other, were conceived, organized and populated. Globality means “breaking the unity between the national state and national society; the formation of new relations of power and competition, conflicts and intersections between national states and their actors on the one hand, between actors, identities, social spaces, transnational positions and processes, on the other hand".(Cobianu, 2008:67) The world of the second modernization appears to be an unmanned world, in which the breakdown of territorial administrative barriers would lead to identity, social and cultural disintegration.

Paradoxically, globalization has rather a fragmentary character than an integrative one; it is the result of "market processes, geopolitical constellations and state decisions that open up broad fields of activity to banks and companies operating under international regime", (Tomlinson, 2012:89) with few power centers involved in this network, especially those from the northern hemisphere, say those who are skeptical about this phenomenon.

At the paradigmatic level of the two stages of modernization of societies, several pairs of characteristics can be identified, which find expression in both the macro structures, such as the society itself, the economy, education, but also in the micro structures such as learning languages. Homogeneity provides, in principle, a climate of confidence without which human interaction has been and is still unthinkable. Given the current economic globalization, we can no longer speak of such stability. Moving between different cultural spaces and confronting a variety of value systems make cultural homogeneity no longer a thing of its own. By integrating into different action contexts, in most cases from diverse geographic areas, the individual is constrained to the development of multiple identities and undergoes a process of hybridization. The balance between identity and alterity means, on the one hand, the recognition of differences and, on the other hand, the search for such normative norms of a general nature, to ensure a balance of interaction. The alternation between a homogenizing globalization, based on Western capitalism, and the tendencies of customization advocating for local and regional cultures is characteristic of current economic and social phenomena.

The global economy cannot be conceived without international communication, which has become a premise of economic success in recent decades. Such communication on which the economic partnerships and multinational organizations are based presupposes an accurate perception and interpretation of the different cultures other than those in which the economic activity takes place and a permanent negotiation of the symbols and reference systems. From this perspective, the balance between unity and difference must integrate at least three cultural levels: culture of origin, target culture, organizational culture. The last type of culture also means a link between the culture of the parent organization, developed in accordance with the culture of the geographical space and the national state in which it was born and in which it operates, and the different branch cultures, a network created by cross-border expansion. "Transculturality can be considered, from this perspective, the fundamental feature of multinational organizations, at which level hybridization is highly accentuated, and even the only possible form of existence".(Held, McGrew, Goldblat, Perraton, 2013:55)

Against the backdrop of economic structures of all kinds, from industrial, commercial, advertising, banking or financial to personnel management, the concepts of transculturality and transversality have the strongest relevance. The dynamic of the economic field does not allow enough time for the development of an intercultural dialogue, in which the fundamental understanding is the understanding of what is different and not just the perception and adaptation to the new. In such a context it is justified that the individual cannot belong only to one cultural circle, and transculturality is a possible middle way between global homogenization and regional / local personalization. Achieving the necessary openness of communication, and the ability to connect to the network and transgression of the culture of origin are essential in the flexible, situational reaction, depending on the requirements of the working environment, but also those of the new modernity. What is omitted, however, is the individual's need to have a clear identity that is virtually impossible to achieve in a multicultural organizational structure. That is why it is explained the functioning of at least two parallel cultural identities, the one used in the workplace, to call it organizational, the result of the mixture of elements mentioned above, and that used outside the organizational framework, which justifies the belonging of the individual to the home culture. It should also be borne in mind that organizational identity is temporary, “therefore it has a very low viability, not overlaping on the structures and depths of the individual”.(Bera, Yvon, 2008:102) Changing the workplace in another organization, which may also mean another cultural space, also requires a restructuring of the organizational identity.

With the increased interest shown for the concept of communicative competence since the 1980s of the last century, the notion of transnational communication is a relation between two languages that each reflects a certain social and cultural reality. It follows that in international interactions, even when receiving information in a foreign language, apart from strictly linguistic problems, additional obstacles arise from the different knowledge base.

3. The social environment and multiculturalism

The spatial reference of globalization is the planet as a whole, the fundamental idea being interconnection, thanks to the opening of borders and the real or virtual circulation of capital, cultural products, ideas, values and especially of people. Living in an open world, the individual comes in contact with a variety of cultures and in different ways from television, press, internet, school to the direct ones represented by tourism, but more chosen migration, so we can speak of a multicultural presence.

The migratory phenomenon, manifested in the form of temporary or definitive staying of people in other societies and of course in other cultures, thus constituting the most important context of the development of intercultural communication processes, became new dimensions in the second half of the 20th century. Indeed, the entire colonial history from the end of the 15th century until the mid-twentieth century was marked by massive population movements, either by the willful migration of millions of Europeans to America and Africa, or by the slave trade and by the forced relocation of indigenous peoples in their home countries by European colonialists, as happened in South and North America, Australia and Africa.

“The economic and social differences between the developed capitalist countries of Western Europe and North America have led to a break from another type of society”.(Spiteri, 2016:212) The high standard of living and the great possibilities of finding a job have become the attraction points of millions of people who, by their own decision, have chosen to work and live in a society other than their own. And so the world has been divided into countries receiving foreign labor, and less by political refugees, and cheap labor exporting countries. And on the other hand people were not prepared for this impact. Considering that welcoming countries at European level did not face cultural, ethnic and linguistic diversity in their well-defined geographic territories until the middle of the last century, multiculturalism at first meant homogenization, culture and unique language, chauvinism and cultural separatism. Migrants in their turn to survive had only one variation: total adaptation to the culture they lived through affiliation and addiction. Among migrants and members of the new cultural group in which they tried to penetrate, no dialogue could develop. In adapting, the migrant relies on direct experiences and observation. By comparing, imitating, he/she considers adaptable. On the other hand, members of the cultural group that they want to belong to are not willing to dialogue, perceiving migrants as intruders, often disturbing the existing identity, cultural, religious and linguistic balance.

The preservation of cultural identity presupposes cultural transmission, a complex phenomenon due to its branching over several levels, first of all temporally (diachronic and synchronous image of the perpetuation of the cultural element common to a human collectivity), but also spatially through the transgression of its own cultural matrix. Multiculturalism is therefore a phenomenon specific to societies in which different cultures coexist peacefully. The individual himself is still heavily anchored in his own closed cultural circle, which does not allow dialogue to be promoted, but rather delimits and excludes.

4. Globalization and education

Education undoubtedly plays an important role in any attempt to address communication networks in these moments of explosive development, networks that mediate communication between people and can thereby help to bring them closer together. Education must directly follow the transformations and new requirements in order to support future changes and professional training. In this sense, a direction meant to ensure the co-operation of the economy is represented by the so-called stakeholders, ie the group of those who, under different titles, are interested in an economic activity: officials, suppliers, customers, banks, local communities, etc. In this direction, education will have as an educational purpose the consciousness' development of the links between the different components and participants, regardless of the geographic area in which they operate.

Experience shows us the opportunity and the possibility of adopting partnership, which globalization makes inevitable, through encouraging examples, such as cooperation and exchanges between various regional clusters, partners within the European Community spread across the continent. A convincing argument in favor of the partners would be that everyone gains: "industrialized countries can support developing countries by providing them with a successful experience and providing them with both technology, material and financial resources",(Pilger, 2016:78) but at the same time they can learn from them how to pass on cultural heritage, different approaches to socializing children and, very importantly, they can come in contact with different lifestyles. This is why phenomena with implications far beyond the national borders are present. Thus, international migration, as one of the most visible processes of globalization, has dramatic influences and traces, sometimes dramatic in both countries of origin and host countries, especially in the field of education. The favorable reception of emigrants and their ability to integrate into a new environment reflects the extent to which modern society is receptive to foreign elements.

A specific problem for the future, given by the increase in demographic movements in recent years, is the creation of the new language situation. It is known that 6,000 languages are spoken in the world, of which 12 are spoken by over 100 million people. Wide spread languages - enabling people to communicate both nationally and internationally, are becoming more important as population mobility and media development increase. Linguistic diversity should not only be seen as an obstacle to communication between different groups, but as a genuine source of spiritual and material enrichment, which is a significant argument for the presence of languages in the educational process.

Table 1: *Most widely spoken languages in the world*

Language	**Approx. number of speakers**
1. Chinese (Mandarin)	1,917,000,000
2. Spanish	406,000,000
3. English	335,000,000
4. Hindi	260,000,000
5. Arabic	223,000,000
6. Portuguese	202,000,000
7. Bengali	193,000,000
8. Russian	162,000,000
9. Japanese	122,000,000
10.Javanese	84,300,000

Source: https://www.infoplease.com/

We can thus better understand the consequences of globalization if this reality is seen in the presence of the contradictory aspects, tensions, but also of the complementarity of national identities with the new world identity. The need to overcome tensions, even if they are not within us, will play a central role in the 21st century issue. Knowing how to manifest tension states, the causes that generate them, can introduce us in decoding the complexity and diversity of the poles generating anxiety or on the contrary, trusting in finding the solutions to solve it.

It has appeared and continues to remain, it is true with new features, the tension between the global and the local. People will have to learn through education to become citizens of the planet without losing their roots and continuing to play an important role in the lives of their own nations and local communities. Also, the tension between the universal and the individual in the field of culture shows us that it is continually globalized and that this process is not over and it will take time. We cannot ignore either the promises or the risks of globalization, and neglecting the unique character of the human being as a person is by no means a minor risk. At present, people have the feeling that they are crushed between globalization, the manifestation of which they can perceive and which they sometimes have to endure, and the search for roots, reference points and the feeling of belonging. “Every person has to choose his own destiny and engage his maximum potential within the traditions and his own culture that is more open to universality”.(Stiglitz, 2017:35)

Globalization highlights the dimensions, urgency and interdependence of the problems faced by the international community. Inside this global reaction, education is the major factor responsible in forming people able to cope with this problem. Education needs to efficiently and extensively convey that knowledge and information adapted to the new civilization of globalization that does not overwhelm but contribute to the development of people at individual and community level. Education must emphasise the transformations of the new world, and at the same time make available to people the tools with which they can find their way of affirmation and continuous development. In this respect, the fundamental pillars of education: "learning to learn", "learning to do", "learning the rules of cohabitation" and "learning to be" receive new formative content and impose new teaching-learning-evaluation strategies.

"Learning to know" means creating the education conditions specific to the knowledge society for every inhabitant of the planet.

"Learning to do" expresses the behavioral dimension of the educators' conduct, providing a conception and general obligations capable of directing the behavior towards the establishment of human relations. In this way, “the transition from an excessive personal attitude and subordination to the interests of the local or national community can be achieved, to an open relationship with other communities on different meridians of the globe”.(Steger, 2017:62) In this respect education will ensure the formation and improvement of new social skills.

In order to meet the requirements of founding and promoting new types of international social relations, education needs to expand its possibilities. The formation of the attitudes, skills and knowledge, the understanding of the diversity of the human race, and the need to become aware of the similarities between people become objectives specific to integrating with the requirements of the global society. Understanding the meanings of each other's reactions as a result of cultivating empathy and altruism becomes an effective way to avoid or resolve conflicts. The achievement of the objectives mentioned for this new pillar of education is determined not only by the competence and professionalism of the teaching staff, but also by the mentality and behavior that he/she adopts in the educational process. It is, therefore, necessary for teachers to understand the future course of mankind's history and to cultivate education for this future.

Through the content of the second pillar, "learning to be", education will have to ensure the multilateral development of each individual, the qualities of a citizen serving the nation and the world. The formation of personalities whose main duty is the service of society and their peers are conditions that strengthen the behavior for the global society. “Education in a global society is subordinated to the necessity of capitalizing on the human potential in its entirety”,(Stiglitz, 2007:11) by pursuing the development of intellectual and psycho-physical qualities, aesthetic and moral sense and behavior, the ability to communicate in the mother tongue and in other languages of international circulation.

5. Educational environment and interculturality

A universal person does not exist. He/she represents the image of a concrete historical moment and of a particular culture, is the dialectical expression between the attributes of time in which he/she lives and the universal, timeless ones. The economic and political migration movement over the past 40 years has led to Western Europe's host countries and the inevitable phenomenon of cultural and linguistic mix at school level. In fact, this has created a special interest in the new school reality, which disrupts the natural course of education. In this field the theoretical debates move between two poles: universalism and relativism, which means: "either to search for a relevant, supra-ethnic framework of interpretation and to try to compare and measure human cultures on the basis of common characteristics"(Lule, 2017:37) or "to find a framework of interpretation appropriate to a particular culture, to confront its own ethnocentric preconceptions and to place the self-definition of that ethnicity as a subject of its history at the center of all interpretations". (Lule, 2017: 37)

The universalist approach with clear eurocentric emphasis considers globalization as an overriding perspective, the world everywhere being faced with the same problems and challenges of peace, human rights and the environment, whose solving can only be achieved through joint action, based on the universal force of reason and language. The individual articulates his own cultural and biographical background and respects the cultural and biographical funds of those who enter into the global dialogue of the global society. Ideal communication is based on a global competence that represents the unity between global, national and ethnic identities as a result of the internalization of values and ethical principles, universally valid. On the other hand, the position of cultural relativism is articulated on a non-prejudiced eurocentrism by relativizing models of orientation, thinking, interpretation, which can lead to more tolerance in relations with foreign contexts. Both visions, however, have a common point, namely culture, with which ethnic, national, religious and linguistic differences are linked.

On an educational level, the growing concern with the phenomenon of interculturality after 1990, with the abolition of the communist bloc in Europe and the imposition of the world market economy, marked a shift from the dominant dichotomy of multiculturalism between self and foreign to focus on exchange and reciprocity. In the sciences of education, multiculturalism is reflected in the pedagogy of foreigners which have a compensatory character, without blurring the differences between people with different cultural backgrounds, and in foreign language teaching, in the foreground, is the acquisition of knowledge about the foreign environment, located outside the national borders. Interculturality changes optics, the difference is no longer regarded as a lack and a delimitation criterion, but a natural fact of pluralist society.

At the educational level, the concept of intercultural communication is becoming increasingly important. "The internationalization of relations puts foreign languages first among the skills to be acquired and the (inter) cultural adaptation is a savoir être type, especially valued in the professional environment".(Acemoglu, Robinson, 2013:48) Intercultural education aims to raise awareness among children / young people and even adults through different forms of lifelong learning, cultural / linguistic diversity, alterity, and everything that is not identical. The formal school environment can essentially contribute to the awareness of cultural differences / identity and their understanding through intercultural dialogue mediated by the expert teacher.

6. Europe and the United States of America - cultural interdependencies. A case study

In every cultural and political community, in every civilization there are individuals who, educated, cultivated, polyglots, have access to texts produced abroad and can translate them into their own language. For centuries, the process has been hampered by geographic distances or by technical difficulties. With the development of globalization, facilitated by mass media and contemporary transport, the circulation of texts knows a veritable acceleration. The inhabitants of Europe have thought and acted for centuries as if Europe were the center of the world. For five centuries, the smallest of the continents is the most important of them historically and culturally. For centuries, Europe has been the center of the world, but today - although it still has a considerable economic and cultural weight - it is brought to its true geographical and demographic dimensions. Nowadays, the inhabitants of the old continent live, at the same time, the culmination of European culture and the decline of European political hegemony. Already at the beginning of the twentieth century, when the nations of Europe - England, France, Germany - disputed their domination over the continent, and therefore in the world, North America and Russia occupied the first places of history. The United States has acted slowly by demographic, economic and cultural growth, swallowing rising masses of European immigrants: initially peasants, then workers and craftsmen, intellectuals and artists who were part of modernity elites, of scientific research, of the cultural avant-garde. The United States of America has formed as a nation and as a great power from the mass emigration of the European peoples in the 19th and 20th centuries.

The exiled intellectual represents a long European tradition. Without going to the migrations of Greek philosophers in antiquity and limiting ourselves to classic and modern Europe, we mention the exile of Descartes and Bayle in the Netherlands, Voltaire in England, Rousseau in France or England. It is known that in the eighteenth century "any young Englishman belonging to high society had to make the great journey on the continent to improve his manners, to develop his culture and to discover the world".(Leclerc, 2014:330)

The official installation of Hitler in power in 1933 was the moment when a wave of German intellectuals emigrated. "It is estimated that about 2,000 writers, journalists, researchers, university professors left Germany, heading for Paris".(Betz, 1991:30) Paris was the most important center of exile. Between 1933 and 1940, writers like Thomas Mann, Heinrich Mann, Stefan Zweig, Emil Ludwig and Bertolt Brecht came to settle here. German emigrants have founded many magazines in Paris. In the cosmopolitan metropolis, intellectuals from around the world met along with surrealists and the cultural and ideological movements dominated by French intellectuals. A colony of foreign intellectuals was important both numerically and symbolically. These were American writers and artists: Ernest Hemingway, Henry Miller, Ezra Pound, Scott Fitzgerald.

However, "the arrival of Americans in Europe was counterbalanced by the way to Hollywood made by European actors and directors from France (Claudette Colbert, Maurice Chevalier, Charles Boyer, Maurice Tourneur) or Central Europe

(Greta Garbo, Emil Jannings, Marlene Dietrich)".(Leclerc, 2014:332) This emigration, which was generally not lived as an exiled, only signified Hollywood's hegemony on world cinema.

The exile in the US of German intellectuals (especially Jews) made this country the main and ultimate destination of the emigration of European intellectuals only after the coming of power to Nazism. After 1940, once occupied Paris, most German exiled writers, at least those who were able to make it in time, fleeing from Europe arrived in the USA. The main destinations of world intellectual exile became New York and then Los Angeles. The US became Mecca, the New Jerusalem of intellectuals. This meant the end of Paris's intellectual hegemony, the end of the cultural supremacy of Europe.

The movement of European intellectuals to the US began in the 1930s and marked the great transformation in the Western world: the dominant civilization of the West is no longer in Europe but in the US. The exile movement of intellectuals is distinguished from the general European emigration of anonymous emigrants who have left Europe primarily for economic reasons. In general, exile has political, ideological, and cultural causes.

The group that largely dominates European emigration to the USA comes from Germany, Austria and Hungary. If we take into account the existence of the Austro-Hungarian Empire until 1919, in which the language of the culture was German, it can be said that most intellectuals were made up of Germanophones. They cover almost the full range of intellectual and artistic professions.

The intellectual revolution, the mutations due to the progress of international communications, especially between Europe and the US, have become a phenomenon of all Western civilization. The world of intellectuals is now an international community. Books, magazines, mass media, personal contacts (letters, visits, colloquia, seminars) lead to intercontinental links between members of this community. A professor of sociology at Berkeley is invited for a few weeks in Paris; an economist from São Paulo teaches in Chicago; a Japanese physicist is making a trip to Germany.

The best example to illustrate the international character of scientific research, its transatlantic character is perhaps the Vienna Circle. In the 1920s, scholars in social sciences and philosophers met informally in Vienna; it's primarily about Philip Frank, Hans Hahn, Richard von Mises, Otto Neurath. In 1924, under the direction of Moritz Schlick, this informal group became the Vienna Circle, sometimes referred to as the Circle of Logical Positivism. Two of the most important members of the circle are Rudolf Carnap and Hans Reichenbach. Moritz Schlick is the first member of the circle passing the Atlantic in 1929 for a series of conferences at Stanford University. In 1931 he returned to the US, this time at the University of Berkeley. The Vienna Circle continues its activity in Europe, at least until 1936. International conferences take place in Prague (1934), Paris (1935), Copenhagen (1937). The next conference is held in Cambridge in 1939 in the USA.

The 1930s mark the beginning of what A. Betz calls the "European Civil War".(Betz, 1991:217) At the end of this war, Europe is losing its world hegemony for centuries. The determinants of this civil war are Nazism and Stalinism. In the early 1920s and 1930s, the main emigration place for European intellectuals was Paris. The city was the heart of a civilization of the oldest and most advanced in history.

The wave of intellectual emigration from Europe to America is an unprecedented event. One of the effects of European intellectual emigration was Europeanization of American culture; and by this formula we understand the acculturation of the United States of America to the sophisticated high culture of Europe, assimilating Europe's latest cultural and technological innovations (psychoanalysis, linguistics and logic, nuclear physics). Another effect was full of obvious and important historical consequences. At the end of the Second World War, cultural supremacy has passed, at least temporarily, from Europe to America.

A European who desires to escape the nostalgic feeling of the decline of Europe or the unnecessary and distorted manifestation of eurocentrism may eventually think of the reflections of Laura Fermi - daughter of the great Italian physicist who, emigrated to the US. According to L. Fermi, the cultural distance between Europe and the United States has diminished considerably, following the Europeanization of American culture after the influx of immigrants in the 1930s, but also due to the return to Europe of a part of the European intellectuals temporarily exiled to the USA during the war.(Fermi, 1968:380) Most French intellectuals emigrated to the United States returned to Europe after 1945: André Breton, Claude Lévi-Strauss, Jules Romains, André Maurois, René Clair. In a nutshell, the Europeanization of American culture was counterbalanced by an Americanization of European culture.

In the 1950s, there was a wave of emigration of American intellectuals in Europe, a quantitative wave. Extremist anticommunism considered as dangerous communists the artists and intellectuals who in the 1930s were temporarily comrades of the European Communist Party and the small Communist Party of America. Thus, Charlie Chaplin, Joe Dassin, Joseph Losey and some others have been banished or forced to flee to Europe. The collapse of communism has extinguished the resources of a possible intolerance that risks becoming unbearable for liberal and radical intellectuals. Far from being a realm of intellectual emigration, the US is the point of convergence and the center of rallying intellectuals around the world. If European intellectuals still emigrate to the US, the flow is not comparable to that of the 1930s. Now it's more about travel, exchanges, visits than emigration and exile. In the era of reaction planes, the place where a researcher lives at a certain point in his career becomes less significant. Researchers go to seminars and colloquia equally easily in New York, Tokyo, Cairo, as in Paris, London and Berlin.

Most of those who crossed cultural borders in a seemingly global, vital and irreversible manner did not do it completely and unambiguously. Rather, they became mediators, intermediaries. "To cross a cultural border does not mean to leave your own culture without the possibility of return. It means accepting it as contingent, accepting to become a partial and / or temporary stranger ". (Leclerc, 2014:342)

7. Conclusion

Education is not only responsible for providing knowledge (training) but also for transmitting values, habits, beliefs in order to perpetuate cultural and ethnic identities, and the formation of a sustainable structure. The school therefore has a dual mission of transmitting a general culture, centered on useful knowledge, and reproducing culture to ensure coherence and cohesion, in other words, a homogeneity within the human group. If for a homogeneous cultural context the two functions are achieved naturally, the multicultural environment certainly raises problems in both situations, but especially in the reproduction of the cultural matrix. Here intercultural education interferes with the recognition, acceptance and valorisation of various cultural matrices, temporarily present in a school context. The fundamental means of achieving these goals is dialogue, which, by its dynamic, confrontational nature, stimulates the openness, comparison, relativization of absolutist ideas and perspectives, and raises sensitivity to all that is different. The process of understanding in intercultural communication is fundamental. It is always bound by certain factors: the socio-cultural environment with traditions, norms, specific values; individual experience in their own socio-cultural environment; school conditions.

Considering communication in general as a way of using the language for inter-human understanding, intercultural communication would in particular require a dual competence - in its own language and culture, in origin, and in foreign language and culture. In intercultural processes, it can easily be noticed that by persistent anchoring in a single culture (usually the home one) the probability of developing conflicting states is much higher, so dialogue is promoted.

