

Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes (JLSP)

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ANALYZING THE SIGNIFICANT CONTROVERSIAL FEATURES WITHIN ENGLISH FOR LEGAL PURPOSES (ELP)

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Abstract: *The present paper will try to analyze some crucial features that can highlight the differences between English for legal purposes (ELP) and General English (GE). It focuses on use of (ELP) as a medium of instruction within practical field of Law. The study will deal with a fact that lawyers are the most eloquent users of English language. Where, on the other hand, they are its notorious abusers. It is because they employ arcane vocabulary within their discourses. The most controversial features that underlie within this field were to be analyzed from different perspectives: (1) its practicability to legal language's nature (2) semantic interpretations of legal interpretations and (3) perceptual differences over statues of applied and real cases. A language policy program was conducted for this purpose in **SM** (Sind Muslim) **Law** College, (Hyderabad) Sind, Pakistan. Its goal was to analyze the particular needs of the legal learners towards their use of English language. After having the discussions with stakeholders, learners, experienced interlocutors and advocates themselves, the researcher, then analyzed some of the case methods (legal books). It was considered a necessary concern to have particular model that should design a conclusive course of integrating the language learning with legal content. This study falls with three major categories in the end for future scholars. (1) Study of Specific English language within legal field. (2) Study of spoken English language within legal settings and (3) Study of written English language of law. However, the main attempt is to explore the third category, focusing on controversial features within written form of legal English language. This study will also help future ESP course designers to visualize the underlying facts that are important in present era. It will not only improve the learning purposes but to strategies for teaching methods. Therefore, it is important to analyze the controversial facts of ELP course.*

Keywords: Comprehensibility; Legal English; Needs Analysis; Vagueness; Precision; Interpretations

1. Introduction

The present research work was conducted with a foremost mission to highlight some of the important lacks that are found within legal English learners. The lists of learners for current study has not only included the students, however even their teachers themselves. It was sought earlier that the students usually fail to

comprehend the basic issue of *Vagueness* found in English legal language. It even though contradicted with the legal student's goal of precision. According to (Swales and Bhatia, 1982), "the English for legal Purposes (ELP) is an important but relatively uncultivated corner of the ESP field. One of the reasons could be involvement of *specialty* of Legal English". The study also tends to find that legal English language and the field of law itself has led to bitter challenges, when it is compared with GE (General English) as expected by English teachers. The area of research was also to analyze about primary sources taken as materials, for teaching into **Sindh Muslim (SM) Law College**, Hyderabad and Sindh, Pakistan.

1.1 Problem Statement

The undergraduates of law were taught the *case method books* along with court judgments (*statutes*). These sources were considered to have the most direct presence and application of English legal Language (ELP). Where, the case for students who usually took admission within law this college were less economically sound. Therefore, the majority of them could not properly use general English and it was far too difficult to use specific English of law. They really felt awkward to comprehend the provided legal course, composed in legal English. The courses even required to have high sense of semantic legal interpretation. In this respect, according to (Gibbons, 1994); the Language of law is distant in character from the everyday language of conversation on most of the possible parameters.

1.2 Hypothesis generated

- It was a need of situation after considering the failures of law students and even teachers to comprehend the given legal syllabus for Literally Legum Baccalaureus (LLB). This results into negative outcome. It even shows that ELP course designers have failed to design a particular course of law according bachelors requirement by analyzing the needs of stakeholders.
- The new course should be designed that could focus on features of English legal language (ELP) in order to solve and accomplish the requirement of language issues within ELP.
- The language issues are different and need to be demarcated fin terms of their:
 - (1) Simplicity and vagueness;
 - (2) Complexity versus detailed legal notions;
 - (3) Comprehensibility versus perceptual differences between legal learners.

1.3 Research Question

Q. How to strike the balance between Legal English solemnity with its practicability?

1.4 Significance of Study

The study will try to provide some ways to students of law for improving their legal English skills so that they could prove their stance within global markets for better jobs. Thus, it will also help to consider the commercial transactions and so students of Law College with their work plans can successfully sum up their career in line to international perspectives.

2. Literature Review

2.1 What is ELP? How it is related to ESP?

ELP is set of course that is designed for professional law students who need to use English in studying the law and other legal professions. According to (Wright, 2010); the Learners of English language are usually those who can speak English as second or foreign language. Whereas, According to (Mohan, 1986); ESP is defined as the prospect that lights to one particular area of English Language teaching (ELT) and narrowly that focuses on preparing learners to choose particular communicative surrounding. Therefore, the need within ESP course is to state about needs assessment of professional learners, content-based teaching and methods along with content-area instruction to a particular field. It is observed that learner's field of study seems always in cooperation to subject area specialists within ESP teaching practice. According to (Dudley-Evans/St John 1998); English for legal purposes (ELP) is one of the subdivisions in ESS (English for Social Sciences) that roots from ELT. It is the continuum of ELT course types. The main objective for ELP and ESP seems to coincide on preparing learners for particular professional surroundings. Similarly, ELP is designed separately for two main objectives, which are academic and occupational purposes. This validates the statement of Carter (1983) regarding ESP. According to (Carter, 1983); one of the objectives of ESP is concerned with turning the learners into its users. ELP in this way is set to resolve the issues that are related to analyzing of cases and interpreting legal arguments, legal texts and statutory contents, which is written in English language of law. They are significantly employed as source of combating with issues in semantic interpretation to statutes that is associated with the content taught to law students.

3. Need of language program within Sindh Muslim Law College, Hyderabad

The study starts with a basic question that, "What was the reason to introduce a language program within the field of law?" In this respect, (Huang, S., & Shanmao, C.1996) have validly stated that; the issue of *Vagueness* is primary issue which is found within English legal Language, and it usually contradicts with its ultimate goal of legal proceedings that require a *precision* of content. Therefore, there is clear demarcation of two important aspects, vagueness and precision which has been observed and can be stated as; to what extent does the interpreted words or legal terms should be made to work in legal proceedings and how the judges should strike to have balance between vagueness (uncertainty) of arguments by advocates in proceedings and requirement of precision (certainty) while giving a decision that shall bind on legal document. After a thorough observation of the above fact, it was even experienced that the field of law is a cautious organization based on structured of logic, reasonableness and justification that do not allow biasedness and errors in contrary to language. Therefore, in spirit of law, every chosen word is extremely important which should be incorrect in any practical situation.

This above criteria led to visualize a fact that this issue shall not be neglected in any case with refer to undergraduate students of law, who are still commencing their degree of law with practical interpretation of the semantics of this subject. It

will not be tolerable in any case if they somehow present mismanagement in their professional legal tasks with their awful blunders

3.1 Current ELP course design for law undergraduate study

The field of law as a subject covers many different sub-fields. It includes criminal law, civil law, tort law, Family law, company law, constitutional law, International law to commercial law and etc. In every subfield of law, English language is utilized differently. The main difference lies within the register which is used differently in every subfield of law. It is also observed that every sub-field has its own lexical varieties that are known as legal jargons. They are incomprehensible to the layman.

Therefore, in order to understand the technicality of every other sub-discipline of law, that includes grammar, format, vocabulary and their cohesion in its different perspective, there was a need to introduce a program of ELP for undergraduate law students.

3.2 Changes in ELP curriculum

The undergraduate students of law, who are still not proficient enough to tackle the technical provisions of law, need to learn about the practical aspect of this field in order to have command on separate legal courses. Now, there is reformation within admission system with respect to getting enroll to law study in Pakistan, however still there remains a work to change the current syllabus of law. Students who are now taking the admission need to have the proficient knowledge of legal terms in order to pass an entrance test before getting enrolled in graduate program of law. The entrance test includes the knowledge of advanced basic legal terms that will be taught in detail within legal sub-field courses. After the students are having their regular classes, check and balance system is introduced. A criterion of this system is based on testing and evaluating the potential of law students that is marked with ways to represent particular legal topics. The writing skills of students are marked; their ways to comprehend a case study with demanding questions is analyzed with their understanding of given case topic. In final, the regular system of exam is conducted. It merely focuses on observing the students' understanding of particular courses that is taught throughout the whole semester.

Even the teachers, who do confront with the same problem of comprehending an English of legal documents, are even marked to introduce slight changes within their procedures to assess their capabilities. Teachers are mature in their field so they now need to be administered with test of higher ranks. Even the critical observer is set to test the ways of utilizing appropriate communicative skills in English legal language.

4. Designing of the ELP syllabus

4.1 Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is defined by researchers as the most influential stage of any ESP course design. One of its renowned definitions was propounded by Nunan (1988 p, 75). According to Nunan (1988 p, 75) the process of Needs Analysis is a family of procedures for gathering information about learners and about their communication tasks. Therefore, needs analysis itself considered simply as collection of needs that

have been expressed by learners regarding a particular field. In order to analyze the potential state, there are many methods that are consulted. However, the ultimate goal of needs analysis is to achieve the target situation successfully. Each and every academic field is having its separate goals. Along with this, the notion of separate target achievement towards skill training is very important for learners even though they tend to have their individual needs to counter their issues respectively. Therefore, within the Field of law, one needs to know at first that what actually the language of law is? In order to elucidate the answer of question further, the words of (Mellinkoff, 1963) are worth to mention. According to him; "The definition of law is criticized due to its gobbledygook and professional outlook of words". He expressed in a way that language of law like any other languages not only can express and convey thoughts in highly convulsive manner with their reasons but also consists of unique differences within their meanings of same thought.

4.2 Participants

The first year undergraduate students of Sindh Muslim Law College were selected for the study in order to find their proficiency level in legal English and their expectations to counter the provided legal syllabus and its practical application in their profession in future. It has been stated earlier that the majority of students enrolled in this college have been from poor public sector colleges. Therefore, the students have been taught either in Urdu or Sindhi languages till their higher secondary education. Therefore, they even lack the appropriate use of general English (GE). 25 participants were selected for this study that does not have English as their native language.

4.3 Methodology of study

The study is Qualitative in nature. The procedure to collect data is based on two linguistic theories, speech act theory and frame semantics.

4.3.1. Instrument of used in the study

In-depth interviews were taken from the selected undergraduate law students.

5. Discussion

The newly enrolled students were selected to analyze their expectations to the provided law syllabus which is in technical English legal language. It was to know that; "Do the students feel hindrance to counter the technicalities of legal English language when they need to comprehend the terms for their semantic interpretation within case studies and court judgments?" The statement of Dudley-Evans and St.Johns (1998) is worthy in this respect, which states that: "As reasons of needs analysis is to find the factors that affect the way learner learns to include their learning past experience, cultural information and reasons for attending the particular course." It was then a foremost target, after analyzing the needs of students to design a syllabus that must be based on various legal topics in theoretical and practical ways. First, the typical legal topics must turn to adopt new modules before further they could be structured to become prominent parts in final syllabus. So far, the students wanted to modify few typical subjects within law courses that could meet their professional requirement. According to the collected

data sources, students stated that courses shall be designed to (1) Simplify legal insurance policies and other consumer based documents, (2) they should work to make the state and federal legislation more efficient (3) there is a need to add writing instruction and clarity within legal writings, (4) it is to explore more about semantics of legal language that has been used in different sub-fields of law, i.e. Criminal law, civil law, penal codes and etc. (5) it is a foremost need to analyze the semantic differences between common citizens and legal professionals in order to read and comprehend the difficult language of law. In order to identify the target situation of law students, they shall be ensured through various activities that must be conducted in different learning stages. It should be from learner- a (graduate) to a professional practitioner within the field of law. Finally, there was a collective need to gauge the success rate of English legal language. It shall be best on learner's utilization which could be based on critical expert's scale in order to signify about its correct utilization of all four language skills in respective legal domains.

5.1 Course Design

This is the last stage in ESP course design. It is the most significant part., after a successful communicative session with undergraduate law students and teachers; it was tended that the new syllabus should be based on a question towards analyzing the professional needs of learners in field of law. It was suggested to design the course that shall target simplicity and clarity of legal writings. It can verily do make the law student as most enthusiastic advocator of *plain language* within language of law. Elliot (1991) opines that the problems of legal English did not start early. It has its origin back to 1066 and before. It was a time when language of law, the courts and decision-makers were predominantly in Latin. The historical background has accounted to state that why Latin and old French words still remain within legal English language today. Therefore, the majority of legal lexis has been abstruse to modern civilians.

6. Suggestions

- A course outline should be drawn that can assist learners to build competence in English legal language along with the law content. It shall focus to demarcate clearly between the features of legal language which are controversial in nature, they are “vagueness and precision” of lexical terms and semantic interpretations.
- The respect to style of statutory drafting is most controversial issue within syllabus of law which demands more comprehensible approach of learners to analyze the “complexity and vagueness” of legal terms. Like a word “Immediate” is vague in its sense but correctly used in some contexts. With no restriction on specific length of time for definition of a word, it provides layman with some degree of freedom. Therefore, complexity and detail may somehow do have certain extent that is linked in drafting out different style of statutes. In order to have full understanding of legal features, learners must need to have the underlying perceptions of statute's interpretation.
- Legal bind educational seminars for undergraduate students should be arranged by legal experts in every two months for the proper counseling of law

students.

- Students should serve their technical strategies to counter the legal bind facts that could be further possible through proper needs analysis of undergraduate law students and teachers of Law College. It will be possible only if they are blessed with opportunities to use English language along with its functions. So, they can then fully understand the spirit and wisdom of law.

7. Conclusion

This paper highlights the practical aspect of ELP as a professional field of Law within a research domain of ESP. This study was a brief attempt to analyze the controversial features within legal English language. It was in lieu of ESP teaching and learning. However, in spite of lack in demarcating the controversial features, it was also evident that learners even enjoyed this language program and the course as well. The course of ELP seemed to have been relevant for the future of law students. The study is focused on course suggestion. However, there are many other aspects of ELP that could be made as a part of future research. Research itself is a never ending process; there is still a long way to go.

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ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION ON LEARNING EFL IN AN ESP CLASS

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Abstract: *English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the field of language teaching and learning of English in a specific area of specialty. However, learning ESP is not to be understood as just learning a set of technical vocabulary and expressions; it is about learning to use English in a given specific context with the implication of all the skills and objectives of language learning. This qualitative research investigates the impact of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) on developing comprehension and vocabulary in a course of English for Specific Purposes at an engineering school in Morocco where English is learnt as a Foreign Language (FL). A total number of 40 students were divided into two groups of 20 students per class and were taught a fifteen-hour course of legal English over a period of six weeks. Each class lasted one hour and fifteen minutes, at the pace of two classes per week. Focus was on reading comprehension and learning vocabulary in an interactive way by engaging the learners actively. At the beginning, both groups were given the same pre-test to determine their present knowledge of legal English. After the experiment period, another post-test was administered to the students to determine their level of progress. At first, the results of both groups in each test were compared with each other. Then, the results of each group in the pre-test were compared with the results of the same group in the post-test. The general result is that both groups have made progress in improving comprehension and vocabulary capabilities in legal English. As for same-group results, the experiment group have managed to make significant progress in their post-test results compared to their pre-test results, while the control group maintained their higher score shown in the pre-test. The conclusion drawn from this is that Content-Based Instruction does help students improve their comprehension and vocabulary capabilities in ESP. Therefore, focus on content does yield positive results in learning language. Reducing content to just a topic through which learners learn language may cause the learners to miss a learning opportunity. Thus, there may not be a reason to give the content aspect of a language course less importance than the language aspect.*

Keywords: Content-Based Instruction; English for Specific Purposes; English as a Foreign Language; CLIL; Comprehension, Vocabulary

1. Introduction

The economic growth in Morocco has attracted international companies that require job candidates to be able to use English for specific job requirements.

Moreover, there are calls for education reforms to give foreign languages in general, and English in particular, more value and importance in the national curriculum. However, so far, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has not had a clear position in the Moroccan education system. ESP is mainly taught in vocational training schools and in some university and college courses and it is mainly practiced by teachers who may not have formal training in teaching ESP. Moreover, there are no clear guidelines when it comes to teaching and designing syllabi for ESP, leaving it in the hands of the teachers to make their own decisions as to when and how to teach ESP, and to decide on the course content and the materials to use. This leaves a void as to which approach is most appropriate to teach Moroccan students ESP in a context where English is used as a foreign language. Following this, the present paper outlines an experiment on the impact of teaching ESP through Content-Based Instruction on Moroccan engineering students' comprehension and vocabulary capabilities. The experiment consists of teaching a course of legal English over the period of six weeks to examine the hypothesis that CBI is more relevant to teaching and learning ESP in an EFL context.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Literature Review

The applicability of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) to wider and varied language contexts has rendered it increasingly popular (Grabe and Stoller, 1997). However, CBI's versatility has also put its criteria to question, as several researchers seem not to agree on what defines a CBI approach. As a basic explanation, CBI is often looked at as a philosophy of teaching that aims at guiding student's development to become independent learners outside the classroom (Stryker and Leaver, 1997) by engaging them in activities that help them develop critical thinking skills, learning and communicative strategies, as well as depth in learning culture (Morioka, Hayashi, and Ushida, 2008:264).

Other more specific definitions describe CBI as an approach which 'view[s] the target language largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study' (Brinton et al., 1989:5). In this regard, the work of Krashen (1982) on comprehensible input has been influential in advocating the relevance of CBI to language teaching and learning, as CBI creates opportunities for learners to use the language meaningfully and practice cognitively demanding language tasks (Snow, Met, and Genesee, 1989). Similarly, Cummins' notions of cognitive demand and decontextualized language (1984) have provided CBI with further support. Thus, CBI bridges the unnatural gap between language and content created and maintained by notional/functional approaches to language teaching and learning (Brinton et al., 1989).

The relevance of content in learning ESP where language is used as a means for meaningful learning has been emphasised by several researchers. In a research on ESP versus EGP, Lo (2012:79) concludes that the characteristics of a successful ESP syllabus include, among others, having meaningful tasks. A course designed for adult learners should surpass the traditional focus on notional/functional aspects of language. Adult learners are predisposed to learn language when it is a vehicle of meaningful learning rather than a target in itself.

Moreover, 'people learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself' (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:207). Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:109) make content focus an integral component of their ESP materials design model. Therefore, an ESP course is more than a language course; it has a content dimension that serves the learners' needs through automaticity, meaningful learning, intrinsic motivation, and communicative competence (Brown, 2001) to help students develop second language competence within specific topic areas (Tsai and Shang, 2010:78).

However, various studies have dealt with the impact of CBI on language learning and found conflicting results as to whether CBI does yield positive results in language learning. Mason (1971) conducted a research on students following courses in L2 and others following ESL courses and, according to him, there was no significant difference between the two groups in level of achievement in learning L2. Counter results were found by Swain (1974) who conducted a research on the level of achievement in learning French as a second language. The results of this research, according to Swain, indicated that immersion programs helped the students achieve higher levels of learning than those taking courses of French as a second language. In another study, Kasper (1997) evaluated the impact of CBI on students' performance in an ESL context. The study revealed considerable improvement in the experimental group's scores in comparison with the control group's. This means that accumulating background knowledge on topics continually dealt with proves to be significant in learners' progress (Tsai and Shang 2010:79). In a similar study, Glenn (2005) assessed the effect on content, proficiency and academic literacies in a bilingual sheltered-content approach course. Her results conclude that delivering content through content-based instructional strategies helps students contextualize concepts and expand their reading skills (Tsai and Shang, 2010:79). These results are further corroborated by studies conducted by Kasper (1994a, 1995a, 1995/96, 1997a and Parkinson 2000).

More recent studies have covered the relation between ESP and CLIL, and it has been discussed in several articles from varying perspectives. Joseba Ordeu (2013) looked into the compatibility between ESP and CLIL in a Spanish university where continuous efforts have been made to replace ESP courses with CLIL courses. The findings of the research reveal that both types of courses are compatible in terms of objectives and principles.

In what may be considered a follow-up research, Tzoannopoulou (2015) highlighted the points of convergence between CLIL and ESP and their implementation in a journalism course at a Greek university. Tzoannopoulou concluded that the implementation of CLIL activities contributes to the course objectives and helps the learners engage actively in producing the pieces of work the professional community expects. Therefore, the implementation of the core principles of CLIL appears to be beneficial to ESP courses.

In a similar study, Vanessa Leonardi (2015) explored ESP and CLIL in the context of tertiary level education. Her research supports the idea that learning English at university level could benefit from collaboration between ESP and CLIL, since there are more areas of convergence between these two approaches. This conclusion has been substantiated by Woźniak (2017) in a study she conducted on the roles

of ESP teachers as interdisciplinary lecturers. The results of this study emphasise that ESP and CLIL are collaborators rather than rivals.

From the learner perspective, integrating CLIL in education has received positive feedback on the part of the learners as confirmed by a number of studies. In a three-year longitudinal study at a university in Spain, David Lasagabaster and Aintzane Doiz (2015) analysed students' self-perceptions of, among other things, language improvement. The result is that the students' perception of their language improvement was greater in their CLIL classes than in their English as a Foreign Language classes.

Support to this study comes from Alejandra Nuñez Asomoza (2015) who explored students' perceptions of CLIL at a Mexican university and her findings are concurrent with Lasagabaster and Doiz's (2015). Asomoza's study results show that students have an overall positive perception of CLIL courses offered at the BA in foreign languages at the *Universidad Autónoma de Zacatecas Mexico*. The students explain this by the possibility to use language in a different context. Similarly, in a study conducted between 2010-2015, Antonio Jiménez Muñoz (2016) measured the impact of the methodological interventions of CLIL and EMI (English as a Medium of Instruction) on students' grades. The findings revealed that CLIL improves EMI results by 3.6%.

Several other studies (Chostelido & Griva 2013; Chansri & Wasanasomsithi 2016; Canlas 2016; Yang 2016) have continued to assess the impact of CLIL in education and its promising potential for language and content learning. Their findings seem to converge in confirming the positive impact of CLIL on students' language improvement.

These studies, as well as others not mentioned here, seem to have covered the impact of CLIL on students' improvement. The present study continues in the same direction by assessing the impact of CLIL in comparison with the lexical approach in an ESP course in an engineering school in Morocco where English is a foreign language. Therefore, exploring the impact of CLIL in an ESP course in a country where English is a foreign language may reveal other aspects of the importance of content in a language course, especially ESP where content knowledge is considered an integral part.

2. 2. Defining: CLIL/CBI- -ESP

The affinities between ESP and CLIL, including Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and Theme-Based Instruction (TBI), call for deeper understanding of the distinctive aspects of these approaches and methods, as well as their implication in second and foreign language learning in an ESP course. Therefore, it is important to define each one of them to show its relevance to the present study.

2.2.1. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) /Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

Basically, both CLIL and CBI refer to a method of language teaching where language is considered a vehicle for carrying meaning, unlike some other teaching methods that place emphasis more on the structural aspect than on the content aspect. The term 'CLIL refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language.' (Marsh, 2002:2). When focus and attention shift towards structure at the expense of content, as it is

the case with notional-functional and structural approaches, we step out of the CLIL circle. The phrase 'Content and Language Integrated Learning,' coined by David Marsh back in 1994, denotes an approach to language and content learning that uses each aspect for the benefit of the other.

There are many facades to CLIL and its implementation is subject to the teacher's view and the demands and objectives of the teaching-learning context. At the heart of this approach, there is the dual focus on language learning and content learning, which is an important factor in learning a foreign language. Although the definition seems to simplify the nature of CLIL, reducing it to an approach where language is learnt through content is misleading. In general terms, it is basically about bringing these together. In other words, taking a deep look at this approach can enlighten us on certain pitfalls and misconceptions about it.

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) refers to 'the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:204). Hence, CBI is about learning specific course content through the medium of a language other than the learner's L1 with the aim of learning L2.

Snow (2001) presents five varieties of CBI models that make use of L2 at varying degrees ranging from total immersion to theme-based instruction. Total immersion, the first model, ignores any need for language proficiency as the learners are already proficient users of the language. As for the second model, partial immersion, there is little focus on the linguistic aspect of the course. The sheltered model, the third model, is a context of learning where two teachers, an ESL teacher and a content teacher, work together to help the learners understand L2 content classes. The content specialist gives a lecture and the L2 instructor makes sure the learners understand it. Alternatively, the adjunct model, the fourth model of CBI, aims to prepare the learners for L2 content classes through teaching them the main language points and skills they need to have as prerequisites before joining those content classes. Adjunct model classes are usually taught by ESL specialists to prepare the learners for college classes that are taught in L2. The fifth model of CBI is theme-based instruction (TBI) where focus shifts towards learning L2 through focusing on themes relevant to the learners' specialty and of interest to them. TBI is more relevant to learners of EFL because their level requires making more efforts to improve their proficiency, and classes focus more on L2 learning with less emphasis on the incidental learning of content. However, it should be a condition for TBI to have focus on content and language, which is the main difference between TBI and other types of syllabi.

Table 1 below shows the degree of focus on content and language in each model of CBI. Having a dual focus on language and content imposes on teachers to understand the degree of focus on each aspect. Focus can be on language more than on content; in this case, the approach is language-driven. In the case when focus on content is more than on language, then the approach is content-driven.

Based on this continuum of language and content integration, teachers can make decisions as to which model is best appropriate to adopt. In the case of an EFL context where students have little or no chance to use English outside the classroom, a theme-based model could be the appropriate starting point before venturing into the other more challenging models. At the same time, the Sheltered and Adjunct models may not be of much significant use in an EFL context, as they seem to result in L1 encroaching upon L2. This may lead to reducing the amount of

exposure to L2 students need and at the same time making them foster the habit of depending on their L1 in learning L2.

Table 1: A Continuum of Content and Language Integration

Content-Driven				Language-Driven
Total Immersion	Partial Immersion	Sheltered Courses	Adjunct Model	Theme-Based Courses

(Met, M. (1998). Curriculum decision-making in content-based language teaching. J. Cenoz & F. Genesee (Eds.). *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. 35–63)

2.2. 2. English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

As opposed to English for General Purposes (EGP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a division of ELT that conceptualizes learning English in a specific area. According to Master (1997), ESP is an approach to the teaching of English, unlike CBI, which is a type of syllabus, like, for example, task-based or notional/functional syllabi. Thus, ESP and CBI operate at two different levels of ELT hierarchy. As such, ESP can make use of the different types of syllabi, including TBI and CBI. This opens up the dimension of considering reshaping the teaching ESP in such a way that makes use of the potential of CBI. In this paper, CBI is considered as an approach in designing ESL and EFL syllabi.

No matter how many objectives one can set for an ESP course, the main objectives can be broken down into two: a) learning the language specific to a field of concentration or specialty, and b) using this language to communicate in this field. In line with this, Jim Cummins (1980a; 1980b) introduced the concepts of BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). The former represents everyday use of language for communication, which englobes both aural and written forms for all the different purposes, from a simple interaction, such as writing a memo or talking on the phone, to more complex tasks such as explaining a complex process of writing an article in a given field. The second concept, "CALP," represents a specific kind of language that one encounters only in specific contexts. This means that it is unlikely for one to encounter this kind of language outside specific circles, which highlights the importance and relevance of ESP.

Likewise, we can differentiate between transactional and interactional uses of language in communication. Both transactional and interactional dimensions are present in language use; however, in ESP, emphasis may be more on the transactional use of language. Exchanging information and communicating meaning are very much emphasized in ESP, since the learners are getting ready for either further academic study and research, or professional use of the language for work. This brings to the fore the importance of meaning and content in an ESP course, which, in turn, calls for syllabus design.

A relevant, yet often ignored, aspect of adult language learning is the cognitive aspect. An understanding of language learning and brain development could justify why content should be indispensable to language teaching, especially to adults.

2. 3. Cognitive Implications

Since this paper deals with learning ESP in an EFL context, we need to look at language learning from a cognitive perspective. Basically, ESP learners are adults and young adults; therefore, questions about language learning in adults from a cognitive point of view may clarify how content is relevant to teaching language to adults.

Language is a human faculty of the brain, and as such, it is evident that there are parts of the brain responsible for the processing of language. The widespread claim that has been in place for quite some time is that language-related parts of the brain are limited to Broca's area and Wernick's area. This has been revised as new evidence has revealed that other parts of the brain also have a role in language learning and processing (Mundhra, 2005). Moreover, some experiments have proved that learning the mother tongue takes place in different areas of the brain from those where learning L2 takes place (Mundhra, 2005).

In the case of bilingualism, adopting L1 and L2 at an early age is concentrated in the same areas of the brain, while adopting L2 at adulthood takes a separate direction from L1 areas of the brain. Moreover, further research has revealed substantial evidence that the age of learning L2 determines where L2 is stored in the brain. Kim et.al. (1997) carried out such a research and found out that learning L2 simultaneously with the native language at an early age takes place in the same areas of the brain; however, if L2 learning happens at a later age, teenage years or later, L1 and L2 are directed towards separate brain areas.

A possible reason why acquiring an L2 at an early age is assigned to a common brain area with L1 but at a later age is assigned to separate areas is that after the brain has fully developed, it becomes less possible for Broca's area to accommodate two languages, and hence the need for a new storage space for L2 (see Kim et al., 1997).

With the new findings in mind, this means that some models may need some revision. The fact that learning an L2 at a later age is partly monitored by new brain areas calls for attention, as this means that learning L2 may have to follow a new model instead of that of acquiring L1. However, we should pay attention to, and be aware of, the fact that acquiring L1 happens through the simultaneous learning of the syntactic and semantic system of L1. Thus, in order to learn the syntactic and semantic system of L2, the adult brain needs to process them simultaneously. The traditional focus on language structures and rules or on the communicative aspect of language may not serve learners of English at tertiary level. In order to develop the cognitive skill of learning, exposure to meaningful language use is capable of activating the cognitive mechanism of learning L2 on equal terms.

Learning or acquiring a second language can be effective as long as it takes place at an early stage of infancy. If this takes place after the age of puberty, it is possible to learn the language, but its proficiency is not likely to be comparable to L1. With this in mind, in addition to the findings that learning L2 at an adult age is assigned to new brain areas, we can speak about revising current trends in L2 learning at an adult age and consider the role of content in language teaching. To put it simply, since learning L2 at an adult age is assigned to a new brain area, it could be assumed that content should be an integral part of L2 learning instead of putting more emphasis on structure or form.

3. Case Study: Impact of CBI on Foreign Language Learning at Tertiary Level

3.1. Rationale

Apart from special situations, students of ESP at tertiary level fall into two categories: those who want to get a job and start a career, and others who may consider pursuing a higher academic track in their field of study. In either case, there is a big need for and demand on English. Given the fact that some of these learners may not necessarily speak English as their first language, their level of proficiency should be taken into consideration. The majority of these students are ESL students and many of them are EFL students who may not have the average proficiency level required for better career opportunities or academic study; therefore, CLIL in ESP may be the adequate solution to a number of issues.

CLIL and ESP can come together to meet the needs of students of English in general and of EFL in particular. Combining content and language in ESP can be an ideal approach to make up for proficiency deficiencies, on the one hand, and to meet the needs of the learners' future endeavours, on the other. This has to do with the cognitive predisposition of adult learners to cope with language elements and the recent research findings discussed earlier in this article.

The problem with some other approaches to language teaching and learning is their overt emphasis on language as a target rather than as a means. Course content is usually aligned with linguistic objectives; thus, structure is the means and target of language learning at the expense of its value and potential. What CLIL does is reverse the equation by turning L2 into a self-serving means through content. This means that learning L2 becomes a cognitive process facilitated by, and through, the content taught. In other words, we alter the means of learning while preserving its objective.

3.2. Hypothesis

Combining content and language in teaching English for Specific Purposes can improve and enhance learning English as a foreign language.

3.3. Research Question

Do learners show any significant improvement in learning EFL by using CLIL/CBI in an ESP class?

3.4. Participants

The study is carried out on a sample of two groups, a control group and an experiment group, of 20 students per each. These are engineering students in telecommunications and computer science studying English in their second year at the National Institute of Posts and Telecommunications in Rabat, Morocco. The learners in the two groups study Business English in their third semester. In Semesters 1 and 2, they studied general English to brush up on their use and command of it. In semester 4, they will study a course of English for Telecommunications and Computer science. These students share a background knowledge of French, Arabic, varied dialects of Moroccan Arabic, and some of them may speak a regional dialect of Amazigh language. As for English, they started learning it in 9th grade and up until high school. After that, they continued learning the language for two more years during preparatory classes for

engineering schools. Participants have never studied legal English and have no knowledge of it.

3.5. Methodology

Since the participants have some knowledge of Business English and it is very likely they also have some knowledge of English for computer science and telecommunications, the experiment consisted of teaching them a course of legal English, of which they have no previous knowledge or experience, which was confirmed in interviews with the learners, to better assess their performance and language learning at the end of the experiment.

The study is carried out by administering a pre-test to determine learners' knowledge of legal English to constitute a model for comparison. This was carried out thus instead of a proficiency test, because, since legal English is totally new to them, their present proficiency level is of little use. The learners followed a six-week course of Legal English before they were assigned a post-test to determine their achievement. The course consisted of reading comprehension and vocabulary that were assessed in a twenty-four-question pre-test and post-test, in which twelve questions were asked about comprehension, and a similar number of questions was asked about vocabulary.

Each group of participants were taught the course using a specific method before their progress was assessed after six weeks. Group A (the control group) were taught using a lexical approach focusing on understanding vocabulary and giving definitions, finding information in the text, and checking correct answers. Group B (the experiment group) were taught using a content-based approach focusing on deep understanding of the text, understanding and explaining vocabulary in context, discussing specific ideas pertaining to the subject-matter of the text, and giving specialized explanations to the ideas discussed in the text. Learners were given background explanation of legal rules and when these rules are applied with example cases. After a period of six weeks, a post-test was administered to both groups to gauge the degree of improvement they have made, if any, as far as legal English is concerned.

3. 6. Results and Discussion

The overall results of the pre-test show that Group A, the control group, seem to have scored higher than Group B, the experiment group, in most of the questions. Group A overcame Group B in 17 out of 24 questions, and they were equal in just 2 questions. However, as Figure 1 shows, both groups' performance is proportional to the other's. In other words, when Group A scored low, so did Group B, with Group A scoring slightly higher than Group B. Please note that the vocabulary questions are labelled with the letter 'V' and the question number next to it. As for the comprehension questions, each is labelled with the letter 'C' and the corresponding number next to it. The questions are labelled thus for discussion purposes; the nature of the questions themselves has very little use in this study.

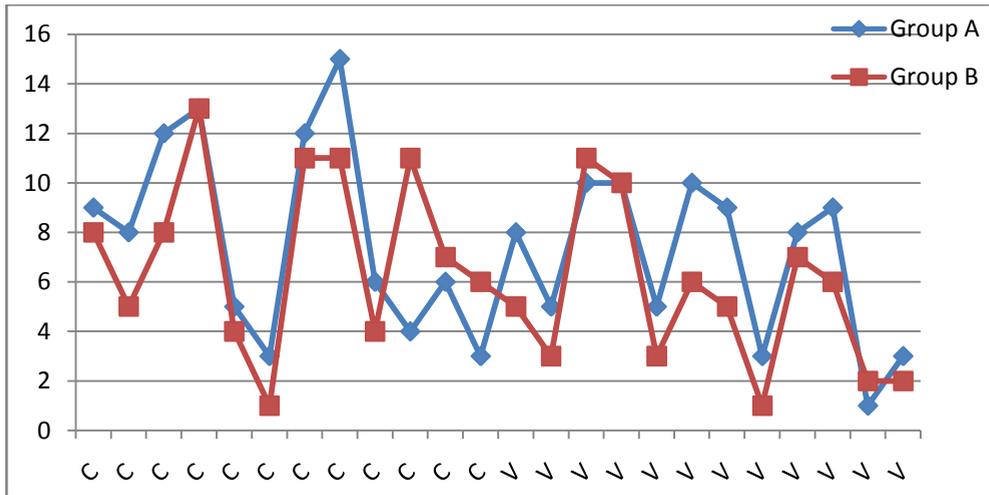


Figure 1: Comparison of pre-test correct answers of both groups

The post-test results, shown in Figure 2, confirm Group A's high performance and even show some improvement in comparison with the results of the pre-test. The number of Group A participants who answered questions correctly is higher than the number of Group B participants. The highest number for Group A is 20, whereas for Group B the number is 16. However, Group B have shown significant improvement in 4 vocabulary questions. Group A, on the other hand, show significant improvement in comparison with Group B in 5 comprehension questions and in 3 vocabulary questions. Overall, both groups have shown improvement in the post-test in comparison with the pre-test, with Group A always maintaining a higher score, which is explained by the group members' higher performance in the pre-test.

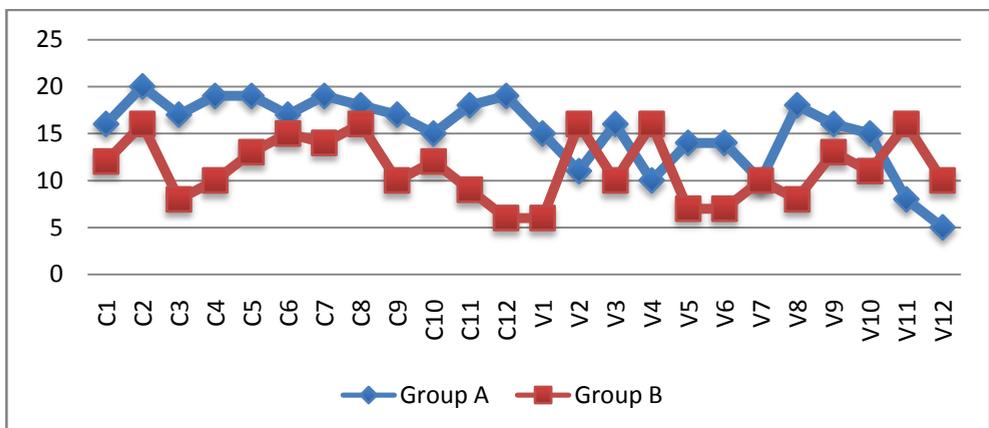


Figure 2: Comparison of post-test correct answers of both groups

As noted in the results of both tests, both groups maintained their relative performance, which renders it challenging to spot significant difference between each group's performance both in the pre-test and the post-test. To take a closer

look at the results, focus has shifted towards comparing both groups' results in comprehension and vocabulary in the two tests with each other. In terms of vocabulary, Figure 3 shows a contrast of the two groups' performance in vocabulary sections of the pre-test. Although both groups' performance seems to be, at first sight, so similar, Group A's predominance is notable, with more participants who got more correct answers in comparison with Group B.

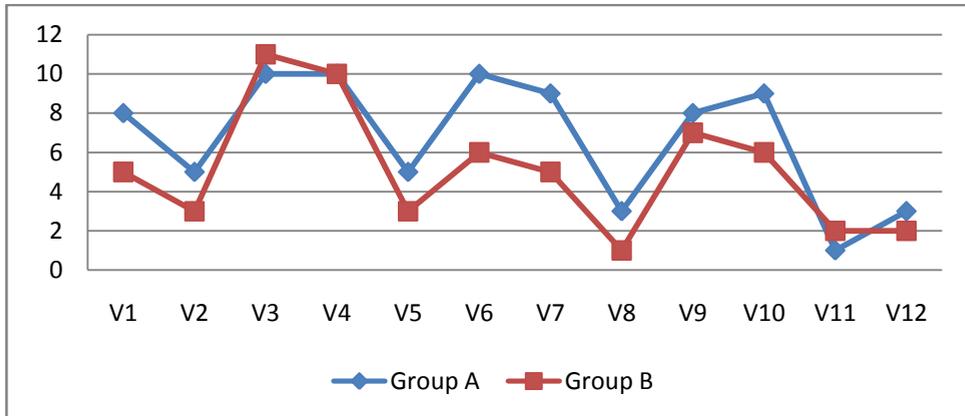


Figure 3: Comparison of pre-test vocabulary questions of Group A vs. Group B

The same could be said about the pre-test results of the comprehension section of the test. As Figure 4 shows, Group A performed better than Group B, with the latter scoring significantly better results in most of the questions. Similar to the results of the vocabulary section, we do not notice any instance of a group scoring extremely lower or higher results than the other group.

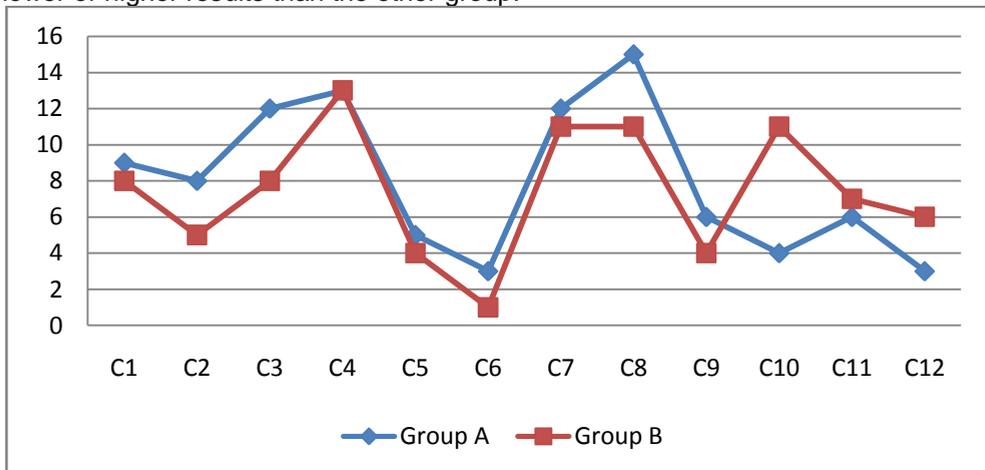


Figure 4: Comparison of pre-test comprehension questions of Group A vs. Group B

The remarks made about the pre-test results also apply to the post-test. In Figure 5, Group A maintain their higher results in 7 out of the 12 vocabulary questions, while Group B managed to surpass Group A only in 4 questions; the remaining number of the questions answered was the same. As for comprehension, Group A

surpasses Group B in all the questions (Figure 6).