In an attempt to create a global culture, an important role is given to foreign languages. English is undoubtedly at the forefront of the hierarchy, being used throughout the world in all its forms: written, spoken, formal, informal and specialized registers: economic, legal, technical, journalistic. It has become the central language of international communication in business, politics, administration, science and the academic world, and is also the dominant language of global advertising and folk culture. The problem of domination of a language and the threat to linguistic diversity is linked to a more general problem, that of cultural imperialism: the idea that a culture can be a hegemonic culture. Due to this universal language, communication through the Internet has become the modern way in today's society to convey your thoughts, feelings, ideas, opinions to something or someone. New communication technologies increasingly integrate the world whether we like it or not. Knowledge of languages helps us to enrich our knowledge by the fact that we can now enter any library in the world with just one click. At the same time, it can facilitate a better understanding of the beauty of a language or culture, customs and traditions of the respective country.

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AUTHENTIC MATERIALS VS TEXTBOOKS IN ESP (ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES)

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Abstract: *The purpose of this study is to analyze and compare the value of authentic materials and textbooks in ESP English for Specific Purposes) learning and teaching context. The study compares the characteristics of the authentic materials and the characteristics of textbooks designed and selected for the purpose of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in ESP setting. The study defines the role of materials in ESP setting and compares the benefits and possible drawbacks of both types of materials and resources: the authentic materials in English for Specific Purposes context compared to traditional textbooks designed for the purpose of teaching and learning English for Specific Purposes. The study identifies the benefits of authentic materials, which include the richness as an input source and the authenticity of the tasks offered to learners, as well as the negative sides of authentic materials, which include the level of difficulty that these materials might present to the learner . Furthermore, the study identifies the benefits of textbooks, which include available sources for the learners and less time consuming class preparation for the teachers, as well as the drawbacks which include the impossibility of finding a textbook which corresponds entirely to learners' needs. In addition, the article focuses on teachers' attitudes and opinions regarding the appropriateness and exploitability of each source and their preferences and reasons for material selection. The target population consists of eleven lecturers who teach English for Specific Purposes in tertiary education. The lecturers teach various branches of ESP, including ESP for Computer Sciences, Business, Communication and Legal Studies. Data collection is conducted through a specifically designed questionnaire, addressing the questions of materials selection, teachers' preferences regarding textbooks or authentic materials and the selection criteria applied by the lecturers. Furthermore, the article attempts to offer recommendations regarding materials selection and opting between authentic materials and/or textbooks in ESP setting.*

Keywords: authentic; ESP; textbooks; authentic materials; selection of materials

1. Introduction and Purpose of the Study

This article focuses on the process of materials selection in the context of teaching English for Specific Purposes with analysis of two types of materials: authentic materials and textbooks designed for the purpose of teaching English for Specific Purposes. The study describes the characteristics of both types of materials: authentic materials as well as textbooks which are used in ESP setting. The study

attempts to differentiate the potential benefits and drawbacks of both types of materials in teaching English for Specific Purposes.
The study attempts to answer the following research questions:

- What is the role of materials in ESP context?
- What are the benefits and possible drawbacks of the authentic materials in ESP context?
- What are the benefits and possible drawbacks of textbooks designed for the purpose of teaching and learning English for Specific Purposes?

This study is conducted at South East European University (SEEU) in Republic of Macedonia and in the Language Center which is part of SEEU. The Language Center offers both general and ESP language courses to the entire students' population at SEEU. The ESP courses are offered during semester 3 and semester 4. The prerequisite for taking ESP courses is the intermediate level of proficiency (B1 according to the Common European Framework for Languages). The ESP courses offered are the following:

- ESP for Business Administration
- ESP for Computer Science and Business Informatics
- ESP for Legal Studies
- ESP for Public Administration and Political Sciences
- ESP for Communication

In this context, the process of preparing, supplying and adapting materials for the offered ESP courses was never an easy task. The dilemma between using commercial textbooks available on the market or authentic materials or academic texts from the content field of studies was always present and influenced the decision regarding teaching engagements and accepting or refusing these courses.
The role of materials in ESP teaching and learning is significant. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:170-171) state the following reasons for using materials in ESP context:

- As a source of language
- As a learning support
- For motivation and stimulation
- For reference

1.1. Materials as a source of language
In teaching contexts where exposure to English is not constant and English is taught as a foreign language, the materials may be among the rare sources of English available to students. Although these contexts are rare presently, due to the exposure to English via social networks, media and communication, there are still cases where the ESP classroom is a primary source of language. In these cases, materials serve the purpose to enhance the exposure to target language.

1.2. Materials as learning support
Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 171) state the following:" As a learning support, materials need to be reliable, that is to work, to be consistent and to have some

recognizable pattern". However, they argue against using a fixed format of materials. In addition, they emphasize the need of stimulation of cognitive processes and providing the learners with a sense of progression.

1.3. Materials for stimulation and motivation

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:171) define this characteristic of materials in ESP in the following way: " To stimulate and motivate, materials need to be challenging yet achievable; to offer new ideas and information whilst being grounded in the learners' experience and knowledge; to encourage fun and creativity." In addition, materials have to offer something new for the learner, to take into consideration the needs of the language learners and to connect to the learners' reality.

1.4. Materials for reference

In order to serve the purpose of self-study or reference, materials need to be organized, complete and very clear. The explanations, variety of relevant examples and practice activities need to be present, in addition to answer keys. Materials for reference need to be clearly organized and easy to use and find necessary information.

It can be concluded that the role of materials in ESP is significant and the choice of materials has an impact on the overall success in language learning in ESP context.

2. Authentic Materials and Textbooks in ESP (English for Specific Purposes) Setting

One of the most important choices when it comes to ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course design is the process of material selection.ESP practitioners often face a dilemma: choosing a textbook designed for a specific branch of ESP (Computer Sciences, Business, Legal Studies or other branch of ESP) , choosing authentic materials related to the field of study, including different documents or forms, texts related to the area of study ; or choosing a blend of different types of materials, authentic materials included. The question is: what is the best choice in ESP context? Can we rely on a single textbook or our ability, as ESP practitioners, to choose relevant authentic materials? What would correspond better to students' needs and the teaching context?

2.1. Authentic materials in ESP: benefits and drawbacks

Prior to analysis of potential benefits and drawbacks of authentic materials, it is important to define the notion of authentic and authentic materials. Gilmore (2007) provides eight meanings of the notion authentic. According to Gilmore (2007), authenticity relates to:

- The language produced and used by native speakers in a language community
- The language produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and for the purpose of delivering a real message
- The qualities given to the text/ message by the listener or reader
- The interaction between student and teachers

- The tasks given
- The assessment
- The culture and the ability to adapt to target language group
- The social situation in the classroom

Therefore, it can be concluded that the concept of authenticity depends on a combination of several factors, including the message, the text, the circumstances and the purpose of communication.

Gilmore (2007) discusses the discrepancy between authentic language and textbook language and provides arguments in favor of using authentic materials. Regarding the implications for materials design, Gilmore (2007:103) states the following: " Authentic materials, particularly audiovisual ones, offer a much richer source of input for learners and have the potential to be exploited in different ways and on different levels to develop learners' communicative competence. Unlike authentic materials, the traditional source of materials found in textbooks are described as follows: "The contrived materials of traditional textbooks have often presented learners with a meager and frequently distorted sample of the target language to work with and have failed to meet many of their communicative needs (Schiffrin, 1996 in Gilmore, 2007). Thus, the arguments in favor of using authentic materials are the richness of the materials as a source, the possibilities of developing learner's communicative competence, the opportunities to put target language in context and the myriad of activities and tasks that can be used in a specific language learning context.

One of the characteristic features of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) setting is the necessity to use authentic materials in teaching the target language and establishing two types of authentic interaction. Learner authenticity, defined by Lee (1995) is the interaction between the language learner and the context in which the language is being used. Classroom authenticity, defined by MacDonald et al. (2006) is authenticity created in the context of language learning classroom and by creating meaningful learning contexts in which the participants can discuss, share their opinions and engage in socially motivated and meaningful activities. Therefore, the purpose of ESP leaning materials is to create opportunities for meaningful interaction and an appropriate and motivating context. For that reason, authentic texts and other documents or materials can be used. They expose the learners to a meaningful context, provide the authentic and needed vocabulary and establish a link with the content area of study. They can include authentic texts from the content area of study, journal articles and texts and visual materials, forms and documents, instructions and other types of materials.

Although authentic materials provide a rich source of learning opportunities for ESP teachers and language learning and teaching situations, it needs to be emphasized that there are potential drawbacks. Probably the most notable drawback is that the majority of authentic materials were not designed for the purpose of language learning. As a result, these materials can be either too difficult or too easy for a group of language learners.

Using authentic materials can also require a large amount of preparation on behalf of the ESP instructor, which includes searching for relevant and appropriate materials, selecting the vocabulary or grammar items to be taught, adapting the materials to serve the teaching goals and objectives, adapting the materials in terms of language difficulty and adapting the materials in order to fit them in the frame of a class time. Thus using authentic materials requires significant experience and knowledge on behalf of the ESP practitioner. The above mentioned reasons sometimes raise the issue of practicality of using authentic materials in a typical ESP or general language teaching and learning context.

2.2. Textbooks in ESP: benefits and drawbacks

There are several arguments in favor of and against necessity of textbooks in ESP learning and teaching context. In order to offer an answer to this question, a more general analysis of the potential benefits and drawbacks of textbooks in language teaching and learning is needed. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that textbooks provide structure which can act as a safe base from which the learners can successfully develop autonomy. They also define the interaction between the teacher, materials, and learners in the following way:

This interaction has to be managed in order to provide the structure and predictability that are necessary to make the event socially tolerable to the participants, to enable learners and teachers to know where the lesson fits into the general pattern of things, to save teachers and learners work, and to give legitimate external parties access to, and possibly influence upon, what takes place in the classroom. The very fact that a lesson is a dynamic interaction, therefore, leads not to a need for maximum freedom, but to a need for a predictable and visible structure both within the lesson and across lessons. The textbook, we suggest, is the best means of providing this structure.

(Hutchinson & Torres 1994:321)

The arguments provided by Ansary & Babaii (2002) in favor of using textbooks in foreign language learning and teaching are the following:

- A textbook provides a purpose for learners and they take their learning seriously.
- A textbook can serve as a syllabus
- A textbook provides already prepared texts and tasks

A textbook provides support and guidance for inexperienced teachers. Jordan (1997:127) emphasizes the subjective element when selecting a textbook:

> What attracts us to a book in the first place? In practice, it might be for a number or combination of reasons: an attractive, well designed cover; the persuasive publisher’s blurb; a list of contents that seems to cover everything that we want; the level seems appropriate for the students, a clearly set out text, and practice material that appears to be user-friendly; informative teacher’s notes and key; a colleague recommended it; the size is convenient, the price is right; it is available; and so on.

Jordan (1997:127)

The arguments above, in favor of using textbooks in the context of language teaching and learning, can be also applicable in the context of learning and teaching ESP. An appropriate textbook in an ESP classroom, provides a readymade source of materials and activities, as well as a focus and purpose for language learners. Textbooks usually include appropriate and useful topics for discussion and relevant vocabulary from the content area of study, which includes Business, Information Technology, Legal Studies, etc.

Swales (1980) after analyzing the materials and textbooks in the context of ESP, recommends a combination of external sources (textbooks) and internal sources (within institution and locally produced, instead of focusing on ESP textbooks. The requirements for textbook use in ESP context, according to Swales (1980) are that the textbook should not be “hermetic”, thus offering a chance to ESP practitioners to use other materials in combination with the textbook.

However, there are several arguments against using textbooks in the context of teaching and learning ESP. First of all, it is almost impossible to find a textbook which will correspond to learners' needs and their level of proficiency. The majority of the ESP groups are mixed ability groups, and it is almost impossible to find a textbook which will correspond ideally to students' level of language proficiency. In addition, the teachers tend to over rely on a textbook, thus disregarding their own creativity and unique approach to teaching. Some of the topics in the textbooks might not correspond to students' needs or even their reality. Very frequently, especially in ESP for Computer Sciences, the topics and the texts can be outdated and therefore cannot offer possibilities for further exploitation and learning.

3. Research Method, Target Population, Results and Discussion

Having in mind the arguments related to materials selection in the context of ESP, this study focused on teachers' opinions and perceptions regarding the preferred materials used in ESP classroom. The research method included a questionnaire given to 11 teachers who teach various ESP courses offered by the Language Center at SEEU. The teachers are between 35-50 years of age. Their teaching experience varies from 11 to 15 years of teaching at tertiary level and approximately the same number of years of teaching English for Specific Purposes. The questionnaire consisted of the following questions:

- Do you consider materials and the process of materials selection to be important in ESP?
- Do you use a textbook in your ESP classes? If yes, what are the benefits? If no, what are the reasons?
- When choosing a textbook for your ESP classes, what are your selection criteria?
- Do you use authentic materials in your ESP classes? If yes, what are the benefits? If no, what are the reasons?
- When choosing authentic materials/ authentic academic texts for your ESP classes, what are your selection criteria?
- Do you use a combination of materials in your ESP classes? If yes, what do you combine? If no, what are the reasons?
- What is the most notable obstacle when compiling teaching materials for ESP?

In total, 11 ESP teachers responded to the questions of the questionnaire. The responses were obtained from both male and female teachers, who teach ESP for Legal Studies and Public Administration, ESP for Business Administration and ESP for Computer Sciences and Business Informatics. Their responses reflect their perceptions and preferences in terms of materials selection for their ESP courses.

The majority of the ESP teachers believe that the process of selecting materials is very important in ESP teaching. Some of their answers reflect this opinion.

- *I strongly believe that this process is important. Without appropriate materials, you do not have a successful ESP class.*
- *For me , materials are the most important aspect of an ESP course*

As far as using textbooks in their ESP classes is concerned, teachers' answers reflect the following situation: ESP teachers prefer the idea of using a textbook in their ESP classes. However, sometimes they are not able to find a textbook which corresponds to the teaching and learning context and their students' needs. In addition, one ESP teacher added the explanation that ESP textbooks are occasionally outdated and therefore sometimes inappropriate to use in the context of ESP for Computer Sciences and Business Informatics. Some of their replies included the following:

- *I use a textbook in my ESP for Business Administration class. I find it very relevant, well organized and helpful. I do not feel as if I have to spend too much time to prepare and it is very practical.*
- *I do not use a specific textbook, simply because I could not find one for the ESP course that I teach. There aren't too many textbooks Public Administration and Political Sciences Studies. I use of combination of materials.*
- *I use a textbook for my ESP for CS class. The topics are great but I cannot limit the materials to this textbook only.*

Teachers' responses to the next question reveal that the most relevant criteria for selecting the textbook are suitability in terms of language proficiency and corresponding to their students needs. Several teachers also included textbook availability and affordability. Of course, choosing a textbook which is not available on the market or too expensive is impractical and probably inefficient choice of a material.

- *Textbooks cannot be too expensive and the students should be able to buy them either on campus or in local stores.*
- *Textbooks should not be too easy or too difficult.*
- *The topics have to be relevant.*

As far as authentic materials are concerned, most teachers were aware of the benefits of these materials. Qualities such as challenging in a positive way, motivating and relevant were included in the explanations. Among the selection criteria for authentic materials, relevance and appropriateness in terms of language and corresponding to students needs were mentioned. Visual authentic materials as well as written materials were used. Videos and footages including TED talks and public speeches, courtroom recording and news footages were included in the responses. Among written materials, different forms and templates, written materials related to the legislative, official gazettes and written reports were mentioned. The majority of teachers reported that they were very well received by the students. However, most of them stated that adapting authentic materials in

order to be used to correspond to a specific learning objective is time consuming and very difficult and occasionally not successful.
The question about using a combination of materials was answered positively by all participants. All of the responses indicated that a combination of materials in used in their ESP courses. The responses reflected that the majority of the teachers use either a textbook or a course reader with a compilation of different texts, accompanied with grammar and vocabulary items. Additional handouts, supplementary materials authentic visual and written materials are used in addition to the textbooks or course readers. However, none of the ESP teachers relied primarily or entirely on authentic materials. Authentic materials were used only as supplementary materials.
The last question was focused on the possible obstacles or difficulties when obtaining course materials for ESP classes. Some of the answers listed the following difficulties:

- *Some of the textbooks are not appropriate in terms of language or topics.*
- *Some of the textbooks are too expensive.*
- *Some of the authentic materials are not appropriate in terms of clarity or quality (for instance the quality of visual materials and recordings).*
- *Some of the materials focus on one language skill only.*
- *Sometimes, authentic materials have to be translated or adapted, which is too time consuming.*

From the answers above, it is clear that the process and criteria for materials selection in the context of teaching and learning English for Specific Purposes is not simple and straightforward. A variety of different factors have to be taken into consideration in order to respond to students' needs and learning objectives.

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

From the literature review and ESP teacher's responses in this study, it can be concluded that teachers consider materials and the choice of materials in the field of ESP as crucial. If a textbook is chosen for a specific ESP group, several criteria have to be taken into consideration. The textbook selected needs to correspond the teaching context and learning objectives. It should be appropriate in terms of language. The textbook needs to be affordable and easily accessible for the learners and teachers alike.
Authentic materials used in ESP courses should be relevant and suitable. In addition, the materials used in ESP context would ideally to deal with the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The process of selection of authentic materials should take into account students needs as well as potential difficulties that a certain group of students or individual students might encounter when dealing with specific tasks. These materials need to be adapted and used according to the needs of the specific study group. Finally, in ESP teaching and learning context, it is important to remember that experts from the content area of study or specific field, as well as learners themselves have a significant input when materials and textbooks are selected for an ESP course. Therefore, both students and the teacher can be considered as a relevant source of material.

In conclusion, it needs to be emphasized that as a perfect textbook or language learning material is non-existing in both general and ESP teaching context. As a result, the selection of materials is an ongoing process during which the materials need to be constantly renewed, upgraded, and adapted.

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Appendix

Please read the questions carefully and respond to the questions in detail and as accurately as you can, taking into consideration your experience and expertise as an ESP practitioner.

Do you consider materials and the process of materials selection to be important in ESP?

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Do you use a textbook in your ESP classes? If yes, what are the benefits? If no, what are the reasons?

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When choosing a textbook for your ESP classes, what are your selection criteria?

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Do you use authentic materials in your ESP classes? If yes, what are the benefits? If no, what are the reasons?

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When choosing authentic materials/ authentic academic texts for your ESP classes, what are your selection criteria?

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Do you use a combination of materials in your ESP classes? If yes, what do you combine? If no, what are the reasons?

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What is the most notable obstacle when compiling teaching materials for your ESP courses?

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A CASE FOR THE USE OF TRANSLATION IN ESP CLASSES

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Abstract: This article is a plea for the use of translation as a teaching method in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) class in general and the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) class in particular, by highlighting its advantages, as revealed by recent research in the field. Translation as a teaching method was associated for a long time with the Grammar Translation method, and fell from grace sometime in the mid-20th century, where it remained until recently. Despite this marginalization, in EFL, many teachers have been quietly using both L1 (mother tongue) for explanations and translation as a supplemental teaching method. Its value has been reasserted by numerous recent theorists and their research. They have demonstrated repeatedly, as this paper will attest, that translation exercises have undisputed value if used pertinently and efficiently, and if prepared with specific goals in mind. Thus, for several years now, translation has regained its legitimate place in the teaching of English and has re-emerged as a useful tool in this endeavour. In English for Specific Purposes (ESP), its usefulness is even more appreciated, as this paper will propose. The purpose of this article is twofold. The first part is a presentation of the latest research regarding the use of L1 in the classroom and the issue of translation employed as a learning technique, with a review of the relevant literature. The second part refers specifically to ESP and to the particularities of this branch of EFL, offering a few suggestions for types of translation activities and ways in which they can be useful in such classes. The aim is to bring evidence that translation is neither old nor obsolete, but a valid teaching method that helps learners by consolidating difficult grammar issues, clarifying confusing aspects, enriching vocabulary and generally improving their knowledge of English.

Keywords: ESP; translation; terminology; teaching method; skill

1. Introduction

Once the Grammar Translation method was universally acknowledged as obsolete and inefficient, both translation and the use of L1 were exiled to the fringe of the domain of language teaching. However, in recent years, more and more theorists and professionals in the field of language learning have advocated for the use of L1 and translation, offering numerous reasonable arguments in this regard. Though all the criticism of the Grammar Translation method may have been justified in terms of how the method was implemented a hundred years ago, all the theories and methodologies developed in the meantime have inevitably left their mark on the teaching of English today. In fact, most teachers borrow useful elements from various methods (audio-lingualism, PPP – Presentation, Practice

And Production, CLT – Communicative Language Teaching, TBL – Task-based learning, humanistic approach, lexical approach, or corpus-based approach) depending on their experience in the classroom and the type of learners. Thus, given this influence, the use of translation in class today may result in a completely different experience than what the Grammar Translation method used to be.

2. Translation in the EFL class – new arguments and recent research

The recent and extensive research into the use of L1 and translation in the classroom has reiterated, again and the again, the main points of interest, namely that these two concepts have been traditionally and erroneously equated to the Grammar Translation method, that L1 is widely used in classrooms all over the world, though not openly admitted, and that there are many advantages to translation if used properly in class. Historically, the 'troubles' started with the unsatisfactory results of the Grammar Translation method in terms of language acquisition. Its main criticisms were that it was not concerned with oral communication skills, it lacked interaction, being a teacher-centred approach, and thus did not encourage creativity and spontaneity (Sapargul and Sartor, 2010: 27). Translation was also considered an artificial and restrictive exercise, counterproductive, forcing dependence on L1, purposeless and with no application in the real world, frustrating and de-motivating (seemingly designed to elicit mistakes rather than encourage) and generally not suited for the average learner (Carreres, 2006).

The consequence was a radical position, namely various methods that "tried to encourage authentic communication and improve language teaching" (Sapargul and Sartor, 2010: 27). All these eventually united in the 1980s under the banner of the Communicative Approach which practically banned the use of L1 and translation in the classroom. The Communicative method, a learner-centred method, successfully ruled the realm of English teaching for many years. In summary, the proponents of the communicative methods "firmly believed that the use of the mother tongue was counter-productive in the process of acquiring a new language, and that therefore the use of translation in the classroom could do more damage than good, holding back learners from taking the leap into expressing themselves freely in the second language" (Carreres, 2006). However, both L1 and translation have often been employed in EFL classes over the years, in spite of the strong stigma associated with them, as David Owen remarks: "Why is there still that lingering sense of having done something wrong when, as teachers, we make use of translation in our classes?" (Owen, 2003). Resorting to L1 or translation has long been regarded as a personal failure of the teacher due to the association with the Grammar Translation method which was rejected as a relic of the past, a joke even (Atkinson, 1987: 242). However, a movement started in the 1990s to bring translation back into the conversation.

E.R. Auerbach, like other theorists (Popovic, 2001), points that there is no conclusive evidence to justify the use of English only in the classroom (Auerbach, 1993: 6) and elaborates on the subject showing that the results depend on the age of the learners, as well as their degree of literacy, and also on the skill and openness of the teacher toward this activity, I might add. In fact, the complete rejection of the use of mother tongue and translation in the classroom is neither reasonable nor justified for many reasons. An important argument in this regard is that all students translate mentally (Duff, 1994, quoted in Dagiliene, 2012: 125; Cook, 2001: 417), especially in elementary levels, but not only, and using L1 comes naturally, as Jeremy Harmer points: "when we learn a foreign language we use translation almost without thinking about it, particularly at elementary and intermediate levels" (Harmer, 2001: 131). The rigid elimination of the use of L1 in the classroom is not a solution, nor a guarantee for the improvement of language acquisition (Mattioli, 2004: 25), especially since it is the learners' preference to use it (Atkinson, 1987: 242; Tudor, 1987: 269). Numerous case studies and surveys conducted by various researchers over time show the same statistical results and lead to the same conclusions: the learners want to use L1 and translations are helpful in the classroom. Schweers's study (Schweers, 1999) is the most referenced in this regard, but other researchers have conducted their own surveys: Carreres, 2006; Liao, 2006; Kavaliauskienë and Kaminskienë, 2007; Kavaliauskienė, 2009; Dagiliene, 2012; Calis and Dikilitas, 2012; Xhemaili, 2013; Fernández-Guerra, 2014; Mollalei et al, 2017. Some learners, depending on cultural background, are very resistant to the Communicative method and downright reject it, as is the case of Taiwanese and other Asian students (Savignon and Wang, 2003). Moreover, the banning of L1 is also a rejection of the learners' identity and culture, as well as their expressed needs, therefore the human element is disregarded to their detriment (Harboard, 1992, quoted in Mattioli, 2004: 25, Auerbach, 1993: 14).

Apart from the reactions and opinions of the learners in the various surveys, there are demonstrated features that directly contradict the characterizations made by those who reject the use of translation in class, as enumerated in detail by Atkinson, 1987: 243-246; Atkinson, 1993: 53; Cook, 2001: 410-419; Owen, 2003; and Fernández-Guerra, 2014: 155-156. Thus, contrary to the general belief, translation as a teaching method is communicative, as Ana B. Fernández-Guerra suggests: "as a communicative act, TILT [*translation in language teaching*] can expose FL students to various text types, registers, styles, contexts, etc. that resemble the way languages are used in real-life for communicative purposes." (2014: 155). Another point made by researchers on this topic is that translation used as a teaching technique requires the use of authentic materials, is interactive, learner-centred, and promotes learner autonomy (Mahmoud, 2006: 30), which are also important qualities in ESP.

Another significant aspect of this method is remarked by David Atkinson. According to him, some of the benefits of using translation activities are that they force learners to think about meaning, not just manipulate forms mechanically, allow learners to think comparatively, encourage them to take risks, and are a real-life activity (the learners may need to translate in their job) (Atkinson, 1993: 53-54). Thinking comparatively, understanding the non-parallel nature of languages and the fact that there is no perfect correspondence between two languages are major points made by most of the research on this matter (Mattioli, 2004: 24; Kavaliauskienë and Kaminskienë, 2007: 134; Fernández-Guerra, 2014: 155). The lack of correspondence between L1 and L2, in addition to the positive and negative transfer between languages, enhances the understanding of L2 (Mahmoud, 2006: 30, quoting Van Els, 1984). By understanding the differences while doing contrastive analysis, the learners will acquire more knowledge of L2 (Ross, 2000) and increase their awareness of it (Dagiliene, 2012: 124), not only in terms of grammar but also in terms of pragmatic and stylistic devices (Owen, 2003), thus promoting learning (Popovic, 2001). Translation is useful to compare grammar, syntax, word order, vocabulary and this helps learners activate language usage (Kavaliauskienë and Kaminskienë, 2007: 132), as Nigel J. Ross points:

> The real usefulness of translation in the EFL classroom lies in exploiting it in order to compare grammar, vocabulary, word order and other language points in English and the student's mother-tongue. The areas where differences occur range from relatively small points such as 'false friends', through sizeable areas such as tense systems, to more complex fields such as contrastive rhetoric. (Ross, 2000)

If learners understand the differences, with the positive or negative transfer indicated punctually, interference will diminish: “Activities involving translation from the mother tongue […] encourage students to make the important step of beginning to think not in terms of 'How does one say X in English?', but rather 'How can I express X in English?'.” (Atkinson, 1987: 245).

Translation activities, if organized properly, can be used for various purposes, as David Atkinson proposes: cooperation among learners, reinforcement of recently explained items of grammar or vocabulary, checking for sense, and development of learning strategies (1987: 243-245). They can also enhance physical attributes such as memory and cognition, again contributing to the improvement of learning: “translation actually can be used as a cognitive, memory, affective, communicative, and compensatory learning strategy to boost learning effects” (Ali, 2012: 430). Translation practice promotes both analytic and synthetic thinking, developing the “skills of circumlocution, paraphrase, explanation, and simplification” (Atkinson, 1987: 245), and facilitating the learner’s adaptation to various linguistic instances.

To sum up, the research into this matter, starting with the 1980s, has drawn comparable conclusions. On the one hand, the use of translation in class, as a teaching aid, is not to be confused with the Grammar Translation method of the early 20th century, and on the other hand, translation activities encourage communication, interactivity and the transfer of the thought process from L1 to L2. They also take into account learners’ needs, develop important new skills and promote learning.

3. Considerations about the use of translation activities in the ESP class

The Communicative approach has been hailed as the best method to teach English because the development of skills is paramount and it offers learners the best chances to acquire a new language. Accuracy in terms of grammar, spelling or phonology are less relevant (Harmer, 2001: 84-86; Sapargul and Sartor, 2010: 27). There are, however, fields where accuracy matters and is actually vitally important, like science, for example. Science must communicate rigorous information through a reliable medium, as scientific experiments must be reproducible. Therefore, scientists need to be able to communicate with each other in correct terms. Apart from conferences and other similar contexts, most scientific communication is done through text, through the writing of reports and articles detailing experiments which are then published for the benefit of other scientists and the progress of knowledge in general.

Thus, in teaching scientific English, that is ESP for science students, it is very important to match their future needs. In science, like in several other fields, English is *lingua franca*, as most research is published in English. Language should not be a hindrance to researchers, but a tool to convey a clear message. If students of biology, ecology or agriculture are lucky to work in the fields that they are training for, they will need: 1) to read and write in English (articles, scientific papers, presentations, posters, projects, for which they will require a clear and accurate understanding of the text, both in English and in Romanian, and 2) to connect with other researchers – most likely via written correspondence, but also directly, through verbal communication.

When it comes to ESP, the question of purpose (Kic-Drgas, 2014: 256-257) and learners' needs is stronger than in EFL. Translation may not be suited for all learners, but it is very helpful in ESP where accurate equivalence, as well as work on authentic texts are required for the learners' needs. When students graduate and work in their field of choice, such activities may prove very useful as they will have a set of common phrases specific to that domain and to which they can always refer, as well as skills for further learning. They will be provided with a basic foundation, the tools needed to face new linguistic challenges in their future professional life. Thus, given the particular needs of these learners, many of the points made by researchers, and presented in the previous section, apply very well to ESP, a growing branch of EFL with distinct objectives.

However, when translation activities are planned for the ESP class, some factors need to be considered. In order to make them into a successful technique of language acquisition, the teacher should take into account, among other aspects, the learners' level of English, the learners' level of scientific knowledge, and their motivation to learn. For elementary levels, translation can be used to consolidate grammar, for intermediate and advanced levels, translation may be used to correct errors and point out interference and negative transfer (Newark, 1991, quoted by Ross, 2000; Popovic, 2001), in other words work on nuances and improve knowledge of L2. While most researchers agree that translations are most useful at elementary levels (Atkinson, 1987: 242), even learners with intermediate or advanced knowledge of L2 can reap benefits from this type of activity, especially in ESP, where just good command of English is not enough. Thus, translation can be integrated and emerge as a fifth skill (Ross, 2000; Fernández-Guerra, 2014: 155; Kic-Drgas, 2014: 258) alongside the other four: reading, writing, listening and speaking.

The second consideration mentioned above, namely the learners' scientific knowledge is specific to ESP and an important element required for the success of the translation activities. The more the students know about their domain, the easier it is for them to understand and learn specific formulations, phrases, collocations and other instances of English phraseology specific to the scientific text. However, in my experience, students' knowledge is not considerable, especially in the first year of tertiary education, when ESP is first taught, therefore this lack may be a hindrance. In such cases, the ESP class is an opportunity for learners to also enhance their scientific knowledge, to a small extent, however, and mainly as an encouragement to look for information themselves, as the job of the English teacher is neither to teach science, nor to have considerable knowledge of science.

The third issue, learners' motivation, is probably the most important and affects the successful implementation of any teaching activity. This is a complex topic, to which considerable research has been devoted, and which I also discussed in a previous paper: "While most of them [*students*] acknowledge the importance of being able to speak English, others dismiss it entirely, even though the course is designed using corpora and authentic information specific to their respective domains, and based on needs analysis and the range of possible jobs specific to the field of activity they train for." (Chirobocea, 2017: 364). Sometimes, the ESP teacher must face hostile attitudes on the part of students who, ignorant of reality, reject the inclusion of English in their scientific education. Others do not envisage themselves practicing science or being involved in a job that requires knowledge of English. Learners' motivation is also affected by the unequal level of English proficiency among a group. Separating the learners into groups according to their level of knowledge is often an unattainable goal for many teachers, me included, as such arrangements require space and time that are not available. Learners' motivation also fluctuates depending on the time of day the English class is scheduled, on the number of classes they had that day, and on subjective factors such as tiredness, hunger, emotional state and others which are usually disregarded when learning methods and techniques are proposed.

4. Objectives of translation activities in the ESP class

Various researches offer a multitude of examples of how translations can be used in class, and even entire course designs organized around translation activities (Laviosa and Cleverton, 2006: 7-11). Thus, some propose consolidation translations (Atkinson, 1993: 62) for grammar such as the progressive aspect, comparatives or false friends (Ross, 2000), or ideas for how to integrate translation into existing courses aided by pre- and post-translation activities (Popovic, 2001). Others propose the translation of definitions of terms (Kic-Drgas, 2014: 259-260), error correction through translation (Atkinson, 1993: 621) or by comparing different translations of the same text (Atkinson, 1993: 62), translation as post-reading activity (Mahmoud, 2006: 31-32) or back translating (Zhang & Gao, 2014), which consists of one group translating a text from L1 into L2, then giving the translation to a different group who will translate it back into L1, which leads to an analysis of the differences that will most certainly occur and to a discussion about why they occurred.

In my ESP classes, I have often employed most of the types of translation activities suggested above, as I noticed the students understood better certain elements of grammar or vocabulary when compared with L1 (Romanian). My experience with this method, over the years, has been largely successful. I also found that students pay special attention to these exercises compared to other activities. The context is tertiary education, English classes for students at the Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Sciences (biology, ecology, agriculture and horticulture). In this context, English is taught for two years (four semesters during the first two years), with one or two hours per week.

In terms of their advantages in class, what I noticed from my experience was that translation activities are particularly useful in the teaching and learning of specialized vocabulary, which represents an important part of ESP. They can be helpful in the introduction of new terminology. In such cases, there are two options:

either the terminology is given directly before the translations, as a list, with an explanation for each word or the L1 equivalent, or it is left to the students to look it up in dictionaries or glossaries of terms. The latter solution has advantages and disadvantages. Bilingual dictionaries of specific terminology are not widely available, nor do they even exist for certain branches of science. An alternative is the internet, which provides explanations for scientific terms, but where correct or complete equivalents in L1 are not available or reliable. The advantages in asking students to look up terms are interactivity, communication and teamwork, which encourage learning, both of English and of science. However, such an activity is time consuming, and time is often a luxury in the ESP class. Translations also help point other specific elements of vocabulary such as false friends, synonymy, homonymy, polysemy, positive and negative transfer related to prefixes, suffixes or specific phraseology. Translation activities can serve very well as revision at the end of a particularly terminology-rich class. Carefully targeted translations help revise and consolidate the specialized vocabulary and work as a reminder in terms of both meaning and spelling.

A post-reading activity can also help introduce and understand new vocabulary, especially collocations, as well as other elements that construct meaning. For example, some phrases are taken from an English text and given in Romanian after the text. As a post-reading activity, the students are asked to read the text and look for the English equivalent for those phrases in the text. This activity works in the other direction as well, namely, certain portions of sentences that contain specific difficulties in English are taken out of the text and the students are asked to give a translation into Romanian. This type of activity, both from L1 into L2 and from L2 into L1, is more integrated and helpful with any type of language issue. It involves a more global understanding of the text, as well as awareness of specific elements that make the difference.

Just like in the case of vocabulary, translations can be used to reinforce or consolidate grammar at the end of a class, or immediately after the grammar issue is explained or encountered, depending on methodology. Though some students find even elementary translations difficult (the ESP class gathers learners with varying levels of English proficiency, from elementary to advanced, and it is difficult to cater for all needs), they do understand better the grammar issues when these are explained and practiced in comparison with L1. This works well when it comes to particularly difficult elements of English grammar that have no or different correspondent in L1 (Romanian, in this case): present perfect, the progressive aspect, ‘be going to’, definite article (enclitic in Romanian), modal verbs, ‘it’, specific word order, conditional rules, phrasal verbs, collocations and many others which are best exemplified by comparison. In such cases, the learners are taught that they have to rely on understanding the meaning and not on a verbatim translation in order to convey a message correctly.

For illustration, I will offer one of the many types of sentences I have been using in my English class for biology students for several years:

Când apare o sângerare, plachetele se adună formând trombusuri care funcţionează ca un dop pentru a o opri.

Invariably, this example raises relatively the same problems with most students, year after year. The problematic issues are discussed and options are presented. This, like other similar examples, is an opportunity for the students to understand new terminology (bleeding / haemorrhage, platelet / thrombocyte, clot /

thrombus), to choose the best fit from a list of synonyms (appear, occur, happen, take place; work, function; cap, cork, plug), to practice the use of 'there is', to remember irregular plural (thrombus – thrombi), to recognize the reflexive and transitive nature of verbs (assemble, gather vs. collect, pick) and to practice the use of 'it', which I noticed to be often problematic for learners, given the lack of a Romanian correspondent. This is but a demonstration of how a simple example like the one above can lead to numerous discussions whose intent is to constantly revise and enrich vocabulary, access various aspects of language in contexts specific to the learners' domain and promote learning. A more practical approach will be the next step in my research, as I propose to design an experiment in the attempt to quantify more precisely how translation practice is specifically useful for learners in the ESP class.

5. Conclusion

As many valid sources have demonstrated, with surveys and classroom-tested methods, translation used as a teaching technique in EFL classes has legitimate value and does not hinder learning, on the contrary, it helps in this process, as Radmila Popovic concludes: "if a strong case for translation in the language classroom is to be made, at least three things ought to be demonstrated: that criticisms against it are not valid, that learners need it, and that it promotes their learning" (Popovic, 2001). Of course, results are best when the method is used judiciously, when the activities are well planned (Dagiliene, 2012: 126) and designed with the learners' needs in mind, especially when it comes to ESP: "the success of TILT lies in its correct use as a working and learning tool, with appropriate activities that help students to contrast their native and foreign languages, to improve their language skills, and to see the usefulness of the task" (Fernández-Guerra, 2014: 156). Or rather, as Vivian Cook puts it with the suggestions she offers for the success of the method, if we are going to use it, we might as well use it well (Cook, 2001: 418).

My own experience in the ESP class has only emphasized the validity of these theories and proved that many elements specific to the scientific text such as vocabulary and specialized terminology, word order, grammar or style can be more easily understood and further consolidated by learners through translation, which is, undeniably, a useful tool in the ESP class. The overview of the recent research on this topic, presented in this paper, highlighted the positive aspects of using translation in class and revisited this wrongly marginalized teaching method. It also listed a few types of translation activities and their possible uses in the ESP class, as they revealed their advantages in my classroom experience. In conclusion, given the arguments presented above and supported by the recent research on the topic, translation used as a teaching technique is useful and efficient, and should definitely be reconsidered as a valuable aid in the EFL class in general and the ESP class in particular, where the correct use of language in the accurate construction of the message have paramount importance.

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NEUE WEGE IN DER FREMDSPRACHENLEHRERAUSBILDUNG. EIN PROJEKT AN DER PHILOLOGISCHEN FAKULTÄT DER UNIVERSITÄT ZU BANJA LUKA (BIH)

NEW WAYS OF EDUCATING FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS. A PROJECT AT THE FACULTY OF PHILOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF BANJA LUKA (B&H)

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Abstract: *The future teachers of foreign languages are educated at the Faculty of Philology at the University of Banja Luka. Although it is a pedagogical faculty teaching faculty, the curricula have been dominated by linguistic and literary subjects. The studies are oriented towards the philology-model. The pedagogical group of subjects and teaching practice were for many years only a pendant of the studies. However, a few years ago, the importance of teaching practice was acknowledged and the idea was created to devote much more attention to this issue and to organize the practice in a way that will help students much more in preparing for a future teaching profession. In the forthcoming paper, the way of organizing teaching practice at the Faculty of Philology at the University of Banja Luka is presented in detail, as well as the multiple benefits arising from it.*

Keywords: future foreign language teachers, foreign language teacher education, philology-model, teaching practice, foreign language courses, competences

1. Einleitung

Die Ausbildung angehender Fremdsprachenlehrer ist eine komplexe und verantwortungsvolle Angelegenheit. Während der universitären Ausbildung sollen sie zahlreiche Kompetenzen erwerben, die ihnen ermöglichen, nach dem Abschluss des Studiums ihren Beruf mehr oder weniger erfolgreich auszuüben. Dabei liegt die Verantwortung bei den Universitätsprofessoren, welche den Studierenden theoretisches Wissen vermitteln, sie zum selbstständigen Finden von Informationen sowie zur selbstständigen Erweiterung und Vertiefung des Wissens befähigen sollen. Die Verantwortung liegt auch an der Institution selbst, welche die Bedingungen zur Durchführung des Prozesses Lehren und Lernen schaffen soll. Eine große Verantwortung tragen auch die Lehrenden für Didaktik und Methodik, welche die Studierenden theoretisch als auch praktisch zur zukünftigen Berufstätigkeit befähigen. Dabei ist von großer Bedeutung, wie das Praktikum organisiert wird und ob die Studierenden die Möglichkeit besitzen, noch während des Studiums ihr theoretisches Wissen in die Praxis umzusetzen.

Ziel dieses Beitrags ist es zu zeigen, wie sich die Studierenden der Philologischen Fakultät der Universität Banja Luka auf den Lehrerberuf vorbereiten, bzw. wie das

Praktikum organisiert ist und welche Kompetenzen die angehenden Lehrer dabei erwerben.

2. Ausgangspunkt: Philologie-Modell

Zunächst wurde die Ausbildung angehender Fremdsprachenlehrer in einigen westeuropäischen Ländern (Deutschland, Österreich, Frankreich) so konzipiert, dass dadurch vor allem Philologen und nicht Fremdsprachenlehrer ausgebildet wurden (Krumm, 1994: 6; Krumm, 2012: 55; Neuner, 1994: 12). Erkenntnisse von Wissenschaften, die das Lehren und Lernen fremder Sprachen erforschen, haben kaum Eingang in die Ausbildung von Fremdsprachenlehrern gefunden. Diese Ausbildung hat sich meistens am Philologie-Modell orientiert (Krumm, 2012:. 55). Das Philologie-Modell bedeutet, dass Fremdsprachenlehrer Kenntnisse in Grammatik und Literaturwissenschaft besitzen, aber sie haben mangelnde pädagogische, methodische und interkulturelle Kompetenz, weil die Ausbildung philologisch und praxisfern ausgerichtet ist (Krumm, 2012: 55). Wenn die Ausbildung praxisorientiert wäre, würde die Gefahr bestehen, nicht akademisch und somit im Vergleich zur universitären Ausbildung minderwertig zu sein (Neuner, 1994: 12). Die Wissenschaft hat sich mit der Praxis nicht beschäftigt und somit sind auch wissenschaftlich begründete Konzepte zur Durchführung des Praktikums ausgeblieben. Der Grund dafür war vor allem die Angst einiger Fachvertreter, von „echten“ Wissenschaftlern nicht ernst genommen zu werden (Königs, 2000: 4). Deswegen haben angehende Fremdsprachenlehrer überwiegend Philologie studiert und am Fach und nicht an der Unterrichtstätigkeit orientiert. Sie haben nach dem Abschluss des Studiums ein einjähriges Praktikum gemacht, welches in keinem Zusammenhang mit der Universität stand (Krumm, 2012: 55).

Aber verschiedene gesellschaftliche und politische Geschehnisse in Europa – Fall des eisernen Vorhangs, Globalisierung, Migrationsprozesse – haben dazu geführt, dass man mit dem Fremdsprachenlernen massenhaft begonnen hat und dass der Bedarf an Fremdsprachenlehrern plötzlich gestiegen ist. Deswegen wurden neue Wege in der Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung eingeschlagen, größtenteils jedoch außerhalb der Universität, weil Reformen an den Universitäten nur langsam durchgeführt wurden.

3. Universitäre Ausbildung von Fremdsprachenlehrern

Bereits Ende des 20. Jahrhunderts haben einzelne Wissenschaftler davor gewarnt, dass die universitäre Ausbildung von Fremdsprachenlehrern veraltet ist und weder den Anforderungen der Gesellschaft noch der Schule gerecht ist (Krumm, 1994: 6; Zydatiß, 1998, zitiert nach Schocker-v. Ditfurth, 2001: 400).

Drei Verbände: Die Deutsche Gesellschaft für Fremdsprachenforschung (DGFF), der Fachverband Moderne Fremdsprachen (FMF) und die Gesellschaft für Angewandte Linguistik (GAL) haben 1996 22 Thesen[1] zur Reform der universitären

[1]http://www.collectionscanada.gc.ca/eppp-archive/100/201/300/zeitschrift/2002/02-05/22these1.htm , Zugriff am 26. 10. 2017

Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung verfasst. Sinn dieser Thesen[2] ist, dass die Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung an Universitäten grundsätzlich verändert werden muss, wenn sie den Anforderungen einer wissenschaftlich fundierten Ausbildung von Lehrern gerecht werden möchte. Das berufsbezogene Profil von Lehramtsstudiengängen muss verstärkt werden und die universitäre Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung an der Wissenschaft als auch am Beruf orientiert werden. Dabei muss das Studium auf wissenschaftliche Gegenstände und Methoden ausgerichtet werden, die eine Grundlage für die Berufsbefähigung an Studiengängen bilden. Es darf nicht passieren, dass an Lehramtsstudiengängen Linguisten und Literaturwissenschaftler weiter ausgebildet werden, die sich den Großteil des für den Unterricht erforderlichen Wissens erst während der Ausübung der Berufstätigkeit aneignen. In die Lehrerausbildung sollen nicht nur Fachwissenschaften sondern auch Wissenschaften über das Lehren und Lernen wie Lernpsychologie, Allgemeine Didaktik, Schulpädagogik und Fachdidaktik integriert werden. Außerdem müssen Fremdsprachenlehrer über ein hohes funktionales Sprachkönnen verfügen, weswegen die sprachpraktische Ausbildung von Studierenden an Universitäten intensiviert und verbessert werden muss. Während des Studiums müssen bei den Studierenden berufsbezogene Schlüsselkompetenzen wie Teamarbeit, Kommunikationsfähigkeit, eigenständiger Spracherwerb, autonomes Lernen usw. entwickelt werden. Eine große Rolle spielt dabei auch das Praktikum.

Vorschläge zur Verbesserung der Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung kamen auch seitens einiger Wissenschaftler, besonders aus dem deutschsprachigen Gebiet, vor allem von Krumm (1994, 2012) und Neuner (1994). Krumm (1994: 7-11) führt neue Wege in der Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung ein, wo er unter anderem darauf hinweist, dass die Lehrerausbildung nicht identisch mit dem traditionellen Philologiestudium sein soll, sondern dass ein neues berufsorientiertes Profil geschaffen und ein problemorientierter Ansatz entwickelt werden sollen. Neuner (1994: 13) findet auch, dass das Deutschlehrerstudium nicht ein didaktisiertes Germanistikstudium sein soll, sondern es muss viel breiter angelegt werden und nicht nur fachliches Wissen sondern auch berufliches Können (Sprachbeherrschung, Unterrichtspraxis) umfassen. Krumm (1994: 9) sieht einen anderen Status des Praktikums voraus, das „kein unwissenschaftliches Anhängsel für die letzten Studienmonate sondern integrierter und früher Bestandteil der Ausbildung“ sein soll, wo Studierende in einem frühen Stadium der Ausbildung lernen sollen, den Unterricht zu beobachten und zu analysieren, um die Bedeutung theoretischer Aspekte einzusehen.