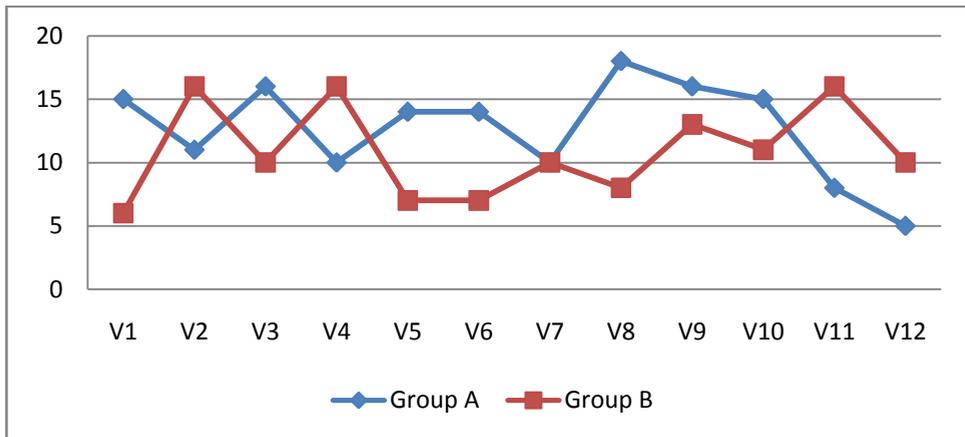


Figure 5: Comparison of post-test vocabulary questions of Group A vs. Group B

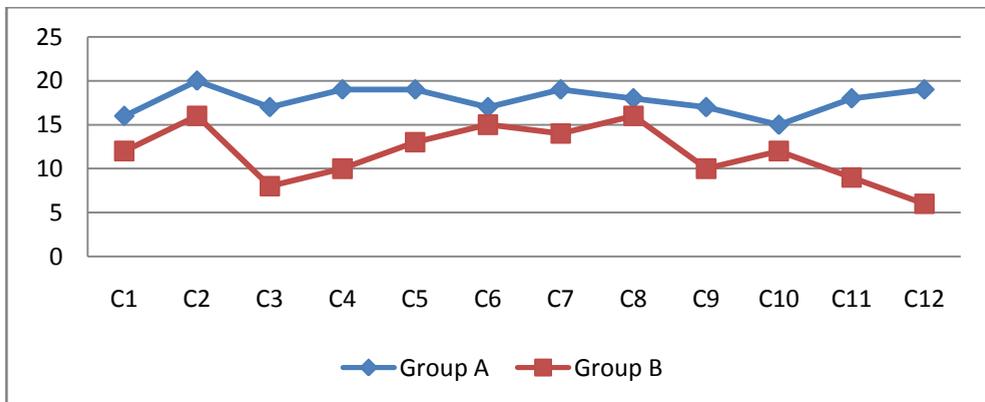


Figure 6: Comparison of post-test comprehension questions of Group A vs. Group B

Since the post-test and pre-test results reveal a general preponderance for Group A, an alternative way of examining the test results would be to compare the same group's performance in the pre-test and the post-test to detect any change in that group's performance.

Starting with group A, the control group, a comparison of the difference in performance between the pre-test and the post-test shows clear improvement in terms of the number of questions answered correctly and the number of participants who answered the questions correctly (Figure 7). All of the participants of Group A made progress in all the comprehension questions.

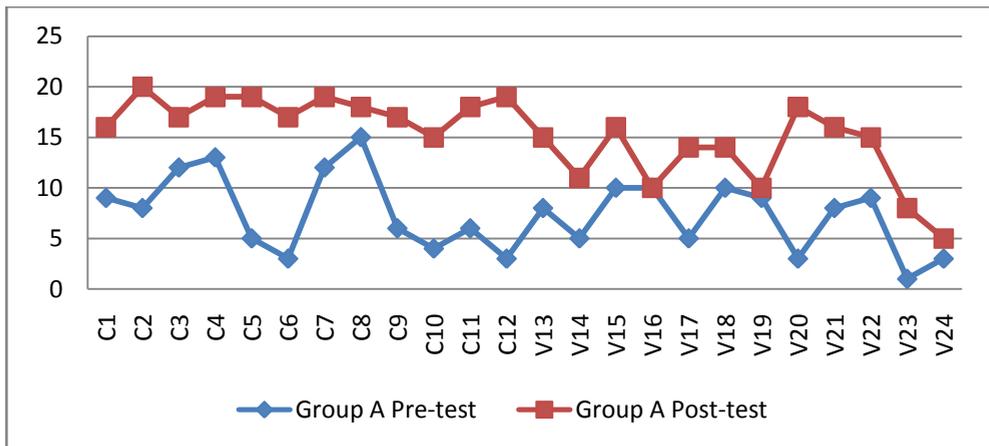


Figure 7: Comparison of pre-test and post-test results for Group A

As shown in Figure 8, there has been a remarkable increase in the number of participants from Group B who answered the questions correctly. After comparing each group's performance in the pre-test and the post-test with the other group's performance, we can make a number of remarks. Both groups have made progress, which means that both methods have worked. This also means that neither method excludes the other in terms of achieving the teaching and learning objectives. Therefore, there is no need to rely, for example, on a notional-functional approach that may leave out important aspects of language by giving less or no importance to content, because, rather than hindering learning, adding focus on content seems to make learning more efficient. In other words, language is also learned when used as a vehicle for meaning and not as a set of functions.

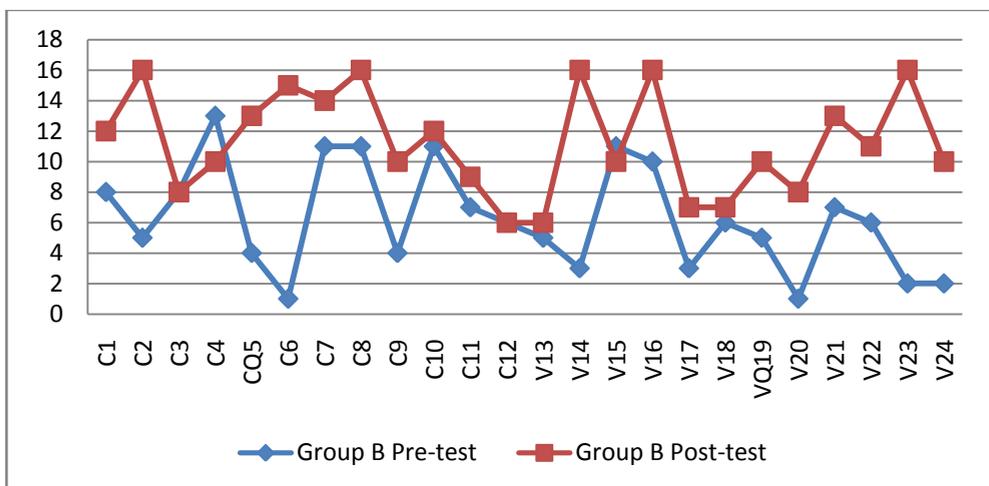


Figure 8: Comparison of pre-test and post-test results for Group B

These results are in line with the more recent research findings discussed earlier in this paper. Although in some cases the positive impact of CBI/CLIL on language

learning may not be noticeable enough, the impact is still there and it does influence language learning in a positive way. The results of this research also show that content should be an integral part an ESP syllabus (Hutchinson and Wales 1987). The fact that learners have made progress leaves the door open for more possible improvement in the application of CLIL/CBI in language teaching and learning. It could be advanced that more immersion in content could yield significant impact on learners' progress in FL learning.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, we may answer the research question about whether learners have made significant progress in learning ESP through CBI/CLIL by saying that although there is no big impact on learners' progress, CBI has proved itself to be relevant in learning EFL. This proves that both of content and form are collaborators in language learning. That CBI does not rule out other approaches to teaching and learning a foreign language is in itself a confirmation that CBI also has a place in second and foreign language teaching and learning. However, the door for further research and inquiry remains open, as this research is qualitative in nature. Therefore, testing the impact of CBI on a larger scale over a longer period will yield more substantial results. More emphasis on content for the sake of language teaching may boost learners' development of language and communication skills. Moreover, it may also help with motivation when content is relevant and interesting to learners.

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TEACHING SIGN LANGUAGE FOR HEALTHCARE WITHIN A LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES FRAMEWORK

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Abstract:

Languages for specific purposes is a subdiscipline of applied linguistics that looks at language learning and teaching for a specific education or training need. The long-established norm of this field is the teaching and learning of spoken languages. Sign languages have been excluded. This paper calls attention to this gap in the field and shows how a sign language can be taught and learnt for a specific purpose. This empirical work describes how students training to be healthcare practitioners are taught Jamaican Sign Language with a view to improving communication with Deaf patients when these students become healthcare practitioners. Overviews of course content as well as teaching and assessment methods are examined in light of the tenets of the field of languages for specific purposes. This is to assess how the content as well as teaching and assessment methods compare to current practice in the field of languages for specific purposes. Benefits of this programme are also presented. It is hoped that this paper sparks a much-needed discussion in the field of languages for specific purposes on the inclusion of sign languages and what best practice would look like in a subdiscipline of sign languages for specific purposes. Globally, the number of sign language courses offered at higher education institutions is increasing. It is a logical conclusion that more institutions will begin to offer sign language courses tailored for specific settings. The demand for such courses is just beginning. The need therefore to address the question of the place of sign languages for specific purposes within the field of languages for specific purposes is urgent.

Keywords: sign language; healthcare; languages for specific purposes; communicative competence; higher education; Jamaica.

1. Introduction

Medical language proficiency is being acknowledged as a necessity for healthcare teams as patient treatment outcomes are put at risk when the healthcare practitioners are not users of the language of the patient (Hull, 2016; Champion and Holt, 2000). This paper describes the teaching of medical language in Caribbean sign languages to students in the Faculty of Medical Sciences at the Mona Campus of The University of the West Indies (UWI). A preliminary survey of the literature shows that sign language taught for specific domains has not been

considered in the field of languages for specific purposes (LSP). LSP grew out of the teaching of English and of other modern languages like French in contextualised settings (Trace, Hudson and Brown, 2015). Its focus therefore has been the use of those languages in spoken and written forms in various domains (Trace, Hudson and Brown, 2015; Gunnarsson, 1997). Sign languages have not been included. Evidence of this is found in the absence of any reference to sign languages in major LSP publications like Long and Doughty (2009); Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore (2016) and Knapp and Seidlhofer (2009). These volumes have chapters devoted to the areas of speaking, writing and listening in LSP but no mention of teaching a signed foreign language.

Sign languages have not yet been widely accepted as foreign languages in the fields of LSP or Modern Languages although sign languages satisfy the criteria for foreignness (Ehlich, 2009). Scholarly dialogue and research on sign language as the language being taught for a specific purpose must begin but first, the place of sign language teaching and learning in the field of LSP must be demonstrated. This paper situates the teaching of Jamaican Sign Language and other Caribbean sign languages for the purpose of Deaf patient management to students of various healthcare programmes in LSP. In this work, *deaf* refers to persons who have a hearing loss that prevents them from hearing sounds in the -10 to 15 dB range (Cumberbatch and Jones, 2017) and *Deaf* refers to persons who adhere to the cultural norms and values of a group whose primary means of communication is visual-gestural in modality (Cumberbatch and Jones, 2017).

2. The Status of Sign Language as Human Language and as a Foreign Language

Sign languages display all of the characteristics of human language and have all the levels of linguistic organisation of human language (Cumberbatch, 2013; Zeshan, 2005). The difference between sign languages and the spoken languages that are familiar in the literature stems from a difference in modality (Baker, van den Bogaerde, Pfau et al., 2016). Sign languages are visually received and produced using gestures while spoken languages are perceived auditorily and produced using the vocal tract. The modality has a significant effect on the grammar of sign languages making them distinct from spoken languages (Uyechi, 1996) and offering insight into how human languages operate (Zeshan, 2005). In the classroom, a foreign language is a language not native to the students in the classroom (Ehlich, 2009). A foreign language is one which is "...taught and learnt, and not acquired" (Knapp, Seidlhofer and Widdowson, 2009). Linguistic foreignness is not limited to the identification of a language from another country and therefore includes languages used within the same territory. On this basis, it can be argued that sign languages are indeed foreign languages used by sign communities within multilingual territories. Sign languages are neither native to hearing students nor required for their daily life. Despite this, many people do not view sign languages as a foreign language; even foreign language teachers who can verify that sign languages satisfy the criterion for linguistic foreignness.

3. Sign Language as a Language for Specific Purposes

LSP refers to language education that is focused on specific language needs for particular discourse scenarios in academia and workplaces (Hyland, 2009). LSP is more than translating texts and specialised word lists; it also involves teaching communicative behaviours for interaction with a cultural group (Hyland, 2009). In the case of healthcare for Deaf patients, the particular need is to communicate with patients whose primary means of communication is a visual-gestural language. Healthcare teams are trained using auditory-vocal languages and are faced with a communication barrier when the patient is not a user of a spoken language (Champion and Holt, 2000). The approach being used to tackle this challenge is to equip student healthcare practitioners with the language skills needed to communicate directly with Deaf patients. It is expected that when the students become professionals, they are prepared to interact one-on-one with Deaf patients without relying on interpreters or family members (Cumberbatch and Jones, 2017). The target Deaf patients in this LSP programme are deaf Deaf patients, that is, patients with hearing loss whose preferred means of communication is the natural sign language of the Caribbean Deaf community to which they belong. Oral deaf or deaf people who use artificial sign languages like Signed English are not the focus of the LSP programme. This LSP programme is an initiative of the Mona Campus and has not yet been adopted on the other campuses.

4. The Suite of Sign Language Courses

An overarching tenet of the sign language courses is that students should become empathetic to a social group that forms a linguistic and cultural minority through gaining awareness of and appreciation for the language and culture of the Deaf community. Traditionally, the field of medicine has utilised a medical/pathological approach to deafness in which hearing loss is viewed as an impairment which must be treated and/or cured (Cumberbatch, 2014a). This approach disregards the existence of a Deaf culture and its language. The opposing standpoint is the cultural/anthropological approach in which hearing loss is a common characteristic of a group of persons sharing cultural norms and values with their primary means of communication being in a visual-gestural modality (Cumberbatch, 2014b). The cornerstone philosophy of the sign language courses for healthcare is to create empathetic healthcare practitioners who move away from the medical/pathological approach towards the cultural/anthropological approach. It is hoped that students create a balanced perspective that allows them to view the hearing status of each patient as that particular patient views it.

As is necessary in language courses for medical purposes, the sign language courses aim to balance the language use needs of the language community with the language learning needs of healthcare workers (Trace, Hudson and Brown, 2015). At present, four sign language courses are available to students as they progress through the preclinical and clinical stages of their programmes at the Mona Campus. These four courses form the LSP programme. See Figure 1 for the progression of the students from one course to the other.

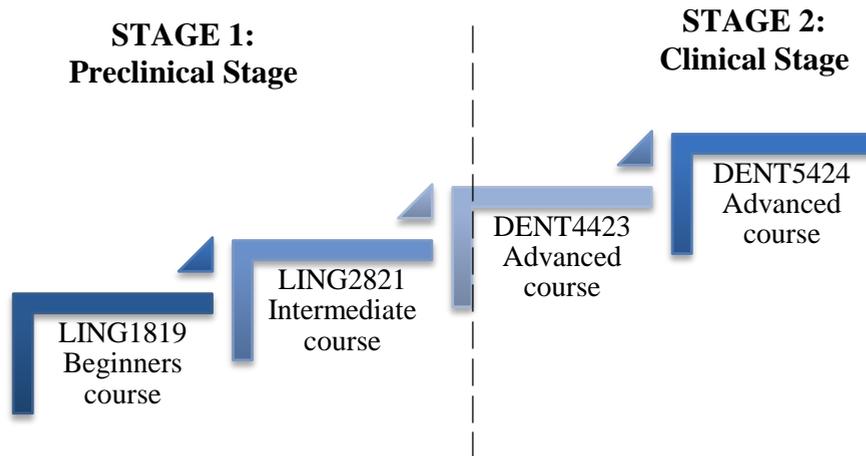


Figure 1: Sign language courses available to students in the Faculty of Medical Sciences

All students in the Faculty of Medical Sciences can take LING1819 Beginners Caribbean Sign Language, as a foundation course in their degree programme. In this introductory course, students learn to introduce themselves, discuss daily life and engage in basic conversation. This non-clinical, introductory sign language course is a prerequisite for the preclinical and clinical sign language courses.

The preclinical course, LING2821 Sign Language for Medicine and Dentistry, is also available for all students in the faculty. LING2821 takes students through the steps of patient management in simulated and real scenarios. Students learn to take histories, do triage, describe and explain investigations and other procedures, explain the administration of drugs, and discuss treatment plans. In this course, deaf culture is a part of the curriculum. Including cultural knowledge in language for medical purpose courses is practiced in LSP (Hillman, 2015). Students are also streamed according to their programme for tutorials where they are taught terms specific to their area such as dentistry and physiotherapy.

Only the School of Dentistry has clinical sign language courses in which the focus is on actively using the learnt language skills during patient care and not on sign language learning for future patient care. The Doctor of Dental Surgery programme offered at the Mona Campus of The University of the West Indies is the only dental school in the Western hemisphere that mandates sign language acquisition and proficiency in its curricula (Jones and Cumberbatch, 2018). Their students do DENT4423 Clinical Preparation then DENT5424 Clinical Practice. In DENT4423, students learn the protocols for Deaf patient care at the UWI Mona Dental Polyclinic (UMDP). In DENT5424 where they are grooming their clinical skills, they are required to have a minimum of 81 hours of treating Deaf patients.

5. Teaching Methods and Materials

Grammar in the context of what is taught in the courses is defined as in Larsen-Freeman (2009), “a system of meaningful structures and patterns that are governed by particular pragmatic constraints.” The inclusion of pragmatic

constraints is especially relevant given that the pragmatics of sign languages differs from that of spoken languages. In all courses, wherever grammar is taught, the traditional three Ps approach of *present, practice and produce* (Larsen-Freeman, 2009) is utilised. Firstly, the linguistic feature is introduced and explained to students. They then do activities to learn more about the grammatical items. Finally, they are given opportunities in class to use the grammatical items in communicative events. To determine which vocabulary should be taught, the vocabulary levels method described in Nation and Chung (2009) was employed. High-frequency words are taught in LING1819 and technical words in LING2821. Meaning-focused output through exercises like role plays and group work facilitate the learning process (Nation and Chung, 2009). Low-frequency words are learnt in DENT4423 and DENT5424 when student dentists interact with their Deaf patients. Implicit and explicit instruction (Roever, 2009) are used in teaching pragmatics. Implicit instruction is primarily used in the nonclinical course, LING1819. With the implicit instruction, students are exposed to specific rules of interaction between deaf persons as well as between deaf and hearing persons. The rules are formally taught only when the students are observed using these rules. Explicit instruction is used in LING2821, the preclinical course, to teach students how they should interact as healthcare professionals with their Deaf patients. All pragmatic skills are reinforced in the clinical courses, DENT 4423 and DENT5424.

LING1819 is divided into language structure and language use classes with the students doing one of each weekly. The LING1819 syllabus is a traditional linguistically based syllabus focused on fundamental grammatical constructs and key basic vocabulary. The language structure classes consist of a series of mini-lectures with activities after each. A flipped classroom is employed for the language use component. Students are expected to familiarise themselves with videos on the learning management system online platform before attending class. At class, what was learnt on the videos is revised before they participate in language learning activities including storytelling and skits.

There is a shift in the pedagogical approach for LING2821. The syllabus is topic-based focusing on specific interactions between the healthcare worker and the patient. The areas of grammar are directly linked to those interactions. For example, classifiers are a grammatical construct necessary for conveying information about procedures. Classifiers are therefore included in the syllabus. LING2821 focuses on Deaf culture awareness and patient management. Mini-dictionaries were created for the disciplines of dentistry, medicine and physiotherapy. Academic signs for healthcare did not exist in Jamaican Sign Language prior to this course. Existing medical sign language dictionaries like Costello (2000) were found to be less than ideal because of morphosyntactic differences between American Sign Language and Jamaican Sign Language. Therefore, discussions with members of the Deaf community and with healthcare professionals were necessary in determining the signs that would be used to convey the meanings of jargon selected for the mini-dictionaries. The Faculty took the initiative of creating e-textbooks with feature-length films showing fictional patient care scenarios embedded within a story line — *Caribbean Sign Language for Dentistry* and *Caribbean Sign Language for Medicine*. These two e-textbooks serve the dual purpose of teaching language specific to various aspects of patient management and demonstrating clinical techniques in patient care.

DENT4423 has both content-based and task-based instruction. Learning how to manage a Deaf patient as required by the UMDP forms the content-based section. The task-based instruction covers specific areas of patient care such as extra-oral examinations. DENT5424 is based on learning by doing. It is expected that as students perform their duties as dentists-in-training and communicate directly with their Deaf patients, their sign language skills will be strengthened.

6. Assessment Methods and Materials

Formative and summative assessment tasks are used in all four courses. Many of the assessment tools addressed in the literature are tailored to reading and writing. They are inapplicable to measuring language performance and competence in a sign language. Nonetheless, the criteria of validity and reliability (Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore, 2016) are met in each assessment task used in the courses. Further, the principle of ensuring that assessment tasks are genuine representations of actual tasks (Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore, 2016) is followed in specific-purpose testing. Additionally, subject specialist informant techniques (Douglas, 2000) are used to create assessment tasks for the preclinical and clinical courses by involving healthcare practitioners in test creation. Expressive and receptive skills, knowledge of Deaf culture and Jamaican sign language grammar are tested in each course.

Language games, conversation exercises and role-play activities are the main types of formative assessment tasks used in LING1819. In LING2821, simulated patient scenarios with Deaf adults are added to the pool of formative tasks. For DENT4423, role-play activities are the only formative tasks used. In DENT5424, oral feedback is given to students based on patient comments and observations by the Deaf Clinic Coordinator of their communication with the patient. Summative tasks take several forms. Students have written theory tests in LING1819 and LING2821. Tests have been paper-based or administered using a learning management system platform and clickers. These two courses also have tests focusing on expressive and receptive language skills that are done individually and in groups. For example, a video of a simulated case with a patient presenting at clinic and describing symptoms may be shown to students. They are then quizzed on the information provided to test their receptive skills. LING2821, DENT4423 and DENT5424 all have Objective Structured Clinical Examinations (OSCEs) with real Deaf patients to assess both language and clinical skills.

7. Learning Outcomes

All courses have the learning objective of students gaining specific purpose language ability (Douglas, 2000). By the end of this LSP programme, students should be proficient in Jamaican Sign Language and be able to use it effectively in a healthcare setting with a Deaf patient. In addition, each course has specific learning outcomes including the use of simple and complex grammatical structures, and participating in conversations of varying technicality on life and healthcare.

Table 1 highlights key communicative tasks that students should be able to perform in a Caribbean sign language for each of the four courses.

Table 1: Key Learning Outcomes of the Sign Language for Healthcare Courses

COURSE	KEY LEARNING OUTCOMES
LING1819	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Introducing oneself ▪ Exchanging personal information ▪ Describing daily routine ▪ Understanding someone signing about his/her daily routine
LING2821	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Displaying good bedside/chairside manner ▪ Giving the patients instructions for examinations ▪ Giving directions to the patient for specific locations in the office or health facility ▪ Demonstrating proficiency that facilitates taking a thorough history from Deaf patients in a Caribbean sign language
DENT4423	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Knowing the Deaf Patient Care protocol of the UWI Mona Dental Polyclinic ▪ Greeting the patient using politeness norms of the Deaf community and inviting the patient to the dental chair ▪ Accurately and fully understanding the responses of the patient in history-taking and discussions of the treatment plan ▪ Signing instructions to patients for procedures
DENT5424	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ With near-native fluency, expressing and explaining medical or dental terms and procedures to patients. ▪ With near-native fluency, discussing management plans with their patients ▪ Providing the same quality of healthcare to Deaf patients that they would to hearing patients

8. Experienced Benefits of Sign Language for Healthcare

Students who do only the nonclinical course report having their eyes opened to the various mechanisms employed by human language to convey information. They are enlightened to learn about a grammar that is so different from that of other languages they know. Learning about the existence of Deaf communities in their culture has also expanded their view of the subcultures that coexist in the community. Those who do the preclinical course have informally said that it has proven to be a valuable asset when they do clinical rotations and meet Deaf patients. Several, particularly the nursing students, describe the joy they experience when they can intervene to bridge the communication gaps between colleagues and Deaf patients. These students are usually the only members of the patient management team who can communicate with the Deaf patient and therefore bridge the communication gap between the team and the patient. Students enjoy a deep sense of fulfilment when they see the relief of Deaf patients after they find someone who can communicate directly and effectively with them. The improved rapport established between patient and healthcare practitioner

through direct communication increases the likelihood of improved treatment outcomes.

Some Deaf people are sceptical of the signing ability of hearing persons who have formally learnt signing outside of the Deaf community. One such Deaf person had to undergo knee surgery and reported to a friend visiting her that she was receiving good care thanks in part to a signing nurse. This nurse had done the nonclinical and preclinical courses as a student. This patient experience illustrates how the LSP programme makes it possible for Deaf patients to communicate directly with the healthcare workers managing their care instead of being reliant on interpreting services, which are often unavailable.

Patients who attend Deaf Clinic at the UMDP have also expressed their pleasure at being able to regularly seek oral healthcare knowing that they can communicate directly with their student dentists. It is touching to staff and students at the clinic when adult patients in their thirties and forties thank the student dentists for their first ever dental care experience. They had never gone to the dentist before because nobody explained how important it was to them and/or they expected communication difficulties. Seeing Deaf children grow up with visits to the dentist as a regular part of their lives is another fulfilling outcome. Dentistry students have taken the initiative to visit deaf schools and do oral health campaigns. Connecting with the Deaf community to build health awareness is an important benefit of the sign language for healthcare. It increases the social accountability of these future health professionals. Overall, the aim of producing healthcare practitioners with a more balanced view of Deafness and Deaf patients is being achieved.

9. Conclusion

This paper conceptualises the relevance of sign languages to the field of LSP. In the field of foreign language education, this may seem novel as many in the area of modern languages still do not conceive of sign languages as real languages or consider them in their scholarly work. Further, this paper may spur the recognition of the place sign languages take in the field and the growth of research in this area. With Deaf numbering over 300,000 million worldwide (World Health Organisation, 2017), it is critical that more sign language for healthcare programmes become available and imperative that more research is conducted in this area of LSP.

Meeting Deaf patient needs has been a quandary for healthcare professionals for decades. Lower quality care, patient mismanagement, poor treatment outcomes and substandard customer service are all common issues in Deaf patient care. The crux of the matter is a communication barrier. This can be overcome by equipping healthcare students with language skills to communicate directly with their Deaf patients. The teaching model described in this paper can serve as a guide for other medical schools, especially given the growing trend at medical schools of incorporating medical humanities into the curricula (Lesser, 2017).

This paper adds to the body of work on the intersection between healthcare and the humanities. Scholars and professionals in other disciplines can also benefit from this paper. Researchers in Deaf Studies can further explore the Deaf experience in healthcare by looking at the impact of direct communication between healthcare practitioners and Deaf patients. Health educators may be interested in how this type of training can benefit future professionals. It may also

open their eyes to the advantages proficiency in foreign languages offers to healthcare practitioners, not just in their profession but also in their social development. Learning sign languages for specific purposes, in this case, healthcare, seems to create practitioners who are more empathetic (Jones and Cumberbatch, 2018) and possess strong crosscultural competencies.

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WITH OR WITHOUT YOU: THE USE OF DIGITAL TOOLS IN TEACHING LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

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Abstract: *Several factors have affected higher education during the last few decades across the globe, as a consequence of which, teachers nowadays are facing unprecedented changes and challenges of the 21st century. Due to fast developments in technology, digital competences are of major importance today for both students and teachers. Many language teachers as well as teachers of languages for specific purposes are therefore constantly faced with the question of shall we or shall we not let digital technology into our teaching activity. There are pros and cons to integrating online Web2 technology into the curriculum, just as there to teaching with the traditional methods of offline materials, books and exercise books. Both options have their own advantages and disadvantages, however, the number of those, who focus more on how we should use digital technology in class, instead of whether we should use it at all, is on the rise. Digital tools can be used to our advantage when teaching, nevertheless, this is not an easy task as new digital resources and various apps reach us almost on a daily basis. Which one to select and implement in class that suits the students' needs and provides authentic materials for classes of languages for specific purposes, which at the same time, will not quickly seem outdated or disappear, is a constant challenge we have to face. The aim of this paper is to investigate the notion of digital education, including digital classrooms, digital students and digital teachers as well as the teaching methods of the 21st century pertaining to language classes, especially focusing on language classes for specific purposes. In authors' understanding, digital tools can be used as a potential source of stimulation from which to launch into interactive communication keeping a healthy balance between the sensory and the digital resources. Numerous educational digital tools emerge every day, which require special skills, knowledge and competence, therefore teaching with or without them cannot and should not be imposed on language teachers, instead, this decision should lie exclusively in their hands.*

Keywords: 21st century education; digital tools in language classes; languages for specific purposes; digital classroom; digital teacher; digital students

1. Introduction

'When the wind of change blows, some build walls, while others build windmills.'
Chinese proverb

The wind of change in 21st century education is that of digital technology. It goes without saying that digital competence and skills are some of the most important issues facing us today. We live in an age when many language teachers, as well as teachers of languages for specific purposes are faced with the question of shall we or shall we not let digital technology into our teaching activity. There are those (Lam and Tong, 2012; Taneja et al., 2015) who argue about the distracting influence of digital devices in the classroom claiming that

'...although technology in classroom has its benefits, many students constantly succumb to its use during class for non-class related purposes, thereby impacting their learning' (Taneja et al., 2015:141). Whereas others (Holmes, 2009; Dahlstrom et al., 2014; Nemeth and Csongor, 2016; Collins and Halverson, 2018) believe that teachers should be using web based digital resources and tools in education to serve the needs of the digital native generation. It is, indeed, a hotly debated topic, that often divides opinion. The purpose of this article is to scrutinize both sides of the argument from the perspective of students and teachers in the digital age focusing on language classes, including languages for specific purposes.

2. The Digital Age and the Digital Students

We live in a digital age surrounded by computers, laptops, tablets and various digital gadgets that provide us instant access to information in the blink of an eye. As Figure 1 below suggests, most of the population aged between 16 and 74 have basic or above basic digital skills in many countries of Europe. The Eurostat statistical data (2016) are based on selected activities performed by this age group on the internet in four specific areas, which are information, communication, problem solving and content creation. It is assumed that individuals having performed certain activities have the corresponding skills. EU 28 countries score an average of 55% and it was Luxembourg with the highest score (86%) and Bulgaria with the lowest (26%) in 2016, but the numbers are growing annually.

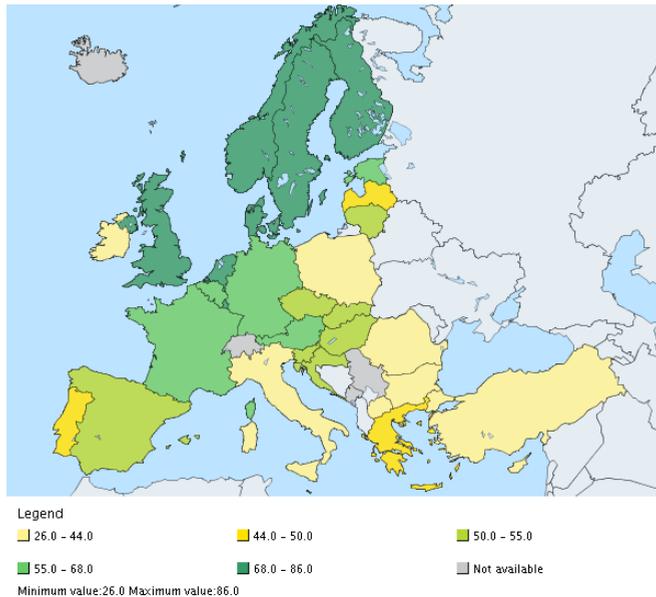


Figure 1: Individuals, aged 16-74, who have basic or above basic digital skills (%)
Source: Eurostat, 2016

Hence, we can say that it is not only the young, but the older generation as well who are increasingly digitally literate nowadays. Although, there have been some suggestions earlier to make a distinction between the two generations. The term *digital native* was created by Marc Prensky (2001) to refer to those who are all 'native speakers' of the digital language of computers, online games and the internet. They have habits and interests that are considerably different from those of the previous generations. *Digital immigrants* refer to those, who were not born into the digital world, but have been trying to catch up with the latest developments of the new technology. However, eleven years later Prensky (2012) reconsidered his definition and now promotes the use of the term *digital wisdom* and claims that the question is no longer whether *to use or not to use* technology, but rather *how to use* it to become better and wiser people.

In White's view (2008), there is a distinction between *digital residents* and *digital visitors*. In his understanding, the *residents* live their life online that supports and determines their identity and facilitates their relationships. For them the internet serves as a platform, which they use constantly, whereas the *visitors* use the web only as a tool whenever they need it. They log on and once their task is completed, they log off.

Rushkoff (1999) coined the term *screenagers* to refer to young people who have been raised on computers and other digital devices. The word has even been accepted by the Oxford English Dictionary (Screenager, n.a.): a screenager is 'a person in their teens or twenties who has an aptitude for computers and the internet'.

Gardner and Davis (2013) use the term *app-generation*, whereas Rosin (2013) created the term *touch-screen generation* referring to children who acquire media literacy at a very young age. As a result, by the time they go to school their brain

has been permanently altered by constant exposure to technology. However, as Füzési (2016) claims, they are neither better nor worse than the students of the 20th century, they are just different. They think and process information differently than previous generations. Prensky (2001) defines how they are different when he describes the specific features of this generation: they want to have random access to information and receive it as soon as possible; they are able to multi-task, dissimilar to their predecessors and have a strong desire to belong to social networks and have active personal involvement. In their learning processes, they prefer graphics to text, would rather play games than do serious work and yearn to be rewarded frequently. Therefore, in his view, the biggest problem facing education today is that the '...digital immigrant instructors, who speak an outdated language (that of the pre-digital age), are struggling to teach a population that speaks an entirely new language' (Prensky, 2001: 2). Dahlstrom et al. claim (2014:5) that 'although technology is omnipresent in the lives of students, leveraging technology as a tool to engage students is still evolving.' As they argue (ibid:5), '... students still have a complex relationship with technology; they recognize its value, but they still need guidance when it comes to using technology in meaningful and engaging ways for academics.' As Nemeth and Csongor (2016) conclude their study, students still prefer blended learning environments, where both offline and online materials are included in the classes and this view is also supported by Dahlstrom et al. (ibid) who argue that students' expectations are continuously increasing for these hybrid online/face-to-face experiences.

3. The Digital Age and the Digital Teachers

So, what should a 21st century teacher be like? Palmer (2015) investigates this notion by attempting to compare it with a 20th or 19th century teacher. Surprisingly, after searching the net and various social platforms, she did not encounter anything even near as a 20th or 19th century teacher. The only search results were all for the 21st century, like #teacher21, #21stcenturyskills, #21stCTeaching and books with titles on the 21st century teaching and learning. To conclude, she claims teaching in the 21st century is a unique phenomenon as learning before could not be accomplished the way it is happening now everywhere, all the time, on any possible topic, supporting any possible learning style or preference. She even endeavours to describe 15 characteristics she claims a teacher of the 21st century should have, which are as follows:

1. *Learner-centred classroom and personalized instructions*, which imply interactivity and high involvement of the students in the learning process as claimed similarly by Nemeth & Csongor (2016).
2. *Students as producers* suggest that today's students have the latest and greatest tools; yet, they still have to work with handouts and worksheets in class. Instead, students should be encouraged to produce blogs, movies, or any other digital media that they feel proud of and can share with others.
3. *Learn new technologies*, which infer continuous development, as the new technologies are new for the novice and experienced teachers alike, so it is never late to start.

4. *Go global* proposes that digital tools nowadays make it possible to learn about anything taking place in the world at once, to bring the world into your home in an instance.
5. *Be smart and use smart phones* implies to encourage students to use their gadgets in class for learning purposes.
6. *Blog* advocates writing blogs by both student and teacher as it has value of writing for real audience and establishes digital presence. In Palmer's view (*ibid*) to blog or not to blog should not be a question anymore.
7. *Go digital* means another important attribute that is to go paperless by integrating technology into class. Sharing links and offering digital discussions enables students to access and share class resources in a more organized fashion and, as an added value, this process is also environment-friendly as it saves the use of paper.
8. *Collaborate* assumes that technology allows collaboration between teachers and students. Creating digital projects together with other educators and students will make classroom activities resemble the real world.
9. *Use Twitter chat, which* suggests the cheapest and most efficient way to organize one's own professional ideas and research results and facilitates staying current with issues and updates in the field. Although, there are several other professional platforms for teachers to engage in and share their expertise and research, such as LinkedIn or ResearchGate, they all contribute to professional growth and expansion of knowledge.
10. *Connect*, which is important in keeping contact with professionals from the same field.
11. *Project-Based Learning* implies that students need guidance from their teachers when developing their own research questions, conducting their surveys and creating projects to share.
12. *Build your positive digital footprint* suggests that teachers should model how to appropriately use social media, how to produce and publish valuable content, and create sharable resources.
13. *Code* entails today's literacy, i.e., computer language.
14. *Innovate* proposes trying new ways, such as teaching with social media or replacing textbooks with web resources.
15. *Keep learning* implies that as new technology keeps emerging, learning and adapting is essential or in other words, lifelong learning is inevitable.

All these characteristics listed above suggest that teachers of the 21st century need rather different skills, competences, approaches and teaching methods in class than those of their predecessors. They also imply that these instructors play a significant role in preparing students for the 21st century, distinguished by worldwide migration, cross-cultural encounters and rapid changes in technology. Maurizio and Wilson (2004:28) even go as far as to claim that '...our nation's well-being throughout this century will be determined by how well we prepare our students today.' Therefore, intercultural and digital competences are of major importance in teaching in higher education nowadays. Nemeth (2015) and Hamburg (2016) both highlight that intercultural knowledge should be introduced into the higher education curricula in order to 'make changes at cognitive, attitudinal and competence level regarding cultural differences among people in the world' (Hamburg,2016:70). However, as Hamburg argues (*ibid*), it should not be

the self-imposed task of merely foreign language teachers as they might lack the necessary knowledge, attitude and skills. Likewise, the integration of digital tools into the foreign language and languages for specific purposes curricula require special skills, knowledge and competence, as well. Therefore, teaching with or without them cannot and should not be imposed on language teachers, instead, this decision should lie exclusively in their hands.

4. The Digital Classroom

Digital skills have been integrated into language classes to a greater extent for the past decade. Dudeney (2015) refers to the ability to use digital technologies effectively as digital literacy. However, the use of technology for learning is not restricted to any age groups and learners are exposed to a range of technologies from a very early age in the home. By the time they go to school, many have developed specific digital skills that enable them to participate in ICT activities in the classroom (Battro, 2004). The difference between the traditional and the blended learning curriculum, which includes both online and offline materials, is the activity and passivity level of the students. In the 20th century curriculum, teachers were creating a sequence of activities they wanted to involve the students in, whereas the activities in blended learning need to be much more engaging, involving, so the students feel some ownership of those processes and they are actively involved. Hence, we can say learning is no longer just about the delivery of educational materials, it is about interactivity with those who are learning. Nemeth and Csongor (2016) go as far as to claim that digital technology has clearly facilitated a change of dynamics in the teacher–student relationship; it makes the process mutual and shared. They assert that our role as language teachers has gone beyond ‘only’ teaching. We have to keep up-to-date with the latest technological devices and tools to serve the needs of today’s digitally literate student population. Therefore, it is not only us teaching the students, but it is a mutual, reciprocal process, students are also continuously teaching and motivating us. It is amazing to see the huge number of options digital technology can offer in the classroom. At the same time, it also encourages people to continue learning outside of it and keep developing professionally. Teachers cannot afford to overlook it, if they want to produce a quality learning experience (Nemeth & Csongor, 2016).

1.1 The Digital Classroom of Languages for Specific Purposes

As regards teaching languages for specific purposes it is even a more complex problem. Having to teach both the language and the field specific content, teachers often face challenges in providing a professional education to supplement the course book, or offer self-access materials. They are compelled to search reliable sources for authentic language use. The web is a valuable source of information, and these materials can easily be integrated into classroom methodology (Kern, 2013). However, as Tevdovska argues (2018) the selection of authentic materials should take into account several factors, such as the target group’s language proficiency skills, as well as potential difficulties that students or individual language learners might encounter during the exercises. Therefore, she suggests that the integration of authentic materials into the curriculum is essential; however,

those need to be modified and tailored to the needs and requirements of the target group. As she claims ‘...the selection of materials is an ongoing process during which the materials need to be constantly renewed, upgraded, and adapted.’ (2018: 65).

Regarding languages for medical purposes Halász and Fogarasi (2018) also imply the use of authentic samples while teaching German for Medical Purposes (GMP). In their view, medical reports represent an important written genre in medical communication and they suggest that medical students studying GMP should be introduced into writing medical reports in German, using authentic samples. These samples are provided by clinical centres in Hungary as well as hospitals from different federal states of Germany and Austria, however authentic medical reports are also available on the internet to be downloaded and integrated into classes to serve the benefit of both students and teachers.

In his study, El-Sakran (2018) also highlights the importance of computer-mediated communication (CMC), which has been taking over face-to-face communication. In his view (2018:19), ‘...this has created an essential need for students to learn efficient and appropriate communication styles pertinent to communication via emails.’ His study implies the development of the necessary skills for students studying any communication courses to write appropriate and effective professional email messages.