Über die Ausbildung von Fremdsprachenlehrern, insbesondere von Deutschlehrern wurden Ende des 20. und Anfang des 21. Jahrhunderts zahlreiche Diskussionen geführt, um eine qualitative „Neuordnung von Strukturen und Inhalten der Ausbildung von Lehrpersonal“ zu finden (Funk, 2003: 69). Ein bedeutendes Thema dieser Diskussionen war die Rolle des Praktikums in der Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung, wobei alle Theoretiker der Meinung waren, „dass das Praktikum stärker und systematischer in das Ausbildungscurriculum

[2] http://www.collectionscanada.gc.ca/eppp-archive/100/201/300/zeitschrift/2002/02-05/10these1.htm, Zugriff am 26. 10. 2017

eingepasst werden muss“ (Ehnert, Königs, 2000: vii), wo das Praktikum „die systematische und konsequente Fortführung und Erprobung von Wissensinhalten darstellt, die durch das Studium vermittelt worden sind“ (Ehnert, Königs, 2000: vii). Es wurde auch eine stärkere institutionelle Verankerung der Praktika in die Ausbildung vorgeschlagen, sowie dass die Verantwortung für die Praktika mehrere Personen übernehmen sollen.

Weiter soll das Praktikum „ein unabdingbares Bindeglied zwischen wissenschaftlich-theoretischer Ausbildung und der Praxis des späteren Berufsfeldes“ darstellen. Es muss weiter „theoriebegleitet und damit wissenschaftlich fundiert organisiert und durchgeführt werden“. Um das alles zu erreichen, soll die Ausbildung von solchen Elementen entlastet werden, die „für das spätere Berufsfeld wenig oder keine Relevanz besitzen“. (Königs, 2000: 11)

Auf jeden Fall sind sich alle Theoretiker einig, dass das Praktikum für die Ausbildung angehender Fremdsprachenlehrer bedeutend ist und dass dieser Bereich verbessert werden soll. Trotzdem spricht Krumm (2012: 56-67) etwa zehn Jahre später über innovative Felder, bzw. über zahlreiche Neuigkeiten im Fremdsprachenunterricht, auf die aber die Fremdsprachenlehrer nicht ausreichend vorbereitet sind.

4. Gegenstand der Analyse

Im weiteren Text wird die Art der Veranstaltung des Praktikums an der Philologischen Fakultät der Universität zu Banja Luka dargestellt. Zuerst wird ein Rückblick auf die Art der Veranstaltung des Studims vor der Einführung des Bologna-Prozesses angewandt, dann auf die Einführung des Bologna-Prozesses und schließlich auf die Art und Weise der Veranstaltung von Praktika in den letzten zwei Jahren. Danach werden die Ergebnisse des neuorganisierten Praktikums dargestellt. Die Darstellung der Ergebnisse beruht auf persönlichen Beobachtungen, Rückmeldungen der Teilnehmer am Praktikum, Evaluationsbögen und den Ergebnissen einer früher durchgeführten und analysierten Umfrage.

5. Die Struktur der Studiengänge an der Philologischen Fakultät der Universität zu Banja Luka

Die Philologische Fakultät ist eine der Organisationseinheiten der Universität zu Banja Luka. Seit 2007 wird der Unterricht nach dem Bologna-Prozess und dem Kredit-System organisiert. An der Philologischen Fakultät werden fünf Weltsprachen: Englisch, Deutsch, Italienisch, Französisch und Russisch sowie die Muttersprache gelehrt und gelernt. Ein Bestandteil jedes Studiums stellen auch die dazugehörigen Literatur- und Kulturwissenschaften dar.

Als der Unterricht nach dem alten Programm, d. h. vor der Einführung des Bologna-Prozesses, organisiert wurde, wurde die Ausbildung am Philologie-Modell orientiert. Das bedeutet, dass im Mittelpunkt des Studiums Linguistik und Literaturwissenschaft standen. Im Rahmen der Literaturwissenschaft haben die Studierenden die jeweilige Literatur und Kultur kennen gelernt. Dazu haben sich die Studierenden zwei Semester lang mit der Methodik des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts und je ein Semester mit Pädagogik und Psychologie beschäftigt. Die

Durchführung des Praktikums wurde überwiegend den Studierenden überlassen, welche alleine Schulen finden sollten, wo sie in einer bestimmten Anzahl von Unterrichtsstunden hospitiert und selber unterrichtet haben.

Durch die Einführung des Bologna-Prozesses wurden die Curricula nicht wesentlich verändert, außer der Tatsache, dass jetzt Unterrichtsgegenstände einsemestrig wurden. So hatte man die Möglichkeit, einige Fachgebiete zu teilen und „neue" Unterrichtsgegenstände zu bilden. Aber im Ganzen genommen haben die Curricula fast identische Inhalte enthalten. Also im Mittelpunkt stand weiter das Philologie-Modell, und die didaktisch-pädagogischen Unterrichtsgegenstände waren weiter ein Anhängsel dieser Ausbildung mit der gleichen Stundenanzahl wie früher. Die Durchführung des Praktikums wurde weiter den Studierenden überlassen. Das Praktikum wurde in die Curricula nicht als ein eigenständiger Unterrichtsgegenstand eingeführt, aber die Studierenden wurden trotzdem dazu verpflichtet, innerhalb des Faches Methodik im fremdsprachlichen Unterricht in einer bestimmten Anzahl der Unterrichtsstunden in den Grund- und Mittelschulen zu hospitieren und selber zu unterrichten. Dabei haben ihnen die Dozenten für Methodik geholfen, indem sie ihre privaten Beziehungen und persönlichen Kontakte zu Grund- und Mittelschullehrern benutzten. Eine systematische Veranstaltung des Praktikums gab es nicht.

Ein paar Jahre nach der Einführung des Bologna-Prozesses kam es zu geringen Veränderungen in den Curricula. Indem man eingesehen hat, dass zahlreiche Diskussionen über die Ausbildung angehender Fremdsprachenlehrer geführt werden und in diesen Diskussionen immer wieder die Frage gestellt wurde, wer in Grund- und Mittelschulen unterrichten darf, wurde auch die Methodik von Veränderungen an allen Studiengängen betroffen. Aber diese Veränderungen wurden unterschiedlich durchgeführt. An einigen Studiengängen (Serbisch und Russisch) wird Methodik weiterhin zwei Semester lang gelehrt, aber ihr werden jetzt mehr Stunden und ECTS-Punkte zugeordnet. An einigen Studiengängen (Englisch und Italienisch) sind für Methodik drei Semester vorgesehen, während die zwei übrigen Studiengänge (Deutsch und Französisch) Methodik in vier Semestern anbieten. Dementsprechend unterscheidet sich auch die Anzahl der ECTS-Punkte, da es gesetzlich noch nicht genau geregelt ist, wie viele ECTS-Punkte im Bereich des Lehrens und Lernens ein Fremdsprachenlehrer haben soll. Wenn alle Unterrichtsgegenstände beachtet werden, die sich mit dem Prozess des Lehrens und Lernens (Methodik, Pädagogik, Psychologie sowie Wahlfächern) befassen, sieht dann die Skala der ECTS-Punkte bei den einzelnen Studiengängen folgendermaßen aus:

Studiengang für Serbisch - 21 ECTS	Studiengang für Italienisch - 20 ECTS
Studiengang für Englisch - 30 ECTS	Studiengang für Französisch - 36 ECTS
Studiengang für Deutsch - 26 ECTS	Studiengang für Rusisch - 21 ECTS

6. Neue Wege der Organisierung des Praktikums an der Philologischen Fakultät

Im Rahmen der oben geschilderten Veränderungen kam es auch zur Veränderung der Planung und Durchführung des Praktikums. Private Beziehungen und Kontakte zu den Grund- und Mittelschullehrern waren keine Garantie für eine qualitative

Durchführung des Praktikums. Nach langen Verhandlungen wurde die Fakultät vom Pädagogischen Institut und dem Kultusministerium unterstützt und es ist zu einer systematischen Organisierung des Praktikums gekommen. Direkte Kontakte mit Grund- und Mittelschulen wurden am Standort der Fakultät geknüpft. Termine für die Durchführung des Praktikums werden zwischen den Verwaltungen der Fakultät und der Schulen festgelegt, woran auch die Dozenten für Methodik und die Fremdsprachenlehrer teilnehmen. Die Studierenden müssen sich nicht mehr selbst eine Schule suchen, an der sie ihr Praktikum ablegen können.

Studierende sind jetzt dazu verpflichtet, in 10 Unterrichtsstunden zu hospitieren und 5 Unterrichtsstunden selbst zu halten. Während des Hospitierens werden sie von Fremdsprachenlehrern, also Mentoren an den Schulen betreut. Wenn sie eine Unterrichtsstunde selbst halten sollen, wird ihnen sowohl von den Dozenten für Methodik, den Betreuern, als auch von den Fremdsprachenlehrern an den Schulen geholfen.

Nach dem Praktikum werden die hospitierten und selbst gehaltenen Stunden reflektiert. Die Studierenden erstellen ein Portfolio, in dem sie diese Stunden kritisch analysieren.

Um das Praktikum noch besser zu organisieren und die Studierenden noch effektiver auf die zukünftige Berufstätigkeit vorzubereiten, wurde ein großer Schritt weiter gemacht. Dazu haben auch Migrationsprozesse beigetragen, von denen auch Bosnien und Herzegowina betroffen ist. Alltäglich verlassen junge Leute das Land und gehen in westeuropäische Länder, weswegen das Fremdsprachenlernen ein großer Bedarf geworden ist. Aus diesem Grunde ist man auf die Idee gekommen, Fremdsprachenkurse an der Fakultät zu organisieren und sie Personen mit akademischem Hintergrund anzubieten. Bereits seit zwei Jahren werden im Sommersemester Kurse für Englisch, Deutsch, Italienisch, Französisch und Russisch organisiert. Der Unterricht dauert drei Monate und wird zwei Mal wöchentlich je 60 Minuten durchgeführt. Die Studierenden des Abschlussjahres der Philologischen Fakultät unterrichten diesen Unterricht, der für sie gleichzeitig das Praktikum darstellt. Die Kurse werden von Studierenden und Angestellten der Universität zu Banja Luka besucht. Für die Teilnehmer sind die Kurse kostenlos, und auch die Studierenden der Philologischen Fakultät unterrichten das ganze Semester lang gratis. Statt Unterrichtsstunden im Rahmen der Methodikübungen zu simulieren, unterrichten die Studierenden jetzt in authentischen Situationen.

Vor dem Kursbeginn werden Einstufungstests durchgeführt, um die Teilnehmer auf verschiedene Sprachniveaus zu verteilen und um möglichst homogene Gruppen zu bilden. Der Unterricht wird von jeweils zwei Studierenden gehalten, es wird also die Tandemarbeit praktiziert, damit die Studierenden den Unterricht leichter vorbereiten und durchführen. Das für die Sprachkurse benötigte Material bekommen die Studierenden von der Fakultät. Ihre Aufgabe ist es, den Unterricht selbstständig vorzubereiten und durchzuführen. Während des Unterrichts werden die Studierenden von den Dozenten für Methodik begleitet, welche die meisten Unterrichtsstunden beobachten. An jedem Studiengang werden zusammen mit den Studierenden regelmäßig Sitzungen abgehalten, um den durchgeführten Unterricht zu analysieren, auf Nachteile hinzuweisen, die benötigte Hilfe anzubieten und Meinungen auszutauschen.

Etwa nach der ersten Hälfte des Sprachkurses wird der Unterricht evaluiert. Der Fragebogen, welcher für alle Studiengänge identisch ist, wird sowohl von den

Studierenden als auch von den Sprachkursteilnehmern ausgefüllt. Die Ergebnisse der Evaluation dienen als Richtlinien für die weitere Organisierung der Sprachkurse und für die Verbesserung des Unterrichts.

Am Ende der Sprachkurse werden die Teilnehmer getestet. Die Studierenden erstellen Tests, indem sie Richtlinien ihrer Betreuer befolgen, führen die Tests durch und bewerten sie. Nach dem Kurs schreiben die Studierenden Berichte, bzw. Portfolios, in denen sie über das Praktikum, ihre Arbeit und die erzielten Ergebnisse reflektieren.

Für die didaktischen Aufgaben, die sie während der Sprachkurse durchführen – Vorbereitung und Durchführung des Unterrichts, Erstellung und Durchführung der Tests, Erstellen der Berichte – bekommen die Studierenden eine entsprechende Anzahl von Punkten, welche einen Teil der Abschlussnote ausmachen. Nach dem Praktikum bekommen die Studierenden eine Bescheinigung über das erfolgreich abgeschlossene Praktikum, wo alle ihre Aufgaben aufgeführt sind, und die Kursteilnehmer, welche den Test erfolgreich bestanden haben, bekommen eine Bescheinigung über den abgeschlossenen Kurs mit der Bezeichnung des entsprechenden Sprachniveaus.

7. Sichtbare Ergebnisse des neuorganisierten Praktikums

Das auf diese Weise organisierte Praktikum hat einen vielfältigen Nutzen. Dieses Praktikum ist besonders für die Studierenden der Philologischen Fakultät nützlich. Während der dreimonatigen Kurse, die von den Studierenden überwiegend selbstständig durchgeführt werden, werden zahlreiche Kompetenzen bei den Studierenden entwickelt und erweitert. Während des Kurses lernen die Studierenden, Lernziele für jede Unterrichtsstunde selbstständig zu formulieren. Gleichzeitig übernehmen sie die Verantwortung für die Planung und Durchführung des Unterrichts. Dabei haben sie die Möglichkeit, über den Verlauf des Lernprozesses zu entscheiden und ihre Kreativität zu entfalten. Da sie sich in authentischen Situationen befinden, lernen sie Probleme vor Ort zu lösen, sich der Lerngruppe anzupassen und was das wichtigste ist, das Wissen anderen zu übertragen. Die Studierenden haben weiter die Möglichkeit, ihr theoretisches Wissen in der Praxis zu erproben. Dank der Evaluation und der Umfrage, die unter den Studierenden durchgeführt wurden, kommt man zur Schlussfolgerung, dass die Studierenden sich auf diese Weise von der Angst befreien und das Selbstbewusstsein erlangen sowie nötige Erfahrungen sammeln, die sie für die zukünftige Berufstätigkeit brauchen (Radanović, 2017: 139). Darüber hinaus werden die Studierenden eigenständig und verantwortungsvoll.

Dieses Praktikum ist nicht nur für die Studierenden sondern auch für die Dozenten der Methodik nützlich. Während der Unterrichtsbeobachtung können sie erkennen, wo Defizite in der Arbeit der Studierenden auftreten, woran man noch im theoretischen Unterricht arbeiten und worauf man während der Unterrichtsanalyse hinweisen muss. Außerdem tragen die häufigen Besprechungen über die Durchführung des Praktikums zu engen Verknüpfungen unter den Dozenten, zum Austausch von Meinungen und Erfahrungen und zur Entwicklung des kollektiven Bewusstseins und des Teamgeistes bei.

Das Praktikum stellt einen Nutzen für die ganze Universität zu Banja Luka dar. Die

Studierenden und Angestellten aller Fakultäten der Universität haben die Möglichkeit, eine Fremdsprache kostenlos zu lernen und ein entsprechendes Sprachniveau zu erreichen. Da die Räumlichkeiten der Philologischen Fakultät für die Bedürfnisse der Sprachkurse nicht ausreichend sind, bekommt man Hilfe von anderen Fakultäten, indem sie ihre Arbeitsräume und ihre Ausrüstung zur Verfügung stellen. Auf diese Weise kommt es zu einer engen Zusammenarbeit unter den Fakultäten.

Nicht zuletzt profitiert von den Kursen auch die ganze Gesellschaft. Die auf diese Weise befähigten Studierenden finden nach dem Abschluss des Studiums leichter eine Stelle, viele sogar noch während des Studiums. Während des Praktikums werden die Studierenden zur selbstständigen Arbeit befähigt und für viele Arbeitgeber ist diese Art des Praktikums eine ausreichende Garantie, die auf diese Weise ausgebildeten Fremdsprachenlehrer anzustellen und ihnen ernste und verantwortungsvolle Aufgaben anzuvertrauen.

8. Schlussfolgerungen

Die Bedeutung des Praktikums, das auf die oben geschilderte Art und Weise an der Philologischen Fakultät der Universität zu Banja Luka durchgeführt wird, ist von zahlreichen Institutionen und Personen anerkannt worden: von der Fakultäts- und Universitätsverwaltung, der Öffentlichkeit, den Kollegen und vor allem von den Studierenden und Dozenten für Methodik, welche die wichtigsten Teilnehmer an der Planung und Durchführung des Praktikums sind. Obwohl das Praktikum als solches nicht in die Curricula integriert ist, haben der Enthusiasmus der Dozenten für Methodik und das Bewusstsein über die Wichtigkeit einer aktiven Teilnahme der Studierenden am Unterricht (Radanović, Josifović-Elezović, 2012: 80) mit dem Ziel der Verbesserung der Unterrichtsqualität zur Entstehung dieses Pioniervorhabens geführt. Studierendenorientierung, Authentizität der Lernsituation und der Sprachverwendung, Autonomie und Kooperation sind nur einige der Prinzipien, auf denen dieses Praktikum beruht. Wegen all der oben angeführten Vorteile soll dieses Praktikum nicht weiter sporadischen Charakters sein und kurzfristig organisiert werden. Ziel des Praktikums ist es, dass es ein Kontinuum wird und dass es in die Curricula aller Studiengänge mit entsprechenden ECTS-Punkten integriert wird. Denn nur durch eine sinnvolle Verbindung von Theorie und Praxis können sehr gute Fremdsprachenlehrer ausgebildet werden, die den neuen Zeiten angepasst sind.

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ARZTBRIEFE IM MEDIZINISCHEN FACHSPRACHENUNTERRICHT DEUTSCH EINE KONTRASTIVE TEXTSORTENANALYSE

THE GENRE OF MEDICAL REPORT IN TEACHING MEDICAL GERMAN A CONTRASTIVE GENRE ANALYSIS

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Abstract: *Medical report represents an important written genre in medical communication including medical history, present symptoms, findings and treatment measures. Medical histories are based on patient interviews and represent a summary of both the previous medical findings and the information gained by asking patients targeted questions. While interviewing them, physicians follow a specific sequence of questions to provide a structure for a logically comprehensible medical history, which facilitates an accurate diagnosis. The current study aims to describe and compare the genre of 'medical report' and especially its part 'medical history' in Germany, Austria and Hungary as well as to detect phraseological patterns typical of the genre in the three languages.*
The study was carried out on a corpus of medical reports dating from 2012-2016 and provided by the Clinical Centre of the University of Pécs (Hungary) as well as by hospitals from different federal states of Germany and Austria. Terms and phraseological units were investigated using concordance and statistical analysis.The results of the study prove that knowing the structural norms and phraseological units improves communication between physicians, what is more, it is required for their participation in the discourse community as competent members in both the native and the foreign language. Therefore, Hungarian medical students learning Medical German should be introduced into writing medical reports in German, using authentic samples. The knowledge of generic norms applied in Germany and Austria conveys additional intercultural competence skills, which are essential for the written communication with their foreign colleagues.

Keywords: medical report, genre analysis, function and structure of medical reports, medical report in teaching LSP, LSP phraseologisms, intercultural competence skills, patient history

Abstract: *Der Unterricht der deutschen medizinischen Fachsprache für ungarische Studierende der Medizin ist am Institut für Fachsprachen und medizinische Fachkommunikation an der Medizinischen Fakultät der Universität Pécs (Ungarn) seit etwa anderthalb Jahrzehnten nach einem* *textsortenspezifischen Aufbauplan strukturiert. Das fachsprachliche Kursangebot an Wahlfächern in medizinischer Fachsprache Deutsch orientiert sich nach den relevanten kommunikativen Handlungsfeldern arztbezogener Aufgaben, wie etwa die Anamneseerhebung, Patientenberatung, Präsentation und schriftliche Fachkommunikation. Die mündliche Anamneseerhebung ist schon seit Jahren fester Bestandteil der Lehre. Die Studierenden werden auch im Rahmen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts mit den sprachlichen Elementen eines Anamnesegesprächs vertraut gemacht. Als aus dem Anamnesegespräch resultierender weiterer logischer Schritt wurde unser Interessenfeld um den Arztbrief erweitert, der als schriftliche Festlegung mündlich erworbener Informationen über den Patienten verstanden werden kann. Im Rahmen des Kurses „Schriftliche Fachkommunikation auf Deutsch" möchten wir uns in Zukunft mit dieser Textsorte näher befassen. Dieser von uns betreute Kurs soll sich mit der Funktion, Struktur, den Formulierungsmustern und der Terminologie einzelner Abschnitte des Arztbriefes auseinandersetzen. In dieser Studie möchten wir die allgemeinen Charakteristika deutsch- und ungarischsprachiger Arztbriefe darstellen. Schriftliche Krankengeschichten basieren in der Regel auf der mündlichen Anamneseerhebung und stellen eine Zusammenfassung der früheren medizinischen Befunde und der von Patienten erhobenen Informationen dar. Bei der Patientenbefragung halten sich Mediziner an eine bestimmte Reihenfolge, um der Anamnese eine logisch nachvollziehbare Struktur zu geben, welche die Stellung einer genauen Diagnose erleichtert. In der vorliegenden Studie wird die Textsorte der medizinischen Krankengeschichte interlingual kontrastiv untersucht und beschrieben. Die Charakteristika der Textsorte werden mit Hilfe funktioneller, struktureller und terminologischer Analysen aufgedeckt. Der Studie liegt ein Korpus zugrunde, das aus authentischen ungarischen, österreichischen und deutschen Krankengeschichten besteht. Die Krankengeschichten wurden von Krankenhäusern aus Ungarn und aus verschiedenen Bundesländern Deutschlands und Österreichs zur Verfügung gestellt. Die Fachphraseologismen und Termini wurden mit Hilfe einer Konkordanzanalyse ermittelt. Die Ergebnisse der Untersuchung belegen, dass eine gründliche Kenntnis der Textsortenregeln und der textsortenspezifischen Wendungen nicht nur die effektive Kommunikation zwischen Ärzten unterstützt, sondern sogar erforderlich ist, um als (interkulturell) kompetente Mitglieder der Diskursgemeinschaft wahrgenommen zu werden. Ungarische Studierende der Medizin sollten im Medizinischen Fachsprachenunterricht Deutsch mit dieser Textsorte vertraut gemacht werden, indem sie in der Zielsprache verfasste, authentische Arztbriefe bearbeiten.*

Keywords: Arztbrief; Textsortenanalyse, Funktion und Struktur des Arztbriefes, Arztbrief im Fachsprachenunterricht, Fachphraseologismen, interkulturelle Kompetenz, Krankengeschichte

1. Einführung

Der Unterricht der medizinischen Fachsprache Deutsch für ungarische Studierende der Medizin ist an der Medizinischen Fakultät der Universität Pécs (Ungarn) seit etwa fünfzehn Jahren nach Textsorten der ärztlichen Handlungssituationen strukturiert. In der Verwendung des Terminus Textsorte

möchten wir die Überlegung widerspiegeln, dass die Fachkommunikation in typischen Handlungssituationen erfolgt, die in hohem Maße konventionalisiert sind, vgl. Definition Textsorte bei Swales (1990) und Bhatia (1993). Die Konventionen leiten sich aus bestimmten Protokollen und Maßnahmen ab, die mit der wissenschaftlichen und soziokulturellen Determiniertheit und dem Verständnis der Aufgaben eines Arztes, der Arztrolle zusammenhängen.
Im Rahmen des Fachsprachenunterrichts werden sprachliche Formen und Formulierungsmuster eingeübt, sprachliche Mittel diskutiert, die die Textsorten der ärztlichen Tätigkeit wiedergeben. Die im Unterricht verwendeten Textsorten werden durch Bedarfsanalyse identifiziert. Das Kursangebot am Institut für Fachsprachen und medizinische Fachkommunikation in Pécs orientiert sich an den fachsprachenrelevanten kommunikativen Handlungsfeldern arztbezogener Aufgaben, wie etwa die Anamneseerhebung, Patientenberatung, Präsentation und schriftliche Fachkommunikation. Die Kommunikation gliedert sich weiter nach Kommunikation unter Fachleuten sowie zwischen Laien und Fachleuten. Die Medizinstudierenden des ungarischen Studienganges können Wahlfächer zu diesen fachsprachlichen Aufgabenbereichen in deutscher Sprache belegen. Dadurch, dass die Sprachfähigkeiten der TeilnehmerInnen dieser Kurse mindestens dem Niveau B2, meistens aber C1 entsprechen, besteht die Möglichkeit, ihre Sprachkenntnisse um die Reproduktion authentischer, mündlicher und schriftlicher Textsorten zu erweitern.
Die mündliche Anamneseerhebung ist schon seit Jahren fester Bestandteil der Lehre. Die Studierenden werden mit den sprachlichen Elementen eines Anamnesegespräches vertraut gemacht. Unser Interessenfeld wurde in den letzten Semestern um den Arztbrief erweitert, der als schriftliche Festlegung mündlich erworbener Informationen über den Patienten aufgefasst werden kann.
Im Rahmen des Kurses „Schriftliche Fachkommunikation auf Deutsch“ möchten wir uns in Zukunft mit dieser Textsorte näher befassen. Dieser von uns betreute Kurs befasst sich mit einigen ausgewählten Bereichen der ärztlichen bzw. medizinstudentischen Schreibtätigkeit, u.a. mit den verschiedenen Briefsorten des medizinischen Schriftverkehrs (Bestellungen, Bewerbungen, Leserbriefe zu Fachartikeln usw.) sowie mit den für das Studium relevanten Briefthemen (Schriftverkehr mit Dozenten, studentische Forschungstätigkeit usw.). Dem Arztbrief als einer der Kerntextsorten der schriftlichen Kommunikation sollte im Fachsprachenunterricht daher eine größere Gewichtung beigemessen werden. In unserer Studie möchten wir zusammenfassen, welchen Textsortenregeln die Textsorte Arztbrief in der Fachliteratur unterliegt und ob die von uns untersuchten authentischen Arztbriefe diesen gerecht werden.

1.1. Funktionen des Arztbriefes

Der Arztbrief ist ein wesentlicher Bestandteil der schriftlichen Fachkommunikation zwischen Ärzten, Institutionen und Patienten. (Die Bezeichnungen „Arztbrief“, „Patientenbrief“, „ärztlicher Entlassungsbericht“ werden synonym verwendet.) Die primären Funktionen eines Arztbriefes können wie folgt zusammengefasst werden: Einerseits werden sie als „Übermittlung von verständlichen Diagnose- und Behandlungsinformationen von Arzt zu Arzt“ aufgefasst (Unnewehr et al., 2013: 1672), d.h. der weiterbehandelnde Arzt wird über Anlass und Verlauf des Klinikaufenthaltes informiert: Für die nachfolgende Behandlung ist dies von essentieller Bedeutung. Arztbriefe sind die „umfangreichsten und detailliertesten

Darstellungen des Behandlungsverlaufs“ (Unnewehr et al., 2013). Zu den weiteren Funktionen eines Arztbriefes gehört es, als interne Gedächtnisstütze zu dienen. Die beteiligten Kollegen können durch den Arztbrief Informationen über den Patienten, Untersuchungen und Behandlungsmaßnahmen beziehen. Die schriftliche Festlegung der Anamneseerhebung erfolgt ebenfalls durch die Erstellung von Arztbriefen.
Ärzte sind gesetzlich zur Dokumentation verpflichtet. In Deutschland wurde 2013 das Patientenrechtegesetz verabschiedet, mit dem „zugleich auch der Umfang von Informations-Aufklärungs- und Dokumentationspflichten festgelegt“ wird. Erklärtes Ziel des Gesetzgebers war es dabei, sich „am Leitbild des mündigen Patienten“ zu orientieren, der auch als medizinischer Laie verständlich und umfassend über konkrete Maßnahmen aufzuklären sei. Nur dann könne seine Einwilligung in den Eingriff vollends wirksam sein.“ (Schneider, 2017: 22) In Ungarn ist die ärztliche Pflicht zur Dokumentation und deren Umfang im Gesetz über das Gesundheitswesen CLIV / 1997 detailliert geregelt. „Darüber hinaus soll es insbesondere auch die Persönlichkeitsrechte des Patienten dadurch wahren, dass der Arzt Rechenschaft über den Gang der Behandlung ablegen muss durch eine Dokumentation, die faktisch zugleich die Beweissicherung zu etwaigen Behandlungsfehlern bildet“ (Schneider, 2017: 23).
Arztbriefe stellen also auch das schriftliche Kommunikationsmittel zwischen Institution und Patienten dar. Wichtige Termine, Hinweise auf bestimmte Vorbereitungsmaßnahmen usw. werden direkt an Patienten adressiert. Des Weiteren sind Arztbriefe auch externe Kommunikationsmittel. Sie dienen als Grundlage für die Abrechnung zwischen Krankenhäusern und Krankenkassen bzw. Kostenträgern sowie für die Abrechnung nach dem DRG-System (Jauch et al., 2013). Eine weitere Dimension der Arztbriefe wird bei Semler (1999) und von Unnewehr et al. (2013) hervorgehoben, nämlich dass sie die „Außendarstellung der eigenen Praxis, Klinik und Person“ bedeuten – sozusagen die „Visitenkarte“ der Institution darstellen (Unnewehr et al., 2013).
Hinsichtlich ihrer Terminologie gelten Arztbriefe überwiegend als Medien der Experten-Fachkommunikation, d.h. der Facharztstandard muss bei der Erstellung erfüllt werden. Die fachliche Ebene der Arztbriefe ist spezifisch, weil sie in erster Linie für Angehörige der ärztlichen Diskursgemeinschaft verfasst wurden. Allerdings dienen Arztbriefe auch der Kommunikation zwischen Experten verschiedener Fachgebiete und Allgemeinärzten (Hausärzten), die in der Regel die weitere Behandlung von Patienten übernehmen, bzw. aufgrund der Befunde der Arztbriefe weitere Untersuchungen veranlassen. Dementsprechend müssen die in ihnen enthaltenen Fachausdrücke bezüglich ihrer Terminologie beiden Diskursen gerecht werden.

1.2. Anforderungen an den Arztbrief

Die Anforderung an den Arztbrief von Seiten der Diskurs- und Handlungsgemeinschaft besteht darin, dass dem Text ein strukturiertes Denken zugrunde liegen muss. Die Struktur ergibt sich aus einem konventionalisierten Textbauplan. Bei der inhaltlichen Gewichtung der einzelnen strukturellen Einheiten kann allerdings eine große Vielfalt beobachtet werden. Für die Reihenfolge der Abschnitte gibt es in der Fachliteratur und auf den relevanten Internetseiten viele Entwürfe, aber einen von Fachgesellschaften offiziell festgelegten Standard in Form von Leitlinien, Vorschriften oder verbindlichen Empfehlungen gibt es zum

Arztbrief nicht. Ähnlichkeiten in Aufbau und Struktur können aber festgestellt werden. Klinik- und abteilungsinterne Standards spielen bei der Erstellung von Arztbriefen eine große Rolle: Die ärztliche Praxis prägt die Herausbildung der Konventionen. Der Text sollte auf das Wesentliche reduziert werden, klar und einfach strukturiert sein und die durchgeführten diagnostischen und therapeutischen Schritte möglichst logisch auflisten. Zur deutlicheren Gliederung sollten Überschriften verwendet werden.

1.3. Das Verfassen von Arztbriefen lernen

Das Verfassen von Arztbriefen wird im Laufe des Medizinstudiums sowohl in Ungarn als auch in Deutschland nach dem Prinzip „Learning by doing" angeeignet. „Das Verfassen von Arztbriefen ist als Lernziel weder im Medizinstudium noch in der ärztlichen Weiterbildung fester Bestandteil." (Unnewehr et al, 2013). Die webbasierte Wissensplattform AMBOSS MIAMED von Medizinern für Mediziner beschreibt den Prozess der Arztbrieferstellung folgendermaßen: Die Ersterstellung (vorläufiger Entlassungsbrief) erfolgt in der Regel durch PJler *(Studierende im letzten, sog. Praktischen Jahr)* / Famulanten / Assistenzärzte. Dieses vorläufige Exemplar wird dem Patienten für den weiterbehandelnden Arzt mitgegeben. Korrektur und Validierung wird durch den Oberarzt und / oder Chefarzt durchgeführt. Der Oberarzt prüft, ob alles richtig ist und ob ggf. Ergänzungen oder Änderungen gewünscht werden. Weitere Schritte sind Korrektur und Abschluss sowie Einfügen zum Zeitpunkt der Entlassung noch ausstehender Befunde durch den Assistenzarzt, Versand an den Weiterbehandelnden und Archivierung in der Klinik (AMBOSS online, 2017).

1.4. Textsortenspezifische, kontrastive Untersuchung medizinischer Fachtexte

Erst in den letzten Jahrzehnten hat sich die Sprachwissenschaft der lexikalisch-semantischen und diskursanalytischen Erforschung der medizinischen Fachsprache zugewandt, allerdings ohne fachsprachendidaktische Aspekte einzubeziehen (Schön-Schrimpf, 2010: 51). Interlinguale Untersuchungen zur Aufdeckung zumindest „teilweise vorgefertigter Ausdrücke" (Méndez-Cendón, 2009: 169) in medizinischen Fachtextsorten sind über den Vergleich z.B. zwischen Deutsch und Spanisch (Pfab, 2012), Ungarisch, Deutsch und Österreichisch (Fogarasi, 2012), Englisch und Spanisch (Méndez-Cendón, 2009) sowie Englisch und Französisch (Wandji et al., 2013) bereits erschienen.

1.5. Formulierungsmuster in medizinischen Textsorten

Fachsprachliche phraseologische Einheiten umfassen laut einiger Studien lexiko-grammatische Muster (lexico-grammatical patterns, vgl.Gledhill 2011). Anderen Auffassungen nach gehören zu Fachphraseologismen Fachkollokationen (Kollokationen, die einen Terminus einer bestimmten Fachsprache als Komponente enthalten, vgl. Caro Cedillo, 2004: 49) sowie sprachliche Routine (routine formulae) und auch kombinatorische Muster (combinatorial patterns, u.a. Méndez-Cendón, 2009). Die vorliegende Arbeit lehnt sich bezüglich Definition und Klassifikation von Fachphraseologismen an die deutschsprachigen Werke, insbesondere an Grécianos (2006) Auffassung an, die Fachphraseologismen in der medizinischen Fachsprache beschreibt und diese in Phraseotermini, Fachphraseme, Diskursphraseme und Phraseotexteme aufteilt. Diese Kategorien

werden zwar relativ selten von Phraseologen verwendet (Bukovčan, 2015), sind aber am besten geeignet, die „konventionalisierten Formulierungshilfen“ zuzuordnen, die für das Verfassen inhaltlich hochgradig formalisierter Anamneseberichte besonders hilfreich sind. Unter Phraseotermini wird meistens die syntagmatische Beziehung von Substantiven und Adjektiven (im Deutschen evtl. auch Komposita) verstanden, deren substantivischer Teil ein Terminus aus der Nationalsprache oder der englischen oder griechisch-lateinischen Fachsprache ist. Fachphraseme sind Wendungen, die Phraseotermini ersetzen oder umschreiben und meistens ein verbales Element enthalten.
Diskursphraseme sind meistens Funktionsverbgefüge der Allgemeinsprache, die für die Verwendung im wissenschaftlichen Diskurs eingesetzt werden. Phraseotexteme stellen Kurztexte dar, die als feste Formulierungsmuster (auch Formulierungshilfen) in unterschiedlichen Gliederungseinheiten der jeweiligen Textsorte vorkommen (Gréciano, 2006: 221-223).

2. Untersuchungsfrage und -design

In unserer Studie haben wir folgende Fragen gestellt: Welche Funktionen hat ein Arztbrief, welchem Aufbauplan, welcher Struktur soll der Text folgen, bzw. welche Formulierungsmuster und terminologischen Charakteristika können beobachtet werden, die in unterschiedlichen Sprachen geschriebene Arztbriefe gemeinsam haben. Darüber hinaus werden die Anforderungen in Bezug auf Stil und Umfang an die Arztbriefe untersucht. Unserer qualitativen Untersuchung liegt ein kleines Korpus authentischer, anonymisierter (sowohl von Patientendaten als auch von Angaben zum medizinischen Fachpersonal befreiten) Arztbriefe aus den Jahren 2012 bis 2016 zugrunde: 10 aus Ungarn, 6 aus Österreich und 10 aus Deutschland. Die vorliegende retrospektive Untersuchung anonymisierter medizinischer Dokumentation basiert auf der Genehmigung der Ethikkommission der Universität Pécs. Die ungarischen Arztbriefe stammen aus der internistischen Klinik der Universität Pécs, die deutschen und österreichischen Arztbriefe stammen aus Krankenhäusern in verschiedenen Bundesländern Österreichs und Deutschlands. Die Thematik der Arztbriefe umfasst mehrere klinische Fachgebiete: Innere Medizin in allen 3 Sprachen, das deutsche Teilkorpus enthält außerdem Arztbriefe aus der Neurologie, Pädiatrie, Orthopädie, Psychiatrie und der Urologie.
Die vorliegende Arbeit stellt die Ergebnisse der Vorstudie einer umfassenden, kontrastiven Korpusanalyse dar und fokussiert neben dem strukturellen Vergleich der Arztbriefe aus den 3 Ländern in erster Linie auf die kontrastive fachphraseologische sowie terminologische Analyse der ersten strukturellen Einheit von Arztbriefen, nämlich des Anamneseberichtes. Die Anzahl der Arztbriefe (und somit auch der in ihnen enthaltenen Anamneseberichte) reicht zwar für eine repräsentative Untersuchung nicht aus, allgemeingültige Charakteristika können aber beobachtet und mit den in bisherigen Studien beschriebenen Textsortenregeln sowie Formulierungsmustern verglichen werden. Die Untersuchung der Terminologie sowie der Formulierungsmuster von Anamnesen erfolgte mit Hilfe der WordSmith 5.0 Konkordanzsoftware. Dadurch, dass das Korpus Exemplare aus zwei deutschsprachigen Ländern enthält, bestand die Möglichkeit, eventuelle Unterschiede in der Verwendung der Textsorte und der Fachsprache zwischen Deutschland und Österreich

aufzudecken. Im Weiteren wird vorgestellt, wie das Erlernen der aus dem Korpus extrahierten Fachphraseologismen und Termini sowie der in der vorliegenden Studie beobachteten strukturellen Besonderheiten der Arztbriefe zur Entwicklung der kommunikativen bzw. interkulturellen Kompetenzen ungarischer Studierender in medizinischer Fachsprache Deutsch beiträgt.

3. Ergebnisse

3.1. Struktur und Inhalt der Arztbriefe

Die strukturelle Analyse der im Korpus enthaltenen Arztbriefe hat ergeben, dass die Arztbriefe aus allen drei Ländern diesbezüglich mehr oder weniger den konventionalisierten Textsortenregeln entsprechen, die in der Fachliteratur als wünschenswert bzw. Empfehlung vorgegeben werden (siehe Böhmer 2016; Unnewehr at al. 2013, AMBOSS 2017). Je nach Institution folgten Arztbriefe zwar einer einheitlichen Struktur, allerdings konnte kein für das ganze Korpus geltender Standard festgestellt werden.

Für den stationären Bereich sind nach medizinischen Vorgaben folgende Punkte aufzuführen: Anamnese, Befunde (u. a. Labor, bildgebende Verfahren, Histologie), Diagnose (Haupt- und Nebendiagnosen sowie Verdachtsdiagnosen), Therapie (insbesondere operative Eingriffe), Klinischer Verlauf (insbesondere mit späteren Befunden, Besonderheiten und Komplikationen), Entlassungsuntersuchung, Therapievorschlag einschließlich Medikationen (mit Dosierungen) sowie erforderliche nachstationäre Untersuchungen oder Weiterbehandlungen. Auf spezifische, mit dem Entlassungsbefund verbundene medizinische Schwierigkeiten muss gesondert hingewiesen werden.

Die Vielfalt in Bezug auf die Ausführlichkeit und dadurch die Länge der deutschen Arztbriefe resultiert auch aus der juristischen Regelung, bei der gilt: „soweit dies für die Behandlung von Bedeutung ist“ (Möller und Makoski, 2015).

Bezüglich des Umfangs ungarischer Arztbriefe verfügt das Gesetz über das Gesundheitswesen CLIV/1997 im §136: Der Arztbrief soll eine Zusammenfassung in 19 thematischen Einheiten von der frühesten Krankengeschichte an alle relevanten Informationen enthalten. Dadurch lässt sich erklären, dass sie in der Regel ausführlicher sind als die deutschssprachigen.

3.2. Struktureller Vergleich ungarischer, österreichischer und deutscher Arztbriefe

Je nach Adressaten wird die Textsorte Arztbrief in den 3 Ländern unterschiedlich bezeichnet: In Deutschland als Arztbrief, in Österreich als Patientenbrief, in Ungarn hingegen als “Kórlap”, was wortwörtlich „Krankheitsblatt“ bedeutet. Diesen Bezeichnungen entsprechend sind die Adressaten auch unterschiedlich. In den ungarischen Arztbriefen werden explizit keine Adressaten genannt.

Die Struktur der Arztbriefe ist nicht gleich, die ähnlichen Inhalte werden in unterschiedlichen strukturellen Teilen angegeben.

Inhalte	DE	A	HU
Adressaten	✓	✓	keine
Patientendaten	✓	✓	✓

(Aufenthaltszeit)			
Diagnosen, Anamnese, Untersuchungen, Befunde, Eingriffe, Operationen, Allergien	Aktuell, Weitere Diagnosen	Aufnahmegrund, Diagnosen bei Entlassung	Jetzige Beschwerden, Status
Epikrise	Epikrise	Zusammenfassung des Aufenthalts	„Epikrízis” (Epikrise)
Therapieempfehlung	*bei der Epikrise*	Weitere empfohlene Maßnahmen	*bei den Untersuchungen*
Unterschreibender	✓	✓	✓

Tabelle 1: Inhalte der strukturellen Einheiten der Arztbriefe

3.3. Anamnese

Die vorliegende Studie befasst sich in erster Linie mit dem Anamneseteil des Arztbriefes und versucht die sprachlichen Mittel aufzudecken, mit denen die schriftliche Wiedergabe der zum Teil vom Patienten erhaltenen Information auf die mündlich stattgefundene Anamneseerhebung Bezug nimmt. Deshalb werden des Weiteren die Charakteristika dieser strukturellen Einheit näher untersucht.

Die ungarischen Arztbriefe haben im Vergleich zu den deutschen oder österreichischen Arztbriefen einen erheblich ausführlicheren Anamneseteil. In Bezug auf die Struktur werden in der Regel zuerst die Vorerkrankungen und die aktuelle Medikation aufgelistet und als zweiter Abschnitt oder als Unterteil der Anamnese folgt der Abschnitt "Jelen panaszok" (jetzige Beschwerden). Diese werden auch umfangreicher beschrieben als dies in den deutschsprachigen Arztbriefen der Fall ist. Es gehört zur traditionellen Vorgehensweise, dass in den ungarischen Arztbriefen auch die normgerechten Befunde erwähnt werden und zwar in einer vorgegebenen Reihenfolge, die der Struktur der mündlichen Anamneseerhebung, näher den Fragen der sog. Systemanamnese folgen. Diese Systembefragung wird unabhängig von den aktuellen Beschwerden und deren Begleitsymptomen durchgeführt und bedeutet ein systematisches Abfragen nach Organsystemen (einschließlich vegetative Anamnese). In die schriftliche Anamnese werden hingegen nur die relevanten, positiv beantworteten oder differentialdiagnostisch wichtigen negativ beantworteten Informationen übernommen. Das Ziel der Anamneseerhebung ist es, ein vollständiges Bild über die Beschwerden zu erwerben, damit nichts übersehen oder außer Acht gelassen wird. Die Unauffälligkeiten der Systemanamnese (nach Organsystemen) müssen möglicherweise aus dem Grunde erwähnt werden, damit nachgewiesen werden kann, dass im Laufe des Anamnesegespräches alle wichtigen Fragen gestellt worden sind.[3]

In den untersuchten Arztbriefen aus Österreich werden unter dem Titel "Aufnahmegrund" die aktuellen Beschwerden beschrieben. Dieser Abschnitt hat

[3] An unserer Universität arbeiten wir eng mit Dozenten der Internistischen Kliniken zusammen und haben auch die Möglichkeit, regelmäßig an den deutschsprachigen Lehrveranstaltungen für Medizinstudenten (wie Praktika in Kardiologie und anderen Fächern) teilzunehmen. Im Rahmen dieser Lehrveranstaltungen werden Studierende oftmals darauf hingewiesen, dass bei der Patientenbefragung auch die Normbefunde eine wichtige Rolle spielen (vgl. Koppán et al., 2015).

eine sehr hohe Informationsdichte und besteht zugleich nur aus 2-3 bis 6 Zeilen. Hier werden keine Unauffälligkeiten erwähnt.
Bei den deutschen Arztbriefen sind im Anamneseteil ebenfalls keine Unauffälligkeiten angegeben, aber im Falle einer differenzialdiagnostischen Relevanz werden Normbefunde erwähnt, z.B.: kein Stuhlgang, kein Erbrechen. Die deutschen Arztbriefe der verschiedenen Institutionen sind in Bezug auf die strukturelle Gliederung der Anamnese sehr unterschiedlich, in einigen Fällen besteht die Anamnese nur aus einem Textblock, in anderen wird sie in weitere Einheiten unterteilt.
Vergleicht man die gewöhnlichen strukturellen Einheiten eines Anamnesegesprächs mit denen im Anamneseteil eines Arztbriefes, lässt sich feststellen, dass es sich bei der Anamnese des Arztbriefes schlichtweg um die schriftliche Widerspiegelung des im Anamnesegespräch thematisierten Informationsgehalts handelt.