As Ruggiero and Hill claim (2016), cross-cultural knowledge, speaking foreign languages and digital literacy are indispensable skills in today’s world. In their view, technology is especially useful in providing a platform for collaboration online. There are several educational digital tools and applications to facilitate this process. One such tool is called telecollaboration, or virtual exchange, which uses Web 2.0 technologies to connect students studying foreign languages in different countries. Its primary goal is the improvement of foreign language skills, as well as developing intercultural competence (Furstenberg et al. 2001:56–57). Another benefit of telecollaborative projects is that they target non-mobile students by establishing the virtual mobility of this group, as argued by Németh and Csongor (2018), while at the same time facilitate the development of both their foreign language and languages for specific purposes proficiency.

5. Conclusion

There has been a change over the last few decades from *whether we should* use digital technology in class at all to *how we should* use them. If we really want our education systems to prepare students for tomorrow’s digital world, we should worry less about formats and instead focus on *what to teach* and *what not to teach*. Digital tools can be used to our advantage when teaching. However, this is not an easy task as new digital resources and various apps emerge almost on a daily basis. Which one to select and implement in class that suits the students’ needs, which at the same time, will not quickly seem outdated or disappear, is a constant challenge we have to face. However, teaching students how to communicate in the real world with their mouths, ears, faces, eyes and bodies is just as important. In authors’ understanding, digital tools could be used as a potential source of stimulation from which to launch into interactive communication keeping a healthy balance between the sensory and the digital resources.

As the wind of change blows, numerous digital technologies emerge. Teaching with or without them and to decide whether to build walls or windmills, as the Chinese proverb claims, lies entirely in the hands of the teachers including the teachers of languages for specific purposes.

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ISSUES OF SPEECH FLUENCY AND THE USAGE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES BY HUNGARIAN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

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Abstract: *The international demand of having speakers who are fluent in a multitude of languages is a significant one. The term 'fluent', by default, means that the speaker can continue a conversation (or their speech) without any possible hesitation or with only marginal ones. However, this is often not the case, as it can be seen both in everyday conversations with foreigners or delivering a speech at an international conference. Many non-native speakers of a language are facing difficulties when in a verbally challenging situation and as a result, come across the phenomena of a 'communication breakdown' or an episode of TOT (tip of the tongue). These two phenomena can be rather embarrassing for the speaker, resulting in a weakened self-esteem and may lead to the start of a negative spiral; a spiral that, in extreme cases, makes the speaker avoid communicating with foreigners all together. To help non-native speakers avoid such unpleasant situations, the usage of communication strategies should be carefully considered. In the following paper, the results of an online questionnaire will be presented, regarding the usage of communication strategies by Hungarian students and teachers of a secondary and tertiary level of education. The aim of the research was to shed light on the usage of communication strategies in modern offline conversations occurring between native speakers of a language and non-native speakers of the same language within Hungary. Some of the arguments presented in this paper are concerned with the most frequently used communication strategies used by Hungarians on such occasions; the research findings here seem to contradict that of common experience. Regarding taking the initiative if facing a foreigner in a conversation Hungarian speakers again seem to present a contradiction to popular belief. Furthermore, the notion of communication strategies and their likely conscious use is also dissected only to present some expected end results. In addition, the paper examines the possibility of teaching communication strategies in a school environment, while also considering the likely hindering factors and obstacles that could prevent students from acquiring above said strategies. It is worth noting, that teachers of a foreign language might want to pay attention to the question of teachability when it comes to communication strategies, both inside and outside the language classroom for the sake of a more effective future of language education. For this purpose, a section about this issue is also presented in this paper.*

Keywords: speech fluency; communication issues; communication strategies; language education, interlanguage.

1. Introduction

The term communication strategies (short form: CS), has been in the focus of second language acquisition research since the 1970s. After its first appearance in Selinker's article on Interlanguage (1972) it has had a tremendous effect on a number of fields of research including:

- bilingual/multilingual education
- foreign/second language acquisition
- language testing
- discourse analysis
- applied linguistics

Due to its elusive nature, the term itself is hard to determine. Accordingly, the following definitions have been suggested to describe the phenomena over the course of the years: Communication strategies are "... mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on meaning in situations where the requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1980), or "potentially conscious plans" (Faerch and Kasper, 1983). A more recent interpretation characterises communication strategies "...as an individual's attempt to find a way to fill the gap between their communication effort and immediate available linguistic resources" (Maleki, 2007). Regarding a language educational setting concerning communication strategies, my interpretation is as follows: communication strategies are unconscious techniques developed either internally (by the students themselves, usually - but not exclusively - by means of trial-and-error) or externally (with the help of teachers, trainers, or by other people in contact with the student) that are applied during conversations in a foreign language in order to avoid speech disfluency or in the worst case, a total communication breakdown i.e. the inability to continue a conversation with the participant(s). In my approach, communication strategies are a necessity for any student of a foreign language during communication. This is due to the high probability that these students are presented with a linguistic and or cultural inadequacy when the conveyance of meaning occurs between one another. In other words, language users of (both) different linguistic and socio-cultural backgrounds are likely to apply these techniques during conversation, if the phenomena of communication breakdown are to be avoided.

2. Taxonomy of Communication strategies

In the 1970s, several studies set the foundations for the study of communication strategies. Selinker's (1972) article on interlanguage introduced the notion of second language communication strategies which was followed by Váradi's (1973) and Tarone's (1977) articles the latter two aiming at providing a systematic analysis of communication strategies. Their analysis was based on the following notion: "if the fossilised aspects of interlanguage are the result of an identifiable approach by the language learner to communication with native speakers of the target language, then we are dealing with strategies of second language communication (Selinker, 1972, p. 33.).

Váradi and Tarone later introduced a classification of communication strategies that would be used in subsequent research. However, according to Bialystok (1990), the single most important difference between various categorisations proposed by researchers, lies in labelling and the principle behind the label, rather than in the substance of each specific strategy. This means that regardless of the labels used to specify the same parts of a phenomenon, the very essence will remain unchanged. Communication strategies can be divided into five main categories and a number of subcategories which produce the following list:

Paraphrase: Paraphrase includes three subcategories which are:

- *Approximation:* The use of such native language (L1) vocabulary items or structures, - that the language learner is aware of not being used correctly in that given position - which share certain semantic features with the desired item, thus satisfying the speaker's intention (e. g. *a big rock* instead of *boulder*, or *pipe* instead of *water pipe*).
- *Word coinage:* The language learner is making up a new word – most often on the spot – in order to communicate a desired concept (e. g. *airball* for *balloon* or *smoking leaf* for *cigar*).
- *Circumlocution:* The language learner describes the major characteristics or elements of an object, action or person instead of using the target language (TL) equivalent (e. g. *She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Cuban, and they smoke it in other countries, too*).

Transfer: Transfer has two subcategories:

- *Literal translation:* The language learner is translating word for word from L1 to L2 (e. g. *He invites him to drink*. replacing *They toast one another*).
- *Language switch:* The language learner uses the L1 term without attempting to translate it into L2 (e. g. *léggömb* instead of *balloon* or *Verkehrsmittel* replacing *means of transport*).

Appeal for Assistance: This refers to the language learner asking for the correct term or structure from an exterior source of information, most likely a teacher or a fellow student (e. g. *What is this?* or *What do you call that in English?*).

Mime: Mime is related to the speaker using non-verbal strategies substituting an expression (e. g. *clapping one's hands to illustrate applause, or rubbing one's eyes to indicate crying or tiredness, boredom*).

Avoidance: Avoidance strategies consist of:

- *Topic avoidance:* The language learner is omitting concepts for which their vocabulary is lacking at the time of speaking.
- *Message abandonment:* The language user begins to talk about a concept but being completely unable to continue doing so, due to a lack of verbal resources and thus ends up stopping in the middle of an utterance.

The above outlined typology of communication strategies is summarised in Table 1 and is based on Tarone's work (Tarone, 1977) on the topic.

3. On the teachability of Communication strategies

Research on foreign language output (for example, Faerch and Kasper, 1986, Willems, 1987, Tarone and Yule, 1989, Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991, 1994, Mali,

2007; Maleki, 2007) shows that any form of language production is best learned through interaction. This is especially valid regarding verbal interaction and communication strategies. Since communication strategies are unconscious techniques their conscious realisation in any communicational situation demands a significant amount of practice and drilling. This practice was shown by Mali (2007) to be an effective way of enhancing students' language productivity, as far as verbal output is concerned. Mali also points out that language teaching materials with communication strategies have great potential in improving current language education. As it was also clarified by supporters of the theory (for example, Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991; Eszenyi, 2001; Maleki, 2007, 2010; Mali, 2007; Lewis, 2011), communication strategies can be and should be taught in foreign language education and require a more emphasized position within the language education curriculum. The main reason to teach these strategies is that they are part of the communicative competence, while creating the sub-branch of strategic competence (see Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, Thurrell 1995). The focus of strategic competence is to use strategies in order to avoid communication breakdowns while their education should concentrate on improving present day language teaching through their usage. For the purpose of teaching such strategies, Faerch and Kasper (1986) recommend the following three activities:

- communication games with visual support
- communication games without visual support
- monologues

It needs to be pointed out that the practice of 'Just a minute!' about a given topic or a favourite topic can also be considered here for improving speech fluency. During this session, the speaker is asked to talk as fluently and continuously about either a specific topic (usually chosen by the teacher) or about a favourite topic for a single minute, as possible. In the latter case, the intrinsic motivation lying within the speaker's domain of personal interest obviously gives a great push for the students in choosing their personal favourites, while also impelling them to share as much information with the other within the set time as possible. In addition to the above-mentioned methods, I consider it a well-established fact that current language learners come across new vocabulary outside classrooms, mainly in films and music (Kovacevic and Kovacevic, 2015). In order to tap these rich sources of verbal ammunition, students may attempt to cite lyrics of their favourite songs or memorable lines of their most enjoyed films as communication strategies. Thus, by borrowing from said artistic products their verbal communication will achieve a double-fold goal: firstly, they avoid the situation where silence is simply unacceptable – with certain exceptions -, secondly, they use material that is more preferable for them and are likely to be more easily evoked when needed. Therefore, lyrics or memorable lines can be considered a possible linguistic foundation for a likely reply. As such, the act of citing also needs to be regarded as a valid communication strategy, because it allows speakers to gain some time to plan their next move in the process of communication. For further aspects of communication strategies (taxonomy, role, local feedback, etc.) the following references should be consulted: Bátyi (2015), Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), Grace (2013), Kellerman (1991), Littlemore (2001), Oxford (2001), Paribakht (1985), Poulisse (1993, 1994), Salomone and Marshal (1997), Schmidt (1983), Tarone (1984) and Váradi (1983).

4. The current Hungarian scene

As Medgyes (2015) pointed out, current foreign language education in Hungary still has issues with increasing speech fluency of its students, regardless of their level of study. As such, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) needs to focus more on verbal communication and L2 output for conveying messages between one another, while not disregarding the other skills (reading, listening, writing). As such, teaching and practising communication strategies should earn more appreciation inside and outside classrooms, since these techniques can actually enhance the verbal language output of each individual to a currently unknown extent. The most ideal situation, for any language speaker, would be for students to practise the (freshly) acquired vocabulary outside the classroom on their own: either with their classmates or, preferably, native speakers of the language. Unfortunately, the latter can be seen as a form of privilege for some, especially those living in rural Hungary. Therefore, the use of online communication and language learning sites (e.g. Babbel.com, Memrise.com, or Duolingo.com) can act as a go-between for aforementioned language learners until a native or near-native speaker appears on their horizon. Communication strategies are also related to competency-based education. Since the foundation of communicative competence by Hymes (1972) and its application to L2 proficiency by Canale and Swain (1980) the competency-based model has undergone a number of changes. One such shift was the reorganisation of the original model by placing cultural competence in the middle of said model. This transition of the model, conceived by Bárdos (2002), clearly indicated that cultural competence is ought to be considered as the primary element of the model in the future, and not just as a marginal notion as it was before. Regardless of the cultural component, the model itself is invaluable for us because of the strategic competence. This competence is the core of all communication strategies (or evasion strategies). It is closely related to all competences within the triangle of discourse competence, but it also acts on its own, aiding the speaker in maintaining their speech fluency (see Figure 1).

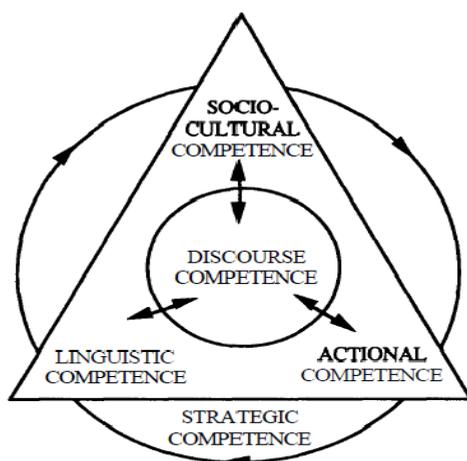


Figure 1: Schematic representation of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z. & Thurrell, S., 1995, pp. 5-35.)

5. The Role of Communication strategies in Language Education

For the above given purposes (increasing speech fluency, requirements of competency-based education), a number of possible communication strategies should be implemented in the language classroom. For instance, Willems (1987) suggests focusing on activities for practicing paraphrase and approximation. Brooks (1992) on the other hand, prefers circumlocution and appealing for assistance. However, since there is no single communication strategy that can be used in all likely situations, the possibility of combining these methods for a far better outcome than focusing on just one or two techniques, is ever-present. While circumlocution and paraphrasing require a larger and better organised mental vocabulary to work with – and as such are far more suitable for students possessing a higher-level knowledge of a language –, such techniques as miming, appealing for assistance or approximating are less demanding and serve the same goal, nonetheless. Furthermore, Rabab'ah's (2005) research on the topic claims that teaching communication strategies is beneficial for students for the following reasons: firstly, usage of communication strategies can lead to evoking previously forgotten vocabulary from both participants, especially when appealing for assistance. In my observation and classroom experience, the same can be said about circumlocution or paraphrasing as well as the use of synonyms and antonyms. Secondly, by implementing such techniques, both parties have a greater chance of carrying on with their conversation, without losing face. Finally, students can solve a communicational challenge on their own, while achieving their goal. It must be also stated, that by achieving the desired communication goal on their own or by asking for assistance, the usage of communication strategies has a high likelihood to lead to a more conscious use of language, while boosting one's self-confidence, adding to the autonomy of the students (see Holec, 1981, Benson, 2001, Harmer, 2007).

6. Subject, material and methods

In the present study I have conducted an online query using social media. This was due to the fact that most students are active social media users and spend quite a significant amount of time online and are also willing to participate in filling in online surveys. I chose two different groups on Facebook to reach out to a large number of would-be participants. Group one consisted of students, ranging from high school to higher education, while group two was that of the teachers. In addition to social media, I have also asked for the assistance of MANYE (Hungarian Association of Applied Linguists and Language Teachers) members who also participated in filling in the survey. The goal of the survey was to gain a better insight into the possible background knowledge of Hungarian students and teachers regarding communication strategies and their usage when the speaker comes into contact with a speaker of a foreign language. I was probing into the participants' actual practice of communication strategies, their attitude towards foreign language usage and the possible initiative they take if the opportunity presents itself in contacting a speaker of a foreign language. Due to a previous

assumption that students at a primary school are – most likely – not yet active and fluent participants in a foreign language conversation, while that expectation is – at least allegedly – met by students in high school or higher education during the final examination or language examinations. As far as teachers are concerned, neither my theories or previous experience related to the issue, nor any references I have read before suggest that teachers of primary education provide a role model or influence students of a foreign language in acquiring communication strategies – although they clearly have an influence on their language learners. The teachers of group two were teaching all possible school subjects at every specific level of education. While I firmly believe that communication strategies are almost exclusively used in subjects that require a high-level of verbalisation – such as foreign languages and humanities – there might be other likely communication strategies used by teachers of other subjects, hence their inclusion in the survey. I created the online survey using Google Forms and recorded their answers using the same website. For data analysis I employed a statistical data analysis software (IBM SPSS Statistic21) in order to extract, analyse and visualise the data provided by the participants. Both students and teachers were expected to answer almost identical questions in the survey with only minor alterations involved. For example, teachers were asked about their major and the time span spent teaching up to the current moment. Students, on the other hand, were asked about their field of specialisation in education and the time span of their language education. I was searching for a correlation between the linguistic background knowledge (likely extension and depth of mother tongue's and foreign language's vocabulary, approximate level of activity in both languages, i.e. how often does the speaker use their knowledge of said languages) and that of communication strategies (level of transparency of its notion and its usage).

7. Results and Discussion

My research population consisted of 91 teachers and 219 students, a total of 310 (n=310). Answers provided to background-related questions indicate that the majority of the students (44,3%) live in cities, 39,7% in the capital city and 16% in the countryside (Figure 2). 76,7% of the population is female and 23,3% of the population is male (Figure 3).

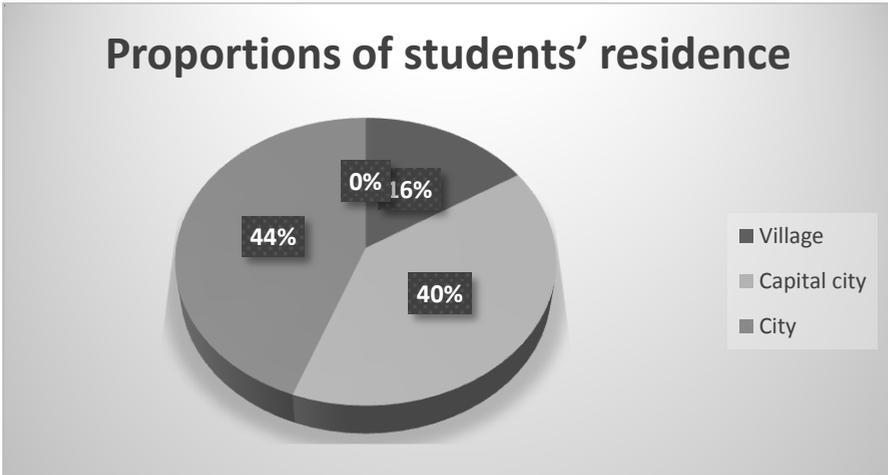


Figure 2: Proportions of students' residence

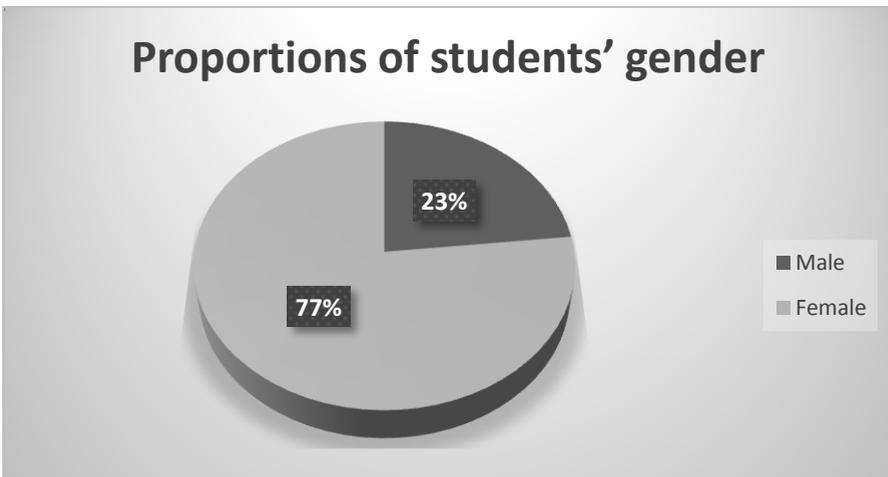


Figure 3: Proportions of students' gender

On the other hand, teachers' gender proportions were built up of 79,5% female and 20,5% male participants (Figure 4). In addition, 60,2% of the teachers live in cities, 27,7% in the capital city and only 10,8% in villages. (Figure 5).

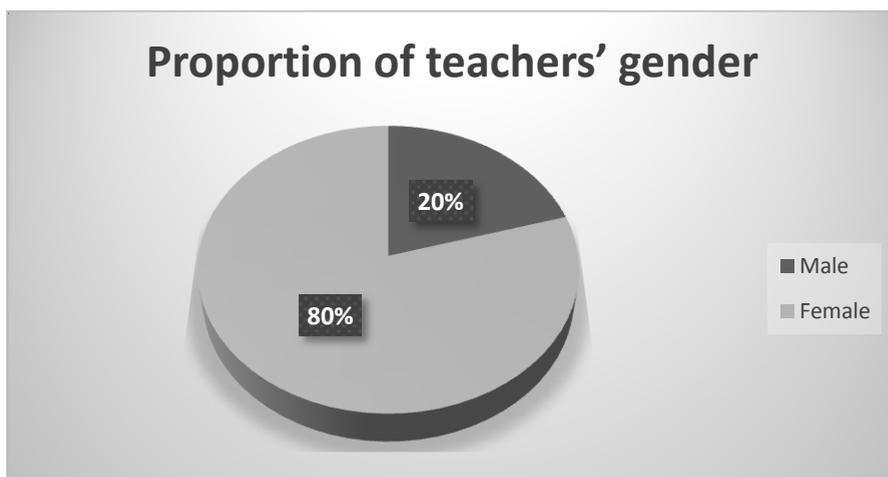


Figure 4: Proportion of teachers' gender

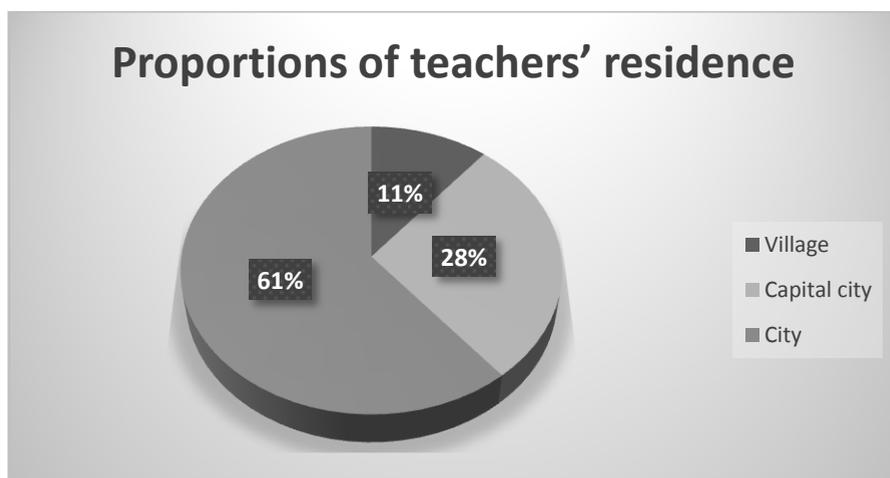


Figure 5: Proportions of teachers' residence

Before the actual survey took place I had the following research questions to seek an answer to: Firstly, *what were the most commonly used communication strategies* by the two groups, regarding both domestic and foreign language usage? As far as my presumption was concerned, I had assumed that mimicking, approximation or switching languages will be the most common techniques used due to their quick and easy access by almost any participant. Secondly, I wanted to probe into the *understanding of the participants related to the notion of communication strategies*, i.e. how could the members of the research population define the term of

communication strategy or other related terms, like circumlocution? This was to establish a clear position whether these strategies were truly unconscious plans used by the interlocutors or not. Thirdly, there was the question of *taking the initiative when presented with a native or near-native level speaker of a language*, or how willing the participants were to engage in a conversation with someone of the language they have learnt before, if given the opportunity? Finally, I sought to enquire into *the matter of attitudes regarding both the usage of mother tongue and a foreign language in such situations*. This was due to the presumption that those who are eager to initiate a conversation with a native or near-native level speaker of a previously studied language, are bound to have a more positive relationship with the language in question. To my knowledge, literature related to the issue of communication strategies does not state clearly *which is the most commonly or frequently used communication strategy*. As such, I was assuming that members of the research population are highly inclined to use such simple techniques as mimicking or other forms of gestures, approximation, and language switch. However, the answers of the participants did not reflect that. Instead, the results showed a significant percentage of teachers using *circumlocution* (62,5%) and *synonyms* (25,2%) in case they had difficulties expressing themselves in a foreign language. These results are supported by their answer to the following question: *Please finish the sentence: What do you do when you cannot remember a word in Hungarian?* 40,9% of the teachers claimed they use *circumlocution*, while 20,4% allegedly applies *synonyms*. Students' results in connection with the same issues are as follows: 41,6% of them stated that they prefer using *circumlocution*, and 13,5% said that they use *synonyms* when lacking the proper word in Hungarian. This translates to 62,7% for *circumlocution* and 16% for *synonyms* in the foreign language counterpart. As we can see, the results clearly show that *circumlocution is the most frequently used and preferred communication strategies* by both groups followed by the *use of synonyms*, - but not antonyms - in the research population. As far as the definition of communication strategies is concerned, the data is in accordance with the literature presented at the beginning of this study: there were a number of vague attempts at defining the term by both groups, however, none of these answers were significantly present. Most students gave an answer reflecting upon their lack of knowledge regarding the topic (*"I don't know."*, *"I have never heard about this before."*), while only an insignificant number were able to approximate the notion itself (*"A list of possible choices that enable the act of communication to become realised."*, *"The conscious planning and structuring of a conversation."*, *"A carefully designed speech-plan that helps to avoid the possible manifestation of any lexical deficiency."*). Although teachers were more focused and had a slightly clearer notion related to communication strategies their definitions were still lacking some fundamental elements (*"The acquisition and use of such strategies that enable the student to become able to express things in a foreign language they are otherwise unable to do so."*, *"All the techniques applied in a successful communication collectively."*, *"The conscious application of tested schemes tailored to the specific situation."*). The fact that the current generation also uses more advanced and verbally demanding techniques, - such as circumlocutions or synonyms - to prevent a possible communication breakdown is a positive sign: it indicates that a number of the research population is ready and willing to take the risk of failing when conversing with a (non)native speaker of a foreign language. I hypothesise that said participants are liable to use these more

complex and demanding communication strategies more frequently, than those using different, less demanding techniques to express themselves when needed. Additionally, this attitude is reflected in the third previous assumption I shall discuss later. The attitude behind foreign language usage was also questioned: the general population may have an aversion regarding using a foreign language outside the classroom (as a student) or simply wish to avoid putting what was learnt in school into practice (as an adult). Research, however, proved the contrary: 71,5% of the teachers and 74,8% of the students tend to have a positive attitude towards foreign languages and foreign language usage in general. This poses another question: would a significant increase in the volume of the online survey support or contradict the current results regarding attitude?

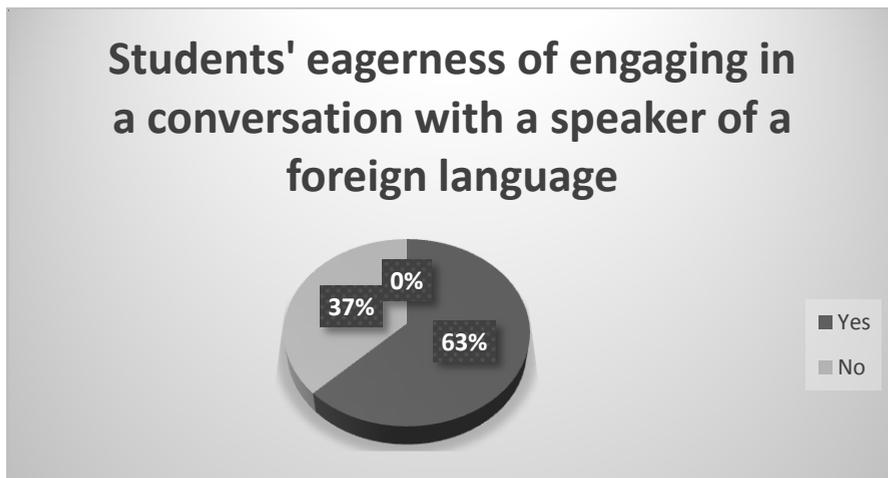


Figure 6: The eagerness of students regarding the usage of foreign languages (*Do you eagerly engage in a conversation with a foreigner in a previously learnt language?*)



Figure 7: The eagerness of teachers regarding the usage of foreign languages (*Do you eagerly engage in a conversation with a foreigner in a previously learnt language?*)

With respect to general tendencies, Hungarian speakers of a foreign language easily avoid taking the initiative when faced with such a communicational situation, for example, when giving directions or delivering a speech or a presentation in front of an audience. As such, Hungarians in general, can be described as passive or reluctant speakers of any foreign language. On the other hand, the answers provided clearly indicate that such generalisation is just partially acceptable. 59,3% of teachers and 44,3% of students claimed that they actually take the initiative during a conversation with a foreigner.



Figure 8: Students' frequency of taking the initiative in a conversation with a foreigner (*Do you take the initiative when engaging in a conversation with a foreigner?*)



Figure 9: Teachers' frequency of taking the initiative in a conversation with a foreigner (*Do you take the initiative when engaging in a conversation with a foreigner?*)

Despite the rather large number of feedback provided by the targeted population I still have two issues concerning the current state of research: the first being the actual reliability of the replies, and the second is the possible future methods and material needed for further studying the subject matter at hand. Firstly, the question presents itself, whether the subjects of this survey gave an actual and honest answer to the questions asked, or were they influenced in any possible way to give such replies. In order to reinforce the present research findings, I wish to re-run another online survey in the future, but with an increased number of participants. Social media sources, such as Facebook, provide a great opportunity to pull in an incredibly large number of participants for further studies. Secondly, I am going to extend my research in the near future to teacher trainers and trainees of foreign languages. On this occasion, however, a series of interviews will be conducted in order to compare the results with previous findings. The two groups need to answer how they prepare/are prepared for their future career as teachers of languages or as trainers of would-be language teachers, the methods employed during communication training/teaching, and the possible background knowledge related to that of communication strategies. Another group of future interviewees will be students and teachers of secondary education: the goal here is to map out the trends in acquiring and teaching vocabulary and putting it into practice within a classroom environment. I wish to inquire about the possible methods that were taught during teacher training to current foreign language teachers and how they apply the previously acquired theory. On the other hand, I seek students' position on the matter, too: whether they employ any communication strategies during a classroom conversation or outside school, and if so, what types are their most frequent ones.

8. Conclusions

In this descriptive study I presented data on the background knowledge of Hungarian students and teachers regarding communication strategies. The findings indicate that –although the research population was not a substantial one and thus requires a larger pool of participants to establish a significant trend related to the issue – both Hungarian students and teachers have a vague definition and understanding of the notion of communication strategies. This resonates with the findings of previous research related to this field, claiming that these strategies are most likely to be unconscious. Despite having far more easy-to-access-techniques for solving a communication issue in a foreign language, most of the research population still tended to rely on more complex methods of solving the issues when presented with the opportunity; i.e. using circumlocution and synonyms instead of mimicking, switching to another language or using approximation. This indicates that there is a will within the language speaking community to take the effort and answer the call of a foreigner properly, if needed. In addition, the population is inclined to see the positive side of learning and using a foreign language and in many cases is able to take the initiative when it comes to conversing with a (non)native speaker of a foreign language. These results give way to ground for further research and are especially needed in order to find a solution to the issue of

fluency in foreign languages in Hungary, since Hungarians are still struggling with speaking a foreign language.

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Appendix

Table 1: A typology of communication strategies

Type of Strategy	Example
Avoidance Topic avoidance	The language learner is omitting concepts for which his/her vocabulary is lacking at the time of speaking.
Message abandonment	The language user begins to talk about a concept but being completely unable to continue doing so due to a lack of phrases and expressions and thus ends up stopping in the middle of an utterance.
Paraphrase Approximation	a big rock instead of boulder pipe instead of water pipe
Word Coinage	airball for balloon smoking leaf for cigar
Circumlocution	She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Cuban, and they smoke it in other countries, too.
Conscious transfer Literal translation	He invites him to drink replacing They toast one another. léggömb instead of balloon Verkehrsmittel replacing means of transport
Language switch	
Appeal for assistance	What is this? or How do you call that in English?
Mime	clapping one's hands to illustrate applause rubbing one's eyes to indicate crying or tiredness, boredom

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?

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 your ESP courses?

COMPARISON OF JAPANESE LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT CRITERIA OF A STEM AND A NON-STEM UNIVERSITY IN THE UK

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Abstract: *This study compares a STEM and a non-STEM British university's Japanese marking criteria using two cultural concepts as a framework. There are movements in language teaching to focus on teaching specific purposes. The findings show that the two types of assessment criteria, simple and detailed assessment criteria exist, which were under the influence of these two cultural concepts. Language teachers who use simple assessment criteria grade students' work more objectively using quantitative method, whereas those who use detailed assessment criteria grade more subjectively. Language teachers who use detailed assessment criteria may have less workload marking and grading than those who use simple assessment. However, the grading quality of those who use detailed assessment criteria may not be as consistent as that of those who use simple assessment. In addition, the emphasis on either creativity or accuracy is related to simple or detailed assessment criteria. It is recommended to incorporate some aspects of simple assessment criteria to improve the consistency of the grading if an institution uses detailed assessment. If an institution uses simple assessment criteria, it is recommended to incorporate the clarity aspect of detailed assessment criteria.*

Keywords: Culture; detailed assessment criteria; higher education; Japanese language teaching; simple assessment criteria.

1. Introduction and Background

Does language assessment through the Institution-Wide Language Programmes (IWLP) provide students similar teaching and learning experiences studying in the UK? Institutions use different textbooks, different assessment modes and criteria and different cohort of students. The researcher taught Japanese at a STEM university in London and then moved to a non-STEM university in the South of England. It was found difficult to simply transfer the similar teaching approach used at a STEM university to a Non-STEM university, although Japanese are taught in the same context of IWLP. The influential factors which present difficulty in transferring the same teaching approach may be considered for assessment criteria and pedagogical or educational culture. So this study is guided by the following two Research Questions (RQs):

1. How different are the two assessment criteria? Is the assessment of students' work a subjective or objective process?
2. What kind of cultural influence can we observe from the two assessment criteria?

2. Framework for the study

Hofstede et al.'s (2010) Uncertainty Avoidance dimension and Hall's (1976) high- and low-context culture became the framework for this study.

2.1. Strong vs. Weak Uncertainty Avoidance culture

Hofstede et al.'s (2010) cultural taxonomy is introduced as this concept explains the relationship between pedagogy and culture. Among Hofstede et al.'s (2010) cultural taxonomy, uncertainty avoidance culture is related to this study. Hofstede et al.'s (2010) define uncertainty avoidance as 'the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations' (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 191). High Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) scoring countries need predictability and low UAI scoring nations are not concerned about unknown situations. The characteristics of Hofstede et al.'s (2010) strong uncertainty avoidance cultures are:

'students are comfortable with structured learning situations and concerned with right answers, precision and punctuality come naturally and fear of ambiguous situation and unfamiliar risks' (Hofstede, 1991, p. 125) and 'they [students] are expected to be rewarded for accuracy' (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 205).

Correct/right answer, precision, punctuality and accuracy are pedagogies of strong uncertainty avoidance culture. Students who are familiar with this educational culture are comfortable with one correct answer system and accuracy. In institutions where accuracy is valued and emphasised rather than creativity in language teaching and learning context, higher marks are given to students who use studied vocabulary and grammar correctly. Students are rewarded for the correct use of the taught vocabulary and grammar and are not expected to use vocabulary and grammar they have not been taught so they do not encounter uncertainty which contributes to a strong uncertainty avoidance educational culture.

On the other hand, those who prefer a Weak Uncertainty Avoidance culture are:

'comfortable with open-ended learning situations and concerned with good discussion. Precision and punctuality have to be learned and they are comfortable in ambiguous situation and with unfamiliar risks' (Hofstede, 1991, p. 125) and 'they (students) are expected to be rewarded for originality' (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 205).

Open-ended learning and open-ended questions are Weak Uncertainty Avoidance cultures, which value and reward originality and creativity. Weak Uncertainty Avoidance cultures prefer 'creativity/originality' and taking 'unfamiliar risks' (Hofstede, 1991, p. 125). Students who use vocabulary and grammar which they have never used before are considered 'taking risk' by language teachers in a Weak Uncertainty Avoidance cultures. Students who are familiar with weak uncertainty avoidance cultures are comfortable with unknown situations and taking risks by including various advanced vocabulary and grammar which they have

never been taught which is beyond their level. Institutions which value and emphasise creativity rather than accuracy, students' errors are tolerated. The tolerance of errors is associated with weak uncertainty avoidance culture. Institutions which value creativity overlook the basics.

To summarise, accuracy is the pedagogy of a strong Uncertainty Avoidance culture and creativity represents the pedagogy of weak Uncertainty Avoidance culture. The emphasis on either creativity or accuracy is an influential factor for students to focus on their assessment.

2.2. Writing/communication style and culture

Hall's (1976) high- and low-context culture is the second concept as it explains the relationship between the preferred writing/communication style and culture. Hall (1976, p. 79) defines 'high-context (HC) communication as 'very little is in the coded, explicit, transmitted part of the message' and 'HC cultures tend to use indirect, non-confrontational, and vague language, relying on the listener's or reader's ability to grasp the meaning from the context' (Hall, 1976, p. 84).

Not only Hall (1976), but also Charnock (2010) points out that: 'Confucian-heritage writers show respect for their readers by presenting material without spelling out its relevance and allowing the reader to draw inference from it' (Charnock, 2010). The producer of written assessment criteria at a STEM University is Japanese and that of a non-STEM University is British. According to Hall & Hall (1990), Japan is listed as one of HC context culture countries and England is not as high as Japan. Hall (1976) and Charnock's (2010) 'indirect and vague language' may be justified by Kaplan's (1966) analysis of thought pattern. Kaplan (1966) asserts that 'logic which is the basis of rhetoric, is evolved out of culture, is not universal' and analyses the writing of five different languages (English, Romance, Russian, Oriental and Semitic). Related to this study, Kaplan (1966) describes Oriental writing as 'turning and turning in a widening gyre' (Kaplan, 1966, p. 17) and summarises 'the approach of indirection' (Kaplan, 1966, p. 17). It is hypothesised that the assessment criteria produced by the Japanese is likely to have Japanese HC context cultural influence and use indirect and vague languages.

Varner & Beamer's (2005) suggests that Hall's HC context culture has close link to collectivist as follows:

'Information belongs to the group, not the individual. That way, individuals are linked together into a collective... In group-oriented cultures, what is known by one member of a group is known by all members of the group' (Varner & Beamer, 2005, p. 241).

It is also hypothesised that assessment criteria is shared with all the members of the group, which makes the standardisation of grading quality consistent across Japanese team in the group-oriented culture.

On the other hand, 'in low-context cultures, the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code' (Hall, 1976, p. 91) and 'low context cultures tend to use a more direct, confrontational, and explicit approach to ensure that the listener receives the message exactly as it was sent' (Hall, 1976, p. 84). Charnock (2010) also points out that 'in Anglo-Western academic culture, the writer is responsible for direct and explicit construction of meaning' (Charnock, 2010). English paragraph is 'never digressive' (Kaplan, 1966, p. 14) and 'the flow of ideas occurs in straight-line from opening to the last sentence' (Kaplan, 1966, p. 14). Kaplan's (1966)

analysis of English writing matches with the 'direct and explicit' approach claimed by Hall (1976) and Charnock (2010). It is hypothesised that the writing style of assessment criteria made by the British at a non-STEM uses direct and explicit language and low-context cultural influences. Low-context culture's close link to Individualist culture is shown as follows: 'in individual culture, what is known by one individual is not automatically the property of the group' (Varner & Beamer, 2005, p. 241) and 'information is owned by the individual and shared judiciously when the individual will benefit' (Varner & Beamer, 2005, p. 241) in the low-context cultures.

As the information is not shared in the individualist British culture, there is a difficulty to achieve consistent grading standard from all language teaching staff using assessment criteria produced by the British. However, the differences may be tolerated and accepted in British educational culture.

It is claimed that low-context culture is result-oriented (Varner & Beamer, 2005) and values 'activity that achieves goals' (Varner & Beamer, 2005, p. 239). Varner & Beamer (2005) give an example of low-context culture's result-oriented culture as a detailed job description. The idea of detailed job description may be transferable to apply to assessment criteria. Considering that job description in low-context culture including the UK is detailed (i.e. listing the applicants their specific expecting requirements in writing), assessment criteria may also reflect similar characteristics (i.e. listing an expected outcome of what students should achieve). It is hypothesised that the assessment criteria may also be detailed in British educational culture and that of high context culture may be simple, which is referred simple assessment criteria in this paper.

3. Methodology

3.1. Data Collection

Japanese language summative assessment's marking schemes were collected from two British universities: one from a British STEM university in London during 2016/2017 which also includes Medical students. This is referred 'University A'. Another from a non-STEM university in the South East of England during 2017/18. This is referred 'University B'. Both of them use convenient samples as the researcher was also a teacher at these universities.

Both marking schemes are from the beginner's level. The Japanese exam tests three skills in the final exam at both universities, that is, grammar, reading and writing. Marking schemes for written section was chosen as writing mark scheme could show large difference depending on institutions. University B's assessment criteria is written in English, which is freely available to anyone including students through the University's Virtual Learning Environment (VLE). University A's marking scheme was written in Japanese and is only available to Japanese language teachers who are involved with marking and grading. This marking scheme was written in Japanese and the researcher translated them into English for comparative purposes. University A's assessment criteria is not available to students.

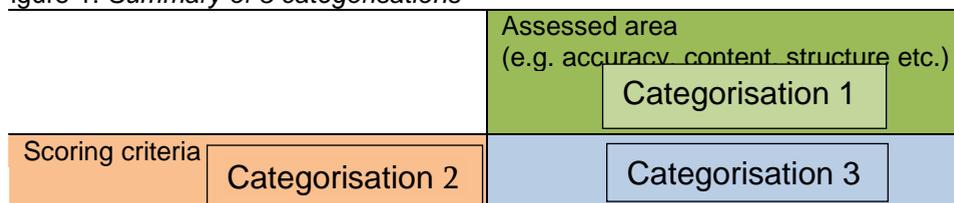
3.2. Data analysis

Data analysis is focused on three categorisations of the assessment criteria. They

are: 1) the criteria to be assessed (e.g. range, accuracy, purpose, content and structure, etc.). These criteria are referred to as 'Categorisation 1' in this paper; 2) the scoring criteria or scoring guide which ranges from 0 to 100%. This is named as 'Categorisations'; and 3) descriptions on how Categorisations 1 and 2 are related. This is called 'Categorisation 3' in Figures 1) and this is shown where Categorization 1 and 2 meet which describes the details of assessed criteria.