Anamnesegespräch (nach Füeßl – Middeke, 2010)	**Anamneseberichte im Korpus**
Aufnahmegrund	Aufnahmegrund
Jetzige Beschwerden	Jetzige Beschwerden
Krankengeschichte	Krankengeschichte
Frühere Behandlungen, Operationen, evtl. Allergien und Unverträglichkeiten	Frühere Behandlungen, evtl. Allergien und Unverträglichkeiten
Systembefragung	
Suchtverhalten Familienanamnese	Suchtverhalten Familienanamnese

Tabelle 2. Vergleich zwischen Anamnesegesprächen und Anamneseberichten: Inhaltliche Schwerpunkte

3.3.1. Ergebnisse der Konkordanzanalyse von Anamneseberichten

Mit Hilfe der Konkordanzanalyse wurde untersucht, welche sprachlichen Mittel zur schriftlichen Übertragung mündlich erhobener Informationen im Korpus verwendet wurden. Die Größe des Korpus beträgt 944 Wörter. Das Token-Vorkommnis liegt bei 2278. Die Relation beträgt 41,4. Insgesamt wurden 248 Sätze untersucht.
In den deutschsprachigen Anamnesen war das häufigste Wort „und“ (64 Vorkommnisse), danach folgte die Präposition „in“ sowie das Personalpronomen „er“. Weitere häufige Wörter waren die Konjunktiv I-Formen „habe“ und “sei“, die Präpositionen „mit“, “seit“, “bei“ und die Verschmelzung Präposition + Artikel “im“. Das Substantiv “Anamnese“ kam als einleitendes Wort der strukturellen Einheit häufig vor sowie der unbestimmte Artikel “kein(e)“, die Dativform “Jahren“, und als einzige Verbform die Vergangenheitsform “erfolgte“.
Mit Hilfe der KWIC (Key Word In Context)-Funktion konnten der Reihe nach folgende Konkordanzen festgestellt werden: „keine“, Zeitadverbien, „Medikation“, „fühlte“, Symptome, „habe einen Sohn“. Die von der Software als Kollokationen wahrgenommenen Kookkurrenzen des Wortes „habe“ im Text waren: „er“, „in“, „der“, „und“, „sie“, „sei“, „gelernt“, „Jahre“. Das häufigste Muster im Satz konnte mit „…habe er …“ ermittelt werden.
Die Anamnesetexte der ungarischen Anamnesen waren wesentlich kleiner, die Größe dieses Teilkorpus beträgt 246 Sätze. Das Token-Vorkommnis liegt bei

2082. Die Relation beträgt 50,2. Die Typezahl liegt bei 933.
Das häufigste Wort war „nem“ = nicht (99). Ihm folgten volt (war), miatt (wegen), fáj (tut weh), nincs (keine), anamnézis (Anamnese), van (es gibt), vagy (oder). Die häufigsten Kollokationen von „fáj“ (tut weh) sind: nem (nicht), torka (sein / ihr Hals), szédül (ihm / ihr ist schwindlig), feje (sein / ihr Kopf).
In beiden Teilkorpora überwiegt die Verwendung temporaler und kausaler Präpositionen, die zur Bildung narrativer und argumentativer Formulierungsmuster beitragen. In deutschsprachigen Anamnesen wird die symptombezogene Begründung der Aufnahme statt der kausalen Präposition ‚wegen‘ überwiegend mit der temporalen Präposition „bei“ ausgedrückt z.B. „Schmerzen bei bekannter Gonarthrose“. Auffallend häufig kommen in beiden Sprachen verneinende Formen (nicht, keine) vor, welche die Methode einer auf dem Ausschließen bestimmter Zustände beruhenden Differentialdiagnostik wiederspiegelt. Vergleichend kann zudem beobachtet werden, dass die deutschsprachigen Texte mehr vorgefertigte Muster im Bereich der Familienanamnese verwenden als die ungarischen.
Das Wort „látta“ (er / sie hat gesehen) spielt kontrastiv eine wichtige Rolle. Da im Ungarischen kein Verbmodus für indirekte Redewiedergabe wie „sei“ oder „habe“ im Deutschen existiert, werden Sätze wie „der Stuhl sei nicht blutig“ mit Hilfe der Verbform „látta“ ins Ungarische übersetzt, bzw. die gleiche Information wird im Ungarischen folgenderweise ausgedrückt: „székletét, vizeletét véresnek nem *látta*“ (Er / sie hat in seinem / ihrem Stuhl oder Harn kein Blut *gesehen*). An diesem Beispiel lässt sich erkennen, dass Mediziner bei der Wiedergabe der von dem Patienten erhobenen aber nicht objektivierbaren Information von den Aussagen des Patienten explizit Abstand halten und dies auch durch sprachliche Mittel zum Ausdruck bringen. Selbst dann, wenn die grammatische Struktur der Sprache keine Möglichkeiten zur Distanzierung (in Form indirekter Rede) bietet, werden Wörter der Allgemeinsprache funktionell für solche Zwecke verwendet.

3.3.2. Fachphraseologismen in den untersuchten Anamneseberichten

In Tabelle 2. werden einige Formulierungsmuster aus deutschen und österreichischen Arztbriefen in der Reihenfolge des strukturellen Aufbaus zusammengefasst, die als Ausgangspunkte für das Kennenlernen des Anamneseteils der Textsorte Arztbrief im Fachsprachenunterricht dienen können. Die einzelnen phraseologischen Einheiten wurden nach der unter 1.5. vorgestellten Klassifikation von Gréciano (2006) eingeteilt. Die Korpusanalyse ergab, dass in den untersuchten Arztbriefen alle 4 Kategorien der phraseologischen Einheiten vertreten waren, die oft miteinander verwoben in einem Satz vorkamen. Allerdings waren für verschiedene strukturelle Einheiten unterschiedliche Phraseologismen charakteristisch: Diskursphraseme und Phraseotermini für den Aufnahmegrund, Fachphraseme für die Symptome und Phraseotermini für die Darstellung der Befunde, wobei auf den Patienten als Informationsquelle in jedem Fall mit Hilfe von Phraseotextemen Bezug genommen wurde. Die Untersuchungen wurden mit Hilfe von Fachphrasemen beschrieben, in der Zusammenfassung der Behandlungsmaßnahmen bzw. des erzielten Therapieerfolgs wurden hingegen überwiegend Phraseotexteme sowie einige Fachphraseme verwendet. Aus Volumengründen wird im Folgenden aus jeder strukturellen Einheit jeweils ein Beispiel vorgestellt.

Strukturelle Einheit mit Beispiel	Typ des Fachphraseologismus
Aktuelle Beschwerden Die Rehabilitationsmaßnahme wurde durch den Haus- bzw. Facharzt eingeleitet	Diskursphrasem
Symptome fanden sich Hinweise für …	Fachphrasem
Befunde leicht verbreiterter Herzschatten	Phraseoterminus
Patient als Informationsquelle nach Angaben des Patienten	Phraseotextem
Untersuchungsergebnisse Noch am Aufnahmetag erfolgte die Koloskopie mit Polypabtragung	Fachphrasem
Therapie und Tendenz konnte ferner eine effektive Rückbildung erreicht werden	Phraseotextem

Tabelle 3. Fachphraseologismen in deutschsprachigen Anamneseberichten

3.3.3. Akronyme und Abkürzungen in deutschsprachigen Anamneseberichten

Akronyme und Abkürzungen stellen bei Arztbriefen einen besonderen Problembereich dar.

Ein Teil der Abkürzungen ist im internationalen oder nationalen medizinischen Diskurs standardisiert und kann in den meisten deutschsprachigen Arztbriefen entdeckt werden, z.B. EZ = Ernährungszustand.

Eine weitere Gruppe von Abkürzungen wird von den Fachsprachenbenutzern in unterschiedlichen Formen verwendet, diese gelten also als synonym. In manchen Fällen geht es um die deutsche oder lateinische Abkürzung eines und desselben Fachausdrucks, z.B. St.p. HE und Z.n. HE (Status post Hysterektomie, Zustand nach Hysterektomie = der operativen Entfernung der Gebärmutter).

Es finden sich auch fachbereichsspezifische Abkürzungen, deren Entschlüsselung für Allgemeinmediziner Schwierigkeiten bereiten kann, z.B. STEMI: ST-Elevations-Myokardinfarkt (ein Herzinfarkt, der im Elektrokardiogramm (EKG) eine Hebung der ST-Strecke verursacht).

Die gängigsten sowie einige fachbereichsspezifische Abkürzungen und Akronyme bilden einen wichtigen Gegenstand des Unterrichts. Zur Übung dieses Phänomens werden im Unterricht viele Textbeispiele aus Arztbriefen behandelt.

3.3.4. Äquivalenzverhältnisse

Bei der Untersuchung der terminologischen Äquivalenz werden auf begrifflicher Ebene 4 Kategorien angegeben (vollständige Äquivalenz, Inklusion und Überschneidung als teilweise Äquivalenz bzw. keine Äquivalenz, vgl. Šarčević 1990)**.** Für die Prüfung der Äquivalenzverhältnisse von Phraseologismen gelten ebenfalls 4 Kategorien (Holzinger (1993), die in der vorliegenden Arbeit im Falle von Fachphraseologismen als Grundlage der Äquivalenzuntersuchung dienen. Für den Unterricht der medizinischen Fachsprache Deutsch ist der kontrastive Vergleich von typischen und häufig vorkommenden Wortverbindungen in deutschsprachigen und ungarischen Arztbriefen von großer Bedeutung. Deshalb wurden die im Korpus vorkommenden deutsch- und ungarischsprachigen Fachphraseologismen nach Holzinger (1993) in 4 Äquivalenzgrade eingestuft. Im Folgenden wird aus Volumengründen nur je ein Beispiel aus jedem Teilkorpus erwähnt. Die kontrastive Untersuchung der österreichischen und deutschen Anamneseberichte ergab keine Unterschiede in der Verwendung von Fachphraseologismen. In den österreichischen Anamnesen zeigte sich zwar bei etwas kleinerem Textumfang eine höhere Informationsdichte, aber in der Fachsprache konnten keine Verschiedenheiten beobachtet werden. Es empfiehlt sich, die Fachphraseologismen je nach strukturellen Einheiten der Arztbriefe wie z.B. den Aufnahmegrund, aktuelle Beschwerden, vegetative Anamnese usw. zu analysieren. Dies ist allerdings dadurch erschwert, dass die Strukturen in den Arztbriefen von Klinik zu Klinik ganz unterschiedlich sein können und darum einen Vergleich erschweren.

identische Fachphraseologismen: semantische und formale vollständige Übereinstimmung	
Patientin in gutem Allgemeinzustand	jó általános állapotú beteg
äquivalente Fachphraseologismen nur formale aber keine semantischen Unterschiede	
die stationäre Aufnahme erfolgte auf Grund …	felvételére … miatt került sor *(es ist wegen …zur Aufnahme gekommen)*
teiläquivalente Fachphraseologismen: teilweise semantische Übereinstimmung	
Stuhl unauffällig, sei nicht blutig	széklete rendszeres, véresnek vagy feketének nem látta (sein / ihr Stuhlgang ist regelmäßig, er / sie hat darin kein Blut gesehen)
nichtäquivalente Fachphraseologismen: keine entsprechende phraseologische Einheit	
die Patientin wird uns durch den Rettungsdienst vorgestellt	OMSZ szállítja ambulanciánkra a beteget (der Rettungsdienst liefert den Patienten in unsere Ambulanz ein)

Tabelle 4. Fachphraseologismen in deutsch- und ungarischsprachigen Anamneseberichtennach Holzinger (1993)

3.3.5. Terminologisierungsgrad der Fachausdrücke in Arztbriefen

Bei der Untersuchung des Terminologisierungsgrades der von der Textsorte verwendeten Fachausdrücke beruft sich die vorliegende Arbeit auf die Klassifikation von Felber und Schaeder (1999), nach der die Terminologisiertheit „der Lexik im Hinblick auf die Benennung und begriffliche Bestimmung“ zu beschreiben ist (Felber-Schaeder 1999: 1733). Je fester eine Benennung einem Begriff zugeordnet ist, umso höher ist der Grad der Terminologisierung eines Fachausdruckes. Nach der Klassifikation von Felber und Schaeder (1999) gelten als terminologisiert Fachausdrücke, bei denen der Begriff entsprechend definiert und seiner Benennung fest zugeordnet ist (Felber-Schaeder 1999: 34). Zu dieser Gruppe gehören im untersuchten Korpus griechisch-lateinische Fachausdrücke, bzw. deren in Fachwörterbüchern aufgeführte nationale Entsprechungen. Für das (im Sinne von Wüster 1974) ein(ein)deutige Verständnis von Informationen bezüglich des Zustandes eines Patienten wäre unter Fachleuten der möglichst höchste Terminologisierungsgrad erforderlich, der in der Verwendung griechisch-lateinischer Termini besteht. Allerdings ist es ebenfalls wichtig, die Aufmerksamkeit der Medizinstudierenden auf die Begebenheit zu lenken, dass die Formulierung von fachlichen Inhalten in den unterschiedlichen strukturellen Einheiten der Arztbriefe unterschiedlich gestaltet werden muss, je nachdem, an wen die Information gerichtet ist. Da der Arztbrief überwiegend für den nachbehandelnden Fachmann oder weitere Mediziner konzipiert ist, wird ein hoher Grad der Terminologisiertheit und dadurch eine Präzision der Angaben vorausgesetzt. Bei den Teilen der Arztbriefe hingegen, in denen der Patient angesprochen wird, muss ein Codewechsel durchgeführt und eine allgemeinverständliche Formulierung vollzogen werden. In den meisten Arztbriefen sind es nur sehr wenige aber umso wichtigere Informationen, wie z.B. Untersuchungs- und Kontrolltermine usw., die an Patienten adressiert werden. Sie werden in der Regel nicht aus dem Textfluss herausgehoben.

4. Zusammenfassung: Bedeutung für den Fachsprachenunterricht – Ansätze der didaktischen Vermittlung

Im Fokus des Fachsprachenunterrichts sollten Ansätze stehen, die auf das Erlernen von gängigen, präzisen und passenden Formulierungen zielen. Dabei sollte die Kenntnis der textsortenspezifischen Kompetenzen in der Muttersprache keine Voraussetzung darstellen, aber sie erleichtern zumindest die Bewusstmachung der Ähnlichkeiten und Unterschiede zwischen der Muttersprache und der Zielsprache, die sich in vollständig adäquaten und gar nicht adäquaten Formulierungsmustern äußern. Die Aneignung von Textsortenregeln sowie Fachphraseologismen und Termini sollte als ein weiterer Schritt der Fachsprachenkompetenzen aufgefasst werden, nachdem Studierende mit der mündlichen Anamneseerhebung vertraut gemacht worden sind (s. Einleitung). Das heißt, nach einer gründlichen Analyse authentischer Krankengeschichten aus verschiedenen Institutionen in der Zielsprache sollten Studierende versuchen, von ihren Mitstudierenden improvisierte Anamnesegespräche schriftlich zusammenzufassen. Die Anamnesegespräche können auch von SchauspielpatientInnen und Studierenden simuliert werden. Die Grundlage der mündlich vorgestellten Anamnesegespräche sollten ebenfalls authentische Krankengeschichten bieten, was einen direkten Vergleich der schriftlichen Produkte mit dem Original ermöglicht. Der knappe Stil des Schreibens von Arztbriefen, das strukturierte Vorgehen sollten auf diesem Wege eingeübt werden. Der Kurs mit dem Fokus auf die deutschsprachigen Arztbriefe kann zur Bewältigung der beruflichen Handlungssituation des Verfassens von Arztbriefen sowohl auf Deutsch als auch auf Ungarisch beitragen, denn ein bewussteres Umgehen mit dieser Textsorte kann auch durch den Vergleich deutscher – ungarischer - österreichischer Arztbriefe erreicht werden. Zumal „fachsprachliche Kollokationen nicht nur beim Hin-, sondern auch beim Herübersetzen Probleme bereiten“, und sie in Fachwörterbüchern nicht entsprechend thematisiert werden (Gruntar Jermol 2007: 142), gehört ihre Kenntnis auch in der Muttersprache zu den fachsprachlichen Kompetenzen. Diese Kompetenz wird jedoch jedes Mal gefordert, wenn der Arzt die mündlich vom Patienten erhobenen relevanten Daten für seinen

Kollegen innerhalb des fachlichen Diskurses mit Hilfe von Termini und Fachphraseologismen zusammenfasst. Gleichzeitig wird aber auch die Einbeziehung interkultureller Kompetenzen möglich, die zur Vermittlung in Situationen verhelfen, in denen abweichende Erwartungen und Verhaltensweisen aufeinandertreffen (Zeuner 2011): Die Ergebnisse der vorliegenden Korpusanalyse zeigen beispielsweise, dass in deutschen Patientengeschichten viel weniger Bezug auf die Person des Patienten bei der Wiedergabe der Beschwerden genommen wird als in ungarischen. Weiterhin sei laut Studien „die Erstellung aktueller Unterrichtsmaterialien, die die internationalen Medizinstudierenden nicht nur zur Rezeption deutscher Texte befähigen, sondern auch die interkulturelle Begegnung reflektieren helfen, [..] dringend geboten (Schön-Schrimpf 2010: 52). Lehrmaterialien, die aus authentischen Korpora extrahierte Phraseotermini, Fachphraseme, Diskursphraseme und Phraseotexteme erklären und ihre authentische kontextuelle Verwendung darstellen, würden Studierenden helfen, eventuelle interkulturelle Kommunikationsprobleme bei unterschiedlichen Kommunikationsformen im klinischen Alltag sowohl in der Muttersprache als auch in der Fremdsprache zu überbrücken.

5. Ausblick

Das Ziel einer umfassenden kontrastiven Korpusanalyse von Fachphraseologismen als Formulierungsmuster und -hilfen in deutschen, österreichischen, (schweizerischen) und ungarischen Arztbriefen ist es, internationale, (vorwiegend ungarische) Studierende der Medizin mit einem authentischen Code- und Diskurswechsel zwischen der mündlichen Anamneseerhebung und dem schriftlichen Anamnesebericht in ihrer Muttersprache sowie in deutscher Sprache vertraut zu machen. Auf diesem Wege werden Studierende auf ihre spätere klinische Arbeit sowohl bezüglich der Laien-Experten-Kommunikation als auch im Bereich der medizinischen Expertenkommunikation als kompetente Mitglieder beider Diskurse vorbereitet. Die Ergebnisse der geplanten umfassenden Korpusanalyse, deren Vorstudie die vorliegende Arbeit darstellt, sollen didaktisiert als Lehrwerk für die Studierenden der Medizinischen Fakultät der Universität Pécs angeboten werden.

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REZENSION

SEBASTIAN SUSTECK (Hrsg.) EMPIRISCHE UNTERSUCHUNGEN ZU DEUTSCHUNTERRICHT UND MIGRATION

BOOK REVIEW

SEBASTIAN SUSTECK (Editor) EMPIRICAL RESEARCH TO TEACHING GERMAN AND MIGRATION

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Rezension zu:

Empirische Untersuchungen zu Deutschunterricht und Migration

Sebastian Susteck (Hrsg.)
Ruhr-Universität, Bochum

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Beiträge zur Literarur- und Mediendidaktik 35

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Empirische Untersuchungen zu Deutschunterricht und Migration ist eine Veröffentlichung des Peter Lang Verlages aus dem Jahre 2017, die in der Serie Beiträge zur Literarur- und Mediendidaktik, Bd. 35 erschienen ist. Die sieben AutorInnen des von Sebastian Susteck herausgegebenen Sammelbandes gehören unterschiedlicher Fachbereichen, unter ihnen findet man Akademiker, wie Dr. phil. Christian Dawidowski, Professor für Literaturdidaktik an der Universität Osnabrück, Dr. rer. soc. Aladin El-Mafaalani, Professor für Politikwissenschaft und Politische Soziologie an der Fachhochschule Münster, Dr. paed. Katrin Rolka, Professorin für Didaktik der Mathematik an der Ruhr-Universität, Bochum, Dr. phil. Sebastian Susteck, Professor für Neugermanistik und Didaktik der Literatur an der Ruhr-Universität, Bochum sowie Mitarbeiter der oben genannten Universität, nämlich Dr. phil. Cornelius Herz, abgeordneten Lehrer und M.A. Sabine Wege, wissenschaftliche Hilfskraft in der Fachgruppe Didaktik am Germanistischen

Institut, bzw. in der Person von Dr. phil. Matthias Jakubanis, Mitarbeiter des Albert-Schweitzer-Gymnasiums, Hürth.

Mit der verstärkten Präsenz des Migrationshintergrundes in Schulen und bei Schülern taucht das Bedürfnis auf, sich mit dem Phänomen zu beschäftigen, die Rollen zu erforschen, die eine Migrationsgeschichte an Schülerseite möglicherweise im Bildungsprozess spielen kann. Die Mitarbeiter des Sammelbandes gehen in ihren theoretischen, bzw. empirischen Studien diesem heutzutage hochaktuellen Sujet nach.

In seinem einleitenden Beitrag, *Deutschunterricht und Migration,* bietet Sebastian Susteck Einblick in den aktuellen Forschungsstand, indem er sich auf Autoren wie Martina Weber, Aladin El-Mafaalani, Jens Schneider, Maurice Crul, Frans Lelie, Ingrid Gogolin u.a. bezieht. Die Problematik der immer stärker ausgeprägten Heterogenität in Schulklassen angesichts wirtschaftlich-gesellschaftlicher, ethnischer und rassischer Zugehörigkeit der Schüler wird zuerst aufgrund einer Studie Martina Webers aus dem Jahre 2003 mit dem Titel *Heterogenität im Schulalltag* behandelt. Darin nimmt man schulische Bildung durch die Prisma von Schüleräußerungen, Selbstwahrnehmung von Schülern, Lehrermeinungen, all das ethniebezogen, unter die Lupe. Die Dokumentation betont „wie die Kategorie ethnischer Zugehörigkeit sich beständig vor andere Kategorien zu schieben droht und welche Dominanz sie im Denken der LehrerInnen an verschiedenen Stellen gewinnt, (...)‟ (Sebastian Susteck, 2017, S. 11) und das unabhängig von individuellen Sympathien und positiver Beurteilung der betroffenen Schüler. Fazit dieser Bestandaufnahme: Lehrer scheinen kulturelle Differenzen zu dramatisieren und pädagogische Probleme zu ethnisieren, worunter sie selber leiden und wodurch sie sich wegen Kompetenzlücken überfordert fühlen.
In der Sicht von Susteck hat Webers Studie trotz ihrer Verdienste auch manche inhaltliche Unzulänglichkeiten, wie die starken Wertungen durch die Autorin, der Mangel an Beobachtung des schulischen Kontexts, der den Lehrern bestimmte Zwänge aufhängt, die allzu starke Verallgemeinerung der ethnischen Perspektive im schulischen Misserfolg als Ergebnis von Gruppenzugehörigkeit und nicht etwa auch individuellen Aspekten, die Kritik an die Ablehnung durch manche Schulanstalten der ethnisierenden Haltung u.a.
Weiterhin werden in der Studie gesellschaftliche Verwandlungen – nämlich die stellenweise Transformation der „Mehrheitsgesellschaft“ in Minderheitsgruppen – beleuchtet, die sich im schulischen Bereich viel früher zeigen als es in der Gesellschaft sichtbar ist. Laut Statistiken hatte 2013 in Deutschland 21% der Bevölkerung einen Migrationshintergrund, dieser Prozent war unter Kindern bis zu 10 Jahren schon über 33%.
Im nächsten Abschnitt seines Beitrags bietet der Autor in Anlehnung an Ingrid Gogolin einen Überblick über die zwei unterschiedlichen Richtungslinien der interkulturellen Bildungsforschung. Die erste sozialwissenschaftlich geprägte Linie befasst sich mit gesellschaftlicher Vielfalt und ihren Folgen für die Erziehung mit Schwerpunkt auf die Erforschung der Gründe für Benachteiligung. Die andere geisteswissenschaftlich-anthropologisch orientierte Linie behandelt die Problematik des friedvollen Miteinander- und Nebeneinanderlebens von Menschen unterschiedlicher Herkunft. In der Schulpraxis kommen beide Richtungslinien, undzwar komplementär, zur Geltung. Was die Ausbildung der Lehrkräfte betrifft,

sollen diese in den Lehrern dargebotenen Kompetenzen übersetzt werden, mit Lernschwierigkeiten, Problemen von Schülern aus unterschiedlichen sozialen und kulturellen Gruppen wirksam umgehen zu können.
Im Ausklang seiner Einleitung zum Sammelband betont der Herausgeber, dass dieser eher einen sozialwissenschaftlichen als einen geisteswissenschaftlich-anthropologischen Ansatz hat und daher wenig zur Ausarbeitung einer interkulturellen Didaktik beiträgt. Abgesehen von diesem Defizit kann er einen nützlichen Ausgangspunkt für weitere Forschung auch mit quantitativen Methoden bilden.