These three categorisations were chosen because they are the most commonly used by the majority of language teachers. When teachers award students' language accuracy, they usually give higher scores for accurate use of vocabulary and grammar while low marks for inaccurate vocabulary and grammar use. In awarding students marks, language teachers refer to the following three categorisations. Each institution usually sets its own Categorisation 3 which is often based on Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) descriptor. These three categorisations are compared to find similarities and differences in the following section.

Figure 1: Summary of 3 categorisations



4. Findings and discussion

This section discusses 1) Categorisation 1 (assessed criteria) 2) Categorisation 2 (scoring guide) and 3) Categorisation 3 (descriptions) of University A and B's assessment criteria. The tables allow the comparison of the similarity and differences easily.

4.1. Categorisation 1 (assessed criteria)

Table 1 summarises University A's and University B's assessed criteria.

University A	University B
1) Grammar & Structure No definition given	1) Structure & Coherence 'organisation within the text, sequence and balance'
2) Content & Organisation No definition given	2) Content 'choice & use of information', 'research' and 'understanding'
3) Spelling No definition given	3) Accuracy 'precision & control of grammar & vocabulary'
4) Vocabulary No definition given	4) Range 'breadth of use of grammar & vocabulary' and 'risk-taking'
	5) Purpose 'focus on the task', 'planning, organisation & collaboration' and 'effective communication'

Table 1

University A has four categories and University B has five. It is difficult to compare these categories named differently, especially, for example, University A uses a combined category called 'Grammar & Vocabulary', whereas University B uses a combined category called 'Structure & Coherence'. However, it is not impossible to compare them as comparable factors are identified as follows:

University A's 'grammar/structure' and University B's 'range' will be comparable.
 University A's 'Content & organisation' and University B's 'content' will be comparable.

University A's 'Spelling' and University B's 'Accuracy' will be comparable.

University A's 'Grammar & Structure' and University B's 'Structure & Coherence' will be comparable.

4.2. Categorisation 2 (scoring criteria and guide)

Table 2 summarises University A's and University B's scoring criteria and guide.

University A		University B
Exceptionally good. Very rare to give over 80%, (it is possible to give over 80% but only in rarely circumstances).	80+%	Excellent
Excellent. It is beyond expected average.	70-79%	Very competent
The average is 65%, which is expected that of the students achieve to be a satisfactory level (when students achieved the satisfactory). Between 60 and 64 % is what is called average. Between 66 and 69 % is above average. The majority of students may be awarded between 66 and 69 %.	60-69%	Competent
This is below average. These students need to work harder.	50-59%	Quite competent
40-40% is still a pass mark, but these students need to improve significantly.	40-49%	Adequate
If there are any students who are applicable to this case, please consult the coordinator.	20-39%	Needs more preparation
	0-19%	Insufficient preparation

Table 2

University B's scoring criteria appear simpler than that of University A's. The differences between University A and B are found between 60-69% in University

A's, which differentiates the average students into three categories: above average, average and below average. University A does not differentiate two bands below 30% while University B does. University A's comments such as 'it is possible to give over 80%, but in rare circumstances' or 'If there are any students who are applicable to this case (30s), please consult the coordinator' indirectly instruct the language teachers not to use them, which indicates Japanese high context culture.

4.3. Description of Categorisation 3

Categorisation 3 describes how the scores are awarded based on both universities' Categorisation 1. We will look at: 1) Vocabulary/Range; 2) Content & Organisation/Content; 3) Spelling/Accuracy; 4) Grammar & Structure/Structure & Coherence in this order.

1) Vocabulary/Range

Table 3 summarises University A's vocabulary and University B's range

University A: Vocabulary		University B: Range
Please check if the students use various studied vocabulary from L1-8. (Family terms, occupation, age, nationality, place and item names, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, time expression, katakana words).	80+%	Rich range of relevant vocabulary and structure.
	70-79%	Wide range of relevant vocabulary and structure.
	60-69%	Good range of relevant vocabulary. Appropriate structures used.
	50-59%	Quite good choice of vocabulary but gaps occur. Appropriate structures used with some success.
	40-49%	Vocabulary is sufficient to task but narrow. Restricted use of structures.
	20-39%	Limited range insufficient to task.
	0-19%	Insufficient.

Table 3

University A

University A calls this category 'Vocabulary' and this instruction represents simple assessment criteria. The only instruction is 'Please check if students use various learned vocabulary from L1-8'. It is less descriptive but its strength is the specific description written for specifically for this level.

University B

University B calls this category 'range' which is defined: 'breadth of use of Grammar & Vocabulary; and 'risk-taking'. As mentioned earlier, the use of word 'risk-taking' demonstrates weak Uncertainty Avoidance culture, which is valued in British educational cultural influence.

Unlike University A's description, University B provides a description of seven categories (80+, 70+, 60-69, 50-59, 40-49, 20-39, 0-19%) consistently, which is a

strength. It is applicable to any languages and is easy to follow for language teachers. However, since the assessment criteria are used to apply to all languages, its description is generic and interpretation may tend to be subjective depending on the languages and teacher. This point may present difficulty in standardising the quality of grading across all languages.

2) *Content & Organisation/Content*

Table 4 summarises University A's content/organisation and University B's content.

University A: Content/Organisation		University B: Content
The content is rich and interesting? At this level, students have limited vocabulary and grammar so the rich and interesting content may not be apparent. But those who use various learnt vocabulary and grammar points are usually rich and interesting enough. In other words, those who have a few mistakes but do not include various learnt vocabulary and grammar points are not so rich and interesting in content.	80+%	Content is highly appropriate, detailed and informative. Thorough treatment of the topic.
	70-79%	Content is appropriate and informative. Detailed treatment of the topic.
	60-69%	Content is appropriate. Good treatment of the topic.
	50-59%	Significant points are communicated. Some information may be irrelevant or repeated.
	40-49%	Some basic, relevant information is communicated. Frequent repetitions may occur.
	20-39%	Insufficient information.
	0-19%	No meaningful information is presented.

Table 4

University A

University A has a combined category which is called 'Content & Organisation'.

The instruction 'At this level, student have limited vocabulary and grammar so the rich and interesting content may not be apparent. But those who use various learnt vocabulary and grammar points are usually rich and interesting enough' indicates the link and duplication among 'Content', 'Grammar' and 'Vocabulary'.

The instruction below also implies the correlation between mark and the number of learnt 'Vocabulary' and 'Grammar'. The higher the score of 'Grammar' and 'Vocabulary', the higher the score of 'Content' is:

'In other words, those who use various learnt vocabulary and grammar points are usually rich and interesting enough. In other words, those who have a few mistakes but do not include various learned vocabulary and grammar points are not so rich and interesting in content.'

University B

University B calls this category 'Content' which is defined: 'Choice & Use of

information'; 'Research' and 'Understanding'. Unlike University A, it consistently provides information across all of the seven categories, which is a strength. As the assessment criteria are used to apply to all languages, the description is generic. Interpretation may tend to be subjective depending on the language and teachers, which may present difficulty in standardising the quality of grading across all languages.

3) *Spelling/Accuracy*

Table 5 summarises University A's spelling and University B's accuracy.

University A: Spelling		University B: Accuracy
	80+%	High level of accuracy in formulation (e.g. verb forms; common agreement) Excellent spelling and punctuation.
There are hardly any mistakes.	70-79%	Overall impression of accuracy; minor inaccuracies may occur. Errors may occur when complex structures are attempted. Very good spelling and punctuation.
There are mistakes but is acceptable, this is considered to be average.	60-69%	Occasional errors. Intended meaning is apparent. Good spelling and punctuation.
You can see quite a few mistakes. This is considered to be below average.	50-59%	Frequent minor errors. Intended meaning is generally apparent. Spelling and punctuation is fair.
There are many mistakes and students do not understand that basic grammar and writing rules.	40-49%	Frequent major and minor errors. Overall meaning is apparent but may at times be obscured. Punctuation is limited.
	20-39%	Major errors impede communication. Punctuation is extremely limited.
	0-19%	Insufficient.

Table 5

University A

University A calls this category 'spelling' which provides the description of only four bands (70+, 60-69, 50-59, and 40-49). This criteria also represents an example of University A's simple assessment criteria. The only description is the instruction 'Please check if students use various learned vocabulary from L1-8'.

University B

University B calls this category 'accuracy' which is defined: 'precision & control of grammar & vocabulary'. Unlike University A's description, it provides descriptions of seven categories (80+, 70+, 60-69, 50-59, 40-49, 20-39, 0-19%) consistently, which is a strength. However, as the assessment criteria are used to apply all languages, the description is generic and interpretation may tend to be subjective

depending on language and teachers, which may present difficulty in standardising the quality of grading across all languages.

4) *Grammar & Structure/Structure & Coherence*

Table 6 summarises University A's Grammar & Structure and University B's Structure & Coherence.

University A: Grammar & Structure		University B: Structure & Coherence
Please check if the students have used studied grammar correctly and included various grammar points. You may also include particle mistakes in this category. Please write down all the correct grammar underneath the grid papers. By doing so, you will see how many grammar points students used and the variety of their usages. This also helps the second markers to mark.	80+%	Information is clear, well-ordered and developed.
	70-79%	Information is developed, ordered and clear.
	60-69%	Overall, information is clearly presented.
	50-59%	Some order may be evident but is inconsistent.
	40-49%	Information lacks order.
	20-39%	Disorganised and illogical.
	0-19%	None.

Table 6

University A names this category 'Grammar & Structure'. It is specifically written for the beginner's level and provides a list of relevant learnt vocabulary and grammar structures (i.e. 'name, affiliation, nationality and age', are the details of what students should include in their self-introduction) for writing their self-introduction.

University A is focused on correct grammar as it says 'Please check if students have used studied grammar correctly...' The instruction continues on 'plus point' and emphasis on 'correctness'. This implies the control in detail and the correct answers, which is preferred in a strong Uncertainty Avoidance culture.

'Grammar & Structure' description also gives specific instruction to language teachers as follows:

'write down all grammar points which are used correctly at the bottom of grid papers...it is helpful for the second markers to underline in red where students used incorrect grammar, but you don't have to correct them as students do not see these scripts'.

The coordinator asks indirectly all colleagues to take the same procedure as the coordinator, which shows HC culture. By asking language teacher to take the same procedure as the coordinator makes the quality of grading/markings consistent and standardised. This indicates collectivist culture:

'individuals are linked together into a collective... In group-oriented cultures, what is known by one member of a group is known by all members of the group' (Varner & Beamer, 2005, p. 241).

The below instruction which says first marker's awarded marks will be checked by a second marker indirectly instruct language teachers to prepare to justify their awarded marks, which show HC culture:

'write down all grammar points which are used correctly at the bottom of grid papers. By doing so, you will see how many grammar points students used and the variety of their usages. This also helps the second markers to mark.'

It is surmised that University A started using quantitative method for justification purposes. In order to justify their marks, this is how each Japanese language teachers do involving three stages:

- 1) The first marker has to count how many grammar and vocabulary mistakes are in each student's essay writing and record the number to justify their marks awarded;
- 2) Taking into account the numbers of the highest (Maximum) and the lowest (Minimum) students' number of mistakes, the average number of mistakes is determined by the first marker;
- 3) Based on the maximum, minimum and average number of mistakes, the benchmark is created by the first marker.

From these three stages, it is possible to say that the simple assessment criteria are not very subjective as descriptive statistics are used. To make descriptive statistics, each teacher has to find out Maximum, Minimum and Average to create their own benchmark. Unfortunately, the benchmark alters every time writing assignments are marked and graded. As University A sets six essay writing assignments in a year, it takes up a large amount of the teachers' time for grading in addition to their teaching and marking.

University B

University B calls this category 'Structure & Coherence' which is defined: 'organisation within the text: logic; sequence; balance'. Providing information consistently on all categories except 0-19% band is strength. The descriptions of the scoring guide of University B seem to be generic to apply to any level and language. This description may be written for advanced as the 'information' for beginners' level may not be suitable. The first markers may find it difficult to differentiate the descriptions, for example, among 'information is clear', 'information is developed, ordered and clear' and 'information is clearly presented'. This could be why grading may tend to become subjective.

5. Conclusions

A brief review of the RQs will enable to summarise as the key conclusions of this study. The conclusions consider answering the following three questions in the study:

1. What kind of cultural influence can we observe from two assessment criteria?

The cultural influences are analysed from following three dimensions: a) high vs. low context culture, individualist vs. collectivist culture and c) strong vs. weak Uncertainty Avoidance culture. University A's assessment criteria have both high-context and collectivist cultural influences as well as emphasis on accuracy which is preferred in the strong uncertainty avoidance cultures. University B's assessment criteria have both low-context and individualist cultural influences as well as emphasis on creativity which is preferred in weak Uncertainty Avoidance culture.

2. How different are the two assessment criteria? Is assessment of students' work subjectively or objectively?

Categorisation 3 was the most different among the three. University B's assessment criteria provide more consistent and detailed descriptions (names detailed assessment criteria) in categorization 3, whereas those of University A's are simple (named simple criteria) overall compared to University B.

It was concluded that University A's detailed assessment criteria may be easier for language teachers to award students' marks than using that of University B's simple assessment criteria. In addition, University B's detailed assessment criteria are easier to justify students' awarded marks to the second markers and external markers than using simple assessment criteria.

The strength of detailed assessment criteria is the clarity of the standard to anyone involved with the assessment including students, teachers and institutions as well as second markers and external examiners. Furthermore, detailed assessment criteria are not as time-consuming to grade students' marks for the first marker as they do not need to create the benchmark. The weakness of detailed assessment criteria is subjective element, which could affect the quality of assessment.

The weakness of simple assessment criteria could be time-consuming, creating additional work for the first markers. In this study, teachers at University A use the quantitative method to justify their awarded marks to the second and external markers, which allows to assess objectively. However, the strength of the simple assessment criteria is the quality of the assessments among all colleagues, making grading more standardised and consistent.

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STAFF SUPPORT FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION – A CASE OF LANGUAGE AND CONTENT TEACHERS COLLABORATION

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Abstract: *In the context of growing efforts for becoming more international and, hence, more attractive for staff and students worldwide, higher education institutions implement and support English Medium Instruction (EMI) and try to enhance visibility of research results through publishing in English. The resources necessary for this successful enterprise include a teaching and research staff highly proficient in using English both for teaching subjects other than English and writing materials based on research. The general context of EMI can be further complicated by local factors which add to the complex puzzle of forces that shape higher education today. The present paper describes and analyzes the case of a Romanian higher education institution which, although offering English taught programs for over a decade in several engineering fields, has only recently decided to reconsider the needs of the EMI teaching and research staff and to provide ongoing support, with the view of increasing quality of EMI education and also of adding new programs taught in English. The recent support program consists of three components: language courses focused on speaking and listening skills and on grammar-discourse features of written texts, pedagogy-focused workshops and a one-to-one tutoring support for editing and improving the accuracy and readability of research-related texts to be published in English. The components were implemented as an integrated system which has fostered collaboration between language and content teachers involved in EMI. Informing each other in both practice and research, EMI and TESOL (here represented mostly by English for Specific Purposes) form a productive symbiosis when all stakeholders are involved. The implications of such cases can be consequential for the further development of support programs for EMI teaching and research staff, based on specific needs of local EMI communities of practice and on principles derived from the language and content teachers' collaboration.*

Keywords: English Medium Instruction, internationalization, ELT/ESP, higher education, language support

1. Introduction

The increased connectedness, interdependence and interaction of groups and their activities, called globalization, have led in the higher education sector to the

process of internationalization as a means to the end of going global. Often mentioned together as driving forces in trends that shape higher education at present, globalization and internationalization have been misperceived as synonymous. Advocating for a process-oriented view on both concepts, Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley define internationalization as the “specific policies and programs undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments” (2009: 23). As Yeravdekar & Tiwari observe, engaging as global players higher education institutions (HEIs) need the competitive advantage of internationalization in order “to be partakers in the global marketplace of higher education as well as the multinational job market” (2014: 204).

The role of education providers and the responsibility for competitive skills formation of HEIs are primarily directed towards students. However, HEIs which adopt internationalization policies have a responsibility to support and provide skills and competencies for their staff, too, if international programs and curricula are to be implemented. For most HEIs, internationalization means the adoption of English Medium Instruction (henceforward EMI) whether in full (entire programs taught in English) or partially (where only some courses are offered in English). The comprehensive studies of Mayworm and Wachter (2002, 2008, 2014) showed that the number of English taught programs in Europe grew exponentially, a trend in line with recent global developments (Dearden, 2015). Each HEI committed to an internationalization policy and, hence, to offering an ever increasing number of courses and programs in English must carefully consider the necessary resources to successfully carry out such enterprise without lowering the quality standards of its education. The human resource willing and able to teach courses in English is the most important and the most valuable, but, as research has so often revealed, is also hard to find. Proofs to the fact that HEIs underestimated this challenge, notably in relation to the teaching staff, are studies such as Dearden’s (2015) which revealed a lack of enough qualified teachers (83.6% of all respondents in 55 countries). In Europe the situation was different according to Lam and Wächter (2014) who report in their study that the overwhelming majority of EMI program directors considered the proficiency of the EMI teachers as good or very good. When it comes to EMI teaching staff’s opinions, many, however, indicate less confidence in their ability to teach successfully in English (Borsetto & Schug, 2016; Macaro et al, 2018) or even negative feelings due to having no choice but teach through English (Costa & Coleman, 2013).

Given these unfolding challenges, HEIs had to offer support to the EMI teaching staff and more and more professional development schemes developed, even though they were not embedded from the very beginning in the EMI implementation policies. Typically, three areas are covered by support programs for EMI teaching staff: English language proficiency, intercultural communication skills, and pedagogical training, although the focus and emphasis of various programs may vary (e.g. language-centered support vs pedagogy-centered).

This study presents the case of a Romanian HEI – The Technical University of Cluj-Napoca - which, although offering English taught programs for over a decade

in several engineering fields, has only recently decided to reconsider the needs of the EMI teaching and research staff and provide ongoing support, with the view of increasing quality of EMI education and of adding new programs taught in English.

2. Context and methods

In many respects, the adoption of internationalization measures such as EMI implementation at all three cycles (Bachelor's, Master's and PhD studies) in Romanian HEIs has gone through the same stages as in most countries of the European Higher Education Area. Nevertheless, several aspects of the national and university policy on EMI are specific to the Romanian context.

The first is part of the national law regulating higher education, which states that all courses in an undergraduate or postgraduate program of studies must be in the same language. If the program is in a foreign language, it has to run parallel with the same specialization in Romanian. The impact of this stipulation is that, when a HEI decides to implement EMI courses, it has to do so with an entire program of studies and cannot offer only several courses in English for the students of a specialization. The other consequence is that a HEI must employ considerable human resources to staff both the programs in Romanian and the EMI ones. The ideal practice (also the most cost effective) is to have the same lecturers to teach a course both in Romanian (for the Romanian medium program) and in English.

The second peculiarity of the Romanian higher education context is that most teaching staff is also involved in research and is expected to publish on their research activity and results. As Corcoran, Englander & Muresan (forthcoming) note, "the *publish or perish* adage has been revised to *publish in English or perish* in many parts of the world". This puts extra pressure on researchers to acquire a high level of English language proficiency as well as of disciplinary discourse in English.

With these constraints at national level, HEIs that implement EMI must find the teaching staff to both teach in English their courses and be able to publish in English. The desire to maintain a high quality standard of education under such circumstances has compelled providers of EMI in Romanian higher education to design and offer support for their staff for teaching and publishing in English. The measure is similar with trends elsewhere, such as those reported in Tuomainen (2018), Helm&Guarda (2017) and Banks (2017).

After running a support course for EMI teaching staff as a first measure to foster English language proficiency as well as raise awareness of specific pedagogical needs of teaching in English (Munteanu, forthcoming) a year ago, the TUC-N set itself a more ambitious target, that of making support courses an integrated professional development program. In the following section the design and impact of these courses will be described. The post-course feedback, as well as discussions during the activities constitute the data analyzed here with a qualitative approach focused on how the lessons learnt can feed forward into the support components being developed and offered continuously in the TUC-N.

The first course for EMI teaching staff, run in the previous academic year, was called *English as a Medium of Instruction for Teaching Staff* and had a twofold focus: on English language and on elements of pedagogy for teaching in English. Based on its feedback and on the post-course evaluation, the new support program, offered a year later, branched out into two language teaching course and two workshops on EMI pedagogy. Additionally, a one-to-one tutoring system was set up to assist researchers in editing, proofreading and improving the language of research papers or other written (teaching/research related) materials they produced in English.

The participants were EMI lecturers with a range of experience in teaching in English from under one year to over ten years. A total of 26 lecturers participated to the language modules and of these, 13 participated to the workshops. The difference in numbers is due to previous commitments some of the staff had which prevented them from attending. The one-to-one sessions for improving written text were organized as pre-booked meetings (via an online application).

The language modules focused on a set of skills, one on listening and speaking, the other on language structures (morphology/syntax) and discourse (genre features, style, etc.).

The pedagogical aspects of teaching in English were the subject of separate sessions organized as workshops. The rationale for the workshop was to offer the participants a format conducive to pooling ideas, opinions, and personal practice suggestions for improvement in the area of teaching in English.

Participants to each of these components completed feedback forms (questionnaires) at the end of the course/tutoring sessions. Additionally, a session of reflection on activities carried out and on own learning was organized in each course/workshop. Participants shared their attitudes and opinions on whether their English improved, how and what can be done next. Although the data collected is not quantitatively relevant to lead to generalizable conclusions, they can offer a fairly comprehensive view on the outcomes of this support system for EMI lecturers, when viewed from a qualitative approach.

3. Results and discussion

Although separate units, these three components were designed to be an integrated system of language and pedagogy support for EMI lecturers in the TUC-N.

Informed by the previous year course and by research into English as a lingua franca (ELF) in academia (Mauranen, 2010), the language modules targeted areas such as intelligibility (rather than accent) of non-native English pronunciation, adaptive processes (accommodation) or negotiation of meaning (Cogo & Dewey, 2012) and active listening for note-taking to raise awareness about students' comprehension needs in EMI – an additional English for specific purposes (ESP) focus. The participants rated highest the scope and the targeted practice of the language modules, both in the post-teaching feedback (satisfaction questionnaires) and the in-class evaluative discussions, stating that the content catered for their

specific needs related to teaching their subjects in English. They appreciated the specific narrow-focus of the courses (as opposed to general English language courses) as being the most effective way of improving their communicative skills necessary for successful teaching and research in an EMI context.

The pedagogy focused workshops brought into discussion topics such as planning materials to ensure comprehension of content delivered in English, strategies for effective teaching and assessment planning. The lecturers were asked to reflect on their own practices when teaching in English, identify challenges and share their experience in pairs or in group activities.

These sessions were meant to be rather exploratory in nature, to stimulate self-reflection and the sharing of ideas and strategies for effective teaching in English. The feedback to these consisted of post-session discussions as well as open-ended questions (in the program evaluation questionnaire) inviting participants to detail what they found useful and consequential for their teaching in English.

The gains identified by the participants included:

- the sense of community of practice developed during these sessions, which allowed them to express freely their concerns, to share solutions, to assess presented solutions and attempt generalizations as a means of creating an inventory of best-practice samples for recurrent teaching/learning situations they encounter;
- the awareness-raising value of discussion;
- the resources (ideas, teaching strategies/techniques described in the discussions, further readings) produced during the sessions.

Several aspects cropped up as challenges which should be addressed in the future by professional development programs for EMI teaching staff:

- the lack of previous pedagogical training for teaching in English, and/or insufficient relevance of the training (if any) they received for teaching in English;
- the need to improve their English language proficiency to be able to employ a wider range of teaching/communication techniques to foster students' learning;
- the need to share experience on a regular basis during teaching career to self-monitor own development.

The one-to-one tutoring system was meant to be a 'clinic' for research related materials the staff needs to produce and publish in English. It consisted of meetings between authors and a language specialist whose purpose was to review and improve the accuracy of texts and eliminate lexical, grammatical and rhetorical errors. However, as opposed to other systems where a text is simply sent to a language reviewer for editing and proofreading, the format of this activity had also a pedagogical component built into it. The texts produced/translated into English by the authors went first through an initial evaluation process whereby the authors themselves had to identify the sections/paragraphs which posed the most challenges from the point of view of the linguistic resources needed to convey a certain message. These sections/paragraphs were the focus of the one-to-one tutoring sessions. If during the discussion the authors felt the need to review the

whole material together with the language specialist, they did so. The editing process was carried out jointly by the author and the language specialist, which ensured content was accurately conveyed and all language errors were corrected and explained. Increased attention was given to recurrent errors with a view to raise awareness about possible fossilization of errors (Selinker & Lakshmanan, 1993) and to suggest remedial action. In the feedback questionnaires all respondents stated they were satisfied with the outcome of the session as they fulfilled their objective of improving the accuracy and readability of their texts. All reviewed texts were published in international journals and were not returned to the authors on language related grounds after peer-reviewing. When asked to identify the most useful aspect of the one-to-one sessions, authors mentioned the interactive and collaborative nature of the activity, the learning-oriented component through which they felt they gained more confidence as writers, and the awareness about the recurrent nature of some errors.

Several aspects of research writing seemed to pose difficulties to most authors (e.g. the use of connectors, passive/active appropriate choice, use of personal pronouns for author reference, wordiness, hedgers, etc.). Samples of these occurrences were collected from the reviewed texts and used in the language class for the EMI lecturers as starting point for practice targeting a variety of lexical-grammatical and rhetorical aspects of research discourse. They supply authentic material for language learning in the EMI context and were appreciated by the EMI lecturers participating to these course for their precise-target language practice.

Although with limited breadth, the connection established between the one-to-one reviewing sessions for researchers and the language courses for EMI lecturers described here (often the same people as in the Romanian HE context lecturers are also researchers) can support the view that EMI, in which language development is rarely a priority or a learning objective, and ESP/TESOL should be more tightly connected. As Pecorari & Malmstrom have recently showed, "[...] if EMI and TESOL are not obvious companions they can exist in a very natural symbiosis, and can potentially inform each other, both in research and in practice" (2018:497).

The three-part language support system for EMI teaching and research staff in the TUC-N aimed at improving the quality of teaching and writing in EMI and research. Successful outcomes were identified on a professional, personal and institutional level. Participants developed their professional profile by improving their chances of publishing in English and increasing the quality of their teaching in English. Incorporating activities that promote reflection on own English language performance and awareness raising, participants gained autonomy in specific-purposes language learning. From the point of view of the institution in search of quality in internationalization, the TUC-N fostered close collaboration between language teachers and subject lecturers/researchers involved in EMI. Needs related to the latter's teaching and research activities in English were more accurately identified and, part of them, catered for. English language teachers have become more involved in supporting the institutional efforts to become more international.

4. Conclusion

As a growing international university, the TUC-N, a major Romanian HEI, implemented a support program for the teaching and research staff involved in English medium instruction. With a previous one-year experience of an English language course which combined pedagogy and language practice, the recent program offered three components: language courses focused on speaking/listening and grammar-discourse, pedagogy-focused workshops and a one-to-one tutoring support for editing and improving the accuracy and readability of research-related texts to be published in English. The components were implemented as an integrated system and fostered collaboration between language and content teachers involved in EMI. Each informed the others in order to better define the specific needs of EMI lecturers and researchers in a local context but with international aspirations. The pedagogy-focused workshops raised awareness about common practices in teaching in English, generated solutions to shared difficulties and could be the foundation of a community of practice. The language courses and one-to-one tutoring session for text improvement contributed to language development and specific purposes language practice, through the shared understanding of specific needs.

EMI related activities, whether pedagogical or research-oriented, constantly pose challenges to users of English in this specific context. Using these challenges and practices reported by a growing community of EMI lecturers in the university, English language teachers can design focused support where EMI is not only the context but also informs language teaching on the target situation of language use. A largely unexplored area, the dynamics of EMI and TESOL/ESP symbiosis (Pecorari&Malmstrom, op.cit.) can offer ground for further answers to questions such as what makes support for EMI effective and more principle-based.

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COMMUNICATION SKILLS WHICH INCREASE STUDENTS' EMPLOYABILITY: ARE WE TEACHING THE SKILLS THEY NEED?

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Abstract: *Communication skills are among the top generic (soft) skills required by employers today worldwide. The major question this paper strives to answer is: what are the real work related communication skills that university students need to develop? It also focuses on determining the extent to which these needs match the objectives listed in the ESP for Business courses syllabi offered at the Language Centre (LC) at the South East European University (SEEU) in the R. Macedonia. At present at the LC at SEEU the same syllabi and the same teaching materials are used for teaching Business English to full-time undergraduate students with no previous working experience and to part-time undergraduate students, majority of whom are employed and have previous working experience. Currently, most emphasis in these courses is placed on developing speaking as a skill at the expense of slightly neglecting the development of business writing as a skill. This paper summarizes and reports on the findings from a small scale field research surveying the work-related communication needs of 20 employed undergraduate part-time students attending basic skills English courses at the LC at the SEEU as preparation for subsequent ESP for Business courses. An anonymous questionnaire was used as the main data collection instrument. The survey revealed that interpersonal oral communication was ranked as number one priority by the participants. This practical research paper rooted in the author's daily teaching practise should be of interest to ESP for Business teachers constantly revising and improving the syllabi striving to create an ESP for Business course tailored to their students' real needs.*

Keywords: ESP for Business; communication skills; soft skills; SEEU; employability

1. Introduction

Being able to fluently and competently communicate in English has become an essential prerequisite for getting a job. Consequently, developing transferrable generic skills and competences relevant to the labour market, with special attention to communication as a skill, has become an important target for higher education institutions worldwide.

At present, at the Language Centre (LC) at South East European University (SEEU) in the R. Macedonia the same syllabi and teaching materials are used for teaching Business English to full-time undergraduate students with no previous

working experience and to part-time undergraduate students, majority of whom are employed and have previous working experience.

This paper summarizes and reports on the findings from a small scale field research surveying the communication needs of working undergraduate part-time students attending General English courses at the LC at the SEEU, before attending ESP for Business Courses in subsequent semesters. The major question this paper strives to answer is: what are the real work related communication skills that university students need to develop? The study also focuses on determining the extent to which these needs match the objectives listed in the ESP for Business courses syllabi offered at LC at SEEU.

The findings from this survey and the input from the already employed students shall hopefully not only shed some light on the issue, but also be fed into subsequent ESP for Business Courses, which would help to revise the present syllabi and improve the teaching materials currently being used to better prepare the inexperienced full-time students for their future and make them more competitive on the job market.

2. Literature review

The literature suggests that generic, soft or employability skills are different from technical, professional or hard skills. They are considered complementary to the technical skills which are required for successful completion of tasks related to certain working posts. In other words, generic skills are the very skills essential for obtaining employment, performing successfully and retaining employment. Audu (*et al.*) point out that "unlike occupational or technical skills, generic skills are common in nature rather than job specific" (2014, p.40). Generic skills are transferrable and applicable in a wide variety of business lines, business sizes and job levels, starting from entry all the way up to senior managing positions. Down (2012 in Audu *et al.* 2014) points out that generic skills are in fact not related to technical or academic performance but are more related to the traditional notion of intelligence and emotional intelligence. Among the top such skills are communication and interpersonal skills, managing resources, team work, problems resolution, obtaining and retaining a working post. The generic skills enable ethical, reflective, innovative and proactive operation in the globalized world.

Kallioinen (2010) reports that in Finland, which is considered a leader in the field of education in general not just in higher education, the generic competences aimed to be obtained in undergraduate studies are specified at national level and include: studying, ethical, communicative, social, organizational as well as internationalization competences.

Regarding the skills required on the Macedonian labour market, in a study conducted by the World Bank, Rutkowski (2009) points out that the employees lack more "soft" rather than "hard" or technical skills. He recommends that this gap should be filled in primarily through reform in the education system so as to reduce unemployment. This study lists communication as one of the soft skills which is

missing. Apart from communication, the study recommends developing the following soft skills: responsibility and reliability, motivation and devotion, care for customers, literacy, team work, problem solving, using information technologies, planning and organising and foreign languages. Developing these soft skills is required to enable the students to be competitive on the labour market.

The whole Bologna process and the on-going reforms in higher education are directed primarily towards enhancing graduates' overall employability. The primary goal of Universities today is producing skilled workforce tailored according to the needs of the labour market. In fact, the efficiency of higher education depends on the cooperation between education institutions and the labour market. The concept of the so-called *smart specialisation* echoes throughout the process of reforming and restructuring higher education not only in the Republic of Macedonia but in Europe in general with the main aim to ensure solid knowledge and skills applicable in practice. Smart specialisation, promoted by the European Commission as part of Europe's 2020 strategy, is based on a firm partnership among the business, public sector and knowledge institutions with the aim to design and implement research strategies and innovative investment strategies. The cooperation among the three parties involved (business, public sector and knowledge institutions) offers clear and relevant information and guidelines for attaining the required characteristics of future graduates dictated by the labour market (for more details on *Smart Specialisation* see *EU Science Hub* at <https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/en/research-topic/smart-specialisation>). These guidelines and information should be reflected not only in the curricula and syllabi but also in the teaching process at higher education institutions.

3. Field research

This section of the paper focuses on the small-scale field research conducted at the Language Centre (LC) at South East European University (SEEU) and offers details about the participants, data collection instrument and context where the research was conducted. The results from the field research are also presented and discussed in this section.

The major question this paper strives to answer is whether the same books should be used for pre-work and in-work students who have professional working experience. This is the case now, but the question whether the book used really matches the part-time students' real work related language needs remains unanswered and under-researched. The paper attempts to resolve if the soft skills, primarily communication skills, we teach at SEEU are relevant to the needs dictated by the job market.

The research was conducted with the aim that the findings could provide useful guidance for materials selection and evaluation for future ESP courses thus help students improve their communicative competence.

3.1 Participants and questionnaire

Participants in this survey were 20 employed, undergraduate, part-time students who were attending a General English course at the LC at the SEEU in the summer semester of the academic 2018, before attending subsequent ESP for Business courses. The syllabi and main coursebook used for ESP for Business courses attended by part-time students are identical to the ones used with the full time, unemployed students.

The main coursebook used is *Business Result Intermediate* published by Oxford University Press which is advertised as a book for both pre-work and in-work students. The book is considerably more speaking oriented at the expense of slightly neglecting the development of business writing as a skill. Reading and listening are not dealt with as skills since the main task of the reading and listening passages is to introduce the topic and present new target vocabulary in context. At first glance, the book appears to be primarily intended for students who already have some working experience since in the speaking and experience sharing exercises it asks them to discuss their present employment experience. However, most, if not all the questions, can be easily adapted to pre-experienced students. In each unit of this coursebook there is a *Business Communication Skills* section in which key expressions for socialising, attending meetings, exchanging and presenting information are presented. Under *socialising* the language for introductions, explaining what one does, welcoming visitors and planning future contacts is presented and practised. As far as *meetings* are concerned, the language needed for updating and delegating tasks, presenting and discussing plans, making suggestions and recommendations, participating in discussions, appraising performance and setting objectives as well as useful language for reporting back is presented and practised. The useful language for *exchanging information* is focused on exchanging contact information and discussing leisure, making and changing arrangements, placing and handling orders and discussing problems. Under *presenting* useful language for explaining how something works, comparing old and new, explaining changes and asking about them and giving a formal presentation is covered. The key expressions presented in this section of the coursebook are intended to help students learn to clearly express themselves in work related situations.

The main data collection instrument used for this research was an anonymous questionnaire that consisted of 11 questions. The questionnaire, which was designed for this specific research, aimed to establish the nature of the workplace communication for the employed part-time students and sought information on the importance of communication, the people the respondents communicate with and the forms that communication takes in the workplace. Questions 1-4 were designed for gathering demographic information about gender, years of working experience and area of employment, while questions 5-11 focused on the frequency of the target language use, ranking the four language skills by importance, specifying the most common communication partners, specifying the main language tasks required from the participants and personal ranking of the four language skills according to their level of difficulty.

The questionnaire used with the answers given is presented in Appendix 1.

3.2 Results and findings

11(eleven) out of the 20 (twenty) respondents who participated in the study were male and 9 (nine) were female. In terms of years of working experience, equal number of participants, more precisely (7) seven, had from 1-3 years of working experience or more than 5 years of working experience; 4 (four) of them fell in the less than a year working experience group and only two (two) students had from 3 to 5 years of experience.

It was not insisted on ensuring an equal number of participants from each gender and years of working experience were also not equally distributed in the total number of respondents since these two variables were not considered important factors for gaining an insight into students' real, day-to-day communication needs at work.

In terms of the line of business, four of the respondents reported working in catering, three in a police station, two respondents were employed in the government/parliament, two in healthcare (one nurse and one in dentistry), two in trade companies (one for clothes and one for food); two in production companies (for clothes and technical equipment), one respondent was in accounting, one in a secondary school, one in marketing and communications, one in a market research agency and one in a public transport company.

Majority of respondents, 13 (thirteen) all in all, reported actively using English at work. More precisely, six (6) reported using English every day and seven (7) claimed using English sometimes.

When asked to rank the four language skills by importance, most of the respondents hesitated between speaking and listening and were asking if they can rank two skills under number 1, which is understandable since when involved in communication they are both speakers and listeners.

The respondent whose job involves applying for grants listed writing as top most important skill to be developed. Apart from vocabulary, this book is not of much use and assistance for this particular student. Luckily, he is a minority in the group surveyed. The vast majority of the respondents, more precisely sixteen (16) out of twenty(20) ranked speaking as their number one i.e. as the most important skill for the work they perform.

Most of the respondents reported communicating primarily within their own company with colleagues at the same level on the hierarchy ladder (n=15); communicating primarily with clients from other countries (n=17), both native and non-native (n=14). In five of the cases English serves as lingua franca since these respondents communicate in English with speakers whose native language is other than English (German, Turkish, Greek) .

In terms of specifying the forms of workplace communication, almost equal number of respondents reported talking to clients face-to-face (n=14) and speaking on the phone (n=15); 10 (ten) listed making business presentations; 9 (nine) reported being involved in business correspondence; 6 (six) stated participating in meetings with colleagues; 3 (three) claimed to be socializing in English and one (1) added

applying for grants. Most frequently used form of workplace communication turned out to be interpersonal communication, both face-to-face and on the phone.

With reference to the last question, which asked respondents to rank the skills according to their level of difficulty, seven (7) respondents listed speaking as the most difficult skill, eight listed writing as number one on their personal list whereas five ranked listening as their number one. None of the respondents ranked reading as their number one i.e. as most difficult skill to deal with.

4. Conclusion

Although small-scale, this field research has provided invaluable data on the required workplace communication skills of employed part-time undergraduate students. This research discovers that the oral performances are central in daily practices of the respondents surveyed, which implies that students require instruction in oral skills, primarily interpersonal communication. It is also evident that all respondents who participated in the field research are aware of the importance of speaking and place greatest attention to speaking as a skill.

The main coursebook used in this specific context does develop the communication skills most of the respondents need, with the exception of writing which is neglected as a skill. Half of the respondents interviewed, nine (9) who reported having to correspond in English and one (1) respondent having to apply for grants would need to rely on additional, supplementary materials to learn, practise and develop the skills required in their working posts.

Even if the book was a complete match with the students' needs which is almost never the case with any ESP course, it is preferable to include the students' working life reality as much as time and other course specific constraints allow. Students themselves with all their know-how and first-hand experience should be included in the selection of supplementary materials. The main coursebook should only serve as framework teaching material whereas the supplementary materials such as documents and other realia should be provided by the students themselves. The real-life, work related materials can better serve not only for increasing the proficiency level but also for developing the essential business related generic skills.

It is up to us, lecturers, to raise students' awareness of the vital importance of generic skills, especially communication and communicative competence. In general, part-time, work experienced students tend to take a more serious approach to learning English when compared to their inexperienced colleagues. They also display greater understanding of the importance of their personal involvement and contribution to the language learning process. Consequently, they should be more eager to actively participate in the materials selection and in general decision making regarding the learning process.

This kind of survey, asking students to reflect on their specific work related needs, should serve as a beginning of course needs analysis. Having specified the needs,

as a follow up the students should reflect on the best ways for matching the needs identified which automatically enhances their learning and helps develop autonomy that positively affects both personal and professional development and growth. Provided they are willing and interested, students should be actively involved in the process of materials provision and selection.

Although the generic skills are considered to be easily transferrable, their transfer from one context to another can be demanding and challenging especially in contexts where people from different cultural and social backgrounds must work together, as is the case in international businesses nowadays. It is best if the development of generic competences can be directly linked to a real employment context (Kallioinen, 2010). This can and should be achieved in the ESP for Business courses at the LC at SEEU since the main coursebook used supports adaptations, the class size allows for modifications and the online component of courses at SEEU realized through Google Classroom enables using a variety of supplementary materials and assigning individualized, tailor-made tasks and assignments for students.

The findings obtained from this research and the input from the already employed students will hopefully be fed into subsequent ESP for Business Courses at SEEU and used as guidance for revision of current syllabi and improvement of teaching materials to better prepare the inexperienced, undergraduate, full-time students, help them develop communicative competence and thus become more competitive on the labour market.