Der erste Beitrag des Bandes, *Soziale Ungleichheiten in der Schule. Überlegungen zu den Ausgangsbedingungen des schulischen Lernens* von Aladin El-Mafaalani gezeichnet, ist eine soziologische Analyse der Bedingungen für sozioökonomischen Erfolg mit Hinblick auf Bildung und Herkunft. Antrieb und Inspirationsquelle für die Forschungsarbeit in diesem Themenbereich bildete die Feststellung, dass sozialer Aufstieg auch bei ähnlichen Ausgangsbedingungen und -positionen stark herkunftsabhängig vom sozialen Gesichtspunkt ist und dabei wird nicht ausschließlich der Migrationshintergrund gemeint. Verblüffenderweise wird das in der Schulpädagogik und Didaktik nicht berücksichtigt. In Anlehnung an Pierre Bourdieu (1987) meint El-Mafaalani, dass Habitus beim Individuum so stark ausgeprägt ist, dass es instinktiverweise seiner Ausgangsposition ähnliche soziale Konstellationen sucht und diese weiterführt. Wenn die anfänglichen Sozialisationsbedingungen eine strukturelle Knappheit aufgewiesen haben, gewöhnt sich die Person an ein sogenanntes „Management von Knappheit" (El-Mafaalani, 2014), was eigentlich das Ausbrechen aus diesen Schranken fast unmöglich macht. Auf der anderen Seite gibt es auch das „Management des Überflusses" (ebenda), das in privilegierten Kreisen betrieben wird. Diese zwei Arten von Umgang mit den Ressourcen ergeben unterschiedliche Handlungsmuster:

> Kurzzeitorientierung, Nutzenorientierung, Funktionslogik und Eindeutigkeitsmuster stellen typische Aspekte des Managements von extremer Knappheit dar. (...) Es [Management des Überflusses – Anm. A.H.] generiert eine habituelle Prägung, die sich mit den Begriffen Langzeitorientierung, Abstraktionsfähigkeit und Denken in Alternativen umschreiben lässt. (S. 42)

Da der Meinung, dass eine Transformation des Habitus doch möglich ist, analysiert El-Mafaalani die Phasen dieser Umwandlung, nämlich die der Irritation, der Distanzierung und schließlich die der Stabilisierung. Habitustransformation scheint aber bei Individuen mit einem Migrationshintergrund hürdenreicher zu sein, einerseits sollen sie die höhere Bildungsaspiration ihres Herkunftsmilieus, andererseits auch die Loyalitätserwartungen desselben befriedigen. Im Falle von Einheimischen gibt es weder die eine noch die andere.
Im abschließenden Teil seiner Arbeit reflektiert der Autor über das Phänomen der Bildungsexpansion als nationale Strategie für die Bekämpfung der Chancenungleichheit im Bildungssystem und ihre paradoxalen Folgen, wie Bildungsinflation (Entwertung von Abschlüssen), Bildungsungleichheit (größeren Abstand im Bildungsniveau verschiedener sozialen Schichten) und

Kompetenzveränderungen (Unterschied zwischen dem statistisch gemessenen und in Bildungsanstalten wahrgenommenen Kompetenzniveau).

Sebastian Susteck und Sabine Wege zeichnen den nächsten Beitrag des Bandes, *Studierende mit Migrationshintergrund für das Unterrichtsfach Deutsch. Eine Explorative Interviewstudie zu biographischen Hintergründen, Unterrichtsvorstellungen und der Frage nach besonderem Fachpotenzial*, der sich mit Aspekten des Einsatzes von fremdstämmigen Lehrkräften ins deutsche Bildungssystem beschäftigt. Ausgangspunkt bilden dabei die Fragen, ob sich die soziale Zusammensetzung der Schülerschaft in der sozialen Struktur der Lehrkörperschaft widerspiegeln sollte, bzw. wie relevant eigentlich von schulischer Perspektive der Migrationshintergrund im Sinne von Herkunft lehrerseits sei. Sollte der Migrationshintergrund nicht eher als sozialen Faktor angesehen werden, bemäntelt von kulturellen Aspekten?

> Schwierigkeiten entstehen nicht aus dem Migrationshintergrund an sich, sondern besonders „durch das Zusammentreffen benachteiligter Lebensverhältnisse und traditionsorientierter Lebensweisen in traditionellen Migrantenmilieus […]. Dabei bilden soziale und kulturelle Aspekte in diesen Milieus eine Einheit und können entsprechend kaum unterschieden werden.“ (El-Mafaalani u. Toprak, 2011 in Susteck u. Wege, S. 74)

Zurückgekehrt zur Problematik des Migrationshintergrundes im Lehrerkollegium lässt sich feststellen, dass der Einsatz vom fremdstämmigen Personal im Einklang mit der Bemühung ist, Jugendliche für das Akzeptieren kultureller, religiöser, sprachlicher Vielfalt zu trainieren und diese auch unterstützt. Es sollen aber nicht nur Empatie und interkulturelle Kompetenz, über die man mit einem Migrationshintergrund vermutlich, aber nicht selbstverständlich, besser verfügt, sondern auch das Fachwissen in Betracht gezogen werden, das bei den oben erwähnten Lehrkräften geringer sein mag. Die Autoren des Beitrags gehen dem Sujet anhand von Interviews mit Eingeborenen und fremdstämmigen Studierenden des Faches Deutsch nach. Dabei gehen sie von zwei Thesen aus, dass sich das kulturelle und literarische Wissen der Studierenden mit Migrationshintergrund von dem der einheimischen Studenten unterscheidet, es womöglich ersetzt oder ergänzt, dass ihre Sprachkompetenz von der der Studierenden ohne Migrationshintergrund differenziert sei und dass beide Faktoren „wertvolle Ressourcen für den Deutschunterricht an weiterführenden Schulen sein und hier zum Einsatz gebracht werden können.‟ (Susteck u. Wege, S. 86)
Diese Annahmen lassen sich aber während der Interviews nicht belegen, was sie aber aufdecken, ist ein grundlegendes Defizit der Lehramtausbildung in Deutschland, nämlich die unzulängliche Vorbereitung auf einen Unterricht in multilingualen und -kulturellen Klassen und die gleichgültige Haltung multi- und interkulturellen Konzepten gegenüber. Interessanterweise empfinden das die Betroffenen, die mit Migrationshintergrund einbeschlossen, nicht als problematisch.

Aufgrund von spontan geführten Interviews analysiert Matthias Jakubanis in der nächsten Studie, *Literacy im Deutschunterricht: Funktionalisierung von literarischen Rezeptionsprozessen bei SchülerInnen mit Migrationshintergrund,* Möglichkeiten und Wege literarischer Sozialisation von fremdstämmigen

Jugendlichen und weist darauf hin, dass man durch eigene Motivation, Schulerfahrungen und ggf. positive Diskrimination auch in dieser Bevölkerungsgruppe zum Bildungsaufstieg kommen kann. Der Schwerpunkt soll aber nicht mehr auf ästhetisch orientierter Rezeption liegen, sondern auf die Verwandlung vom kulturellen Kapital Lesen und Literatur in soziales und ökonomisches Kapital. Dazu bietet auch die Kompetenzen erzielende curriculare Neuorientierung in Deutschland Unterstützung.

> Die SchülerInnen sollen mittels ihrer Lektüreerfahrung, statistischer Erhebungen zu den Besuchszahlen der dramatisierten Fassung des Romans (Franz Kafkas *Der Prozess* – Anm. A. H.) sowie pragmatischer (Interview)-Texte beispielsweise Informationsblätter/Flyer zu den literarischen Vorlagen adressatenbezogen entwerfen und aktualisieren. (...) der literarische Text ist somit lediglich Fokalisierungspunkt, keineswegs Gegenstand intensiver kognitiv-emotionaler oder ästhetischer Auseinandersetzungsprozesse der SchülerInnen. (S. 184)

Es soll festgelegt werden, dass ein derart umgestalteter Deutschunterricht nicht nur Jugendlichen mit Migrationshintergrund besser zusagt.

Dasselbe thematische Dreieck Migrationshintergrund – literarische Sozialisation – Deutschunterricht behandelt Cornelius Herz im Beitrag *Mit dem Migrationshintergrund rechnen? Quantitative Operationalisierungen des Sprachhintergrundes und der literarischen Sozialisation in der Literaturdidaktik Deutsch* und setzt sich dabei erstens mit dem Begriff Migrationshintergrund und seiner Definition auseinander. In seiner Untersuchung der Problematik geht er von der Hypothese aus, dass Studierende der Germanistik mit bzw. ohne Migrationshintergrund (ein- bzw. mehrsprachig erzogene Jugendliche) keinen Unterschied in ihrer Haltung Literatur gegenüber aufweisen, nämlich dass sie sie mit dem schulischen Milieu und eher mit Bildung als mit Unterhaltung assoziieren. Diese Vermutung erweist sich aber nicht völlig zuzustimmen: als Ort der Lesesozialisation wird die Schule eher in der mehrsprachigen Gruppe angegeben, während Jugendliche ohne Migrationshintergrund in größerer Zahl ihren ersten Kontakt mit Literatur im Elternhaus erlebt haben. Das scheint aber weniger mit dem Sprachhintergrund als vielmehr mit dem Bildungsniveau des Vaters zusammenzuhängen, so der Autor der Studie.

Über erste Resultate des an der Ruhr-Universität Bochum in der Form von narrativen Interviews geführten Projekts, „Forschendes Lernen“, berichten Sebastian Susteck und Katrin Rolka im Beitrag *Fachkulturen des Deutsch- und Mathematikunterrichts bei SchülerInnen mit und ohne Migrationshintergrund. Ergebnisse eines Projekts Forschenden Lernens*. Die Autoren beziehen sich auch auf andere, die Einstellung der Schüler zu unterschiedlichen Schulfächern und deren Kultur (das von ihnen induzierte Denk-, Wahrnehmungs- und Handlungsmuster) thematisierende Studien. Als kleines Defizit lässt sich erwähnen, dass in der Tabelle, die die Befunde der von Ludwig Haag und Thomas Götz unternommenen Befragung zusammenfasst, nicht alle Zeichen erklärt werden, was deren Verständnis und Bearbeitung erschwert. Als Fazit der Untersuchung ergeben sich Feststellungen, die sich auch für die interviewenden Studenten – angehenden Lehrer – als aufschlussreich erweisen, da sie im

Unterricht mit denselben Defiziten schülerseits zurechtkommen sollen als in den Interviews. Unter ihnen nennt man die Artikulationsknappheit der befragten Schüler – Hauptgrund für das Misslingen der intendierten Stegreiferzählungen und das Bleiben der narrativen Interviews unter den Erwartungen der Forscher – unabhängig von der Existenz/dem Fehlen eines Migrationshintergrundes. Eine weitere daher resultierende Feststellung ist, dass die oben erwähnten artikulatorischen und narrativen Probleme nicht mit dem Migrationshintergrund, sondern vielmehr mit dem sozioökonomischen Status und kulturellen Kapital in den Familien zusammenhängen.

> Während im didaktischen und politischen Diskurs mitunter der Eindruck entsteht, das Vorhandensein eines Migrationshintergrundes sei ein primärer schulischer Problemindikator, darf daher nicht übersehen werden, dass auch SchülerInnen ohne Migrationshintergrund Beachtung verdienen, wie auch die Gruppe der SchülerInnen mit Migrationshintergrund keineswegs homogen ist. (S. 236)

Die von Christian Dawidowski gezeichnete abschließende Studie des Sammelbandes, *Interkulturelles Lernen in Lehrwerken der Sekundarstufen. Am Beispiel der Darstellung der Türken und der Türkei seit 2009*, analysiert den Umgang deutscher Schulbücher mit diesem Sujet. Während Fremdheit bis zu den 50er Jahren eher als Gegenbild zum positiv empfundenen Eigenbild dargestellt wurde, ist seit den 1970er Jahren ein Wandel in dieser Hinsicht zu vermerken, das Fremde wird komplementär zum Einheimischen. In die sowohl quantitative als auch qualitative Analyse wurden alle im Zeitraum 2009-2014 für die Sekundarstufen I und II in Publikationsreihen oder einzeln in Deutschland erschienenen Lehrbücher für Deutsch einbezogen. Das umfasst 13 Reihen von fünf Verlagen für die Sekundarstufe I und 11 Einzelpublikationen für die Sekundarstufe II, insgesamt 76 Bände, in denen Textstellen mit Hinweis auf das Fremdsein (Merkmale: türk, türkisch, Türke, Türkin, Türkei) unter die Lupe genommen wurden. Die quantitative Analyse ergibt wenige Resultate, da die oben erwähnten Merkmale nur selten vorkommen. Vom Gesichtspunkt der didaktischen Zielsetzung der Lehrwerke lassen sich drei Typen von Umgang mit dem Begriff „Fremdsein‟ erkennen: das Merkmal ‚türk' wird ohne interkulturelle Absichten; nur informierend, teilweise aber orientalisierend oder informierend und mit literarisch-interkulturellen Absichten dargestellt. Der Autor kommt zur Schlussfolgerung: diese Typologie mit allzu wenigen Beispielen für interkulturelles Erziehen charakterisiert Lehrwerke beider Bildungsstufen.

Auch wenn der oben präsentierte Sammelband eher analytisch als pragmatisch orientiert ist, eine Diagnose ohne zu viel Lösungsvorschläge für die Bewältigung und Verwaltung der aus dem Migrationshintergrund im Unterricht resultierenden Aspekte bietet, bildet er doch einen Meilenstein in der Erforschung der Problematik sowie einen nützlichen Ausgangspunkt für weitere praktikumbezogene Untersuchungen.

BOOK REVIEW

IULIA PARA'S BUSINESS DICTIONARIES

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Reviewed works:
1. English-Romanian Business Dictionary
ISBN 978-973-52-1754-9
2. Romanian-English Business Dictionary
ISBN 978-973-52-1755-6

Original titles:
1. Dicționar de afaceri englez - român
2. Dicționar de afaceri român - englez

Author: Iulia Para
Published by: Mirton, Timişoara, 2017

Recent releases (November 2017) of Mirton Publishing House, Timișoara, the 418 page English - Romanian dictionary and the 294 Romanian - English Dictionary of business terms are written by Iulia Para, lecturer within the Department of Marketing and International Business Relations at the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration of the West University Timisoara, Romania, author of several books published by various publishing houses in the country or abroad.

Iulia Para is a reputed author in the field of ESP, with two works published by LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing, Germany: *ESP as an Instrument of Communication in Business*, published in 2016, and *Anglicisms in the Romanian Business Vocabulary*, based on her doctoral thesis, published in 2012. In 2016 De Gruyter Open publishes *Language in the Digital Era. Challenges and Perspectives*, co-edited by Iulia Para. Another work in the domain of Business English*, English for Banking*, is published in 2012, by Mirton Publishing House Timișoara, that also published, between 2007 and 2016, other eight works - course materials or students' books - having Iulia Para as author or co-author. Between 2013 and 2015 Iulia Para made a series of presentations in the field of ESP, Business English and Communication, at distinct national and international conferences and she has published so far more than 20 articles in the field, in journals indexed in various data bases.

The expertise in the field of English for business and economics, achieved by the authoress in more than ten years of teaching students in Economics, and the research in the field, undertaken along with her didactic career, are put to good use in the production of the two business dictionaries under consideration.

Both dictionaries feature a very straightforward approach when it comes to the layout. A centred alignment column of equality signs splits each page into two virtual columns. It thus separates - and respectively identifies - the term or the notion in the original, translated language, in the left column, from - and respectively with - the term, notion or explanatory phrase in the language 'of destination' as to say, i.e. of translation, in the right column. Both sections come written in a neat top left alignment. This choice of format is very easy to follow, to look into and retrieve items from, and it provides maximum readability by its very simplicity and genuine sheerness.

As for the general format, the dictionaries start each with a guard page and a page dedicated to the scientific referees, and then present a continuous flow of translated terms and notions, coming simply under obvious 'titles' represented by the alphabet letters (the title letters of the terms entered underneath each). They both end with two pages of selective bibliography.

As obvious, the ascending alphabetical arrangement is employed in introducing the terms, notions or phrases presented on the first column, the column of the words to be translated. This still does not always hold true as the reader can find examples of a different style of organizing the entries, especially within phrasal concepts. Thus, for instance, in the English - Romanian dictionary (further here referred at as E-R), for the constructions with the English word "**general**" (pages 182-184) and in the Romanian - English dictionary (further here referred at as R-E), for the phrases formed with the Romanian words "**baza**" (page 27), the concepts are ordered in more alphabetical lumps, i.e. the lexical structures are grouped by various economic fields - such as finance, business, accounting (without any distinct pointing out by the author, with respect to this breakdown) - and the arrangement comes alphabetical within each group. Or, as for instance with the Romanian words "**banca**" (pages 22-25), "**cambie**" (pages 41-42), "**capital**" (pages 44-46), and others, there is first an alphabetical arrangement consisting of an enumeration of the types of banks, respectively bills or capitals, and then again a new lump for each term, of other concepts related to it.

The abbreviations, truncations and acronyms, present in the two dictionaries are most of the times presented in the long form as well, either having the entry in the long form and using the initials or the short form in brackets,

e.g. "**Adjustable rate mortgage (ARM)** = Ipoteca cu rata ajustabila" - E-R, p. 10;
"**Clean bill of lading (clean B/L)** = Conosament curat" - E-R, p. 65,

or vice-versa, i.e. with the very abbreviation representing the dictionary entry followed by the explanation in parentheses,

e.g. "**CIA (Cash In Advance)** = Plata cu numerar in avans" - E-R, p. 62;
"**Ck. (check)** = Cec" - E-R, p. 64.

Still, it sometimes happens that only the initials are given or only the shortened form appears in the initial language and the translation comes as explanatory, i.e. in the long form,

e.g. "**BAA** = Autoritatea Aeriana Britanica" - E-R, p. 15;
"**BEXA** = Asociatia exportatorilor britanici" - E-R, p. 27;
"**Contr.** = Contract" - E-R, p. 87.

Another situation encountered is that some initials entered in the dictionary do not have a translation but rather they are just explained to be the acronyms of '*something'* and this something comes again in English, and represents the long form of the structure and so the reader will next have to check the page where the long form comes translated.

e.g. "**NL** = Abreviere pentru no liability
NMS = Abreviere pentru “normal market size”
NNP = Abreviere pentru “net national product” **"** - E-R, p. 268.

While most situations of abbreviation introduction, in all the variants exemplified above, were particularly met in the English Romanian dictionary, there are instances of tackling abbreviations in the Romanian English dictionary as well, even if they are mostly justified by borrowings or feature notions taken over just as such, by the Romanian language,

e.g. "**DES (franco nava descarcata)** = Ex ship (delivered ex ship)" - R-E, p. 127;
"**DAF (franco-frontiera)** = Free frontier (delivered at frontier)" - R-E, p. 115.

What can impress some readers as a well organised and very neat work, might return for others a feeling of exhaustion. This is because a certain bluntness is given by this 'too clean' layout, this seemingly infinite row of indistinguishably differentiated terms. It strikes from the fact that all entries are identically aligned and are written in the same font format - capital first letter and bold throughout the structure - whether they bring a new concept or represent just another 'member' of the same word family or an expression formed with a previously enounced and translated term, as clearly exemplified by the excerpt from R-E, page 137, seen below:

e.g. "**Efectiv** = Actual/effective/real
Pret efectiv = Actual price
Venit efectiv = Actual income
Productie efectiva = Actual output" .

Such entries are often distinctly tackled by authors of dictionaries so as to somehow visually indicate the connection and correlation between related terms, for instance by using indentation for all but the first notion in such groups or by using a particular font format for the related terms and expressions or by resorting to graphical symbols (as the sign "~") to substitute the initial word or its root a.s.o. The latter variant, namely the use of the symbol "~", is sometimes, though not very often, employed here as well, like in the two examples below, taken from E-R, page 238:

e.g. **"Knock-down** = Minim (despre un pret)
~price = Pret de reclama; pret casat/minim"
"Know = A cunoaste
To be in the ~ = A fi la curent cu; a cunoaste dedesubturile (unei afaceri).
A suporta consecinte, a se resimti (fam.)".

Some slips can easily occur when insisting on keeping the base word as part of the structure formed with it. The next example below shows a clear overuse of the term "baza" as the title word is erroneously placed in the same line with the structure it forms and hence the first word comes superfluously: "**Baza pe baza** = On the basis of" - R-E, p. 27. The entire structure could have been drastically simplified by not

even using the title word at all and just marking it by a symbol instead. Thus, if the title word with its translation had come just before the structure, this new entry might have easily been replaced by a very simple one: 'pe ~' = 'on the ~ of'.
It is of course always the choice of the authors and, after all, there is no right or wrong way to introduce an entry in a dictionary, as long as the basic rule of a logical order of the terms to be translated is observed.

Like in most works that are large, extensive and painstaking, there are some minor shortcomings that can be identified. These would be as follows:

First, one can argue that the lack of diacritical signs sometimes renders a not very straightforward grasp of the terms on the Romanian sides of the two dictionaries.

Then, some spelling mistakes may be met here and there, mostly missing letters or extra letters (sometimes clear results of the typing device automatic 'correction'):
For instance, the Romanian structure in the entry "**Actiuni la valoarea nominal** = Pervalue stock" (R-E, p.12), lacks concord of adjective with the noun determined, as the last word should have ended with one more letter, letter 'ă', i.e. "nominală", and most probably the term was "corrected" automatically if the language selected for the document was English.
Also, the term "good" mistakenly comes in the example "**Good** = Bunuri" (E-R, p.188). Obviously the English term that should have appeared in this entry is the noun "goods".

Incidentally, long entries, coming on more rows, may feature capital letters in words on first position in a new line, again due to the editing software settings but definitely unfounded within the structure itself, as seen in the example below, found in R-E, page 11:

"**Acronim care desemneaza faptul**
ca toate informatiile care intra și
ies dintr-un calculator
Sunt„reciclate” = (P C) GIGO (garbage in, garbage out)"

Next, some repeated entries can be noted, such as: "**Factor de eficienta** = Efficiency factor" (R-E, p.153) or "**Co. (company)** = Firma/societate" (E-R, p.68), and others that unfoundedly come twice, one after the other - as the cases mentioned - or after a lump of diverse concepts using the given word, such as with the term "**Banca** = Bank, banking house/establishment" - R-E, p. 22, repeated a few pages later with a shorter translation this time: "**Banca** = Bank" - R-E, p. 25.

Another error noted is the use of Romanian explanations within the English entry, as in "**BRIC acr. De la Brazil, Russia, India and China** = 1. Acronim referitor la economiile combinate ale Braziliei, Rusiei, Indiei si Chinei, care, conform unei teze emise de un raport Goldman Sachs din 2003, vor deveni in jurul anului 2050 primele patru economii ale lumii; 2. (termen generic in marketing care se refera la) economiile celor patru tari considerate ca fiind in curs de dezvoltare si maturizare" - E-R, p. 38, where the Romanian part "acr.[onim -n.n] de la" should not have been present. Besides, here the explanation on the Romanian side seems a little more complex than necessary and thus it looks rather too long, in the economy of the page. Still, this latter aspect is just a layout shortcoming and it should be set against the fact that the result comes as a benefit for the reader, who will find it quite useful to learn so much about the notion at stake.

Pragmatism is conclusively the key word to describe the two lexical instruments under discussion. Simplicity and functionality reasons can be considered as indeed prevailing along Iulia Para's dictionaries. These basic characteristics make the two Business Dictionaries be excellent working tools and particularly useful informational sources for all stakeholders, learners, students, teachers, language instructors, economists, other people working in the field and other users of Business English terminology. Congratulations to the author for her diligence and industriousness in providing all categories of people involved in the Business English field in the Romanian education and economy with these welcomed instruments.