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Appendix 1 Questionnaire with answers provided

1. Gender: a) Female **9** b) Male **11**
2. Are you employed? a) Yes **20** b) No **0**
3. How long is your working experience?
 - a) less than 1 year **4**
 - b) 1 to 3 years **7**
 - c) 3 to 5 years **2**
 - d) more than 5 years **7**
4. Which area are you employed in:
 - a) Government/Parliament **2**
 - b) Ministry (please specify which _____)
 - c) Municipality (please specify which _____)
 - d) Police (please specify: **station**.) **3**
 - e) Healthcare (please specify: **1 nurse;1 dentistry**) **2**
 - f) Trade company (please specify: **clothes; food**) **2**
 - g) Production company (please specify: **clothes, technical equipment**) **2**
 - h) Agriculture
 - i) Accounting **1**
 - j) Education (please specify: **secondary school**;) **1**
 - k) Marketing and Communications **1**
 - l) Market research **1**
 - m) Catering (hotel, motel, restaurant, café) **4**
 - n) Public Transport **1**
 - o) Other (please specify) _____
5. How often do you use English at work?
 - a) every day **6**
 - b) once a week **2**
 - c) sometimes **7**
 - d) rarely **5**
 - e) never **0**
6. Which skill is most important for your work?
(Please rank them from 1 to 4; 1=most important and 4= least important)
 - a) Speaking **ranked as 1 by 16 respondents**
 - b) Writing **ranked as 1 by 1 respondent**
 - c) Reading **ranked as 1 by 1 respondent**
 - d) Listening **ranked as 1 by 2 respondent**

7. Who do you usually speak English with? (more than one answer is possible)
- a) colleagues at the same level as you **15**
 - b) colleagues who have higher position in the company than you **7**
 - c) colleagues who have lower position in the company than you **2**
8. Who do you usually speak English with? (more than one answer is possible)
- a) colleagues from your company **4**
 - b) colleagues from other companies **4**
 - c) clients from your country **4**
 - d) clients from other countries **17**
9. People you speak English with are:
- a) native speakers of English (English, American, Australian) **1**
 - b) non-native speakers of English **5**
 - c) both **14**
10. When communicating in English which of the following do you do: (more than one answer is possible)
- a) Making presentations **10**
 - b) Business correspondence (writing letters , faxes, e-mails, memos, agenda, action minutes and reports) **9**
 - c) Participating in conversations / Socializing in English **3**
 - d) Participating in meetings with colleagues **6**
 - e) Talking to clients face –to-face **14**
 - f) Phone conversations **15**
 - g) Other (please specify): **Applying for grants**
11. When using English, what do you have most problems with? (Please rank them from 1 to 4; 1= most difficult and 4= easiest)
- a) Speaking **ranked as 1 by 7 respondents**
 - b) Writing **ranked as 1 by 8 respondents**
 - c) Reading **ranked as 1 by none of the respondents**
 - d) Listening **ranked as 1 by 5 respondents**

Thank you for your cooperation!

FORGING BONDS BETWEEN ACADEMIC WRITING RESEARCH FINDINGS AND THE PRACTICE OF TEACHING ACADEMIC WRITING¹

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Abstract: *The last four decades have witnessed the birth of numerous studies dealing with the research paper (RP), its rhetorical structure and contents, linguistic features, reporting verbs, review procedures, evaluative language, peer editing, transfer of academic writing skills, and many other features. In spite of the countless researches detailing academic writing features, not a small amount of textbooks on academic writing seem to ignore the results yielded by research conducted on this vital and crucial skill. A great number of academic writing textbooks seem to be unaware of the findings of research on academic writing practices. Thus, it is the purpose of this paper to briefly survey a number of academic writing textbooks claiming to be designed for teaching and developing university students' academic writing skills and introduce the present author's attempt in utilizing Swales' IMRD and CARS patterns in teaching the overall rhetorical structure of academic research papers to tertiary students. The current author strongly believes that academic writing is an apprenticeship process. That is, the students should be shown samples of what they are expected to produce before they actually do it. Therefore, students were, individually, requested to find a journal RP, of 15 pages maximum, in the area they would choose for their research from any peer reviewed journal that uses APA style, print it, highlight only all the section headings, copy them on a separate sheet of paper and bring to the following class. In the second class session, students were divided into teams of 4, and were asked to share and discuss the research design patterns they identified. Then, they selected a representative team member to write the sections and subsections headings they found common in the research design on the whiteboard for all students to see. After this, a whole class discussion of the similarities and differences began. Then, Swales' models were introduced for comparison with what they found. Using Swales' models made it easy for students to think in an organized way and assign the information that they had gathered to their relevant sections/move(s). The students' feedback was encouraging and the research papers they produced corroborated their positive responses.*

Keywords: Features of academic writing; research paper schema; rhetorical structure of research papers; tertiary level writing; transfer of writing skills; academic research papers.

1. Introduction

Swales' (1981; 1990) seminal works on the academic research paper (RP), have attracted many researchers' interest. Consequently, the past four decades have

witnessed the birth of numerous studies dealing with the RP's rhetorical structure and contents (Nwogu, 1997; Budsaba, 2005), linguistic features (Chen, 2006), reporting verbs (Reimerink, 2007), review procedures (Mungra & Webber, 2010), evaluative language (Thompson & Yiyun, 1991), peer editing (El-Sakran, in progress), transfer of academic writing skills (El-Sakran, Ahmed and El-Sakran, 2017) and many other countless academic writing features (see Brett, 1994; Anthony, 1999; Samraj, 2002;2005 and 2008; Kwan, 2006; Ozturk, 2007; El-Sakran, 2009; El-Sakran and Saba, 2014, El-Sakran and Nada, 2014, El-Sakran and Zeynabi, 2014; etc.). Nevertheless, the findings of those studies have not fully found their way into the textbooks compiled for the teaching of academic writing to university students. That is, the number of scholarly papers investigating Swales' models far outnumbers, if any, those using the models in introducing and teaching the rhetorical structure of the RP (Chan 2009; 2017; 2018).

2. A Review of some Selected Academic Writing Textbooks

Upon careful examination of the below listed titles, a total disconnect was found between their contents and the results of academic writing research. They, albeit being extremely useful in teaching academic writing and all the related skills, treat an academic writing piece as consisting of 3 parts: Introduction, Main Body and Conclusion, which does not truly reflect the findings of researches on the rhetorical structure of academic RPs as shown in Swales' research models IMRD and CARS. Furthermore, while these textbooks deal with the writing process from a purely theoretical perspective, the current author used samples of published RPs to introduce and guide tertiary level students in writing their own RPs by imitating well established authors' publications in peer-reviewed academic journals. This method was employed to complement these textbooks.

Six titles surveyed are:

1. Arkin, M and Macheski, C. (2nd Edition) (2006). Research papers: A guide and workbook. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
2. Behrens, L. and Rosen, L. (3rd Edition) (2007). A sequence for academic writing. New York: Longman.
3. Busecmi, S., Nicolai, A. and Strugala, R. (4th Edition) (2004). The basics: A rhetoric and handbook. New York: McGraw Hill.
4. Lewis, D., Storseth, T. L., Dahan, L., Abusalim, A. and Gandhi (2010). Majlis of the 'others': A reader for writers in the Gulf. Pearson Education Limited: United Arab Emirates.
5. Muller, G. (2nd Edition) (2008). The new world reader: Thinking and writing about the global community. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
6. VaderMey, R., Meyer, V., Rys, J. V. and Sebranek, P. (3rd Edition) (2009). The college writer: A guide to thinking, writing, and researching. United Kingdom: Cengage Learning.

3. Purpose of the Research

Therefore, this paper aims to introduce and share with the interested readers a top-down academic writing approach that the researcher found practical and fruitful in making students aware of academic writing conventions. In other words, it offers

the researcher's guidelines as regards the utilization of Swales' IMRD and CARS research designs in teaching academic writing skills to students and discusses the students' responses to the methodology employed. Specifically, this study aims to find answers to the following questions:

1. Does a top-down analysis of some peer-reviewed RPs result in students acquiring a generic schematic structure of RPs?
2. Will the results of such an analysis inform students in writing and structuring their own RPs?

4. Participants

This experimental top-down approach was conducted with more than 500 students over the past 8 years. The participants' academic disciplines were as follows: engineering, architecture, business, mass communication, English, international studies, environmental sciences and maths. Those students have already met all university entry requirements and have scored 530 or above in Paper-based TOEFL (PBT) test, 71 or above in Internet based TOEFL (IBT) test or 6.5 in IELTS. All undergraduate students at the researcher's university have to successfully complete several academic writing courses regardless of their major. They are placed in these courses according to the score they obtain in a writing placement test, i.e., a test "to determine what class a student should take; to separate students into appropriate levels" (Crusan, 2010, p. 32), that all students have to take when applying for the university. According to their score, they will be assigned either to a non-credit course with the label 'Fundamentals of Academic Discourse', for which the big majority of students are channelled because of their weaknesses in writing. After passing this course, they move to a second three-credit-hour course, i.e., 'Academic Writing'. Upon successful completion of this course, they proceed to a third three-credit-hour course (i.e., Reading and Writing across the Curriculum). Successful completion of this course allows students to register for another compulsory writing course titled Advanced Academic Writing, which is the subject of this research. This course is based on common core needs; that is, it is designed to satisfy the different academic writing needs of students from different disciplines.

5. Swales' Models

Swales' IMRD (Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion) and CARS (Create a Research Space) models for RPs (Swales, 1980;1990) were used in the present study to introduce the RPs design(s), "the schematic structure of information" (Nwogu, 1997:120) to students. Swales' IMRD is a mnemonic for a common format used for academic RPs. While used primarily in the hard sciences, like physics and biology, it is also widely used in the social and behavioural sciences. On the other hand, the CARS model is also found to be common in RPs with some slight variations; some moves may be presented via different alternatives as shown below.

■ Move 1: Establishing a territory

- Step 1 Claiming centrality and/or
- Step 2 Making topic generalizations and/or
- Step 3 Reviewing items of previous research

■ **Move 2: Establishing a niche**

- Step 1a* Counter-claiming or
- Step 1b Indicating a gap or
- Step 1c Question-raising or
- Step 1d Continuing a tradition

■ **Move 3: Occupying the niche**

- Step 1a Outlining purposes or
- Step 1b Announcing present research
- Step 2 Announcing principle findings
- Step 3 Indicating research article structure

**Letters indicate alternatives*

Although Swales' IMRD and CARS models were generated to account for the rhetorical structure of article introductions, many researchers found them applicable to the whole of the RP (Samraj, 2002; 2005 and 2008; Budsaba, 2005; Kwan, 2006; Ozturk, 2007).

6. A Brief Review of Related Literature

Flowerdew (2000) and Cheng (2011) suggest that problems with features of academic writing may be solved by developing awareness through different means, for example, by analyzing the function of a particular item in authentic texts or using concordances.

There is evidence (Huang, 2008) to suggest that non-exposure to academic writing represents a complex that may hinder embarking on any academic writing in the future. Huang suggests that non-native speakers of English graduates may not be able to write/produce Ph.D. theses just because they did not study academic writing courses. In the same vein, Dudley-Evans (1994) argues that genre analysis is particularly useful for the students with relatively little experience of writing.

This will usually be in three stages, the first being the reading stage that precedes the writing stage. An awareness of the generic structure of the texts read will have a positive effect on future writing. The second is the immediate planning stage where the findings of genre analysis will help writers grasp what is expected in the genre they are proposing to write. The third stage is the draft stage in which an awareness of genre conventions will help in the ordering and re-ordering of text. Indeed, genre analysis provides a way of introducing and discussing the expectations of the academic community in general and the discourse community that the students aspire to join in ways that are comprehensible to both the language teacher and the student.

Therefore, the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teacher should be able to identify and analyse academic genres and the functional and rhetorical features of academic texts and train students to do the same.

The basic philosophy of a genre approach is entirely consistent with an English for Specific Purpose (ESP) approach. It assumes that the focus on imparting certain genre knowledge is part of a short-cut method of raising students' proficiency in a relatively limited period of time to the level required of them by their departments and supervisors. The imparting of genre knowledge involves increasing awareness of the conventions of writing, and teaching students to produce texts that, by

following the conventions, appear well-formed and suitably structured to native-speaker readers.

Another relevant observation is that when students perceive course contents as relevant, this makes them “become motivated to think about the material and may retain the information for longer periods” (Muddiman and Frymier 2009:132). Along the same lines, Keller and Suzuki (2004) argue that relevance was effective when course materials were related to students’ intrinsic goals and needs.

Hence, this study used authentic research papers to introduce the learners to the rhetorical structure of RPs, its layout and the overall process of academic writing.

7. Teaching Context

When students join the university from schools, all the writing assignments they were exposed to take the form of extended essays of not more than 2 or 3 A4 sheets. In the university, this same focus in writing is fostered, but with different orientations: persuasive, descriptive, argumentative genres of writing. The shift from this type of writing represents a big hurdle for the students as they are expected to produce a fully-fledged research in which they choose a topic of their own, use library and internet resources, use APA style, and, above all, demonstrate maturity in terms of academic language used, reviewing of previous research, reporting verbs and their connotations, critiquing skills, etc. Inculcating such skills in the students requires a smooth transition from traditional essay writing to writing RPs. Thanks to Swales’ models, the transition is made easy.

8. Teaching Method

This study adopted an active learning approach in which the learners got fully engaged in highlighting all the below listed academic writing features under the course instructor’s direct supervision. The teaching followed a top-down (i.e. linear) approach to the research paper, moving from the macro-structure to micro-structure. In other words, it adopted an inverted pyramid approach.

8.1. Teaching Procedures

The process of teaching the schematic structure and some features of the RP followed the linear progression of the RP as delineated below, the only exception was the abstract which was dealt with last, since, in most, if not all, it is the last piece of text to be written.

8.1.1. Highlight Titles of Sections and Subsections

The researcher strongly believes in showing students samples of what they are expected to produce before they actually do it. Therefore, he started the first day of the course by reading the syllabus and going over the course contents. At the end of this first class session, students (20) were, individually, requested to find a short RP, of 15 pages maximum, in the area they would choose for their research from any peer reviewed journal that uses APA style, print it, highlight only all the sections and sub-sections headings, copy them on a separate sheet of A4 paper and bring to the following class. In the second class session, students were divided into teams of 4, and were asked to share and discuss the research design patterns they identified. Then, they selected a representative team member to write

the sections and subsections headings they found common in the research design on the whiteboard (see Appendix 1) for all students to see. After this, a whole class discussion of the similarities and differences began. Immediately after this discussion, Swales' (1981; 1990) IMRD and CARS research designs were introduced and students were able to notice the differences between the research designs they generated and the ones proposed by Swales. Most importantly, they realized that other sections and subsections can be added to the basic IMRD pattern, see Appendix 1. As the academic writing course is compulsory for all students and a prerequisite for many of their major courses, this activity proved extremely useful in drawing the students' attention to the fact that there might be variability in the rhetorical structure across disciplines and within the same discipline, a point that has been confirmed by research carried out by many a researcher (e.g., Ozturk, 2007). These variations were also used to stress that sections in RPs may be, to some extent, determined by the nature of the research topic covered.

8.1.2. Examine Papers' Titles

The second step was to examine the papers' titles. Students were instructed to do the following:

- a. Count number of words per title and share the details in an open class discussion
- b. Find and highlight keywords that reflect the focus of the research article
- c. Say if title could be shortened, if too long
- d. Say if title could be elaborated on, if too short

This activity helped students narrow down the focus of their research papers and write good titles for their RPs. This also proved useful in creating excellent keywords for their RPs.

8.1.2.1. The Next Steps

The subsequent step was to read the introduction section and do the following:

- Highlight all persons' names that were followed by dates in the introduction section
- Highlight the verbs used in the sentences that contained these names and dates
- Find out and report on the location of the personal names they highlighted: sentence-initial position, sentence-medial position, or sentence-final position
- Decide type of information quoted: verbatim, paraphrase, or summary
- Find out reason(s) for using the source: support, counterargument, further reading, etc.
- Find the sentence(s) expressing the objective of the research paper

In this phase, students were asked to locate personal names in the introduction text, publication dates, verbatim quotes accompanied with page numbers, and reporting verbs accompanying persons' names being followed by years. Several colour codes were used for singling out the different issues listed above. Such an exercise sensitized the students to common features of the RP and had drawn their attention to its broader picture. For instance, students realized that in-text citations can be executed in multiple ways- in sentence initial position, sentence medial position and sentence final position. This helped them use a variety of citation

styles that added spice to their writing competence. In addition, students had come to realize that some article introductions included a review of previous studies, although several papers contained an independent section with the titles 'Review of Literature', 'Review of Previous Studies', or 'Related Studies'. Doing this resulted in students learning a good variety of reporting verbs that they later used in their own RPs. Examples of these verbs are:

report; study; develop; aim (to + verb); describe; explore; introduce; focus; present; examine; show; discuss; urge; argue; claim; believe; think; adduce; address; analyze; contribute; define; critique; establish; evaluate; examine; identify; question; recommend; suggest.

This exercise opened the students' eyes to the functional load of verbs used. That is, students were sensitized to the importance of careful choices of verbs that clearly and unambiguously reflect the author's stance. For instance, students had come to realize the semantic and pragmatic differences between *state* and *claim* as reporting verbs, as shown below:

- *X claim/s ... means no evidence (unsubstantiated arguments) is given/presented.*

Also, students' attention was drawn to authors' attitudinal aspects in the case of using attitudinal adverbs to strengthen the assertions or the arguments made. Here is an example:

- *X rightly argue/s ...*
- *X aptly state/s ...*

Another important aspect related to the use of reporting verbs was the verb tense used, that is, should the reporting be in the past or present? Although the RPs the students brought to class showed several discrepancies in the use of tense, for example; some papers adhered solely to past tense whereas others used a mix of both past and present. Yet, it was found that the past tense was mainly used in reporting on the methodology/ies other writers employed in their research. This was a useful point for students to learn concerning how to report on the research steps used in their research RPs. Added to this, students learned how to use linking adverbials to give a sense of direction to the academic work (see Ab Manan and Pandian, 2014; El-Sakran, 2018a; El-Sakran, 2018b; EL-Sakran and Zeynabi, 2014). Asking students to find the sentence(s) expressing the objective of the research paper helped them produce precise aims of their RPs, such as the following:

- *This study investigates/examines/explores/probes into/studies/looks into/studies in depth/delves into, etc.*
- *The purpose of this {research, study...} is....*
- *The aim of this {research, study...} was...*

As regards the use of quotations, paraphrase and summary in the RP, it is a well known feature of academic writing that the RP includes viewpoints of others' on a particular topic which requires the use of quotations, paraphrase and summary. Through such an exercise students realized that it is not professional to use too many quotations that may result in "losing ownership" of their own work (Behrens and Rosen, 2010:44). Hence, writers need to resort to paraphrasing and summarizing. Students also learned that paraphrasing is a restatement of another person's words in their own words. Another important observation was that paraphrasing was more common in the discussion section whereas summaries

were mainly used in the literature review (LR) section. This, I believe, is the case because the LR section requires more details on studies reported on so that readers can fully understand the context of the study under review. Furthermore, they came to know that authors quote if the original text is extremely difficult to be put in other words or that its wordings are important in themselves. Such an activity brought to the students' focus the issue of plagiarism. This particular area may prove difficult for those Arab students whose English competence is limited and; therefore, may resort to frequent quoting or what Howard (1995, cited in Pecorari, 2008:225) refers to as "patchwriting". Patchwriting is "copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one synonym for another" (Howard, 1995, cited in Pecorari, 2008:225). Inexperienced students may also unintentionally plagiarize by including others' ideas in their writing as if they were their own.

8.1.3. Shuffling exercises of some selected RPs

In these activities, 5 research papers were used as follows:

- Title of research paper was removed
- Titles of sections and subsections were removed
- Page numbers were hidden

Students, in groups of 4, were presented with all the individual sections of a shuffled RP and were asked to put them in their correct order. This exercise aimed at checking students' ability to identify the paper's rhetorical structure through the clues given in the sections (i.e., communicative function, cohesion and coherence).

9. Results

Careful examination of the various stages of the students' RP writing process, that is, the research plan, the proposal, the working draft, the first full draft and the students' final RPs, showed that students used same or similar sections and subsections headings to those used in the published research papers that they examined. In addition to the testimonies in Appendix 2, the following were also signs of improvements in the students' produced RPs:

- Use of varied in-text-citation styles
- Authors' names were placed in several locations of the sentence, which resulted in a non-boring writing style and a sense of achievement on the students' parts.
- Transition from one section to another
- Students used a great variety of cohesion and coherence devices and sentence linking adverbials to mark transitions from one sentence into another, and to signal shifts from one section to the other.
- Maturity in the use of reporting verbs
- The research papers the students produced exhibited strong maturity in the use of a great collection of reporting verbs.
- Maturity in the use of evaluative language
- Evaluative expressions, such as failed to show, did not consider, has overlooked, etc., were carefully employed to critique previous studies on the issue under study, and create a research gap.
- Maturity in the use of substantiated arguments

- A good variety of citations were provided for support of students' arguments.
 - Maturity in the use of APA style
- This was clearly manifested in the formats of the in-text citations the students utilized in their research papers.
 - Maturity in the use and development of higher order critical appraisal skills as shown in the review of literature sections that the students produced for their own papers
- Students reflected good use of critical appraisal skills through the reasons given for critiquing a previous study and the language signals provided to mark their own stance from the study being reported on.

10. Discussion, Conclusion and Final Thought on the Flexibility of Swales' Models

In spite of the findings of research that there are steps in the research article that are not accounted for in Swales' models, the big majority of these studies have conceded that Swales' models accounted for 60% or more of the research article introductions they used. Despite this, the researcher stresses here that the model is used to account for the entirety of the whole of the RP and not one single move within it. The claim that Swales' models do not account for all RPs in terms of moves and steps should be taken as an indication of the flexibility (i.e. non-rigidity) of the models and that they leave space for manoeuvre for the writer to shape his/her research according to the conventions of the writer's specific discipline and the nature of the topic covered by the research; some research topics may call for a background knowledge section, for example. This may justify our use of the models to introduce the generic rhetorical structure for the RP. In addition, the flexibility Swales' models enjoy makes them a perfect fit for a class with students from varied academic disciplines. As stated earlier, students are trained in the use of this generic research article/paper model, and later on they may fine tune it; either by adding steps or moves to it to make it interface with their disciplines' requirements. In view of the students' responses (see Appendix 2), it can be said that using these models has engraved in the students' mind a clear mental representation (schema) of the RP, its moves, steps, and the linguistic features peculiar to every move/step.

Furthermore, using Swales' models made it easy for students to think in an organized way and assign the information that they have gathered to their relevant move(s). In other words, the models could best be described as a 'Pigeon Hole', with each hole carrying a label of one of the moves and the students acting like a postman inserting the proper letter (information/data) into the proper mail box (move). In support of this, the students' feedback was encouraging and the RPs they produced looked professional and corroborated their reported positive responses. Worth mentioning here that the writing up of the RP followed a process approach (Macarthur, Graham, Fitzgerald, 2006)), starting with a research plan and ending up with the final research paper.

I have tried this model with more than 25 cohorts of students and I still receive positive feedback from those who finished the course. They report that they have transferred the skills they have acquired to their other major courses' assignments (El-Sakran, Ahmed and EL-Sakran, 2017). Thus, academic writing textbook

designers should forge a stronger link between the findings of academic writing research and the teaching materials included in their textbooks.

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Appendix 1

Table 1: Rhetorical Structures of Examined RPs

<u>Team # 1</u>	<u>Team # 2</u>	<u>Team # 3</u>	<u>Team # 4</u>	<u>Team # 5</u>
-Title -Author's name - Introduction -Objective of the study -Motivation for the study -Study approach and procedures -Results and discussion - Conclusions and implications -Appendix 1 -Appendix 2 -References	-Title -Author's name - Introduction -Research variables - Instruments Scoring. Procedures -Results -Implication - Suggestion -Notes - References	-Title -Author's name -Introduction -Problems -Assumptions -Methodology -The major findings -Conclusion -Recommendations for: • Students • University professors • International students • Governments • Future students -References	-Title -Authors' name -Abstract - Introduction -Reflecting concept -The study -Methods -Results -Analysis. -Discussion - Conclusion -Appendix - References	-Title -Authors' names -Introduction -Literature -Sources of data -Results -More analysis -Overall observations -Pedagogical implications -Conclusions -References -Appendix

Appendix 2

Testimony 1

I have personally found it extremely beneficial that you made us print out a sample research paper at the beginning of the semester as this gave me an overview of what was expected from me. This technique was new to me as we did not do this

in WRI101 or 102. Hence, I strongly suggest that you continue with this method as it makes the process of writing our assignments more clear and straightforward.

Testimony 2

I feel the constant emphasis on the format/schema was the most beneficial aspect of this course because it helped me with the format for my major-business courses. I used the layout that we learnt in class, eg: Sub-headings and including a mini introduction for each section, for my management report as I was not aware that this was the professional format for any report/assignment. Additionally, I strongly recommend that, at the beginning of the course, professors should ask students to print an academic published article in order for students to gain an overview of what is expected from them at the end of the course. This was extremely beneficial for me as this technique helped provide insight of the schema for an academic article.

Testimony 3

The course was really helpful, especially because we are required to write a research paper for many other courses. With the help of the material learned in ENG204, students can definitely use the materials learned to write a better research paper.

Testimony 4

The most beneficial aspect of the course for me was going through each section of the paper (IMRD) by analyzing previous papers and learning the different ways in which one can choose to write and layout their research. This was not only beneficial for this research paper but has also given me insight and knowledge that would help me in my writing in other courses in the future.

Testimony 5

The most beneficial aspect of the course was printing out a related scholarly source and bringing it with us to class every day, which helped guide us and give us an outlook on what the final product should look like. And showed us the different methods that different journals use to conduct research. I wouldn't say that anything we did in the course was not beneficial, but I do think that if we looked at a bad example of a research paper and compared the components against a good research paper, it would have been a nice idea.

Testimony 6

Most beneficial aspect was the improvement of my organizational skills in writing a research paper and improvement in identifying academic sources. I liked the idea of referring to a printed research paper, observing it and studying the process of research writing. I can't think of anything that was not beneficial.

¹ The author would like to thank the two anonymous reviewers of the Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes (JLSP) for their constructive feedback on an earlier version of this research.

TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT THE HELLENIC ARMY MILITARY ACADEMY THE PRESENT AND THE FUTURE

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Abstract: *During the process of internationalization, interpersonal communication has been transformed into intercultural communication involving people from different cultural systems that communicate effortlessly with each other. The present study focuses on the inductive methodology that is followed at the Hellenic Army Military Academy in order to help cadets to acquire communicative skills while absorbing the knowledge of English or French language, literature, and culture. The inductive methodology gives shape to an innovative teaching approach as English and French become languages of special purposes, taking into consideration the needs and requirements of the contemporary international environment. The Hellenic Army Military Academy provides a multidimensional and of high quality, military academic training that lasts four years. Teaching foreign languages, particularly English and French meets the prospects and commitments of the Hellenic Army Military Academy and the Hellenic Ministry of Defence. Because teaching English and French and Military Terminology is accomplished simultaneously in hellenophone and allophone speaking cadets during the first two years of their academic program. Given the heterogeneous cultural and linguistic contexts, lectures are oriented towards participatory learning so that all cadets are activated to the educational process. The subjects of English and French Military Terminology and War Literature are taught during the third and fourth years at the Hellenic Army Military Academy in order to aid cadets in acquiring the necessary reading, writing, listening and oral skills that will enable them to attend the Annual Spring Program of Military Erasmus as well as the academic programs of the Anglo-Saxon universities they will go to after graduation. Authentic English and French texts and historical, political and fictional texts have been selected concerning the organization of the army, the art and act of conducting war as well as the experiences of American, English and French war veterans. By the time cadets graduate, with the help of their lecturers who assist them in the difficult task of providing them with vocabulary activities, oral, writing and listening exercises, they can speak two European languages and know the military terms, phrases and idioms that are usually found in military texts in order to use them when communicating with their colleagues abroad.*

Keywords: curriculum, foreign languages for specific purposes, educational approach, inductive methodology, multidimensional academic training, interpersonal and intercultural communication.

1. Introduction

Instructive practices, especially those of foreign languages, within the scope of a contemporary internationalizing environment, have to follow the evolutionary progress of society, focus on the utilitarian approach of knowledge and cultivate the learners' participation in the educational process. Nowadays, cadets are asked to possess skills that will enable them to “effectively understand and manipulate the resources” (Wray, 2000:75) provided by the military, war, and operational sector. Within the frame of teaching foreign languages at the Hellenic Army Military Academy, we would like to present a short study on the many-sided and challenging work of the foreign language lecturers of the Hellenic Army Military Academy by offering examples of what is involved in practicing a foreign language and by discussing the future challenges of and resources for the enterprise.

2. Institutional, Academic Framework

The Hellenic Army Military Academy provides a multidimensional and of high quality military academic training that lasts four years, i.e. the Study Guide of the Hellenic Army Military Academy for the academic year 2017-2018 at www.sse.tue.edu.gr/.

English and French, and Military Terminology are accomplished simultaneously with regard to hellenophone and allophone speaking cadets during the first two years of their studies. Given the heterogeneous cultural and linguistic contexts, lecturers are oriented towards the inductive teaching and participatory learning so that all learners are activated to the educational process.

Teaching a language means teaching a linguistic code, i.e. imparting knowledge of a different “mentality” and so we work towards the comprehension of languages like English or French in order to generate cultural and linguistic knowledge.

At the Hellenic Army Military Academy, cadets are taught two (2) foreign languages, namely English and French:

- English is taught at B2 level (Good knowledge). The course is obligatory and involves freshmen and sophomores. It ends with the acquisition of the Certificate of English at B2 level. The certificate has to be recognized by the Greek State. It is obtained by taking an examination given by universities, like the University of Michigan in the United States and the University of Cambridge in the United Kingdom.
- Those of the cadets who succeed in obtaining the Certificate of English at B2 level have to continue with a course at C2 level (Very good knowledge). The course is obligatory and ends with the characterization of the cadets, who have obtained the C2 certificate, as qualified and linguistically competent officers who can undertake projects, missions, studies, and tasks abroad.

Those of the cadets who obtain a Certificate of English at C2 level have to continue the course of foreign languages by attending French lessons at B2 level (Good knowledge). Please note that if a cadet does not succeed in obtaining a Certificate of English at B2 level, he/she will fail to be characterized as a qualified and linguistically competent officer and will face the penalty imposed by the Chief of Staff of the Hellenic Ministry of Defence, involving a decrease in pay. French is taught at B2 level (Good knowledge). The course is obligatory and involves freshmen and sophomores.

Those of the cadets who succeed in obtaining the Certificate of French at B2 level, like the Certificate of the *Institut Français d'Athènes*, recognized by the Greek State, achieve an additional asset that helps them to build a successful career or improve career prospects.

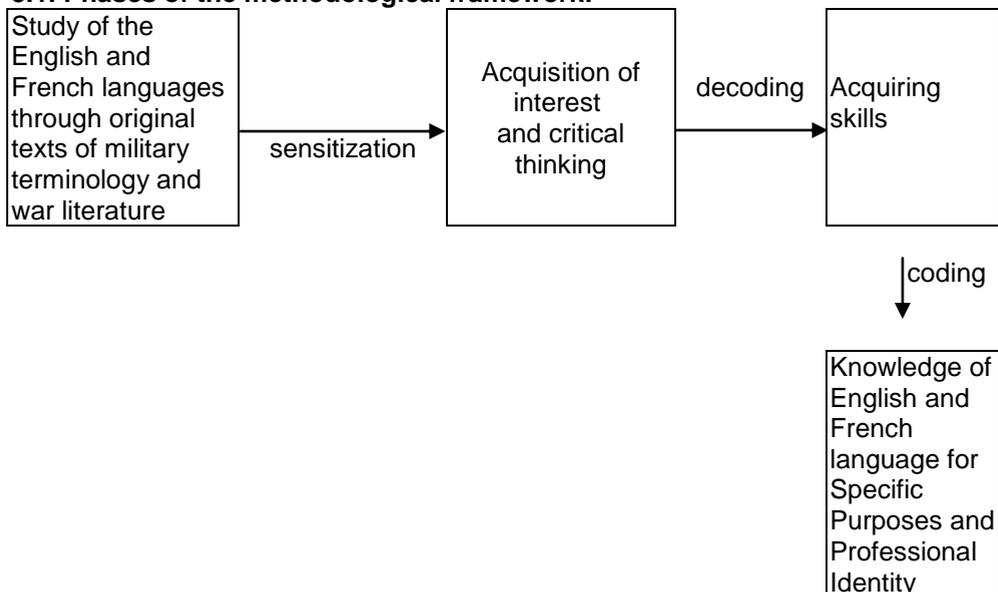
Besides English and French, cadets are taught English and French Military Terminology in which words become terms because they convey special meanings. These words carry a “special cultural load” (Galisson, 1995:490). They convey the intellect of the subject while using speech economy and avoiding periphrases because “intellect and speech are the same,” Plato says in the *Sophist*.

The courses involve the acquisition of skills, like reading and understanding English and French military texts as well as the skills of learning English and French terms and using them in oral and written form. The courses are taught during the first two years of the academic program twice per week for one hour at a time.

English is also taught to juniors and seniors as an optional course. It involves courses in War Literature, Translation, and Public Speaking. The courses in War Literature include lectures on the poetry of the Great War and the novels of World War I and World War II that help cadets to make sense of the meaning of combat and learn lessons from the old conflicts that they can use in the contemporary era. Translation *involves* converting the meaning of written or spoken military content from one language to the other; and Public Speaking teaches cadets to address large audiences, when making formal announcements, as well as the art of persuasion: “It is important to learn how to speak a language in order to resolve significant issues and interact in social and intercultural environment”. (Proscolli, 2014:30)

3. Methodological Framework

3.1. Phases of the methodological framework:



3.2. Sensitization

“There is no shorter and more substantial method to get to know a civilization, a country, and its people than learning the language, since language is the way that people of different nationalities see, organize, classify and express our world.” (Anastasiadi – Simeonidi, 1994:36)

The course books that are used to help cadets to acquire the skills of comprehension, listening, speaking and writing English and French and the skills of learning Military Terminology are written by the foreign language lecturers of the academy and published by the academy press. These books are the following: *English for Army Cadets* Volumes I and II; and *Français sur Objectifs Spécifiques* and *Textes Militaires*. Here are two examples that reveal how cadets acquire the skills of comprehension, listening, speaking and writing French and the skill of memorizing English and French Military Terminology.

Here is an example from *NATO A Workbook for Learners of Military English*.

NATO Defence Matters

I. Read the following text:

Regarding defence matters, NATO keeps underlining its solidarity and steadfast commitment to the security of all its Allies.

Throughout the last years, NATO has shown many examples of Alliance solidarity. For example, NATO renewed its commitment to a sovereign, secure and democratic Afghanistan at the Chicago Summit in May 2012. Members of NATO agreed that NATO’s current combat mission will be completed by the end of 2014, when its Afghan partners have assumed full responsibility for the security of their country, and when their engagement will then enter a new phase. This new phase will involve planning a new NATO-led mission from 2015 to train, to advise, and to assist the Afghan security forces.

In Chicago, NATO also reiterated that its door remains open to those countries that are willing and able to assume the responsibilities and obligations of membership, and vowed to intensify cooperation with partners across the globe.

In Chicago, NATO presented the “NATO Forces 2020” that are more capable, more compatible, and more complementary. To help achieve this goal, NATO agreed two separate initiatives – Smart Defence and the Connected Forces Initiative.

Smart Defence is the way forward for Allies to develop and acquire critical capabilities. More than 20 multinational capabilities are already being developed – from maritime air surveillance to precision-guided munitions. European Allies take part in all of these projects; they are leading two thirds of them; and one third of the projects are purely European in terms of participation.

The Connected Forces Initiative will help NATO and partner forces to build on the experience of two decades of operations, by increasing NATO-led training and exercises, including with a strengthened NATO Response Force.

In fact, most Allies have significantly improved their capacity to deploy and sustain their forces in recent years. Their Connected Forces Initiative will help NATO to maintain these gains as well as the ability of its forces to operate together. This will be especially important after the Allied ISAF mission in Afghanistan ends in 2014.

In 2012 NATO strengthened its transatlantic bond, demonstrated its commitment to its shared values and security, and made plans to ensure a stable and peaceful future for Allies and partners alike. In 2013, NATO continued to display that same solidarity, commitment, and foresight, in order to sustain its strength and success.

II. Now, answer the following questions.

1. Discuss the current plans of NATO regarding Afghanistan.
2. What is "NATO Forces 2020"?
3. How will NATO achieve "NATO Forces 2020"?
4. What does ISAF stand for? Why is it mentioned in the text?
5. Summarize the 2012 and 2013 NATO achievements.

III. What do the following words mean? *Steadfast, sovereign, reiterate, foresight, sustain, deploy* and *solidarity*.

1. Steadfast.....
2. Sovereign.....
3. Reiterate.....
4. Foresight.....
5. Sustain.....
6. Deploy.....
7. Solidarity.....

IV. Fill in the gaps with one of the words above.

1. The US government remained ... in its refusal to release the two terrorists.
2. The soldiers had the ... to bring the new weapon.
3. There was a need to create ... among the president's top economic advisers.
4. Both sides ... heavy losses in the war.
5. Troops have been ... in the area to counter a possible attack.
6. NATO wants to ... the importance of protecting our homes.
7. The new Slovenian Assembly claimed full....

V. Find synonyms and antonyms for the words above.

<i>Synonyms</i>	<i>Antonyms</i>
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.

VI. Choose the best answer.

1. Nations carrying on warfare are called ... *bivouac / salvo / belligerents*.
2. A compulsory enrolment as soldiers is a (n) ... *embargo / restriction / conscription*.
3. A (n) ... *embargo / bivouac / salvo* is an order prohibiting ships to leave the port.
4. When POWs are kept in confinement, they are ... *interned / trained / positioned*.

5. A ... *salvo / volley / shot* is a shower of bullets.
6. The firing of many guns at the same time is a ... *volley / salvo / battery*.
7. When troops surrender to an enemy on agreed terms, they ... *capitulate / submit / arrest*.
8. A ... *bivouac / camp / tent* is an encampment in the open air.
9. A gap in fortified or battle lines is a ... *breach / booby trap / blockade*.
10. A military blockade of a city or fortress with the intent of conquering by force or attrition, often accompanied by an assault in the later phase is a *siege / siege en règle / sack*.

VII. Supply the missing prepositions.

1. NATO is a crisis-management organization that has the capacity ... undertake a wide range of military operations and missions.
2. The tempo and diversity ... operations and missions in which NATO is involved have increased since the early 1990s.
3. Approximately 18,000 military personnel are engaged in NATO missions around the world, managing often complex ground, air and naval operations ... all types of environment.
4. Currently, NATO is operating ... Afghanistan, Kosovo, the Mediterranean and off the Horn of Africa.
5. NATO is also supporting the African Union and conducting air policing missions ... the request of its Allies; it also has Patriot missiles deployed ... in Turkey.
6. NATO carries out disaster-relief operations and missions ... protect populations against natural, technological or humanitarian disasters.

VIII. Use the following words to fill in the gaps: *Enhance, focus, challenge, pose, threat* and *tackle*.

Terrorism

Terrorism ... a direct threat to the security of the citizens of NATO countries, and to international stability and prosperity. It is a persistent global ... that knows no border, nationality or religion and is a ... that the international community must ... together. NATO's work on counter-terrorism ... on improving awareness of the threat, developing capabilities to prepare and respond, and ... engagement with partner countries and other international actors.

IX. Listen to the following brief introduction to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) <<https://www.youtube.com/user/NATO>> and choose the best answer.

1. NATO was founded
 - a. on the Washington Treaty
 - b. in Europe in 1959
2. The original members
 - a. were twelve
 - b. were twenty eight
3. A country is invited to join NATO
 - a. on the basis of consensus
 - b. on the basis of collective defence
4. NATO
 - a. contributes to defence and security
 - b. meets certain requirements like defence and security

5. NATO supplies its members with
 - a. tailored advice and assistance
 - b. membership and affiliation
6. "To be able to uphold shared values and contribute to defence and security" refers to
 - a. aspiring members of NATO
 - b. NATO principles

Here is an example from *Textes Militaires*:

La guerre de Corée, 1950

La guerre de Corée, qui commence le 25 juin 1950, vient sanctionner la « guerre froide » que se livrent Américains et Soviétiques au lendemain de la Seconde Guerre mondiale. En 1945, les Soviétiques ont occupé le nord de la Corée jusqu'au niveau du 38^e parallèle qui marque la séparation avec la Corée du Sud, où se sont installés les Américains.

Les causes de la guerre remontent aux conditions dans lesquelles ont été établis les deux gouvernements coréens en 1948 : celui du Nord a refusé de reconnaître la légitimité des élections menées dans le Sud sous l'égide de la Commission des Nations unies ; celui du Sud se targue de la tutelle de l'ONU pour clamer qu'il est le seul gouvernement légitime de la Corée, bien que l'ONU ait seulement sanctionné la validité des élections dans le Sud. Dès lors, chacune des parties se croit légitimée à reconquérir l'autre.

En 1950, l'armée de la Corée du Nord étant mieux préparée que celle du Sud, l'URSS semble avoir calculé qu'une courte guerre surprise donnerait une victoire facile, avant que les Américains aient le temps d'intervenir en force. Les troupes nord-coréennes lancent donc leur attaque le 25 juin 1950 en franchissant le 38^e parallèle. La Corée du Nord reste sourde à la demande de cessez-le-feu immédiat formulée par le Conseil de sécurité des Nations unies. Le 27 juin, celui-ci recommande aux États membres de l'ONU d'apporter leur soutien militaire à la république de Corée (Sud).

A. Compréhension écrite

1. Quand commence la guerre de Corée?
2. Quelles sont les causes de la guerre?
3. Il est question d'une: guerre civile/guerre de religion/guerre froide.
4. Y-a-t-il d'autres pays qui interviennent? Si oui, citez-les et précisez à quel camp ils se joignent.
5. Quel est le coût de la guerre?

B. Exploitation linguistique

Les troupes de l'ONU, inférieures en nombre et mal équipées pour combattre le froid de l'hiver coréen, ont dû rapidement battre en retraite.

.....
Ces soldats américains ont pu se replier malgré les attaques incessantes des Chinois.

.....
Le président Truman a poursuivi un seul et unique but: mettre un terme à l'agression communiste en Corée.

.....

C. Perspectives actionnelles

1. Faites un bref portrait des généraux: Macarthur, Ridgway et Clark.
2. Le général Ridgway intercepte le message secret des communistes qui l'accusent d'avoir utilisé des armes bactériologiques. Imaginez sa réaction. Faites-le parler.
3. Vous écrivez un article sur la guerre de Corée pour la revue mensuelle de votre école.
4. Traduisez le texte suivant:

En mai 2010, la question est posée: est-ce de nouveau la guerre froide sur la ligne d'armistice entre Corée du Nord et Corée du Sud? La tension est vive dans la péninsule depuis qu'une commission internationale d'enquête a publié ses conclusions, le 23 mai 2010, et confirmé que le torpillage d'une corvette de la Corée du Sud, en mars, était d'origine nord-coréenne. Certains y voient une remise en cause de l'armistice de 1953 qui avait mis fin à une guerre de trois ans commencée il y a 60 ans, le 25 juin 1950, entre la Corée du Nord, soutenue par la Chine et l'URSS, et la Corée du Sud, appuyée par les Etats-Unis et leurs alliés. Avec 2,5 millions de morts, ce conflit a été le plus meurtrier de la guerre dite «froide». <<http://bibliotheque.sciences-po.fr>>

As far as the optional courses are concerned, cadets use poetry or novel anthologies written by the English and French lecturers of the academy and published by the academy press.

English language lecturers have compiled a dictionary on *Phrasal Verbs* (verbs followed by an adverb, a preposition or both used with an idiomatic meaning that is often quite different from the literal meaning of the individual words). They have also written a course book on *Academic Writing* in order to aid cadets in using a clear, concise, focused, structured writing style, backed up by evidence and also learn to use a formal tone and style that is not complex and does not require the use of long sentences and complicated vocabulary.

The objective of the foreign language courses is to provide an array of lessons that will help contemporary officers to face issues and deal with problems during their career in Greece and abroad, i.e. when they are stationed with NATO or involved with the United Nations Peacekeeping Operations and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).

3.3. Decoding

In other words, the curriculum offers special courses not only for the personal benefit of cadets but also for their social and psychological benefits. Such benefits aid cadets in achieving the following:

- Develop language skills, i.e. comprehension and communication, in both languages;
- Transfer oral and written skills from the mother tongue to the second language;
- Have cognizance of the mother tongue and the second language;
- Adopt the views of the team that speaks English or French;
- Become a member of the team and participate in it;
- Gain information that lacks prejudice and bias;
- Succeed in academic life and progress in the military profession;
- Attend English and French university programs and apply the acquired

knowledge to the professional environment;

- Strengthen the memory and thinking abilities in order to deal with issues in diplomatic and intelligence posts;
- Translate projects, articles, etc. from one language to the other.

These skills also help cadets to write the dissertation required in order to graduate after having attended the four-year course of the academy. In fact, all B2 holders of an English or French language certificate are allowed to write their dissertation in English or French. The topics are proposed by the foreign language lecturers and supervision is maintained at all times. Cadets have to visit libraries or surf the Net to find the necessary information that will help them to complete the thesis.

The military topics that have been chosen by English speaking cadets are the following:

1. The War Novel - From Homer to the Vietnam War.
2. Ernest Hemingway's War Novels: *The Sun Also Rises*, *A Farewell to Arms*, *For Whom the Bell Tolls*, *Across the River and Into the Trees*.
3. The Military Art: From Antiquity to the Gulf War.
4. Ten War Poets.
5. A Survey of Revolutionary and War Poetry.
6. Peace Keeping and Diplomacy.
7. The Arab Spring.
8. The Breakup of Yugoslavia.
9. The Most Important Battles of World War II.
10. Berthold Brecht's Anti-War Plays.

The military topics that have been chosen by French speaking cadets are the following:

1. «La personnalité du Général de Gaulle» concerning the contribution of the French general to the defeat of the Nazis in World War II.
2. «Les Forces de Défense et la Protection de l'environnement», i.e. a study on the protection of the environment during joint or combined military operations.
3. «Une étude générale des ponts et une étude détaillée du pont Bailey» that concerns the construction of bridges for communication purposes and the construction of the Bailey bridge that facilitates the transport of men and weapons in rocky terrain.
4. «La Première Guerre Mondiale et les Ecrivains Français» with regard to the language of the «poilus» used in the French war fiction and the emergence of dystopia.

3.4. Coding

In this way, cadets have the opportunity to practise the skills acquired, like, for example, comprehension or translation skills, and master the use of the following research skills:

- Analyse information from different sources;
- Find reference information on the Net;
- Improve their critical thinking skills;
- Learn to summarize passages;
- Become able to use a foreign library;
- Use oral skills when presenting the dissertation to judges.

During the oral examination of the dissertation, cadets present a summary of the

project and the results. Then, they answer questions concerning the purpose of the project. The questions help the judges to test or assess the academic validity of the project. Cadets, who participate in the process, leave a good impression on both lecturers and judges, proving that the practice of a foreign language is beneficial because it boosts creativity, builds up self-confidence, and because, according to Saussure, « la langue est instrument pour la parole et en même temps le produit de la parole » or the language is an instrument of speech and at the same time the product of speech.

4. Proposals

In the future to come, we would like to see the subject of “Academic Writing” become part of the curriculum of the Hellenic Army Military Academy and the Graduate School of the Hellenic Army Military Academy. The aim is to teach cadets and officers how to communicate their ideas effectively; how to refrain from making grammar mistakes; how to avoid using poorly expressed ideas or unclear phrasing; how to avoid repetition and how to be prepared to meet the deadline. The course will be beneficial for those officers who will choose to obtain a Ph.D. degree for professional qualifications. Theses normally report on a research project: their structure explains the purpose, the methods used, and the findings of the project. Most Ph.D. theses use a) an introduction, which introduces the research topic, the methodology, and significance; b) a findings chapter, outlining the findings of the research itself; and c) a conclusion. Such a course would facilitate the successful performance of post-graduate officers, as they are likely to find preliminary writing steps a vital aspect of the process.

In days or years to come, the curriculum should include optional courses in French war literature to help cadets to consolidate the acquired knowledge and aid them in learning French war history and culture.

It is well known that literary work on conflict supports the war effort. Alternatively, it voices disapproval of the war. Both viewpoints help cadets to develop their skills of critical thinking. Since the two wars have given rise to a literary trend referred to as “soldiers’ testimony,” and the works relate an experience stamped with the mark of industrial war and mass death, the attempt to teach French war poetry and fiction is worth the effort because it can originate a debate about the ultimate goals of war.

5. Conclusion

To conclude, it is of vital importance that the academy add a supplement to the original list of dissertation topics so as to include French projects concerning dystopias, examined in contemporary fiction, like Jules Verne’s (1828-1905) *Paris in the Twentieth Century* (1863); war stories, like the ones included in the work of Pierre Boulle (1912-1994), a spy himself in World War II; stories of diplomacy and the army, two sides of the same coin as well as intelligence, the collection of information of military or political value.

The reason is not so difficult to understand: in dystopias, diplomacy, espionage, and counterespionage, surveillance monitors activities for the purpose of influencing, managing, directing, protecting or destroying people and countries is the type of knowledge that is essential to contemporary officers.

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THE EFFECT OF CONTEXT IN EAP WRITING: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATION IN DOCTORAL DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS

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Abstract: *In EAP (English for Academic Purposes) writing pieces such as articles, theses, and dissertations; convincing the reader to read the rest of the written material is of high importance. The literature presents several models to follow while writing abstracts. Based on this, the current study investigated the textual, organizational and rhetorical structures of the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts written in the Turkish and American contexts. The structures of abstracts were analyzed based on Hyland's (2000) model for writing abstracts. Additionally, the author presence markers and hedging devices used in the abstracts were investigated. A comparative analysis of EAP writing examples from the two contexts -Turkish and American- revealed that there exist observable differences in terms of abstract writing especially in the organizational structures and the use of hedging devices. The results of the study suggested that in both contexts there is a need to reconsider academic writing education. To be clearer writing abstracts should be handled more carefully by the professors of academic writing instruction.*

Keywords: EAP; Organization of Abstracts; Move Structure; Author Presence; Voice; Hedging.

1. Introduction

In ESP (English for Specific Purposes), the genre-based writing instruction still needs to be developed says Cheng (2006). The field of EAP writing also suffers from the same problem (Swales & Luebs, 2002 as cited in Cheng 2006). Similarly in Turkey which is an EFL context the graduate students at the department of English language teaching are often directed to complete an academic writing course before they start their academic writing journey. Considering this, it is clear that EAP writing is a global issue to be investigated in detail.

Research studies include three main stages; planning, researching and documenting. The planning and researching phases require a good deal of field knowledge, and organization skills. However, at the final stage researchers, like marketing specialists, they try to sell their work while they are documenting their studies. These promotion efforts are most visible in the abstract section of a study. Abstracts serve the function to introduce a research study to potential readers and aim to attract them to read the rest of the text. The readers find the abstract immediately after the title, they develop an idea about the rest of the text, and decide whether to read or skip the rest of the study (Hyland, 2000). Therefore, the

structural organization of abstracts needs careful planning. It is safe to claim that the research article abstracts have an easier job compared to the Ph.D. dissertations' when the high number of pages considered. The Ph.D. dissertation abstracts are expected to convince the readers to read hundreds of pages while the number is quite small in a research article. The difference between research article abstracts and Ph.D. dissertation abstracts is not limited to the number of pages that they introduce, there are some other structural differences such as using more transitions, evidentials and hedges (El-Dakhs, 2018) as well. Therefore, investigating the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts in detail can shed light on their structural properties.

Researchers in this field have been mainly interested in analyzing the introduction sections of theses and research articles (e.g. Küçükoğlu, 2016, Ozturk, 2014). However, being one of the most important sections in a study, abstract sections remained somehow ignored. A few attempts to analyze other sections of articles r theses also exist. Tseng (2018) analyzed the theoretical framework sections of 20 research articles. In another study Cotos, Huffman and Link (2017) developed a model for the analysis of methods sections of research articles. It is quite surprising that the number of studies investigating the textual and rhetorical organization of abstracts is very limited (e.g. Samraj, 2005; dos Santos, 1996). When the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts are considered the situation is even worse since the body of literature does not contain any studies suggesting how they are written. Therefore, this paper explores the textual, organizational and rhetorical structures of the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts in the field of language teaching written in both Turkish and American contexts.

2. Models of Abstract Writing

There are several models to investigate the textual organization of abstracts (Weissberg & Buker 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Santos, 1996; Hyland, 2000). According to Weissberg and Buker (1990) a good abstract needs to include five moves which are *Background*, *Purpose*, *Method*, *Results*, and *Conclusion*. In their model, the first move -*Background*- is considered optional. Bhatia (1993) offered a model with four moves for abstract writing. The four moves were namely; *Introducing Purpose*, *Describing Methodology*, *Summarizing Results*, and *Presenting Conclusions*. Later on, dos Santos (1996) developed a model with five moves and sub-moves for the first, second, and fifth moves (Table 1). Thus, it provides a more in-depth analysis of the abstracts. Similarly, Hyland (2000) proposed a five-move pattern, which consisted of *Introduction*, *Purpose*, *Method*, *Product*, and *Conclusion* moves. A closer look at these different perspectives for the analysis of the move structure of the abstracts reveals that there exist many points in common with slight differences. For instance, each of the aforementioned models included an introduction to the subject while their focal point slightly differed. The only exception for this is Bhatia (1993) whose four-move model includes an introduction of purpose rather than background for the study. Similarly, the conclusion section is common in all of the models except for dos Santos's (1996) model who named the last move as the discussion of results rather than conclusion but a closer look at the sub-moves reveals that this move includes conclusion and recommendations which are stated in other models, as well.

Table 1. A proposed pattern for research article abstracts. (dos Santos, 1996).

The five moves	
Move 1	Situating the research Submove 1A – Stating the current knowledge and/or Submove 1B – Citing previous research and/or Submove 1C – Extended previous research and/or Submove 2 – Stating a problem
Move 2	Presenting the research Submove 1A – Indicating main features and/or Submove 1B – Indicating main purpose and/or Submove 2 – Hypothesis raising
Move 3	Describing the methodology
Move 4	Summarizing the results
Move 5	Discussing the research Submove 1 – Drawing conclusions Submove 2 – Giving recommendations

3. Related Studies

The field of EAP provides studies with different sets of corpora for the analysis of abstracts. For instance, researchers studied to determine the quality of the abstracts in research articles. While there can be found several studies focusing on the evaluation of abstracts in different disciplines such as applied linguistics and educational technology (e.g. Pho, 2008), clinical psychology, educational psychology, health psychology, and legal and criminological psychology (e.g. Hartley & Benjamin, 1998), and conservation biology and wildlife behavior (e.g. Samraj, 2005); there are other studies investigating the research article abstracts within one discipline such as applied linguistics (e.g. Tseng, 2011), medicine (e.g. Salager-Meyer, 1990; 1992), protozoology (e.g. Cross & Oppenheim, 2006). This pattern of investigating the structure of abstracts within one discipline was adopted in the present study, as well. Some other researchers compared the abstracts of the papers written in two different languages; for example, English and Spanish, (e.g. Martin, 2003), English and French (e.g. van Bonn & Swales, 2007), English and Chinese (e.g. Hu & Cao, 2011). Rather than comparing different languages, this study adopted comparing two different contexts (Turkish Context vs. American Context) within one language (English). This way the abstract writing patterns in the two contexts can be clearly outlined.

A structural analysis of abstracts provides a good deal of information but not sufficient on its own terms. For a comprehensive understanding of abstract writing, the different dimensions of analysis should be included as well. When the literature is reviewed there are many studies investigating different aspects of abstract writing. For instance, Hyland and Tse (2005) investigated the use of evaluative 'that' in 465 abstracts. Salager-Meyer (1992), on the other hand, studied abstracts in terms of the 'verb tense' and 'modality usage'.

There are several studies investigating the authors' *voice* in academic publications (Cadman, 1997; Hyland, 2002; Ivanič, 1998; Ivanič & Camps, 2001). Of these studies, Hyland (2002) analyzed voice in 64 undergraduate theses in Hong Kong. He found out in his study that the representation of author in the texts was quite low. He makes a claim at the end of his study that the native contexts encourage

the conscious employment of author presence markers while in other cultures the authors still have hesitations. This claim needed to be confirmed with further studies in order for a secure understanding of the issue. To investigate this issue the present paper analyzed the author presence markers comparatively in two different contexts one of these two contexts is American context, which is one of the Anglo-American contexts as named in Hyland's study, while the other is Turkish context, which is an L2 culture. From this point of view, the present study aims to clarify the difference between the two contexts, if there exist any, in terms of using author presence markers.

Ivanič and Camps (2001) investigated the papers of six Mexican graduate students in the UK. The researchers directed the students to write essays, and then they interviewed with the students. They analyzed the papers of students. Three positioning types were determined: *ideational positioning*, *interpersonal positioning*, and *textual positioning*. The voice uses of authors containing an idea were referred as ideational positioning. On the other hand, the interpersonal positioning referred the type of voice use that the authors aimed to communicate with their readers about their 'sense of authority and certainty', or 'their relationships with readers' (p. 21). Finally, the third type of positioning referred the authors' positioning 'themselves in relation to the mode of communication' (p. 28).

Research Questions

- 1- What is the move structure of the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts?
 - a. What is the frequency of moves based on Hyland's Model (2000) in Ph.D. dissertations' abstracts in both Turkish and American contexts?
 - b. Does the move structure of the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts comply with Hyland's Model (2000)?
 - c. Is there any correspondence between the dissertation abstracts written in Turkey and in the USA regarding their move structure?
- 2- What is the frequency of hedging devices in both contexts?
 - a. Is there a correspondence between the Ph.D. theses in written in Turkey and in the USA in terms of the structure of the hedging devices?
- 3- What is the frequency of author presence markers?
 - a. Is there a correspondence between the Ph.D. theses in written in Turkey and in the USA in terms of the structure of the author presence markers?
- 4- What is the frequency of the hedging devices and author presence markers in each move?

4. Methodology

Abstract section is common to all Ph.D. dissertations and they are considered to have a great impact on readers. The readers judge the texts by their abstracts first. As mentioned previously abstracts welcome the readers first and try to convince readers to read the rest of the text. Therefore, they need to be based on a structure.

This study was designed using qualitative method which is based mainly inferring the move structures of the abstracts as well as figuring out the frequencies of the hedges and author presence markers. The abstracts are the very first section of a

scientific study. Especially in long texts such as Ph.D. abstracts' duty are more challenging. The readers expect to obtain a comprehensive picture of the study which should be written in a way to attract the reader to read the rest of the text, as well. For this reason, the author of the present study decided to investigate the abstracts.

The corpus of this study was compiled to include 20 Ph.D. dissertations 10 of which were written in Turkey and the rest 10 of the dissertations were written in the American context. In order to enhance the reliability of the study, firm criteria for corpus formation were established and strictly followed. First, the dissertations are expected to be written in the field of ELT and to be practice oriented. To characterize their fields in Turkey only the works of ELT department members were considered. Similarly, in the USA the dissertations written in the Applied Linguistics departments were taken into consideration. Two diverse contexts were chosen for the analysis. The main motive behind this was to find out the effect of the context on the Ph.D. dissertations abstracts. Secondly, dissertations were investigated carefully based on their practical orientations and their methodologies. The works using similar methodology were considered as having a high level of uniformity in terms of language structures and preferences compared to dissertations adopting different methodologies. Therefore after an analysis of the research designs, experimental theses were decided to be used in this study. Finally, the dissertations were chosen among the ones written in the last ten years. In the Turkish context, the corpus of the study covered all of the dissertations written in the selected period.

This study adopted a top-down approach to the analysis of the data. In this approach first the 'discourse units' were determined and then the analysis is conducted accordingly (Biber, Connor & Upton, 2007). Sentences are decided as a unit of analysis for the move structure analysis of the abstracts. The abstracts of Ph.D. dissertations were copied to an MS Word Document for a comfortable analysis. The data were analyzed through careful scanning by the researcher. Hyland's (2000) model was adopted as the tool for analysis (Table 2). A color code was used to identify the types of moves in the abstracts. (Figure 1).

Table 2. Hyland's Model for abstract writing (Hyland, 2000).

Move	Explanation
Introduction	Establishes context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion.
Purpose	Indicates purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper.
Method	Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.
Product	States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished
Conclusion	Interprets or extends results beyond scope of the paper, draws inferences, points to applications or wider implications.

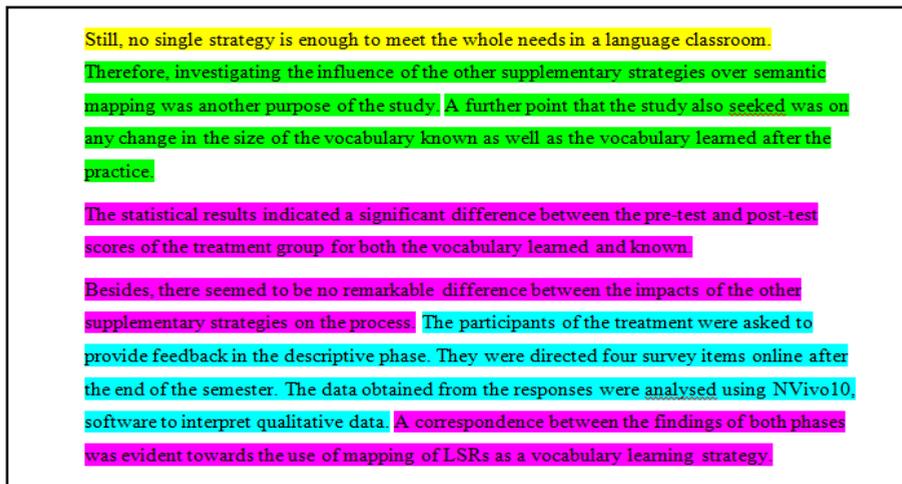


Figure 1. A screenshot from the structural analysis

Additionally, a word by word analysis procedure was applied to determine the hedges as well as the author presence markers. The researcher read the whole text and determined the hedging devices as well as the author presence markers. As the third step, the frequency of hedging devices and author presence markers in each move was determined. The researcher trained a second rater who is specialized in the field of second language writing. The data were analyzed by both of the raters. The results compared after the analysis, the findings of the analyses were compared. The results were revealed that the in the corpus composed of the Turkish dissertations four dissertations were revealed full agreement, while the remaining six dissertations revealed differences. On the other hand, the American corpus revealed six full agreement compared to four disagreement. These differences were discussed and a full agreement was reached between the raters as in the process followed by Martinez (2005) and Taş (2008).

5. Findings & Discussion

5.1. Moves

The dissertations were analyzed to determine their move structures. To give an answer to the first research question, the results of these analyses were presented in the following tables (Table 3, 4). These analysis revealed interesting results in terms of the similarities and differences of dissertation abstracts' structuring in both contexts. The move structures in the dissertations written in the Turkish and American contexts have two common points; first, they all include 2,3,4 move sequence. These three moves are as mentioned above *Purpose, Method, and Product* moves. Secondly, except for D3 all of the dissertations followed the order of the moves as 2,3,4. It is obvious from these finding that these three moves were considered by the researchers as the basic and essential structure of an abstract in both contexts.

In the corpus of 10 dissertations written in the Turkish context, six of them were

structured to include only 2,3,4 move structure. Except for the *Dissertation 9*, the remaining three dissertations followed an irregular structure of moves which included repetition of moves and going back and forth among moves. Interestingly, among these four dissertations which were the only ones to include the first move (*Introduction*). It was only D9 which positioned Move 1 at the beginning while the three remaining dissertations (D2, D3, D10) turned back to introduction after providing the purpose, and even sometimes the method of their studies.

Similarly, the second important point in the corpus of Turkish context is that neither of the abstracts included the final move which is the *Conclusion*. Clearly, the researchers in Turkey did not consider drawing inferences and implications on their results as important. However, since all of these dissertations were selected among the practice-oriented studies providing implications and practical clues are of high importance. This can be considered as a problem for the potential readers who may not find the dissertations appealing especially when they cannot figure out the practical implications of these studies.

It is worth mentioning that in three of the dissertations written in Turkey (D4, D5, D6) abstracts were concluded with a sentence which announced that the results were discussed according to the literature and suggestions were made (See *Excerpts 1, and 2*); however, the results or suggestions were not mentioned. Therefore these were considered as a '*redundant move*'. They did not fall into the definitions of any of the moves. Another interesting point is that all three of these sentences used almost exactly the same words. To be more specific two of the dissertations (D5 and D6) were written using exactly the same words while in D4 the only difference was the word "study" which was preferred instead of the expression "research" used in the two dissertations.

Excerpt,

1.

Findings of the study were discussed in the light of the relevant literature and some suggestions for further studies were made. (D4)

2.

Findings of the research were discussed in the light of the relevant literature and some suggestions were made. (D5, D6)

Table 3. The structure and frequency of move types in Turkish Ph.D. dissertations

Thesis	Move Structure	Number of Moves
D1	2,3,4	3
D2	2,1, 2,3,4	5
D3	2,3,1,2,4,3,4	7
D4	2,3,4	3
D5	2,3,4	3
D6	2,3,4	3
D7	2,3,4	3
D8	2,3,4	3
D9	1,2,3,4	4
D10	2,3,1,2,3,4	6

The structural organization of dissertations in the USA corpus yielded quite different results compared to the dissertations in the Turkish corpus. To start with, no repetitions were observed in the organization of these dissertations' abstracts (Table 4). In other words, in these dissertations, the writers did not go back and forth between the moves. Secondly, they all followed the sequence except for the *D14*, and *D16*. The *D14* turned to an irregular structure by providing the introduction at the end of the study. Another point is that all of the dissertations except for *D12*, *D17*, and *D19* included the introduction part. This can be argued that the authors were aware of the importance of providing background information and preparing the reader for the study. Similarly, half of these included the 5th move (conclusion) which is again an important feature to wrap up the study by providing implications and further interpretations. These two features as mentioned in the above paragraph are problematic in the Turkish corpus.

Table 4. The structure and frequency of move types in Ph.D. dissertations written in the USA

Thesis	Move Structure	Number of Moves
D11	1,2,3,4,5	5
D12	2,3,4	3
D13	1,2,3,4,5	5
D14	2,3,4,1	5
D15	1,2,3,4	4
D16	1,2,3,4,5	7
D17	2,3,4	3
D18	1,2,3,4,5	5
D19	2,3,4	3
D20	1,2,3,4,5	5

5.2. Author Presence Markers

Author voice is not observed in the investigated dissertations' abstracts except for one instance in the corpus of Turkish dissertations (*Excerpt 4*) and two occurrences in the American dissertations (*Excerpt 4*). It can be understood that the researchers refrained from putting themselves on the forefront in their writings. Most of the time they incorporated passive voice or other subjects such as "*The study revealed that...*" instead of directly referring to themselves. In *Excerpt 3*, the author used *we* instead of *I* which can be considered as a way of indirect inclusion as well.

Excerpts;

3.

Although the two L2 groups were significantly less accurate than native English speakers in processing subject extraction from nonfinite clauses, we can still say that the subject-object asymmetry in wh-extractions in nonfinite clauses is a characteristic of both native and nonnative sentence processing. (D10)

4.

The semantic map that is proposed contains three dimensions, which I refer to as Grammatical Number, Referentiality, and Discourse Mode. Each of these

dimensions contains a number of further semantic values or pragmatic functions – which I will label “attributes” – that are implicated in English article choice. (D20)

Based on the findings regarding author voice it is quite difficult to create a picture of the current situation in the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts either in the Turkish or in the American context. The reasons for this may be related to the interdisciplinary differences in academic writing. Different academic disciplines or communities have different structural and rhetorical approaches in writing. Another possible reason for this can be considered as the number of abstracts investigated may have an influence on this finding. A larger corpus may provide a better view of the issue.

5.3. Hedging

The overall instances of hedges were very small in number. The authors did not incorporate hedging devices very much while reporting their studies. It can be argued that the reason behind this small number may be connected to the absence of the 5th move (Conclusion). The authors did not provide any comment, interpretation, implication or recommendation in their abstracts because of the absence of the Conclusion move, therefore it is quite understandable that they did not incorporate hedging devices.

Only three of the abstracts in the Turkish corpus incorporated hedging devices. Of these instances, one occurrence was observed in the first move (*Excerpt 6*). The authors incorporated hedging to state an idea that still requires further studies and does not have a consensus upon. In another instance interestingly hedging was utilized in the second move while talking about the purpose of the study. In fact, such use of hedging is quite uncommon, the authors are expected to be precise while talking about the purpose of their studies. Finally, two instances of hedging were incorporated in the abstracts while talking about the product of the study. It is acceptable and most of the time advisable that in the discussion of the findings hedging can be utilized.

Excerpts;

6.

*Therefore, it is believed that assessments **should** reveal the underlying causes of learners’ poor performances and actions **should** be taken to remediate these underlying problems to foster development. (D2)*

7.

*The learning **can** be monitored if the learners have internalized the knowledge through mediation, and **can** use this knowledge in other assessment contexts without mediation. (D2)*

8.

*The analysis of the mean scores of the two incidental teaching groups demonstrated that both incidental learning conditions in the study **can** lead to some learning gains. (D7)*

9.

*Although the two L2 groups were significantly less accurate than native English speakers in processing subject extraction from nonfinite clauses, we **can** still say that the subject-object asymmetry in wh-extractions in nonfinite clauses is a characteristic of both native and nonnative sentence processing. (D10)*

When the hedging uses in the American context dissertations considered it can be observed that there is not a cumulative pattern based on a specific move such as

conclusion. The instances were observed as two occurrences in the introduction (*Excerpts 10, and 11*) in which the author tried to focus on the significance of EAP classroom instruction. However, from the tone of the writer, it is obvious that s/he does not want to undertake too much responsibility. Another instance was found in the product move (*Excerpt 9*) where the author is discussing his/her findings. In her discussion, she used hedging on a point which is still under dispute in the literature. It can clearly be understood that the author does not have enough evidence to provide a strong claim at this point. Finally, two occurrences of hedging were observed in the conclusion move (*Excerpts 12, and 13*). In these two occurrences, the authors seem to be providing implications for practice. It is quite understandable and widespread that hedging is used in the implications stage of academic works.

Excerpts;

10.

*It is argued that these errors **can** largely be attributed to L1 transfer, since Arabic is significantly different from English in terms of how to encode the causative-inchoative alternation. (D14)*

11.

*However, no study to date has examined the **possible** effect of classroom instruction on ESL students' ability to write discourse synthesis essays. (D15)*

12.

*It is thus important to know if academic preparation programs such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs **can** successfully teach discourse synthesis writing to the ESL students to assist them in their academic preparation. (D15)*

13.

*Results of this study strongly suggested that metacognitive reading strategy instruction (MRSI) **should** be integrated into regular EFL reading classes. (D16)*

14.

*In addition, it is suggested that the methodological paradigm used to test the semantic map model **may** be useful as an experimental paradigm for testing semantic maps of other constructions and languages. (D20)*

6. Conclusion

This study was conducted to determine the effect of context in EAP writing. A comparative analysis of the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts written in two different contexts namely Turkish and American was administered under the scope of this study. This study was designed as threefold; first, the organizational structure of abstracts was analyzed; secondly; the author voice was investigated in the abstracts; and finally, the hedging devices incorporated by the researchers were investigated.

A comprehensive analysis revealed that the effect of context was visible in certain aspects of the Ph.D. dissertation abstracts. In other words, the abstracts written in Turkey and in the USA had more differences than similarities. The organizational structures of abstracts are quite different in both contexts. Another important point is that the interrater-agreement was higher in the American corpora compared to the Turkish corpora. In the English language, which is considered among the western languages stated by Hinds (1987) as writer-responsible language, the meaning is clarified by the writer with a narrow place for reader interpretation,

while in Turkish which may be considered as a reader-responsible, the meaning is left to the interpretation of the reader. The difference between the raters in the two corpora can be explained with this perception of the rhetorical preference of authors. The “redundant move” is also an interesting finding of this study which deserves further investigation with a larger corpus. There is still too much to do in both contexts to obtain a smooth organization in the abstracts. In future studies, the organizational structure may be studied in other western and eastern contexts to reveal the reader-responsibility and writer-responsibility between the languages. The author voice is not observable in both corpora which can be considered as the general tendency of academics. Finally, the frequency and style of hedging devices also constitute a difference in both contexts. This is linked to the move structure as mentioned previously. The absence of the fifth move has an impact on the less use of hedges in the Turkish corpus. This study is limited to its corpus. Due to the small number of dissertations in the corpus, the results of this study cannot be generalized. However, the findings revealed at the end of the study provided useful information in terms of future research and practice of academic writing.

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TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH CORRESPONDENCE – THEN AND NOW

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Abstract: *Are letters still important? Are business letters as the classic means of communication needed and important to be taught during language classes these days? Or should the new and modern means of communication prevail over the classic written pieces of paper? This article discusses the findings and implications of an investigation meant to answer these questions about the role of business correspondence in English (i.e. email, letters, memos, faxes) and this is done as a case study addressed to the local door market. The results are based on four sources: 1. a questionnaire that had two versions: an online survey sent by email to 150 alumni of The Faculty of Economics, University of Oradea and to 8 companies and professional associations, and a paper-based version distributed to 80 professionals, who included students undertaking undergraduate and postgraduate programmes; 2. semi-structured interviews with 8 professionals, 3. analyses of 25 email chains comprising 190 separate messages, and a “week-in-the-life” case study. All these cover half a year span of investigation. This research comes with relevant information about the role of email versus letters, memos and faxes in the globalised workplace, the purposes and characteristics of these text types, and the challenges that Romanian professionals experience when writing business correspondence in a second language. The article argues that the irrelevance of the traditional approach of business English courses (letters, memos, faxes) when it comes to the needs of modern-day professionals and need for email and netiquette focus as the core of updated instruction.*

Keywords: business correspondence; Business English; syllabus; letters, email

1. Introduction

The teaching of business correspondence has been an important part of courses in Business English and business communication for students of English as a second language (ESL) in most Romanian higher education institutions- The Faculty of Economic, University of Oradea, included. The accent was primarily on learning the history of letters and correspondence, on discussing the main parts of a letter/business letter, its layout, on writing fictional letters from companies to the business world and memos from one department to another, within the imagined company. For that there were plenty of courses, manuals and textbooks meant to prepare future professionals for approaching any type of business letter, focusing especially on correct grammar and stylish manner. The 1980s brought an important communication invention: the fax machine which added value, speed and freshness to communication, but, as Stephen Evans (2014) notices “no sooner

had Business English teachers responded pedagogically to this development than they were confronted with another, more radical innovation in business communication, and one that more than any other has stimulated the use of English as a business lingua franca: email.” (2014:104)

1.1. Literature study

According to the audience addressed to, materials on teaching business correspondence fall into two categories: those dedicated to native speakers (Bovéé& Thill, 2008; Guffey & Loewy, 2011; Locker & Kaczmarek, 2009) underlining especially strategies for constructing the message and the adequate vocabulary, and those meant for second language users of English which insist more on grammar and style. Naturally, our study will focus on the second one, the studied market being Romanian where English is a second language used mainly at the workplace.

As stated above, we currently live in a completely different world, an age of fast-paced, frequent communication. Texting, e-mail and instant messaging often assault us from every side. Even so, the classic means of communicating, business letters, personal letters, etc. are still an important part of the syllabus for Romanian students to learn while completing their studies at the Faculty of Economics, University of Oradea. As I. Horea rightly stated (2007), Business Correspondence is “taught intensively to students of economics” in Oradea, and she goes on arguing the importance of correspondence, namely letters, as a means of practicing “information on how to use an already assimilated – and not exaggeratedly extended – business lexical material, in a tactful and official manner, in accurate writing of complete, effective and correct formal letters, skilfully selecting the most appropriate phrases and ways of addressing”. Thus, following this logic it is perfectly understandable that the syllabus includes the topic. Nevertheless those who have undertaken teaching business correspondence, stressing mainly on the classic business letters know how difficult it is to arouse and maintain a vivid interest. Consequently, while performing what was to be done, and also witnessing the updated and more used means of communications that people greatly rely on (emails, instant messaging) we have frequently asked ourselves about the usefulness of teaching and focusing on business letters.

It is definitely relevant for any future economist to know the parts of a letter, the courtesy and correct procedure to follow when initiating continuing and maintaining communication with a foreign partner. Nevertheless, nowadays students have never written letters in their entire lives, not even personal ones, and do not feel the need to do it, and so is the case with business letters. On the other hand, we, the instructors insist on the importance of the written word in business, and on politeness and manners. Their questions keep on appearing: then why not emails? Students also argue that they may find the needed information on writing any type of business letter at a press of a button. In spite of acknowledging the new and completely different characteristics of email as well as its essential place in our present “world flattening” phase of economic globalisation (Friedman, 2006), the learning materials on business correspondence continue to devote considerable space mainly to letters, to memos and faxes and which is even more dramatic, to employ more or less the same obsolete methodology in their presentation to students. More recent materials follow Crystal’s (2006) recommendation that email is formally and functionally unique but the methodological approach looks reformed

rather than rethought and replaced; One possible reason for rejecting the new might be explained by Evans (2014) who notices that much of the scarcely voluminous research in this area has centred on aspects of business letters, such as generic structure (Flowerdew & Wan, 2006; Santos, 2002), politeness strategies (Chakorn, 2006; Yeung, 1997), intertextuality and interdiscursivity (Bhatia, 2005; Bremner, 2008) and linguistic features (Bargiela-Chiappini & Harris, 1996) and (to a lesser extent) memos (Forey, 2004) and faxes (Akar & Louhiala-Salminen, 1999). And Evans continues by admitting that there is a significant change that has been obvious for the past decade, a real interest in email communication in the fields of English for specific purposes expressed in researches: Gimenez, 2005, 2006; Jensen, 2009; on business communication (e.g. Dawley & Anthony, 2003). The problem is that these studies often seem to lack pedagogical recommendations addressed to professionals who use English as a second language who now cover a significant segment in the global market. Namely, recent materials lay little emphasis on email communication, focusing more on proficiency-oriented exercises on grammar and vocabulary and less on effective communication. Further on, these textbooks guide learners along writing texts on different topics such as complaint letters, enquiries or encourage them to be careful with the structure (opening, body, and closing) of emails that professionals supposedly follow when writing them just like in the case of letters, memos and faxes in the real world.

Being crystal clear that emails are by far more used in the day-to-day business communication (O’Kane, Palmer & Hargie, 2007) the article will try to come up with pertinent answers regarding the role of emails in everyday business context as compared to letters, as well as the challenges that professionals face when writing business correspondence in English. The answers are sought in the area of services in Oradea, an uprising town of Romania and using data from an investigation on to the use of English in the everyday business context. The findings may become recommendations for the future design of the university curricula for students in Economics.

1.2 Differences between letters and emails

As letters are considered obsolete, letter writing is seen as an art, much used in the past, a too detailed and time-consuming process nowadays. Email is used daily, checked regularly, sometimes even obsessively, on computers, smartphones, being presently one of the main ways people communicate with each other on daily, personal basis.

As the term *email* suggests, the name comes from *electronic mail*, which hints to its origin- the handwritten letter format. At the very beginning just like in the case of letters, there was a set of rules for writing appropriate emails deriving from the good practice of letter writing. However, as they are the product of technological innovation, they have also been subject to innovation and thus, in time, the electronic culture started making its own rules evolving divergently from the original format. Today we have essential differences between email and letter writing.

The first and most essential difference is that emails are *less formal* and this is a direct consequence of the development of faster forms of communication- phone, social media, which have relinquished formalities and courtesy formulas. When sending “letters” to hundreds of people at a time and only pressing a button, the rules of starting each and every of them with “Dear Sir/Madam,” seems rather

archaic. Nevertheless, there are situations when the procedure is followed, writing a complaint letter to a bank for instance, when, even in a hurry, formality is recommended. Formulas like “To whom it may concern:” and “Dear Ms Davies,” are still recognised as formal salutations, yet, even business English has started relaxing its rules and the more informal “Hi,” and “Good day,” are becoming increasingly more popular.

Another defining difference between the two ways of communication is *the presence of the subject line*: unlike letters which do not necessarily impose it, sometimes its role being expressed in the first line of the first paragraph: “I am writing in regard to...”, emails etiquette suggests a short and to the point subject line arguing that a well-conceived line could save an email from being put off and become part of the priority list.

Differences are also in *the style of writing* and it all depends on the audience. Even if emails are synonymous to informality, it is a fact that most of the emails sent daily are meant for business. Business emails are still more formal and subjected to a certain stylistic standard. Nevertheless, multinationals and new hip internet and communication companies have created a more casual work culture trying to release pressure from employees and to connect work life with life outside the company and the result of this approach is sensed at the level of formality that is expected from a business email. There are domains where the change is not substantial: education, banking, where emails are still rather formal and polite, beginning with “Dear Sir,” and ending in “Sincerely yours,” and here the formal tone and the level of formality is determined by the recipient.

To conclude, despite less formality, there are some business writing rules that apply to emails as well.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 The questionnaire survey

The survey was intended *to underline* the needs for language learning of the Romanian professionals performing in the local business, the door market, also *to discuss* the participants’ strengths and weaknesses when using business English correspondence, including writing emails, letters, memos, faxes, reports, giving presentations and participating in meetings and *to find* a possible answer to the question: emails or letters? Thus, a questionnaire was developed: an online survey sent by email to 150 alumni of The Faculty of Economics, University of Oradea and to 8 companies and professional associations, and a paper-based version distributed to 80 professionals, who included students undertaking undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. A total of 84 correctly completed questionnaires were returned. The results indicate a good degree of reliability. In spite of the low response rate, which is of no surprise, the sample is comprehensive enough so as to capture the experiences of a rather representative segment of the local door market workforce.

2.2. Analysis of email chains

There was also an analysis of 25 email chains, out of which 19 (containing 135 messages) were provided by a product manager (Alina) working for a local door

selling company, while the remainder (containing 55 messages) were collected by a marketing manager (Cosmin). This analysis provided useful information on the structure, initiation, continuation and ending of the email communication chain and also supported the participants' assertion about the daily volume and frequency of email communication, and also explained the challenges they are faced to, such as the standard formulas, structure and also the need to be precise and concise in every email.

3. Results of the investigation

A significant ratio of the respondents of the survey were employed in disciplines in the professional and business services industry (49.1%), while the others worked in trading and logistics (12.8%), financial services (11.1%), tourism (10.4%), and other service sectors (16.6%). Most of the participants were career professionals, more than half of them (51.7%) having up to ten years of experience. The survey was the initial stage of the investigation, its findings provided the basis for the interview phase, which involved 8 professionals (4 males, 5 females). The interviewees had experience in their working field as they occupied middle and senior management positions in their organisations.

The interviews were based on predetermined plan, but, as a warmup, the interviewer was able to ask free questions to explore interesting issues to create a proper interview atmosphere. The topics approached dealt with business correspondence focusing on the purposes of emails, letters, memos and faxes, message structures, style and tone. Given the centrality of email in modern business was to come as a no surprise topic as seen below. The interviews were in Romanian, each lasting 30-40 minutes.

3.1. The roles of emails, letters, memos and faxes in the business world plus the key part played by English in international business communication

The surest piece of information provided by the study, as it appears in the chart below, is the major part English language plays in the business communication.