BOOK REVIEW

HERMANN FUNK / MANJA GERLACH / DOROTHEA SPANIEL-WEISE (Editors) HANDBOOK FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN ONLINE TANDEMS AND EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS

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Reviewed work:

Handbook for Foreign Language Learning in Online Tandems and Educational Settings

Hermann Funk, Manja Gerlach, Dorothea Spaniel-Weise (eds)

Peter Lang Edition, 2017
Foreign Language Teaching in Europe, vol. 15

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Handbook of Foreign Language Learning in Online Tandems and Educational Settings is a 2017 publication of Peter Lang Publishing House from the series *Foreign Language Teaching in Europe*, volume 15, having the length of 324 pages, with special focus at this time not on teaching methods, but on ways of acquiring foreign languages, like the relatively new method of learning languages in pairs and combining formal and non-formal settings. The handbook presents the findings of several researchers of different mother tongues within a 3-year project called L3TASK initiated by the European Commission in the frame of the Lifelong Learning Programme for promoting the acquisition of two additional foreign languages beside one's native language and consists of three large parts – section 1 *Pedagogical Guidelines and Principles for Setting Up and Organising Online Tandems*, section 2 *Components of Interactions in Online Tandems* and section 3 *E-Tandems in the Institutional Context of Universities: Experiences and Recommendations* – accompanied by seven appendices. Being a handbook, this material offers valuable insight into and a full step-by-step instruction-like description of the progress of an innovational language learning project conducted at six universities in Germany (Friedrich-Schiller-University of Jena), Austria (University of Vienna and, respectively, Business University of Vienna), Spain

(University of Alicante, Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia Madrid, University of Barcelona) and partner entities in China.
Although the authors of the handbook use the same terminology, the editors Hermann Funk, Manja Gerlach and Dorothea Spaniel-Weise have found it necessary to analyze closer, in the introductory chapter, some basic terms like *learning, acquisition, communication, communicative competence, task, interaction, implicit learning, awareness*, concepts these authors operate with, and people tend to consider as obvious. Looking at different and often one-sided definitions of learning and acquisition, like that of Stephen Krashen – Input-Hypothesis – or of Merrill Swain – Output-Hypothesis – and taking into consideration the findings of neuroscientific research, it has become evident that learning is a more diverse process, chaotic and even unpredictable, automatic, associative, both intentional and incidental, appearing sometimes as a by-product of other intellectual activities "Language learning, (…) may happen while we are concentrating on a game, listening to a song or reading a novel." (Funk, Gerlach, Spaniel-Weise, p. 22). Therefore no linguistic model or school of thought can embrace all the aspects and influence factors of such a many-faceted domain like language learning is. They might only point at one or another aspect of it. Although language competence keeps on being one of the European Commission's priorities since the 1990s, there has not yet been invented any wonder-recipe for its achieving and, according to the results of the Eurostat survey from 2011 regarding linguistic competence, the outcomes are also behind the expectations. In introducing face-to-face and online tandems as a possible but not widely applied, however in many respects efficient way of language learning, the editors highlight the differences between formal, informal and non-formal learning, pointing out that Tandem learning relies on all three.
After these preliminary, mostly theoretical considerations, section 1 goes on with presenting the way online tandems are set up dealing with all of its pragmatic aspects, like: recruitment of the participants with language learning experience, advertisement for the advantages Tandem learning offers, acquisition and development of necessary digital instruments – an e-mail account and documentation and storage platform for the project (Dropbox). It also deals with training of the staff recruited for tutoring in all languages tandems were offered in (here: German, Spanish, Chinese) and of the participants as well, regarding the principles of Tandem learning, features of e-learning, various possibilities for feedback, etc. Moreover, the section further presents ways of designing didactic materials for learning in formal settings, of determining tandem pairs and conveying a right attitude towards linguistic mistakes by underlining the importance of correction, that of raising awareness for mutual responsibility for each other's learning, ways of creating learning situations supporting incidental learning, of formulating appropriate tasks for enhancing oral communication (task-based language learning – TBLL – and task-supported language learning – TSLL). In addition, this part discusses also the assistance given during Tandem learning including ways of maintaining participants' motivational level (posting to the Facebook group of the project news, info related to the target-cultures, language, respectively cultural knowledge quizzes, etc.), of planning quality management, necessary even with respect to such a highly individualized learning process like Tandem learning, and evaluation.

The initiators of the project organized workshops for associated partners, participants, stakeholders interested in the topic, giving thus excellent support for all persons implied or tempting to initiate identical activities at their home institutions or with particular groups of language learners or just on one's own account. For this reason it would have been useful to provide the translation of all demo materials (posters, various worksheets, questionnaires at different stages of the project, etc.) into English as well, so that everybody reading the handbook can have access to them, or at least give explanations, briefs to the content of reproduced materials like in Josy-Ann Lätsch's contribution (see Fig. 3, p. 61 – L3TASK learning material *Schulkleidung* or Fig. 4, p. 62 – L3TASK learning material *Eine Firma vorstellen*). Readers with no command of German or Spanish will face the same problem later on, in different contributions of section 2 dealing with materials, conversation samples and fragments in other languages than English. Further on, for a better understanding and more fluent reading the exaggerated and compact use of acronyms in one single sentence like in the passage:

> "Taking into account the advances achieved in CA-for-SLA[1] (…), in CA for conversation-for-learning (…), in CA for learning in text-based online Tandems (…) and in CA-for-CBL (…), it is time to apply and re-define it for learning Third Languages in synchronous voice-based non-formal online Tandem exchanges." (p. 217)

should have been avoided. These are only meant as hints for improvement for a possible second edition of the handbook.

The following section, entitled *Components of Interactions in Online Tandems,* brings up considerations of Susanne Lesk, Martin Stegu (Vienna University of Economics and Business) with respect to Tandem learning and the language needs in professional communication, of Lennart T. Koch (University of Oviedo) upon one of the principles this type of learning is based on, namely reciprocity, of Eva Vetter (University of Vienna) upon language use and communication partners involved, of Yasmin El-Hariri, Julia Renner (University of Vienna) regarding strategies used when encountering non-understanding in online tandem conversations. Germán Ruipérez and José Carlos García-Cabrero (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia) deal in their study furthermore with technological, IT-based aspects of Tandem learning, like video conferencing applications or cloud data storage for the sake of analysis and evaluation. Claudia Grümpel, Analía Cuadrado Rey and Pamela Stoll (University of Alicante) present experiences of Spanish and Austrian students with collaborative learning of German and, respectively, Spanish, at a basic level, and overcoming communication obstacles by means of a common language, English. In their contribution, *Enhanced Language Learning in Non-Formal Tandems,* Mireia Calvet Creizet and Javier Orduña (University of Barcelona) highlight the supremacy of communication results and interaction skills over language proficiency and in the closing article of section 2, *Interactional Practices of Third Language Learners: Principles and Documentation,* the same authors set up a documentation material for interactional practices used. According to Lesk and Stegu, when speaking about linguistic competence, in this respect not only needs of learners as present or potential employees should be taken into consideration, but also those of their employers as 'domain experts' for a pertinent reflection of workplace communicational needs. In achieving these communication skills in different languages, organizing and facilitating e-tandems at workplaces could be one alternative.

Section 3, *E-Tandems in the Institutional Context of Universities. Experiences and Recommendations,* is dedicated to the analysis of formal, institutionalized settings of online tandems sharing experiences and pertinent remarks. In their contribution, *Integration of Electronic Tandems into Classroom Instruction*, the authors Carmen Gierden Vega (University of Valladolid) and Patricia Manjavacas Sneesby (Friedrich Schiller University Jena) militate for the introduction of e-tandems into classroom activities and teaching curricula of L3 teaching and learning, analyze implications of it and give some recommendations based on personal experience with this alternative method of language acquisition in the academic year 2015/2016. The study highlights several benefits of teacher-led tandems versus self-directed ones, lying in overtaking from students the effort of organizing the whole process, maintaining the activity and extrinsic motivation during the entire period scheduled, offering better feedback on learning and development in language acquisition, guidance and support.
Kateryna Kremenchuk and Yan Li from the University of Vienna, authors of the second study in this section, *The Role of Guidance as a Factor for Tandem Organisation*, share also the opinion that e-tandems should not only be an additional, but a curriculum-integrated part of foreign language teaching and as such they should be rewarded with ECTS credit points. However, they argue, it is not the linguistic accuracy of oral and written communication, but the accomplishment of tasks given by the teacher that should be taken into account as assessment criteria. Still major pronunciation and grammar mistakes need to be noticed by the teacher after having listened to the audio-recordings of the students and should then be corrected in face-to-face meetings.

The practical applicability of the handbook is enhanced by a set of appendices in different languages (German, Spanish, English, Chinese), though with the shortcoming that not all of them are available in English. It contains documents used in the preparatory and running stages of the project, like: flyer, registration form, a list of FAQs, different worksheets, questionnaires and transcripts of the tandem sessions.
Readers keen on accuracy might feel disturbed by typing errors, confusions like in Table 1 page 48 – where the columns describing the features of self-referential and interaction promoting exercises have the wrong title –, the lack of correspondence between the number of footnotes in the footer section and the text corpus like on pages 225 or 232, resulting probably from inserting tables from another source into the text. After all, as long as they do not affect too much the reading comprehension, these small typos cannot diminish the overall scientific, conceptual and, above all, pragmatic value of the book.

BOOK REVIEW

CAMBRIDGE SCHOLARS' LANGUAGE BEYOND THE CLASSROOM

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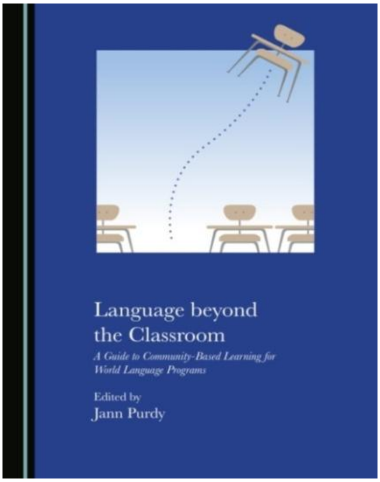

Reviewed work:
Language beyond the Classroom:
A Guide to Community-Based Learning for World Language Programs

Editor: Jann Purdy

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From this year's panel of publications of the prestigious Cambridge Scholars Publishing, UK, the 304 pages work entitled *Language beyond the Classroom: A Guide to Community-Based Learning for World Language Programs* is a valuable compendium of case studies edited by Jann Purdy and featuring 9 contributions of 16 reputed authors, mostly academics from various universities in the USA.
Dr. Jann Purdy is an Associate Professor at the Modern Languages Faculty, Pacific University of Oregon, and Chair of International Studies. Her areas of specialization include 20th-century French, autobiography, and language pedagogy. Teaching since 2004 in the areas of French, Modern Languages and International Studies, she covers courses in all levels of French language and literature, and courses in language pedagogy. Her research in the field is proven by several conference papers and a series of published works. Her preoccupation for the topic of civic engagement in language programs is also demonstrated by her presenting at, chairing panels in and mentoring students for numerous conferences.

Structured in three sections each consisting of three chapters, *Language beyond the Classroom* thus brings one title in each chapter, namely one elaborate contribution authored or co-authored by scholars in the fields of languages and education, academics and renowned researchers: Anna Alsufieva, Andrew Blick, Dominique Butler-Borruat, William Comer, Irène Lucia Delaney, Kirsten Drickey, Amy George, Delphine Gras, Jessica K. Haefner, Angelika Kraemer, Christine Coleman Núñez, Agnès Peysson-Zeiss, Alexandra Reuber, Teresa Satterfield, Theresa Schenker and Kyle Patrick Williams.

The volume begins with an eloquent foreword by Stephanie Stokamer, Ed.D., the director of the Center for Civic Engagement and an assistant professor at Pacific University of Oregon, bringing details from her own experience of integrating the institutional language learning with exploring the civic area by non-profit work in health care, noting the importance of institutional focus on civic engagements in the process of effective, meaningful and integrated language learning. The researcher then elaborates on the diverse types of institutions' approaches to the community and to civic engagement concluding that "variables of curricular integration, engagement philosophy, and function of supporting offices are related to institution type, mission, and priorities, all of which also influence and are influenced by faculty culture, administration, financial standing, community-campus history, and the student body at any given college" (p. xiii). She remarks that Editor Jann Purdy has successfully managed in this volume "to pull together a fantastic array of chapters that demonstrate the variability [...] and shed light on how faculty have undertaken civic engagement in their respective contexts."
After the Acknowledgements page, Editor Jann Purdy proceeds with some words about *The Return on Investment of Civic-Engagement Teaching*, an introduction to the volume edited. This introduction gives clear account of the concepts involved in the case studies that will follow and provides the acceptations of the terms used along the volume, the editor explaining that "experiential learning entails projects or activities that take place or focus on contexts outside the traditional classroom; this learning is often interchangeably referred to as service-learning (SL), civic-engagement (CE), community-based learning (CBL), community service learning (CSL) or community engagement." (p.2) Here, Jann Purdy also remarks that despite the fact that "civic engagement is considered crucial for *high impact* educational practices," (p.2) the process of its consideration and usage still faces serious challenges: "the greatest obstacle to creating community-engagement courses, however, is finding the models, resources, and pedagogical support, especially if one doesn't have institutional support." (p.3) Backed up by thick references, she shows the challenges of implementing service-learning curricula, then summarizes the contents of each chapter, the ideas promoted by each section, explains the way she structured the contributions she received and the reasons for that particular way of organizing the material in the volume, and in the end brings two valid, lucrative models of syllabus and class schedules of the civic engagement courses she created.

Implementing service learning is dealt with and exemplified in the three extensive chapters of section I, while section II puts forward ways of promoting service learning and section III reveals methods of broadening it, in their corresponding three chapters for each. Thus, the first section ("How to Implement Service Learning: Design and Support for Community Engagement") illustrates different language courses designed with a view to service learning and the institutional support provided them. The middle section ("How to Promote Service Learning") discusses how civic engagement is advantageous as it entails positive results for

the students involved, with respect to the language acquisition and enforcement and in acquiring further employment as well. The last section ("How to Broaden Service Learning to Unique Settings") shows unfamiliar, novel methods or situations of civic engagement implementation.
The volume ends with a few pages of professional profiles, entitled "Contributors", comprising one paragraph of information for each of the authors' and the editor's academic and research activities.

Each chapter brings about particular instances of the matter, linking to the others to form a comprehensive, complex and unitary volume; actual case studies, models of practices, exemplifications of own programs, applied and experimented, make the object of the nine chapters, described more specifically as follows:
In the first chapter (*Key Aspects in Program Design, Delivery, and Mentoring in World Language Service-Learning Projects*), authors Theresa Schenker and Angelika Kraemer promote the academic service learning and civic engagement facilities provided within the specific projects through the Center for Language Teaching Advancement's (CeLTA) and CeLTA Language School (CLS) at Michigan State University. "Participating in service-learning projects can lead to a stronger sense of citizenship, confidence, and increased appreciation for the value of helping others." (p.25) Civic engagement is undoubtedly depicted along the chapter as a valid and valuable opportunity to acquire language. The authors give details for three of the CLS programs, providing in the end of the chapter appendices with specific documents used within the programs. It is then shown how undergraduates are prepared for service learning projects and the learning outcomes and effects of the projects are next presented. Among the opportunities provided to the students the authors distinguish the following: using the language outside of the classroom, developing intercultural competences, communicational skills, critical thinking, leadership abilities and a sense of global citizenship.
The second chapter, *Preparing Professionals: Language for Specific Purposes and Community-Based Learning Approaches in Advanced-Level Coursework*, by Anna Alsufieva and William Comer from Portland State University (PSU), shows how the Russian language translation programs developed at the aforementioned institution meet the specific needs of the community. After exposing the specifics of their language learning community and the PSU strategy of embedding civic engagement projects in the curriculum, the authors thoroughly detail three major projects. It is explained that "because the course focuses on the professional discourse related to the students' majors, there are opportunities to tailor the specific content of any term or academic year to fit the opportunities available for taking this language work out into the community and having students engage in experiential learning and community service." (p.52) The first two projects described by the authors involve the medical care and respectively the environmental field and were basically community translation projects - where PSU was approached by groups in the community who wanted existing materials translated into Russian-, while the third project came into being following an instructor's initiative to develop a students' assignment into an educational children's book.
Chapter 3, *Transcending Classrooms, Communities, and Cultures: Service Learning in Foreign Language Teaching Methods Courses*, is the contribution of Amy George, Alexandra Reuber and Kyle Patrick Williams, who bring up two cases

from the numerous service-learning opportunities offered through the support of Tulane’s Center for Public Service (CPS) (Tulane University). They provide detailed descriptions and extensive documentation regarding the French and the Spanish methods courses. These involved methods students working with ESL students and thus engaging in a series of specific activities, from curriculum and material development to tutoring groups or even class co-teaching, applying knowledge learned in class, practicing, gaining experience and establishing long term connections that next proved effective even years after, along their careers: "many of these students continue to maintain contact with the course instructor, relating their successes and troubleshooting their difficulties in their classrooms well after they have graduated from the university." (p.85) The authors mention the beneficial effects on both sides but also put forward some academic, administrative and logistical challenges they faced and conclude giving recommendations for other institutions, based on the Tulane experience.

Recruiting Language Learners through Civic Engagement in General Education is the fourth chapter in the volume, and the chapter opening the second section. Christine Coleman Núñez from Kutztown University of Pennsylvania focuses here on the role of cultural understanding in language acquisition. She shows that service-learning language courses form practical skills, offer contextual practicability and a vivid interaction with the cultural environment, aspects that should be considered as prerequisites and frames to tackling language learning. A detailed model for incorporating community-based learning into the general education Spanish language curriculum is presented. After a description of its specificities as a community engagement project, the author elaborates on the use of a reflective journal - shown in the appendices -, and then focuses on the learning outcomes related to linguistic competence, that were assessed by means of indicators developed by the ACTFL, discussing aspects of intercultural awareness, aptitude and attitude. Several challenges faced along the project implementation are presented towards the end. As in other authors' experience, a certain inertia was witnessed with some community representatives, and a sort of a red tape can be said to have occurred in the process, probably sprung from either normative gaps or some partners' reluctance, if not lack of interest, in fully assuming the collaboration: "the burden in terms of the time commitment of establishing and maintaining community partnerships was excessive and resulted in a lack of thorough follow-up with all the agencies involved, which meant that the agencies viewed themselves as hosts for the students, not collaborative partners in the experience." (p.140)

Delphine Gras from Florida Gulf Coast University authors the fifth chapter, *How to Promote Cultural Awareness through Service Learning in a Non-Required Course*, providing the reader with demonstrations on how service learning can be a motor for students' taking up less popular courses. The case of Florida Gulf Coast University is described, where the francophone cultures bring about a positive and valuable influence. After an overview of the project, the author undertakes to "address two recommendations to facilitate the acquisition of intercultural knowledge through service-learning initiatives" (p.157), sharing then several tested and functional strategies of implementation. Making allowance for the various problematic situations in which students can be and considering diverse methods of how to facilitate maximum participation of students in such programs, are other aspects the author suggests should be taken into account when providing service-learning opportunities. The chapter ends with reflections on the successful Francophone World service-learning project and documents attesting the work in various stages of the program's development.

The sixth chapter, by Teresa Satterfield and Jessica Haefner from the University of Michigan, is entitled *Community-Service Immersion: A New Blueprint for U.S. Social and Linguistic Engagement.* It brings arguments for using community-service linguistic and cultural immersion programs as alternatives to short-term travel courses, emphasizing the positive results herewith targeted by this university, an improved intercultural understanding and increased language skills. The model described here is that of their Spanish language and culture program, *En Nuestra Lengua* (ENL). After the presentation of the project's design and its preparation, the implementation of the community-service immersion course, the organization of the ENL academic service immersion course, and the program evaluation are detailed. As shown in the table on pages 192-193, implementation is distinctly tackled, concordant to the language proficiency levels. Referring to this approach that considered the multidimensional experiential component, the authors remarks in the conclusion, that it "is novel in that it not only links to broad interests, but also considers the university language learners' level of Spanish proficiency, such that within each category, various service vocations are available, equivalent with the student's overall competence and experience with Spanish language and Spanish-speaking culture(s)." (p.198)

Chapter 7, *Constructing Language-Learning Communities in the University Setting: An Experiment in Flipping the Teaching and Learning Paradigm*, the Western Washington University's contribution by Kirsten Drickey and Andrew Blick, opens the final section of the volume and brings into light a unique approach that this institution thought of implementing. The readers will find that here the university employees are provided various language workshops wherein they are taught by the students of the university. This project came as a response to the changes in the community, as explained by the authors: "the university's faculty and staff have an increasing need for cross-cultural competencies and knowledge of world languages. The Employee Language Program responds to these community needs by providing faculty and staff with the opportunity to develop skills that help them work more effectively with increasingly diverse student, faculty, and staff populations." (p.215) And it is not only within the campus that this practice is valid; the community also benefits from similar projects since such language teaching activities are performed with diverse external groups as well. Besides the obvious gains for the beneficiaries of the language instruction, the student facilitators also "report an increased sense of belonging to the university community and a deeper appreciation for and understanding of the languages they teach." (p.216) The program outcomes are thoroughly and pertinently presented by the authors, considering all aspects involved: curriculum, learning, participants and facilitators.

Authored by Dominique Butler-Borruat (from the University of Michigan Residential College), chapter *Learning the Ropes of Service Learning: Best Practices in a Program for Advanced Students Working with Asylum Seekers* comes as the eighth in the volume and provides a model of engagement with a non-profit organization. After the description of the course, the framework of course is explained, and then the course content is presented. The author describes the program that French students are involved in, one day per week: socially interacting, in French, with French-speaking asylum seekers while eating together,

and also teaching them English language and American culture. Best practices with respect to course content, community partners, students and logistics are clearly presented, each structured in several subtitles. As for the impact of the course, it is considered to have been undoubtedly effective for the community goal aimed at. The author notes the three methods used in this course evaluation revealed that the project proved extremely motivational for the students. Before the conclusion of the chapter and the appendices, some frequently faced challenges are mentioned, among which, as with other authors in this volume: logistical issues, "insufficient relationships with community partners" or "lack of institutional recognition of service learning as scholarship." (p.266)
Virtual Engagement in the Languages: Teaching Translation and Social Justice by Irène Lucia Delaney (University of Michigan) and Agnès Peysson-Zeiss (Bryn Mawr College) is the final chapter. It presents a program that combines linguistic and cultural education with social equality, incidentally giving premises for an online community service model that might prove quite useful in distance learning programs. The project essentially consists in the implementation of a translation program, it makes use of especially designed digital means and involves French students who are given assignments that consist in translating various texts of women bloggers from Congo, which provides the latter with the facility to extend to the English speaking communities and thus increase the number of their blog readers. The benefits for the students are also evident: " Virtual civic engagement allows students to connect with other women in the French-speaking world, to learn from and teach one another mutually and respectfully despite hugely different educational backgrounds and life experiences. It also leads to an exchange of ideas and reflections in real time. It helps create an online community of world citizens in multilingual dialogue, and create a place where the average undergraduate student of French develops connections and useful professional skills." (290)

The relevance of civic learning in the nowadays society is obvious and it has become a matter just as vivid, straightforward and assumed as the interplay of experiential learning and language learning. Hence, it can only come natural that the civic mission of education is primarily put into operation in the field of language learning. The compendium at stake is an evidence of the researchers' lively involvement and their implication, on a large scale, into advocating for community-based language learning and promoting extensive implementation of such projects.
As the editor so clearly puts it, "by gathering into one volume various models for community-based language learning, the work aims to offer itself as a how-to guide for implementing and evaluating community engagement programs for a variety of languages. The structure of each chapter is designed to be specific enough to serve as a practical template, yet broad enough to be adapted to various languages, institutions, and community settings. While examples in the volume include, French, German, Russian, and Spanish, all the program models aim to be adaptable to virtually any language and any institution." (p.3).
We can only express our congratulations for the outstanding endeavor and its most valuable outcome, and salute this effective production the entire community of language learners, instructors and stakeholders can make good use of, and many institutions around the world could well benefit from.