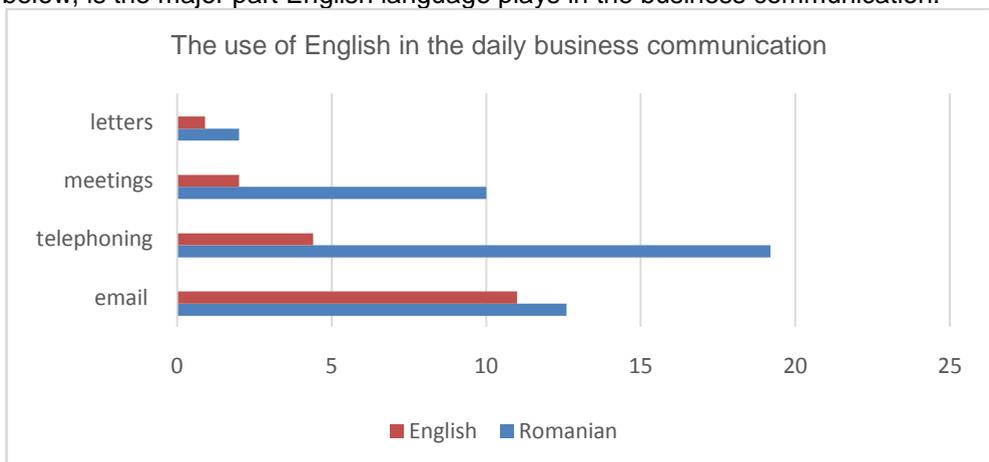


Figure 1 Source: own design

Another key information that resulted underlines the importance of emails in the business communication greatly prevailing that of other means: letters, faxes, memos. As illustrated in Figure 2, reading and writing emails eat up an important part of the employees' time (35.72%), the next most common activity being telephoning (20.56%) (although not conversations were conducted in English). A close analysis of the product manager checklist revealed that she wrote 17 emails in Romanian during the week. These texts occupied 47 minutes of her time, and perhaps significantly, were all internal messages (as were the 49 Romanian-language emails she reported reading). Her email writing in English was fairly balanced between internal and external communication (29 and 23 messages respectively). The task of dealing with messages took about 3½ minutes (internal) and 4 minutes (external) to compose, which thus confirms the need for being quick and brief in the nowadays business world.

Paul (buyer), for example, admitted that "99% of our writing is in the form of email", while Raluca (human resources) observed that "emails equal about 90% of our writing". Cosmin (marketing specialist) pointed the very quintessence of the interviews: "Basically email along with telephones is the main communication channel in our activity."

These experiences came as answers to our premises indicating that reading and writing internal and external emails are the most frequent English-using activities; the key role of email in modern business communication was also indicated by the findings of the case studies.

3.2. The purposes of business correspondence

A part of the questionnaire focused on the main purposes of writing business correspondence that the participants were asked to by ticking up to three of the 12 options provided. The participants based their responses on their experiences of email communication. As seen in Figure 2 the purposes are quite different, none of them predominates, although finding information seems particularly significant for all of them.

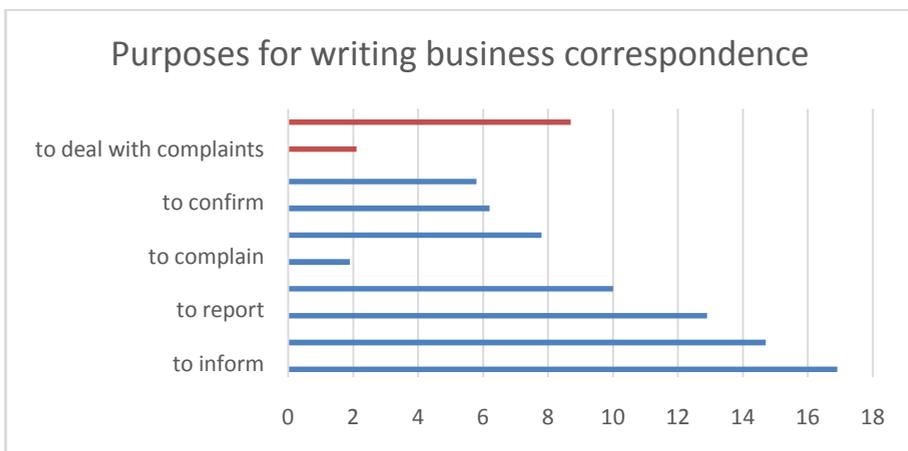


Figure 2 Source: own design

3.3. Analysis of email chains

The survey and interview findings are supported by an analysis of email chains, out of which a majority of 25 email chains (containing 135 messages) was provided by a product manager (Alina) working for Romanian door manufacturer, while the rest of them (containing 121 messages) were collected by an IT manager (Ionut) employed by a multinational company.

This analysis provided useful pedagogical information about the average lengths of chain emails (i.e., who initiates the chain, who finishes it, the first and final messages in a chain of email messages as well as the messages that form the body of the chain). This information is valuable as it proves the interviewees' claims about the volume of email communication and meanwhile explains the major challenge they experience when composing such messages: the need to be precise and brief. And it also testifies the extreme importance of English communication skills.

3.4. Case study

This paper was also based on data collected from a "week-in-the-life" case study. The participants in the case studies were asked to record their business-related activities on each day of a typical working week. They checked on a specially designed paper with their current activities specifying the nature, language, duration and direction (i.e. internal or external) of their communication activities. The data was meant once again to track the flows of written and spoken language be it Romanian or English.

4. Conclusion

The paper was meant to reveal some aspects of our world, personal and professional as recorded by the findings of a questionnaire survey, of interviews, email chains and case studies. The findings are relevant of us, language teachers of English-language business correspondence in Oradea, from at least three points of view:

First, to know whether our teaching should focus on letters, memos and faxes as it currently does. Memos and faxes have now largely been used too much being taken over by emails and letters seem to undergo the same path. the same destiny superseded by email and thus could easily be removed from students' already overloaded syllabi. The existence of extremely numerous predefined templates and models explains the lack in interest of students, the only practical purpose of teaching them should be to help students develop aspects of their written English, such as grammar, style and cohesion.

Second, the data acquired suggests that email plays a key role in workplace communication and consequently it should become the core component of any course that seriously seeks to prepare students for professional employment. It is crucial for students to understand that emails contain embedded messages and thus they integrate all the four skills.

Third, as derived from the present investigation, the focus should be on following the email chain rather than the isolated one-way message and this might become the basis for useful real email instruction. One important change in the teaching seems to be the lengths of the emails drilled in the class: the emails students compose in the classroom tend to be long and very detailed whereas the emails

written daily by professionals hardly go over 50 words. This is because they are linked to previous ones or are the result of documents and discussions that have been produced or participated before; consequently students should be given the chance to write messages at different points in a chain, to adapt the content, length and language of their messages to the new reality which goes beyond the guidelines provided by their textbooks.

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SPEZIFIZITÄT VS. DIFFUSITÄT IN DER RUMÄNISCHEN UND IN DER DEUTSCHEN WERBUNG

THE DIMENSION SPECIFIC VS. DIFFUSE IN ROMANIAN AND GERMAN ADVERTISING

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Abstract: *Die Dimension Spezifität vs. Diffusität bedeutet, dass in spezifischen Kulturen die Lebensbereiche klar voneinander getrennt sind und auch Begegnungen mit anderen Menschen werden in diesen Kategorien betrachtet. Hat man mit einem Menschen in verschiedenen Lebensbereichen zu tun, verhält man sich entsprechend der jeweiligen Situation. Den Gegensatz dazu bilden diffuse Kulturen, wo die Lebensbereiche mehr miteinander vermischt sind und der Zugang aus der öffentlichen Sphäre in den Privatbereich einfacher ist. In Beziehungen verhält man sich indirekt, scheinbar ziellos. Man ist oft ausweichend, zweideutig und undurchsichtig. Spezifität vs. Diffusität kann auch an der Ausführung der Werbung, der Interaktionen zwischen den Personen und der Art der dargestellten Personen erkannt werden, wie auch an der Art und Weise der Übermittlung der Botschaft und der Beeinflussung und Erreichung der Zielgruppe in den unterschiedlichen Kulturen.*

Abstract: *The dimension specific vs. diffuse means that in specific cultures the areas of life are clearly separated and encounters with other people are also considered in these categories. If you deal with a person in different areas of life, you behave according to the situation. The opposite is represented by diffuse cultures, where the areas of life are mixed together and the access from the public sphere to the private sphere is easier. In relationships, one behaves indirectly, seemingly aimlessly. One is often evasive and ambiguous. Specific vs. diffuse can also be recognized in the way the advertisement is carried out, the interactions between people and the type of persons represented, as well as the way in which the message is conveyed and how it influences and reaches the target group in the different cultures.*

Schlüsselwörter: Interkulturalität; interkulturelle Wahrnehmung; kulturelle Dimensionen; Spezifität vs. Diffusität; Werbung

Keywords: interculturality; intercultural perception; cultural dimensions; specific vs. diffuse; advertising

1. Einleitung

Einer der Schwerpunkte interkultureller Forschung ist die Suche nach kulturellen Dimensionen durch systematische Erforschung und Abstrahierung kultureller Unterschiede. Diese kulturellen Dimensionen vereinfachen die Klassifizierung von Kulturen und erleichtern die Analyse von kulturellen Unterschieden und ihren Auswirkungen. Die Grundlagen der kulturellen Dimensionen sind von verschiedenen Autoren geschaffen worden. Die bekanntesten und auch am meisten angewandten sind die Dimensionen von Edward T. Hall, Geert Hofstede und Fons Trompenaars und Charles Hampden-Turner.

Die Arbeit des Niederländers Fons Trompenaars, international tätiger Managementberater, basiert auf den vorhergehenden Modellen und einer eigenen empirischen Untersuchung, die er zusammen mit Charles Hampden-Turner in den 1980er- und 1990er-Jahren bei Managern in verschiedenen Unternehmen und Kulturen durchführte. Er begann seine Forschungen, mit dem Ziel herauszufinden, warum im Geschäftsverkehr zwischen verschiedenen Kulturen einige erfolgreich sind und andere scheitern. Diese Forschungen führten ihn zu Überlegungen über die Bedürfnisse unterschiedlicher Kulturen, eingeteilt in sieben Kulturdimensionen. Er definierte die sieben kulturellen Dimensionen, die er in drei Kategorien (Verhältnis der Menschen untereinander, Verhältnis zu der Zeit und Verhältnis zur Umwelt) aufteilte. Der ehemalige Schüler Hofstedes baute eine Datenbank auf, die bis heute etwa 30.000 Teilnehmer umfasst und zu der größten ihrer Art zählt. Seine Erkenntnisse und Theorie veröffentlichte er in seinem Hauptwerk „Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business“, das er 1993 herausgab.

2. Die Merkmale der Kulturdimension Spezifität versus Diffusität

Fons Trompenaars beschreibt durch diese Dimension, wie die Menschen ihre verschiedenen Lebensbereiche schützen oder anderen Personen zugänglich machen. Er stellt hier die Trennung der Wirkungswelten der Individuen einer Gesellschaft dar. So zeigen spezifische Kulturen z.B. eine explizite Abgrenzung zwischen Privat- und Berufsleben, während die Diffusität in Gesellschaften eher ein Zusammenfließen dieser Lebenswelten widerspiegelt. Für die Managementaktivitäten im Betrieb kann das bedeuten, dass bestimmte Arbeitsbereiche oder Aufgaben strikt voneinander getrennt bzw. anderen Personen zugewiesen werden oder aber im Fall einer diffusen Gesellschaft auch zusammenlaufen oder interferieren können.

Die einzelnen Lebensbereiche sind in spezifischen Gesellschaften klar voneinander getrennt. Diese Abgrenzung geht so weit, dass man sich immer jeweils nur in einem Bereich aufhalten kann. Der öffentliche Bereich eines Individuums ist hier viel größer und leichter zugänglich für andere Personen als der private Bereich, zu dem nur einige wenige Personen Zugang erhalten. Arbeitskollegen werden in der Regel nicht in der Freizeit getroffen. Die Privatsphäre ist klein und wird nur ausgewählten Personen zugänglich gemacht. Das Denken der Menschen ist auf die Besonderheiten einzelner Teile eines Ganzen ausgerichtet. Das Ganze ist die Summe seiner Teile. Diese Kulturdimension ist geprägt durch Direktheit, Prägnanz, Geradlinigkeit und

Transparenz und ihre Mitglieder erachten Moral und Prinzipien als Werte. Interaktionen zwischen Menschen sind in der Regel äußerst zielgerichtet und klar abgegrenzt. Es besteht eine Nähe zum monochronen Zeitverständnis.

In spezifischen Kulturen wie Nordamerika, Australien oder der Schweiz begegnen sich Menschen in bestimmten Lebensbereichen wie zum Beispiel am Arbeitsplatz oder auf dem Golfplatz. Dies ist verbunden mit einem geringen persönlichen Engagement, jedoch mit leichter Kontaktaufnahme.

Im Gegensatz dazu werden in diffusen Kulturen die Lebensbereiche oft miteinander vermischt. Der Privatbereich ist großzügig ausgelegt. Es ist durchaus üblich und erwünscht, Menschen mit denen man vertrauter ist, Zugang zu allen Lebensbereichen zu gestatten. Dem Vorgesetzten werden auch im privaten Bereich seine uneingeschränkte Autorität und Fähigkeit zugestanden. Individuen aus diffusen Kulturen verfügen in der Regel über einen großen privaten und einen kleinen öffentlichen Bereich. Fremde Personen erhalten zu beiden Bereichen nur schwer Zugang, wenn sie jedoch erst einmal aufgenommen wurden, haben sie Zutritt zu allen Lebensbereichen des anderen Individuums. Menschen aus diffus orientierten Kulturen haben zuerst eine Perspektive für das Ganze und fokussieren die Beziehungen der einzelnen Elemente. Das Ganze ist mehr als nur die Summe seiner Bestandteile (Treichel und Mayer, 2011: 252). Diese Kulturen sind geprägt durch Indirektheit, Taktgefühl, Unklarheit und zum Teil Undurchsichtigkeit, aber auch durch Benehmen, Atmosphäre, Vertrauen und Verständnis. Moral wird hier nicht als autonomer Wert betrachtet sondern in Abhängigkeit von Betroffenen bzw. Beteiligten und dem Gesamtzusammenhang.

In diffusen Kulturen wie Japan, Indien, Korea oder Frankreich gewährt man Menschen nach einer Weile der Bekanntschaft einen ganzheitlichen, umfassenden Zugang zu allen Lebensbereichen. Person und Sache wird vergleichsweise schnell vermischt. So wird beispielsweise der Geschäftspartner auch gerne außerhalb des beruflichen Umfelds kennengelernt. Unter Umständen ist dieses gesamtheitliche Kennenlernen Voraussetzung für eine Geschäftsbeziehung. Die berufliche Stellung spielt auch im privaten Rahmen eine Rolle.

Welche Ausprägung ein Land in dieser Dimension erzielt, ermittelt Trompenaars mit der Frage: „Würden Sie das Haus Ihres Chefs streichen, wenn er Sie darum bittet?“ (Trompenaars und Hampden-Turner, 2012: 108).

91% der Schweden, aber nur 32% der Chinesen würden ihrem Vorgesetzten in dieser Situation nicht helfen. Bei spezifischen Kulturen wie Skandinavien, Niederlande, angelsächsische Kulturen oder den USA werden die einzelnen Rollen klar festgelegt und realen Situationen oder Örtlichkeiten zugeordnet. Ein Vorgesetzter in den USA ist im Unternehmen der anerkannte Chef. Außerhalb dieses Ortes wird er entsprechend der neuen Rolle behandelt, z.B. kann er als Anfänger auf dem Golfplatz seinen Auszubildenden bitten, ihm Ratschläge zu geben. In diffusen Kulturen wie Afrika oder den arabischen Ländern wäre dies undenkbar. Die Rolle die jemand hier einnimmt, übernimmt er auch in der Gesellschaft.

Die Spezifität von beruflichen Beziehungen als möglicher Indikator für die Ausprägung dieser Dimension hat Trompenaars ebenfalls durch problemzentrierte Fragen erprobt. Eine der Fragen untersucht, ob ein Fehler, der sich im beruflichen

Kontext ereignet, mit dem expliziten Verantwortungsbereich einer Einzelperson in Verbindung gebracht wird, oder ob der Fehler in diffuser Art und Weise einem ganzen Arbeitsteam zuzurechnen ist und auf die Gruppe verteilt wird. Die Frage ist also, ob Verantwortung spezifisch zugewiesen wird oder ob sie diffus akzeptiert wird.

Aber auch auf die interkulturelle Kommunikation wirkt sich die Dimension Spezifität vs. Diffusität aus. So sind die Vertreter von spezifischen Kulturen im Anfangsstadium kaum dazu bereit, eine persönliche Beziehung mit einem Geschäftspartner einzugehen. In durch Spezifität gekennzeichneten Länder konzentriert man sich spezifisch auf die Sache, persönliche Beziehungen stehen nicht im Mittelpunkt. Es wird sachlich verhandelt ohne tiefere Bindungen einzugehen. Nach erfolgten Gesprächen trennt man sich, ohne persönlichen Kontakt geknüpft zu haben. Persönliche Kontakte entstehen, wenn überhaupt nach Abschluss des Geschäftlichen (Schugk, 2004: 159).

Im Gegensatz zur Spezifität bringt es eine diffuse Kultur mit sich, dass in zwischenmenschlichen Begegnungen Person und Sache schnell vermischt werden. Diese untrennbare Verbindung von Person und Sache macht eine separate Kritik entweder an der Person oder an der Sache unmöglich. Sachliche Kritik wird in den meisten Fällen gleichzeitig auch als Kritik an der eigenen Person empfunden.

3. Spezifität vs. Diffusität in der deutschen bzw. rumänischen Gesellschaft

Die rumänische Kultur und Gesellschaft zeichnet sich durch Diffusität aus. Die Rumänen schließen Freundschaften am Arbeitsplatz, trennen diese aber nicht von der Arbeitswelt, im Unterschied zu Deutschland. So ist es durchaus üblich, dass man im Berufsleben auch Interesse am Privatleben der Arbeitskollegen entwickelt, über die eigene Familie spricht und gemeinsame Interessen sucht, um später eventuell gemeinsam etwas zu unternehmen und manchmal lädt man sogar die Familie des Arbeitskollegen zu sich zum Essen ein.

Man versucht die Atmosphäre in rumänischen Unternehmen harmonischer zu gestalten, weil man sich als Kollektiv sieht, in dem man gut miteinander auszukommen versucht. In Rumänien ist am Arbeitsplatz die Sache nicht von der Person zu trennen. Zu einem guten Arbeitsklima im Kollektiv trägt gemeinsames Feiern bei, das oft direkt am Arbeitsplatz stattfindet.

Deutschland ist den spezifischen Kulturen zuzuordnen, in dem Arbeits- und Privatbereich strikt voneinander getrennt sind. Berufstätige Deutsche unterscheiden klar zwischen ihrem Berufsleben und ihrem Privatleben: Während der Arbeit arbeitet man, die Arbeit hat Vorrang vor anderen Sachen. In der Freizeit lebt man, d.h. Beziehungen, Familie, Freunde, persönliche Interessen nehmen die ganze Person in Anspruch. Kontakte des Berufslebens werden im Privatleben nur unter bestimmten Bedingungen fortgesetzt. Im Berufsleben werden Mitteilungen aus dem Privatleben sorgfältig ausgewählt und eher sparsam mitgeteilt und die Macht eines Vorgesetzten beschränkt sich auf die Arbeitszeit. Deutsche definieren klar die Rollen, die zu bestimmten Positionen gehören.

4. Spezifität vs. Diffusität in der rumänischen und in der deutschen Werbung

Die rumänischen Werbeanzeigen für die Automarke *Dacia* widerspiegeln die diffuse Dimension der rumänischen Gesellschaft, durch die Vermischung des beruflichen Bereiches mit dem persönlichen Lebensbereich (Abb. 1). Die erste Anzeige zeigt ein Schlafzimmer und eine Ehefrau, die friedlich auf dem Ehebett liegt und schläft. Der Ehemann allerdings befindet sich unter dem Bett, in seiner gewohnten Arbeitsplatzposition. Er ist nämlich Automechaniker und gewohnt, unter dem Auto seine Arbeit zu verrichten. So wie der Slogan der Werbeanzeige verrät, ist er seinem Beruf pausenlos und ununterbrochen verschrieben: „Auto Service Dedicated 24/7“. Die zweite Werbeanzeige präsentiert ein frisch vermähltes Paar bei seiner Hochzeit. Die Braut trägt ein Brautkleid, doch der Bräutigam ist in seiner Arbeitskleidung als Mechaniker zu seiner Hochzeit erschienen. Auch bei dieser konnte er sich von seiner Arbeitskleidung nicht trennen. Die Schlagzeile der Anzeige lautet: „Die Mechaniker von *Dacia* verrichten ihre Arbeit mit wirklicher Leidenschaft“.



Abb. 1 Werbeanzeigen für die Automarke *Dacia* (2011) auf <http://www.igads.ro/creatie/17245/dacia-service>

In dem rumänischen Werbefilm für *Flanco* wird ebenfalls ein Beispiel einer diffusen Kultur dargestellt (Abb. 2). Der Werbefilm zeigt das Fachgeschäft *Flanco* und die Aktivitäten der Angestellten und der Kunden darin, die sich wie in der eigenen Privatsphäre verhalten. Die Kunden können sehen, wie Angestellte des Fachgeschäfts die ausgestellten Produkte zu ihrem eigenen Nutzen verwenden, so als ob sie in dem Geschäft wohnen würden. Zum Beispiel benutzt ein junger Angestellter einen elektrischen Rasierer. Einige Kunden beraten ihn sogar dabei oder helfen ihm bei der Rasur. Eine andere junge Verkäuferin hat ihre Haare gerade gewaschen und trocknet sich nun die Haare mit einem Haartrockner im Laden ab. Ein dritter Angestellter zieht sein T-Shirt vor den erstaunten Kunden aus, um es dann in einer ausgestellten Waschmaschine zu waschen. Die Kunden des Ladens reagieren auf diese unerwarteten und ungewöhnlichen Situationen erstaunt und interagieren gerne mit den Angestellten. Die persönliche, intime Atmosphäre wird hier in einer öffentlichen Sphäre zur Schau gestellt, was auf eine diffuse Gesellschaft hinweist.



Abb. 2 Werbefilm für *Flanco* (2012) auf <http://www.iqads.ro/creatie/27909/flanco-meru-pest-asteptari>

Die diffusen Merkmale der rumänischen Kultur kommen auch in einer Reihe von Werbespots der rumänischen Telefongesellschaft *Romtelecom* zum Ausdruck (Abb. 3). In einem Werbefilm aus dem Jahre 2001 lässt es sich eine junge Frau zu Hause gut gehen und sie versucht sich zu entspannen. Als sie schließlich eine Nachricht auf dem Anrufbeantworter abhört, erfährt sie, dass ihr Mann in einigen Minuten zusammen mit seinem Chef vorbeikommen wird. Entsetzt macht sich die junge Frau daran, die Wohnung zu putzen und sich selber zurechtzumachen. Kurze Zeit später klingeln auch schon der Ehemann und sein Chef an der Tür. Die Frau konnte alles rechtzeitig für den unvorhergesehen Besuch erledigen und lädt die Männer in die Wohnung ein. In einer diffusen Kultur ist es üblich, dass Vorgesetzte nach Hause zu ihren Mitarbeitern eingeladen werden und sie persönliche Besuche abstatten, um die Familie ihrer Angestellten kennenzulernen.



Abb. 3 Werbefilm für die Telefongesellschaft *Romtelecom* – *Der Chef* (2001) auf <http://www.iqads.ro/creatie/19810/romtelecom-seful>

Auch in den rumänischen Werbefilmen für *ejobs.ro* wird das Arbeitsumfeld als privates Umfeld dargestellt (Abb. 4). Der Chef, als Braut verkleidet, sieht beleidigt aus dem Fenster des Büros hinaus. Auf die wiederholten Fragen seines Angestellten, ob etwas passiert sei, ob er etwas falsch getan hätte, antwortet der Chef beleidigt, dass nichts passiert wäre. Als der bestürzte Angestellte aber das Büro verlassen will, wirft ihm der Vorgesetzte nun vorwurfsvoll vor, was ihn so lange bedrückt hat: „Du weißt sehr genau, was du getan hast und vor allem, was du nicht getan hast!“ und verlässt wutentbrannt den Raum. Zurück bleibt der fassungslose und entsetzte Angestellte und der Slogan des Werbefilms: „Es handelt sich um einen Job, nicht um eine Ehe“. Man sollte die beiden Bereiche, privat und beruflich, eindeutig voneinander trennen, was aber oft nicht der Fall ist.



Abb. 4 Werbefilm für *ejobs.ro* – *Nichts* (2007) auf <http://www.iqads.ro/creatie/4206/ejobs-ro-nimic>

In einem anderen Werbespot desselben Unternehmens erscheint ebenfalls der als Braut verkleidete Chef, der nun seinen Angestellten um eine Fußmassage bittet, obwohl dieser mit seiner Büroarbeit sehr beschäftigt ist (Abb. 5). Am Arbeitsplatz sollten klar umschriebene Aufgaben und Aufträge erteilt werden, was aber in einer diffusen Kultur nicht immer der Fall ist.



Abb. 5 Werbefilm für *ejobs.ro* – *Die Massage* (2007) auf <http://www.iqads.ro/creatie/4207/ejobs-ro-masajul>

Im deutschen Werbespot für *Ikea - Zuhause arbeiten* wird eine spezifische Kultur dargestellt (Abb. 6). Eine Frau sitzt an ihrem Schreibtisch im Büro, als das Telefon klingelt. Am anderen Ende der Leitung ist ihr Ehemann, der sie am gedeckten Tisch zu Hause erwartet. Die Frau erwidert aber, dass sie es nicht schaffen kann, rechtzeitig da zu sein. Er soll ohne sie anfangen, zu essen. Als der Mann auflegt,

bricht er niedergeschlagen in Tränen aus, da er wieder einmal alleine essen muss. Wie es sich aber herausstellt, befinden sich Ehemann und Ehefrau im selben Haus und in nebeneinander gelegenen Zimmern. Die Frau arbeitet weiter an ihrem Büro und der Mann muss nun alleine zurechtkommen und selber zu Abend essen. Sogar im selben Haus sind die Bereiche beruflich-privat klar voneinander getrennt.



Abb. 6 Werbefilm für *IKEA – Zuhause arbeiten* (2006) auf <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vZyzSatKhtM>

5. Zusammenfassung

Zusammenfassend kann man sagen, dass keine allgemein gültigen Regeln für die Konzipierung einer Werbung existieren. Vielmehr müssten eine Vielzahl an Faktoren berücksichtigt werden, um ein bestimmtes Produkt erfolgreich zu bewerben. Neben kulturellen Eigenheiten sind produktspezifische Faktoren sowie länderübergreifende Zielgruppen zu berücksichtigen. Folglich kann Spezifität vs. Diffusität auch an der Ausführung der Werbung, der Interaktionen zwischen den Personen und der Art der dargestellten Personen erkannt werden, wie auch an der Art und Weise der Übermittlung der Botschaft und der Beeinflussung und Erreichung der Zielgruppe in den unterschiedlichen Kulturen.

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NEUTRALITÄT VS. EMOTIONALITÄT IN DER RUMÄNISCHEN UND IN DER DEUTSCHEN WERBUNG

THE DIMENSION NEUTRAL VS. EMOTIONAL IN ROMANIAN AND GERMAN ADVERTISING

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Abstract: *Mit der Dimension Neutralität vs. Emotionalität beschreibt Fons Trompenaars, wie weit es in den verschiedenen Kulturen möglich ist, Emotionen in der Öffentlichkeit auszudrücken. Unter Emotionalität sind dabei nicht nur äußere Gefühlsausbrüche, sondern auch alltägliche Erscheinungen wie Lächeln, Gestikulieren, d.h. non-verbale Kommunikationsformen gemeint. In neutralen Kulturen werden die aufkommenden Gefühle kontrolliert und eher für sich behalten. In Diskussionen wird vorwiegend auf der Sachebene argumentiert. Es herrscht hier eine Kommunikation mit niedrigem Kontextbezug vor, also eher auf verbaler Ebene. Neutralität vs. Emotionalität kann auch an der Ausführung der Werbung, der Interaktionen zwischen den Personen und der Art der dargestellten Personen erkannt werden, wie auch an der Art und Weise der Übermittlung der Botschaft und der Beeinflussung und Erreichung der Zielgruppe in den unterschiedlichen Kulturen.*

Abstract: *Fons Trompenaars describes with the dimension neutral vs. emotional how far it is possible to express emotions in public in different cultures. Emotionality includes not only outbursts of emotion, but also everyday appearances such as smiling, gesturing, i.e. also non-verbal forms of communication. In neutral cultures, the emerging feelings are controlled and rather kept to themselves. In discussions it is mainly argued on the factual level. There is a low-context verbal communication. Neutral vs. emotional can also be recognized in the execution of advertisement, the interactions between the characters and the type of persons represented, as well as in the way the message is conveyed and how the target group is influenced and reached in the different cultures.*

Schlüsselwörter: Interkulturalität; interkulturelle Wahrnehmung; kulturelle Dimensionen; Neutralität vs. Emotionalität; Werbung

Keywords: interculturality; intercultural perception; cultural dimensions; neutral vs. emotional; advertising

1. Einleitung

Moderne, wie auch eher traditionelle Gesellschaften, setzen sich mit den gleichen Grundproblemen auseinander. Sie unterscheiden sich aber in den Antworten und Reaktionen auf diese Herausforderungen und wie sie diese Probleme lösen. Diese Auffassung war vor allem in der Sozialanthropologie der ersten Hälfte des 20. Jahrhunderts verbreitet (von Ruth Benedict, Margaret Mead). Um diese Unterschiede zwischen den Kulturen zu erklären, entwickelten Ethnologen wie Edward T. Hall und Sozialwissenschaftler wie Geert Hofstede und Fons Trompenaars sogenannte Kulturdimensionen.

Mit Hilfe dieser Kulturdimensionen lassen sich kulturelle Denk-, Handlungs- und Wahrnehmungsmuster charakterisieren, schematisieren und abgrenzen. Sie widerspiegeln Grundbereiche möglicher kultureller Unterschiede. Eine Dimension stellt aber immer nur einen Aspekt einer Kultur dar. Sie sind Durchschnittswerte und treffen nie auf alle Mitglieder einer Kultur zu. Auch innerhalb nationaler Kulturen sind unterschiedliche Orientierungen zu finden (z.B. Belgien, die Schweiz, Kanada).

Ende der 60er Jahre führte Geert Hofstede eine Studie über Kulturdimensionen durch (Hofstede, 2001), die auf empirischer Basis (Befragung von über 116.000 Managern in 72 Ländern) den Einfluss von Landeskulturen auf multinationale Unternehmen nachwies. Die statistische Auswertung brachte in den verschiedenen Ländern gemeinsame Probleme zutage, aber von Land zu Land unterschiedliche Lösungen. Diese ließen sich in große Bereiche zusammenfassen, aus welchen Hofstede seine vier Dimensionen für Kulturen definierte. Die fünfte Dimension fügte er 1980 hinzu. Folgende fünf Dimensionen sind Aspekte einer Kultur, welche sich im Verhältnis zu anderen messen und vergleichen lassen: Machtdistanz (Wie wird in einer Kultur mit Macht und mit Ungleichheit umgegangen?), Kollektivismus versus Individualismus (Wird Individualismus oder Kollektivismus in einer Kultur bevorzugt?), Maskulinität versus Feminität (Ist die Kultur eher maskulin oder eher feminin geprägt?), Unsicherheitsvermeidung (Wie wird mit Unsicherheit umgegangen?), Langzeitorientierung versus Kurzzeitorientierung (Gibt es eine kurzfristige oder eine langfristige Orientierung?).

Es erschienen thematisch spezialisierte Zeitschriften, die in den 80er Jahren dazu übergingen, jede Ausgabe einem speziellen Thema der interkulturellen Kommunikationsforschung zu widmen, so dass die interkulturelle Kommunikation fest in der amerikanischen Kommunikationswissenschaft verankert ist und einen eigenständigen Studienzweig bildet. Seither hat der fortschreitende Globalisierungsprozess den Stellenwert dieser Forschungsrichtung dauernd erhöht und sie hat sich in mehrere Bereiche aufgegliedert, die nicht immer klar voneinander abzugrenzen sind.

Fons Trompenaars veröffentlichte mehrere Bücher zum Thema interkulturelles Management und entwickelte aufgrund der Werke von Geert Hofstede und Edward T. Hall eine Theorie zur Analyse kultureller Unterschiede, die in seinem Buch *Riding the Waves of Culture* in Form von sieben Dimensionen kultureller Unterschiede beschrieben sind.

Im Gegensatz zur Studie von Hofstede stammen die von Trompenaars Befragten nicht aus einem einzigen Unternehmen, sondern aus vielen verschiedenen Unternehmen. Zahlreiche Personen wurden dabei im Rahmen interkultureller Trainingsprogrammen befragt, weitere Personen wurden aus internationalen Unternehmen in 50 verschiedenen Ländern berücksichtigt. Dabei wurden den

Befragten zwei oder mehrere Aussagen vorgelegt, bei denen sie die aus ihrer Sicht jeweils zutreffende Aussage auswählen konnten (Schugk, 2004: 151). Seine Erkenntnisse und Theorien veröffentlichte er zusammen mit Charles Hampden-Turner im Jahre 1997 in seinem Hauptwerk *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business* (1996). Im Rahmen ihrer Untersuchungen identifizierten sie insgesamt sieben grundlegende Kulturdimensionen, die sich wiederum in drei Kategorien menschlicher Probleme zuordnen lassen: Universalismus versus Partikularismus, Individualismus versus Kollektivismus, Neutralität versus Emotionalität, Spezifität versus Diffusität, Leistung versus Status, Einstellung zur Zeit, Einstellung zur Umwelt.

Die ersten fünf Kulturdimensionen charakterisieren die Kategorie zwischenmenschlicher Beziehungen zwischen den Kulturmitgliedern. Die beiden letzten Dimensionen, die die Art des Umgangs mit der Zeit bzw. mit der Umwelt beschreiben, bilden dagegen jede eine Kategorie für sich.

2. Die Merkmale der Kulturdimension Neutralität versus Emotionalität

Mit dieser Dimension beschreibt Fons Trompenaars, wie weit es in den verschiedenen Kulturen möglich ist, Emotionen in der Öffentlichkeit auszudrücken. Unter Emotionalität sind dabei nicht nur äußere Gefühlsausbrüche, sondern auch alltägliche Erscheinungen wie Lächeln, Gestikulieren, d.h. non-verbale Kommunikationsformen gemeint. In neutralen Kulturen werden die aufkommenden Gefühle kontrolliert und eher für sich behalten. In Diskussionen wird vorwiegend auf der Sachebene argumentiert. Es herrscht hier eine Kommunikation mit niedrigem Kontextbezug vor, also eher auf verbaler Ebene.

Der Ausdruck spontaner Gefühle in der Öffentlichkeit wird dagegen in emotionalen Gesellschaften akzeptiert, was sich in extrovertiertem Verhalten (Lautstärke, ausgeprägte Körpersprache) ausdrücken kann (Treichel und Mayer, 2011: 251-252). Enttäuschung und Trauer sind in der Öffentlichkeit ebenso erlaubt wie Wut und das Auslachen des Gesprächspartners. Die Kommunikation mit einem hohen Kontextbezug wird vorgezogen und spielt sich daher auch auf der non-verbale Ebene ab.

In emotionalen Kulturen sind Berührungen, Gestikulieren und starker Gesichtsausdruck üblich, während in neutralen Kulturen körperlicher Kontakt tabu ist.

Trompenaars befragte Mitglieder verschiedener Kulturen, ob sie ihre Emotionen am Arbeitsplatz ausdrücken würden. Er kam zu dem Ergebnis, dass südeuropäische Länder, allen voran Italien, eindeutig emotional orientiert sind, während sich etwa die japanische, die indonesische oder die norwegische Gesellschaft als neutral im Umgang mit Emotionen gezeigt haben (Trompenaars, 2012: 146).

Der Feststellung, es sei in ihrer jeweiligen Gesellschaft unprofessionell, offen seine Gefühle zu zeigen, stimmen 74% der Japaner zu, aber nur 19% der Spanier. Wenn z.B. mit Arabern verhandelt wird, ist es ganz wichtig, nicht nur sehr viel Zeit zu investieren, sondern auch mit einer lauten Stimme aufzutreten, um seinen Willen zu bekräftigen. Gegenteilig wirkt sich eine laute Stimme allerdings negativ in Japan aus. Dementsprechend sind vor allem neutrale Äußerungen oder Androhungen zum Beispiel von Japanern mit Vorsicht und Aufmerksamkeit zu verfolgen, denn

hinter diesen Äußerungen könnten sich ernstzunehmende Drohungen verbergen (Schugk, 2004: 156).

In neutral kommunizierenden Kulturen gelten eine zu hohe Lautstärke sowie eine zu große Offenheit als unfein und indiskret. Die Kommunikation von Vertretern emotional ausgerichteter Kulturen hingegen ist dadurch gekennzeichnet, dass Gefühle freimütig gezeigt werden, ob durch verbale oder nonverbale Ausdrucksformen (Trompenaars und Hampden-Turner, 2012: 94).

3. Neutralität vs. Emotionalität in der deutschen bzw. in der rumänischen Gesellschaft

In Rumänien gibt es kein Tabu gegenüber dem Ausdruck von Gefühlen und Emotionen, allerdings innerhalb der Grenzen der Vernunft und des Anstandes. Für den Ausdruck der Freude, des Interesses, der Zustimmung oder der Missbilligung, der Empörung und Entrüstung usw. stehen den Rumänen außer den gewöhnlichen verbalen Ausdrucksformen, auch die paraverbalen und nonverbalen Formen zur Verfügung, wie z.B. die Stimmstärke, die Stille, der Gesichtsausdruck, die Arm- und Kopfbewegungen, die Körpersprache im Allgemeinen. Enttäuschung und Trauer sind in der Öffentlichkeit ebenso erlaubt wie Wut und Freude. In emotionalen Kulturen sind Berührungen, Gestikulieren und starker Gesichtsausdruck üblich.

Sachorientierung und Neutralität kann man als eine der auffälligsten deutschen Kulturdimensionen bezeichnen. Die Sache steht bei den Deutschen im Mittelpunkt der Aufmerksamkeit. Deutsche schätzen ein „sachliches“ Verhalten als professionell. Unter einem „sachlichen Verhalten“ wird die weitgehende Kontrolle von Emotionen, Argumentation mit Fakten, und Zielorientierung verstanden. In Diskussionen wird vorwiegend auf der Sachebene argumentiert. Gute Beziehungen zwischen den Arbeitskollegen sind nicht von primärer Bedeutung und werden nur als ein angenehmer Nebeneffekt betrachtet. Ein weiterer Aspekt der Sachorientierung zeigt sich dadurch, dass dem persönlichen Besitz und Eigentum ein hoher Wert zugemessen wird und die Gegenstände, die einer bestimmten Person gehören, Teil dieser Person zu sein scheinen, weswegen ihr Verleihen unüblich ist. Deutsche bemühen sich auch, Gefühle und die objektiven Fakten auseinander zu halten. Rationalität und Sachlichkeit im Berufsleben wird mit Professionalität verbunden, und das Zeigen von Gefühlen bedeutet in mancher Hinsicht fast Schwäche.

In ihrem Kommunikationsstil pflegen Deutsche große Direktheit und Eindeutigkeit: Alles was ihnen wichtig ist, wird explizit mit Worten formuliert, und die Sachverhalte werden dabei offen benannt. Zu den charakteristischen Elementen des Kommunikationsstils gehört der Fokus auf den Inhalt des Gesagten. Es wird weniger auf der paraverbalen und nonverbalen Ebene kommuniziert. Die Deutschen reden zwar meist direkt und undiplomatisch, aber andererseits ehrlich und aufrichtig. Die Meinung wird klar geäußert, und man kommt ohne Umwege auf den Punkt. Deutsche denken oft nicht daran, dass man auf Gefühle der Anwesenden besonders Rücksicht nehmen sollte. Deshalb können ihre Aussagen, obwohl das nicht so gemeint und beabsichtigt ist, auch verletzend wirken. Was Deutsche sagen, das meinen sie, und sie meinen das, was sie gerade sagen, d.h. man braucht zur Entschlüsselung ihrer Botschaft keine ergänzenden Informationen.

4. Neutralität vs. Emotionalität in der rumänischen und in der deutschen Werbung

Fons Trompenaars ausgearbeitete Kulturdimension Neutralität vs. Emotionalität widerspiegelt sich auch in den deutschen und rumänischen Werbespots und -anzeigen. Der Ausdruck der Emotionalität mit seinen äußeren Gefühlsäußerungen; Lachen, Mimik, Gestikulieren, extrovertiertem Verhalten ist in vielen rumänischen Werbeanzeigen zu beobachten (Abb. 1).



Abb. 1 Rumänische Werbeanzeigen, welche die Emotionalität der Darsteller ausdrücken

In den Werbeanzeigen werden diese positiven Gefühlsausbrüche der Freude, Zufriedenheit und Enthusiasmus meist von den Darstellern mit anderen Personen geteilt, ein Ausdruck des Kollektivismus der rumänischen Kultur. Dabei werden auch alle non-verbale Elemente eingesetzt, um diese Emotionalität zu übertragen: In den Werbeanzeigen für Krax zum Beispiel kommunizieren die Jugendlichen non-verbal und benötigen keine Worte um sich zu verständigen. Durch das Essen der Chips und durch das Geräusch, das sie dabei verursachen, können sie sich untereinander verständigen (Abb. 2).



Abb. 2 Werbeanzeigen für Krax – Ohne Worte (2008) auf <http://www.iqads.ro/creatie/7695/krax-fara-cuvinte>

In den rumänischen Werbeanzeigen für einen Wettbewerb und für das Telefonunternehmen Connex werden diesmal heftige negative Gefühlsausbrüche

bildlich präsentiert (Abb. 3). In den Anzeigen für den Kommunikationswettbewerb werden die Reaktionen der bewertenden Preisrichter dargestellt, die Bleistifte in Stücke zerbrechen oder ins Wasserglas beißen, da sie die Leistungen der schlechten Kandidaten bewerten müssen. Daher auch die Aufforderung an die Kandidaten, es sich zweimal zu überlegen, ehe sie sich an den Wettbewerb anmelden. Dadurch soll die Gesundheit der Preisrichter geschont werden, die sonst durch impulsives und hemmungsloses Verhalten auffallen könnten. In der Werbeanzeige für *Connex* hat der Ehemann während eines Fussballspiels seinen Fernseher einfach aus dem Fenster geworfen und entschuldigt sich nun bei seiner Frau durch eine SMS dafür. Solche Gefühlsausbrüche gibt es eher in emotionalen Kulturen, wie es die rumänische Kultur ist.



Abb. 3 Rumänische Werbeanzeigen, die negative Gefühlsausbrüche darstellen

Doch nicht nur den Menschen werden in Werbefilmen Emotionen zugeschrieben, sondern auch den Dingen (Personifikation), wie zum Beispiel einem Auto in dem rumänischen Werbefilm für das Versicherungsunternehmen *Groupama* (Abb. 4). Ein Fahrer hat einen leichten Unfall, er fährt nämlich ein anderes Auto an. Trotzdem ist sein Auto nun nicht mehr fahrfähig und hat einen Blechschaden. Der Fahrer scheint eine sehr enge Beziehung zu seinem Auto zu haben und ist über diesen Vorfall sehr traurig. Das Auto erwidert seine Traurigkeit und verliert ein paar Tränen durch seine Scheinwerfer. Das Auto kann also weinen und tut dies sogar in der Öffentlichkeit, auf der Straße. Als das fahrunfähige Auto abgeschleppt wird, sträubt es sich sogar dagegen. Auch der Besitzer beklagt den Abschied von seinem Wagen und hat eine Radkappe des Wagens als Andenken behalten, damit die Trennung weniger schmerzhaft entfallen soll. Sowohl der Mann als auch das Auto drücken ihre Gefühle in der Öffentlichkeit offen aus. Die starke Beziehung zwischen ihnen wird vor allem durch Mimik, Gestik und Emotionsausbrüchen ausgedrückt.



Abb. 4 Werbefilm für *Groupama* - *Der Traum* (2012) auf <http://www.iqads.ro/creatie/21379/groupama-visual>

Heftige Gefühls- und Wutausbrüche gibt es auch im rumänischen Werbespot für *Campofrio* (Abb. 5). Ein Ehemann wirft versehentlich eine Vase um. Dieses Versehen löst bei seiner Ehefrau einen wahren Wutausbruch aus und sie beginnt, seine Lieblings-LPs zu zerschlagen. Daraufhin reagiert auch ihr Ehemann heftig und aggressiv und macht sich daran, die Kleider seiner Frau in Stücke zu zerreißen und ihren Kleiderschrank zu zerschlagen. Sie wiederum zerstört seine Gitarre und seine Modellbauten. Dann werden nacheinander die Sachen und die Möbelstücke aus der Wohnung zerstört. Es herrscht im Werbefilm ein heftiger Sturm an Gefühlen mit Wutausbrüchen und unkontrolliertem übertriebenem Verhalten, wo man alles um sich herum vergisst, so wie es bei den Mitgliedern der emotionalen Kulturen vorzufinden ist.



Abb. 5 Werbefilm für *Campofrio* – *Die Verteilung* (2010) auf <http://www.iqads.ro/creatie/5442/campofrio-the-allotment>

In dem deutschen Werbespot für *BMW Runflat Reifen* wird ein Mann gezeigt, der durch den Wald läuft (Abb. 6). Plötzlich fokussiert die Kamera auf ein Brett mit einem herausragenden Nagel, auf den der Mann dann auch wirklich tritt, so dass der Nagel durch seinen Turnschuh herausragt. Der Mann verzieht keine Miene, befreit seinen Fuß von dem Nagel und setzt seinen Lauf fort, so als ob nicht geschehen wäre. Die Abwesenheit jedwelcher Emotion, sei es Schmerz, Wut oder Verzweiflung, drückt die neutrale deutsche Kultur aus, die vor allem die Leistung verfolgt. Das besagt auch der Slogan der Anzeige „Macht weiter, wo andere aufhören.“. Nicht der Ausdruck der Gefühle ist von Bedeutung, sondern die Erreichung des Zieles.



Abb. 6 Werbefilm für *BMW Runflat-Reifen* (2008) auf http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KdrfV_eP2A4

In einem anderen deutschen Werbefilm (*Bonaqua Tafelwasser*) wird eine idyllische, ruhige Parklandschaft gezeigt, inmitten der eine alte Frau und ein junger Mann auf einer Parkbank sitzen (Abb. 7). Der Mann trinkt genüsslich das *Bonaqua Tafelwasser* aus einer Flasche. Er genießt die Ruhe und die Freizeit, in der er entspannen kann. Plötzlich wird er von einem Ball am Kopf getroffen. Er blickt den Ball an und dann seine Flasche und eine Abfolge von Handlungen schießt ihm durch den Kopf, wie er einen Konflikt mit den Männern hat, von denen er glaubt, ihn angeworfen zu haben. Schließlich trinkt er noch einmal aus der Flasche und entschließt sich, ruhig zu bleiben, sich nichts anmerken zu lassen und nicht zu reagieren. Als er sich wieder umdreht, sieht er wie sich die beiden Männer entfernen und wie eine junge sportliche Dame beschämt und verlegen in seine Richtung blickt. Sie war es nämlich, die ihn aus Versehen mit dem Ball getroffen hat. Am Ende des Werbespots sieht man sie zusammen im Park Volleyball spielen. Der Slogan des Werbefilms: „Wer ausgeglichen ist, hat mehr vom Leben.“ widerspiegelt die Ruhe und Ausgeglichenheit der typisch neutralen Gesellschaften, in der Gefühlsausbrüche nicht öffentlich gezeigt werden.

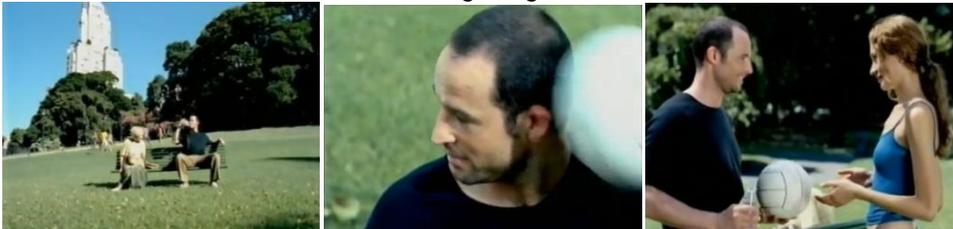


Abb. 7 Werbefilm für *Bonaqua Tafelwasser* (2001) auf <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wMXpr856-g0>

5. Zusammenfassung

Zusammenfassend kann man sagen, dass keine allgemein gültigen Regeln für die Konzipierung einer Werbung existieren. Vielmehr müssten eine Vielzahl an Faktoren berücksichtigt werden, um ein bestimmtes Produkt erfolgreich zu bewerben. Neben kulturellen Eigenheiten sind produktspezifische Faktoren sowie länderübergreifende Zielgruppen zu berücksichtigen. Folglich kann Neutralität vs. Emotionalität auch an der Ausführung der Werbung, der Interaktionen zwischen den Personen und der Art der dargestellten Personen erkannt werden, wie auch an der Art und Weise der Übermittlung der Botschaft und der Beeinflussung und Erreichung der Zielgruppe in den unterschiedlichen Kulturen.

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**AUF DIE PERSÖNLICHKEIT DES LEHRERS KOMMT ALLES AN –
FORSCHUNGSBERICHT ZUM PROFIL EINES „GUTEN“
FREMDSPRACHENLEHRERS IN ALLEN SCHULTYPEN IN POLEN**

**IT ALL DEPENDS ON THE TEACHER'S PERSONALITY – PROFILE OF A
'GOOD' FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER IN ALL TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN
POLAND – RESEARCH REPORT**

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Abstract: *Since the 1960s, there has been increasing interest in the teacher's professional qualifications in didactics, leading in some ways to the 'dehumanization' of the teacher. And yet it is the teacher's personality that often determines his/her educational and didactic influence on the students. The aim of this article is to present a portrait of the so-called good foreign language teacher, which has been created on the basis of the comments made by about 840 Polish students of modern languages, and pupils representing various types of schools (from primary schools, through middle and secondary schools, to colleges and universities) in two voivodeships of Poland, namely Podkarpackie Voivodeship and Wielkopolska Voivodeship. In this picture, teacher personality traits, the majority of which are regarded as values not only in professional life (e.g. in the teaching profession), but also in personal life, have ranked the highest. Personality traits have overshadowed the other two groups of qualities, which foreign language teachers are also equipped with, i.e. didactic and glottodidactic ones. On the basis of the results of our research, it can be stated that the respondents (regardless of the educational stage) are inclined to perceive the (foreign language) teacher mostly as a good man, and not as a programmed robot, possessing a wide range of skills and competences. The respondents' beliefs are, therefore, closer to the psychologists' and pedagogues' beliefs from the first half of the twentieth century than to contemporary concepts, in which a 'good teacher' is characterized as possessing only an appropriate, specialized education.*

Keywords: teacher education, teacher personality, 'good' teacher, personality traits, didactic characteristics, glottodidactic characteristics

1. Einleitende Bemerkungen

Der Gedanke von dem deutschen Literaturwissenschaftler und Schriftsteller, Friedrich Heinrich Otto Weddigen – *Auf die Persönlichkeit des Lehrers kommt alles an. Der Wert aller Methoden und Verordnungen ist zweifelhaft* – korrespondiert direkt mit den Überlegungen der Pädagogen und Psychologen, die bis zu den 60er

Jahren des vergangenen Jahrhunderts in zahlreichen wissenschaftlichen Beiträgen zum Ausdruck gebracht wurden. Diese die Persönlichkeit des Lehrers ins Zentrum des Interesses stellende Strömung ist auch für Polen charakteristisch, wo viele Pädagogen und Psychologen ihren Beitrag für die Prägung dieser Ideen leisteten. Die polnischen Wissenschaftler und Forscher (u. a. Dawid 1912/1959; Mysłakowski 1925/1959; Dzierzbicka 1926; Schuman 1947/1959; Kreutz 1947/1959; Grzegorzewska 1947/2002; Baley 1958/1959; Okoń 1959; Bandura 1972; Putkiewicz 1973) gingen davon aus, dass den größten Einfluss auf die intellektuelle und persönliche Erziehung der Schüler die Persönlichkeit des Lehrers hat. Auf keinen Fall bezweifelten sie die Wichtigkeit der entsprechenden pädagogischen und fachspezifischen Ausbildung im Lehrerberuf, jedoch vertraten sie anhand der empirischen Untersuchungen, in denen die Daten vorwiegend aufgrund der teilnehmenden und nicht-teilnehmenden Beobachtung gesammelt wurden, die Ansicht, dass es viele sehr gut ausgebildete, professionelle Lehrer gibt, die von keinem als gute Lehrer wahrgenommen und bezeichnet wurden (Dawid 1912/1959: 38; Kreutz 1947/1959: 154; Grzegorzewska 1947/2002: 33-35). In den kommenden Jahren wurde der Schwerpunkt der wissenschaftlichen Erwägungen von der Persönlichkeit des Lehrers auf seine Qualifikationen und Kompetenzen übertragen. Diese Tendenz, die ihre Widerspiegelung in wissenschaftlichen Publikationen fand, in denen versucht wurde, die Bildung der angehenden und die Fortbildung der schon qualifizierten (Fremdsprachen)Lehrkräfte aus verschiedenen Blickpunkten zu skizzieren, hält immer noch. Die Anzahl der Veröffentlichungen zu diesem Thema selbst kann zur Konstatierung führen, dass nur fachspezifische Ausbildung eines Lehrers über seine *Erziehungstauglichkeit* (Baley 1958/1959) Ausschlag gibt. Mit dieser Feststellung sind aber nicht alle polnischen Pädagogen, Psychologen und Fremdsprachendidaktiker (u. a. Solak 2007; Skrzypniak 2007; Stasiak 2008; Karwatowska 2012; Miłułka und Chojnacka-Gärtner 2018) einverstanden, die in ihren die Befunde der empirischen Untersuchungen diskutierenden Arbeiten dafür plädieren, die Persönlichkeit des Lehrers als einen sehr wichtigen, sogar entscheidenden Faktor dieser Tätigkeit doch anzuerkennen, ohne dabei seine entsprechende Ausbildung in Frage zu stellen. Ihre Erwägungen und Feststellungen gelten jedoch heutzutage als Einzelstimmen, weil in den meisten dem Fremdsprachenlehrer gewidmeten Publikationen in erster Linie die Professionalität des Lehrers hochgeschätzt wird, die sich in der soliden Aus- und Fortbildung sowie der reflexiven Praxis offenbaren sollte. Demzufolge sollte eben die Professionalität darüber entscheiden, ob man einen (Fremdsprachen)Lehrer mit dem Adjektiv „gut“ beschreiben kann. Um die theoretischen Ausführungen zu ergänzen und zugleich zu überprüfen, in wie weit sie mit dem Standpunkt der Schüler im Einklang stehen, verfolgt der vorliegende Beitrag das Ziel, das Bild eines „guten“ Fremdsprachenlehrers aus der Perspektive der polnischen Lernenden aller Schultypen darzustellen.

2. Zur Datenerhebung und -auswertung

Die Untersuchung fand in dem Schuljahr 2016/2017 statt und wurde parallel in zwei gegenüberliegenden Regionen Polens (im Karpatenvorland und in Großpolen) durchgeführt. Sie betraf Grundschulen, Gymnasien (es handelt sich um das polnische Gymnasium, d. h. eine drei Jahre lang dauernde Mittelschule, die

dem deutschen Sekundarbereich I entspricht.), Oberschulen sowie Hochschulen. Insgesamt nahmen an der Untersuchung 841 Probanden teil, davon 177 Grundschullerner, 233 Gymnasiasten, 202 Oberschullerner und 229 Studenten, wobei die letzte Gruppe aus Neuphilologie-Studenten bestand, die sich in ihrem Studium explizit auf den Lehrerberuf spezialisierten.

Alle Probanden, denen die Anonymität garantiert wurde, beteiligten sich an der Befragung freiwillig und wurden aufgefordert eine in ihrer Muttersprache schriftlich gestellte offene Frage *Jaki powinien być „dobry“ nauczyciel języka obcego? Jakie powinien posiadać cechy?* [‘Wie soll der „gute“ Fremdsprachenlehrer sein? Welche Eigenschaften soll er besitzen?’] beliebig, d. h. stichwortartig oder in Form von einer längeren Äußerung, auch in ihrer Muttersprache zu beantworten. Es ist zu betonen, dass die in der Muttersprache verfassten Äußerungen der Lerner von den beiden Forscherinnen originalgetreu ins Deutsche übersetzt wurden. Bei der Sammlung des Untersuchungsmaterials wurde die *Methode der freien Assoziation* eingesetzt, wobei anzumerken wäre, dass die Datenerhebung nur einmal erfolgte. Solche Untersuchungen, d. h. mit einmaliger Messung, werden in der einschlägigen Literatur als *Querschnittsdiagnose* (Komorowska, 1982:172-190), *Querschnitterhebung* (Diekmann, 2007:194) oder als eine *statische Untersuchung* (Wilczyńska und Michońska-Stadnik, 2010:62-63) bezeichnet. Es handelt sich also um eine typische nicht-experimentale, berichtende Untersuchung, die in kurzer Zeit den Forschern wertvolle Informationen über den untersuchten Tatbestand liefert. Wenn man aber die Zahl der an der Untersuchung teilnehmenden Probanden berücksichtigt, gehört sowohl die gesamte Probe, als auch die einzelnen je nach dem Schultyp aufgestellten Proben zu Großproben (Łobocki, 2009:175). Da der Zusammenstellung der Stichprobe ein Kriterienraster zugrunde lag, gilt sie als eine *Zielstichprobe*, die wegen des begrenzten Umfangs nur eingeschränkt repräsentativ ist. Nichtsdestotrotz lässt sie gewisse Trends in dem untersuchten Tatbestand erkennen und liefert wertvolle Informationen über ihn. Die für die Untersuchung qualifizierten Lernenden mussten folgende Kriterien erfüllen: **I. Lage der Schule** (1. zwei gegenüberliegende Regionen Polens (Karpatenvorland, Großpolen); 2. Dörfer, Kleinstädte bis 38 000 Einwohner (betrifft die Grundschulen, Gymnasien und Oberschulen)); **II. Alter der Lernenden** (jeder Bildungsstufe entsprechend; im Falle der Grundschule betraf die Untersuchung die Lerner der Klassen 4-6); **III. unterschiedliche Fremdsprachenlehrer** (Kontakt mit: 1. wenigstens einem Fremdsprachenlehrer – Grundschule; 2. wenigstens zwei Fremdsprachenlehrern – Gymnasium; wenigstens fünf Fremdsprachenlehrern – Oberschule), **IV. unterschiedliche Fremdsprachen in der Schule** (Grundschule – wenigstens eine Fremdsprache; im Falle der weiteren Schultypen wenigstens zwei Fremdsprachen); **V. neuphilologische Studienrichtung, Spezialisierung auf Lehramt** (dieses Kriterium betraf ausschließlich die Hochschullerner).

2.1 Die quantitative Analyse der erhobenen Daten

Das Reichtum und die Vielfältigkeit der von allen untersuchten Lernenden genannten Merkmale (etwa 130) war ein Beweis dafür, dass sich die Probanden bei der Ausführung der gestellten Aufgabe genaue Gedanken machten, welche Eigenschaften zum Profil eines „guten“ Lehrers exakt passen. Im Weiteren werden aber nur diejenigen unter die Lupe genommen, die in der Gesamtauswertung von mindestens 5 Prozent der Befragten (über 50 Personen) gegeben wurden (Siehe Tabelle 1). Die an der Untersuchung teilnehmenden Lernenden wurden, je nach

dem Schultyp, vier Gruppen zugeordnet. Die Gruppe 1 bildeten die Grundschüler, die Gruppe 2 die Gymnasiasten, die Gruppe 3 die Oberschullerner und die Gruppe 4 bestand aus Neuphilologie-Studenten.

An der Spitze der Gesamtauswertung der bei einem (Fremdsprachen)Lehrer bevorzugten Eigenschaften befindet sich „nett und sympathisch sein“, was von fast 50 Prozent der Lernenden erwähnt wurde. Dieses Merkmal bekam jedoch die meisten Stimmen (73 Prozent) von den Grundschullernern, was eigentlich zu erwarten war. Die Fähigkeit der Kinder etwas oder eine Person zu beschreiben bzw. zu bewerten ist in dem jungen Alter grundsätzlich wegen des nicht stark ausgebauten Vokabulars noch ziemlich begrenzt, und die Wörter „nett“, „sympathisch“ gehören zu den sehr populären Begriffen der Personenbeschreibung. Je älter die Befragten waren, je reifer ihre Äußerungsfähigkeit, desto seltener wurde dieses Merkmal von ihnen aufgeschrieben, so erreichte es bei den Gymnasiasten und Oberschullernern circa 55 und bei den Studenten nur 13 Prozent.

Tabelle 1: Das Profil eines „guten“ Fremdsprachenlehrers aus der Sicht der Probanden

Der Fremdsprachenlehrer soll					
Eigenschaft / Merkmal	Gr. 1 in %	Gr. 2 in %	Gr. 3 in %	Gr. 4 in %	Gesamt- auswertung in %
nett / sympathisch sein	73,4	54,9	55,4	13,1	47,5
verständnisvoll sein	26,5	54,1	47	45,4	44,2
geduldig sein	32,2	22,7	31,7	46,7	33,4
gerecht sein	27,6	30	21,8	32,3	28,2
gut erklären / das Wissen gut vermitteln	33,9	23,2	24,7	27	26,9
humorvoll / lustig sein	22,6	32,6	20,3	14,8	22,7
hilfsbereit / unterstützend sein	17,5	18	27,2	15,3	19,4
die unterrichtete Fremdsprache gut beherrschen	24,3	19,7	20,3	8,7	17,8
ideenvoll / kreativ / einfallsreich sein	2,3	16,3	7,4	32,3	15,6
ruhig / gelassen sein	19,8	13,7	21,3	5,2	14,5
anspruchsvoll sein	6,2	16,3	9,9	19,6	13,5
guten Kontakt zu den Schülern haben	6,2	12,4	14,8	8,2	10,6
klug / intelligent sein	13	7,3	12,9	2,6	8,5
den Unterricht interessant durchführen	6,2	5,6	6,9	13,5	8,2
Lehrer aus Leidenschaft sein; seine Arbeit mögen; seinen Beruf mit Leidenschaft ausüben	2,8	4,7	5,4	15,3	7,8
den Lernenden gegenüber positiv / freundschaftlich eingestellt sein	3,4	8,2	4,9	13,1	7,7
offen (schüleroffen) sein	1,7	15,4	0,9	9,2	7,4
zum Lernen (Fremdsprachenlernen) motivieren / anspornen	1,1	4,7	1,9	16,2	6,4

Im Falle der anderen Persönlichkeitszüge, die in der Tabelle 1 präsentiert wurden, war die Diskrepanz zwischen den einzelnen Bildungsstufen nicht so spektakulär. An der zweiten Stelle (44 Prozent) nannten die Probanden das Verständnis als das Merkmal, das zum Profil eines „guten“ Lehrers am besten passen würde. Gleich danach wurden die Geduld (33 Prozent) und die Gerechtigkeit (28 Prozent) platziert. Erst an der fünften Stelle mit fast 27 Prozent wurde ein Merkmal klassifiziert, das direkt mit dem Unterrichten zusammenhängt, und zwar, der „gute“ (Fremdsprachen)Lehrer sollte das Wissen kunstgerecht vermitteln und die gerade bearbeiteten Sprachphänomene aus dem grammatischen und lexikalischen Bereich geschickt erklären. Darüber hinaus erwarteten 22 Prozent der untersuchten Personen, dass der Lehrer bei seinem didaktischen Handeln den Sinn für Humor nicht verliert, immer gut gelaunt und lustig ist. Trotzdem sollte er in den ernstesten Unterrichtssituationen, wo seine Hilfe und Unterstützung gebraucht werden, entsprechend reagieren und seinen Lernern Beistand leisten. Dabei sollte er ein sprachliches Vorbild für die Schüler sein, das heißt, gut bzw. perfekt die Sprache beherrschen, die er unterrichtet. An dieser Stelle muss man jedoch hervorheben, dass dieses Merkmal unverständlicherweise für die an der Untersuchung beteiligten Neuphilologie-Studenten von geringer Bedeutung war (7,8 Prozent), während es auf anderen Bildungsstufen 20 bis sogar 24 Prozent der Stimmen erreichte. Man kann nur vermuten, entweder ist die sprachliche Kompetenz eines Fremdsprachenlehrers an einer Uni bzw. Hochschule so selbstverständlich, dass die Befragten dem Merkmal weniger Beachtung schenken, oder, was viel wahrscheinlicher ist, konzentrierten sich die Studenten in ihrer Analyse eher auf die Teilkompetenzen, denn sie plädierten bei einem „guten“ Fremdsprachenlehrer für eine gute Aussprache, den reichen Wortschatz, großes Sprachwissen, Kommunikativität, sprachliche Kompetenz usw. und die (nahezu) perfekte Beherrschung der Fremdsprache könnte in diesem Falle als ein Oberbegriff für all die gerade genannten Fähigkeiten gelten.

Außer der praktischen Kenntnis der unterrichteten Sprache sollte der (Fremdsprachen)Lehrer auch organisatorische Talente aufweisen, indem er den Unterrichtsverlauf mit seinen kreativen Ideen bereichert. Sowohl bei der Sprachvermittlung als auch bei mündlichen oder schriftlichen Leistungskontrollen sollte er ruhig und gelassen bleiben (14,5 Prozent), aber nicht zu nachsichtig. Die Lernenden wünschten sich einen Fremdsprachenlehrer, der ihre sprachlichen Unzulänglichkeiten nicht durchgehen lässt, anspruchsvoll und streng ist (13,5 Prozent). Dabei sollte er als ein schüleroffener Mensch eine positive Einstellung seinen Lernern gegenüber zeigen, zu ihnen einen guten Draht haben (immer freundlich, herzlich und partnerschaftlich) und den Unterricht interessant und abwechslungsreich gestalten (zwischen 7 und 10 Prozent). Lehrersein sollte für ihn eher eine Berufung als ein Beruf sein, d. h. er sollte seine Arbeit mit Leidenschaft ausüben und vor allem seine Schüler mit seiner Begeisterung für die Fremdsprache, mit der Liebe zum Unterrichten anstecken, was gleichzeitig ihre Motivation zum erfolgreichen Lernen erhöht (zwischen 6 und 7 Prozent).

Die Tabelle 1 enthält insgesamt 18 Merkmale, von denen drei Gruppen, je nach der Art der Eigenschaft / des Merkmals, ausgesondert wurden. Unterschieden wurden also Gruppen von Merkmalen, die Persönlichkeit sowie didaktische und glottodidaktische Kompetenz des Fremdsprachenlehrers betreffen. Die erste zahlreichste Gruppe bildeten **die Persönlichkeitsmerkmale** (11), mit denen man

jeden beliebigen „guten“ Menschen, abgesehen von seiner beruflichen Tätigkeit, beschreiben könnte. Sechs weitere galten als **didaktische Merkmale**, denn sie charakterisieren schon diejenigen Personen, die sich für den Lehrerberuf entschieden, wobei die genannten Eigenschaften für jede Lehrkraft, nicht nur für den Fremdsprachenlehrer signifikant sein können. In der letzten abgetrennten Gruppe **der glottodidaktischen**, für den Fremdsprachenlehrer repräsentativen **Merkmale**, fand lediglich ein Merkmal seinen Platz. Daraus lässt sich schlussfolgern, dass die Charakterzüge einer Lehrkraft für die Probanden von größerer Bedeutung sind, als seine didaktischen Talente und Fähigkeiten.

2.2 Die qualitative Analyse der erhobenen Daten

Die Methode der freien Assoziation ermöglichte vielfältige und wertvolle Daten zu sammeln, die wegen ihrer zu niedrigen Auftretenshäufigkeit bei der quantitativen Analyse nicht berücksichtigt wurden. Über 130 Merkmale, die manchmal mit einem ausführlichen Kommentar, oder einer besonderen Hervorhebung (Unterstreichung, Pfeile, mehrmalige Wiederholung, Ausrufezeichen) versehen wurden, bildeten jedoch eine hervorragende Basis für die qualitative Analyse des gesammelten Untersuchungsmaterials.

Im Folgenden werden die Merkmale besprochen, denen die Befragten eine besondere Aufmerksamkeit schenkten. Sie nahmen sich Zeit, gründlich zu erklären, was genau sie unter dem aufgeschriebenen Merkmal verstehen, bzw. mit welchen Unterrichtssituationen sie es verbinden. Die Menge der zusätzlichen Informationen zum Profil eines „guten“ Lehrers erlaubt jedoch nur die interessantesten von ihnen in diesem Beitrag zu präsentieren.

Am häufigsten, und zwar auf jeder untersuchten Bildungsstufe, wurden mit einem Kommentar Merkmale ergänzt, die mit dem Charakter des Lehrers eng zusammenhängen. Es handelt sich in erster Linie um seine Einstellung zu den Lernenden (Geduld, Hilfsbereitschaft, Offenheit, Verständnis u.a.): *Der Lehrer soll die Schüler nicht anschreien, wenn sie etwas nicht verstehen, [...], er soll langsam und ruhig das noch mal erklären; wenn der Schüler ein Wort verwechselt, soll der Lehrer ihm helfen und nicht ihn sofort anschreien und beschimpfen* (Gr. 1). Seine Höflichkeit und Gelassenheit den anderen Menschen gegenüber wurden auch nicht außer Acht gelassen: *Der Lehrer soll seine Studenten gut behandeln, denn die Lernmotivation steigt, wenn der Lehrer freundschaftliches und respektvolles Verhältnis zu ihnen hat* (Gr. 4). Die Lernenden aus jeder untersuchten Gruppe erwähnten oft den Sinn für Humor als eine der begehrenswertesten Eigenschaften eines (Fremdsprachen)Lehrers: *Witzeerzählen ist doch nichts Schlimmes, es kann die Stimmung im Unterricht verbessern und die Distanz zwischen dem Lehrer und den Schülern reduzieren* (Gr. 3). Generell sollte der Lehrer, ihrer Meinung nach, *für eine gute Atmosphäre in der Klasse sorgen* (Gr. 2) und seine Arbeit gern haben: *Wenn der Lehrer seine Arbeit mag, ist er immer froh, zufrieden und lächelt viel* (Gr. 1). Die Befragten wünschten sich aber keinen Lehrer, der alles durchgehen lässt. Sie plädierten für Disziplin im Unterricht, für die der Lehrer jedoch auf eine „menschliche“ Art und Weise sorgen sollte: *Der Lehrer soll gelassen sein, seine Stimme gegen die Schüler nicht erheben, Ruhe bewahren und anders als mit Geschrei bzw. mit Mahnungen im Klassenbuch für Disziplin im Unterricht sorgen* (Gr. 4).

Die Lernenden legten einen sehr großen Wert nicht nur auf die Persönlichkeit eines Lehrers, sondern auch auf seine didaktischen Kompetenzen, d. h. wie er sich

in konkreten Unterrichtssituationen benimmt, wie er auf Probleme reagiert, wie er seine Unterrichtsstunden organisiert und durchführt sowie wie er seine Lerner bewertet und benotet. Hauptsächlich sollte er sich auf jede Unterrichtsstunde gründlich vorbereiten: *der Lehrer soll den Verlauf des Unterrichts vernünftig planen, er soll wissen, was, wann und wie gemacht werden soll* (Gr. 3). Laut den Befragten *führt ein guter Lehrer den Unterricht mit Leidenschaft durch* (Gr. 3) und erklärt den Lernstoff *auf eine einfache und für alle Schüler verständliche Art und Weise* (Gr. 3). Darüber hinaus sollte sein Unterricht abwechslungsreich sein: *er soll zusätzliche Aufgaben anbieten* (Gr. 1) oder *die Arbeit im Unterricht so gestalten, dass jeder Schüler an dem Fach Interesse zeigt. Das ermöglichen die abwechslungsreichen Aufgaben, das unterschiedliche Arbeitstempo in jeder Phase des Unterrichts und das Einsetzen der audiovisuellen Materialien* (Gr. 4). Die Schüler unterstrichen oft, dass der (Fremdsprachen)Lehrer zusätzliche Materialien in seine Lektionen miteinbeziehen und nicht nur aus dem Lehrbuch unterrichten sollte: *Der Lehrer soll Bücher und Lehrwerke als unsere Hilfsmaterialien betrachten, keine Theorien uns daraus vorlesen und verlangen, dass wir uns alles auswendig einprägen; der Lehrer soll kreativ sein, sein Kopf soll voll von unterschiedlichen Ideen sein, er darf nicht ausschließlich anhand des Lehrwerks unterrichten* (Gr. 4). Bei der Bewertung von Leistungskontrollen bzw. mündlichen Äußerungen der Lernenden sollte der Lehrer die Tatsache beachten, dass nicht alle Lerner sprachbegabt sind. Bei der Benotung sollte er auch das Engagement eines leistungsschwächeren Schülers berücksichtigen und nicht nur das von ihm präsentierte, auswendig eingeprägte Wissen: *Der Lehrer soll auch das beachten, dass sich der Schüler Mühe gibt und nicht nur das reine Wissen benoten* (Gr. 2).

Eine große Anzahl der Kommentare bezog sich konkret auf die Qualität des Verlaufs vom Fremdsprachenunterricht sowie auf die sprachlichen Fähigkeiten und Talente eines Fremdsprachenlehrers. Seine gute Ausbildung und seine Aufenthalte im Zielspracheland fielen dabei ins Gewicht: *Er soll im Ausland [...] Erfahrungen sammeln und sie dann mit den Schülern teilen; wenn der Lehrer in einem Land ist, dessen Sprache wir lernen, kennt er viele tolle Geschichten, erzählt über seine Erlebnisse. Das ist sehr interessant* (Gr. 1). Manche Lernenden plädierten für einen solchen Fremdsprachenlehrer, den man sogar als einen Experten in seinem Fach bezeichnen könnte. Erstens sollte er in der Fremdsprache einwandfrei kommunizieren können, zweitens sollten ihn eine deutliche, nahezu perfekte Aussprache sowie reiches Vokabular auszeichnen: *Ein guter Fremdsprachenlehrer soll vor allem die unterrichtete Sprache richtig können und nicht nur das Diplom besitzen, das seinen Schulabschluss bestätigt. Und dabei ist es irrelevant, in welcher Schule (Grundschule, Oberschule) er unterrichten wird* (Gr. 4). Wenn der Lehrer all diese Bedingungen erfüllt, sollte er *im Unterricht die Schüler dazu ermutigen, in der Fremdsprache zu sprechen sowie die Fragen des Lehrers in der Fremdsprache zu beantworten* (Gr. 2). Der Motivationsfaktor und das Feingefühl seitens des Lehrers spielen dabei eine sehr große Rolle: *Der Lehrer soll uns zum Sprechen motivieren, unsere Fehler erst dann korrigieren, wenn wir mit unserer Aussage fertig sind. Sonst lenkt er uns nur ab und verwirrt uns* (Gr. 4). Darüber hinaus scheinen bei der fremdsprachigen Kommunikation Wortschatz- und Grammatikkenntnisse für die Befragten entscheidend zu sein: *In jedem Unterricht sollen wir den Wortschatz wiederholen, sonst vergessen wir alles* (Gr. 2). *Bei der Erklärung der Grammatik soll der Lehrer verschiedene Diagramme benutzen, so kann man die Regeln besser begreifen* (Gr. 2). Die Schüler

wünschten sich aber nicht nur einen traditionellen Unterricht mit lexikalischen und grammatischen Übungen, sondern auch einen modernen, der zeitgemäß wäre (mit Filmen, Zugang zum Internet usw.). Die sich ständig entwickelnden Medien verlangen von einem Fremdsprachenlehrer ständig auf dem Laufenden zu sein: *Internet ist die Zukunft des Unterrichtens, ich will von einem modernen Lehrer unterrichtet werden, der sich mit der neuen Technik und neuesten Möglichkeiten im Bereich der Fremdsprachenvermittlung und -aneignung bestens auskennt* (Gr. 4).

3. Abschließende Bemerkungen

Im oben dargestellten Profil eines „guten“ Fremdsprachenlehrers lassen sich zwar drei Gruppen von Merkmalen unterscheiden, von denen jedoch eine am umfangreichsten ist und die von den Probanden (abgesehen von der Bildungsstufe und vom Alter) am häufigsten aufgezählten Eigenschaften beinhaltet. Die positiven Persönlichkeitsmerkmale, die einen „guten“ Fremdsprachenlehrer auszeichnen sollten, schienen den Lernenden zufolge, die wichtigsten Elemente seines Bildes zu sein. Seine Qualifikationen und Kompetenzen, die er während der Fachausbildung und der (reflexiven) Lehrpraxis erwarb, galten in den Augen der Probanden als eine „Ergänzung“ im Lehrerberuf – sie sind zwar wichtig, weil sie den Lernprozess doch beeinflussen, aber nicht entscheidend.

Den Wünschen und Erwartungen der Probanden entgegenkommend, sollten bereits bei der Aufnahme für die philologischen Studienrichtungen – Spezialisierung Lehramt die Kandidaten bezüglich ihrer Eignung für den Lehrerberuf überprüft werden. Beispielsweise könnte dies in Form eines Psychotests erfolgen, der die Charaktereigenschaften eines zukünftigen Lehrers berücksichtigt. Trotz der seit Dekaden geäußerten bejahenden Stimmen wurden in Polen keine Schritte unternommen, um die angehenden (Philologie)Studenten zu testen, ob überhaupt und wenn ja, inwieweit sie für die Ausübung des Lehrerberufes prädestinieren. Nach wie vor konzentriert man sich in der Aus- und Fortbildung der Fremdsprachenlehrer völlig auf die Schulung der raffiniertesten Kompetenzen, die die weit verstandene Sprachkompetenz in der Zielsprache (immer öfter um die Elemente der Fachsprache erweitert), die didaktische und glottodidaktische Kompetenz übertreffen. Dies hat zur Folge, dass in polnischen Schulen viele hochqualifizierte Fremdsprachenlehrer arbeiten, von denen aber manche Probleme mit der Herstellung und Aufrechterhaltung der positiven Kontakte zu den Lernenden haben, was den Lernprozess grundsätzlich beeinträchtigt und dadurch weniger wirksam macht. Die befragten Lernenden bekräftigten in ihren Aussagen, dass die Effizienz des Fremdsprachenunterrichts nicht nur von den Fachqualifikationen des Lehrers, sondern – und zwar vor allem – von seiner Persönlichkeit abhängt. Es bleibt nur zu hoffen, dass in Polen in den kommenden Jahren die Problematik der Persönlichkeit eines (Fremdsprachen)Lehrers in die Erwägungen über die Lehrausbildung integriert wird.

Die gewonnenen Daten stimmen nur teilweise mit den heutzutage in Polen herrschenden dem Fremdsprachenlehrer gewidmeten Ausführungen überein. Die Aussagen der Lernenden, in denen die Persönlichkeit des Fremdsprachenlehrers als Kern des Lehrerberufes betrachtet wurde, liegen vielmehr den Grundüberzeugungen der Wissenschaftler und Forscher aus den ersten Dekaden des XX Jahrhunderts nahe. Die Untersuchungsergebnisse waren für uns auch

überraschend, so bestätigten sich unsere vor der Durchführung der Untersuchung aufgestellten Hypothesen nur zum Teil. Wir nahmen nämlich an, dass im Profil eines „guten“ Fremdsprachenlehrers, besonders bei älteren Lernenden (Oberschullernern und Studenten), die didaktischen, vor allem aber die glottodidaktischen Merkmale dominieren werden. Sowohl die präsentierte Untersuchung als auch die theoretischen Überlegungen über einen „guten“ Fremdsprachenlehrer betreffen zwar nur den polnischen Bildungskontext, jedoch vermuten wir, dass sich unsere Forschung auf diese Länder übertragen lässt, die ein ähnliches Bildungssystem sowie vergleichbare Wege der Fremdsprachenlehrausbildung besitzen. Die Ergebnisse der Analyse sollen, unserer Ansicht nach, als ein Hinweis für die die Bildungspolitik nicht nur in Polen, sondern auch in anderen Ländern bestimmenden Personen betrachtet werden, denn die Lernenden (Alter und Bildungsstufe spielen dabei keine Rolle) wollen in einem Fremdsprachenlehrer vor allem einen Menschen, und keinen über eine breite Palette vorprogrammierter Fähigkeiten verfügenden Maschinenmenschen sehen.

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DIE EMOTIONAL-WERTENDE LEXIK UND DIE „GEWALTLEXEME“ IM DEUTSCHEN

THE EMOTIONALLY-EVALUATIVE LEXIC AND THE 'LEXEMES THAT EXPRESS VIOLENCE' IN GERMAN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

We understand language as the most important means of communication that is particularly aimed to express various opinions and behaviors, not only in peace but also in times of war or in times of threat, as escalations of a conflict, and as a continuation of politics by other means. The emotionally-evaluative lexic of contemporary German language is rich and diverse in its lexical and semantic structure. In this article, we make an attempt to examine and analyze the "lexemes of violence" in the emotionally evaluative lexicon. Characteristics of this type of lexicon are nouns that express violence, namely so called Mordlexeme (Massenmord, /mass murder/ Völkermord /genocide/); Blutlexeme (Bluttat, Blutbad /bloodbath, slaughter/); Drucklexeme (Druck /pressure/, Drohungen /threats/); Mafialexeme (Politmafia /politmafia/, Mafiosi /mafioso/); then Gewaltadjektive (brutal, gewaltig, grausam, verheerend /brutal, violent, cruel, devastating, catastrophic); Gewaltverben (terrorisieren, foltern, massakrieren, zuführen /terrorizing, torturing, massacring, misconduct) etc. Furthermore, we give some examples that are derived from nouns and are mainly used in texts of the press and journalism; Flüchtling- (Flüchtlingsselend /misery of the refugees/, Flüchtlingstragödie /tragedy of the refugees/), etc. We examine the "Gewaltlexeme" because they have an outstanding position in public discourse.

Keywords: emotion; emotionally evaluative lexicon; lexemes of violence; "Mordlexeme";

Abstract

Die Sprache verstehen wir als das wichtigste Kommunikationsmittel, das besonders geeignet ist, verschiedene Meinungen und Verhaltensweisen des Menschen auszudrücken und zu beeinflussen, nicht nur im Frieden, sondern auch in Kriegszeiten oder in Zeiten, die durch eine Reaktion auf eine Bedrohung, als

Eskalationen eines Konflikts, als Fortsetzung der Politik mit anderen Mitteln, charakterisiert sind. Die emotional-wertende Lexik der deutschen Gegenwartssprache ist in ihrem lexikalisch-semantischen Bestand reich und vielfältig. In diesem Beitrag haben wir den Versuch unternommen, die "Gewaltlexeme" der emotiven Lexik zu erforschen und zu analysieren. Kennzeichen der emotional-wertenden Lexik sind Gewaltsubstantive, und zwar Mordlexeme (Massenmord, Völkermord); Blutlexeme (Bluttat, Blutbad); Drucklexeme (Druck, Drohungen); Mafialexeme (Politmafia, Mafiosi); dann Gewaltadjektive (brutal, gewaltig, grausam, verheerend); Gewaltverben (terrorisieren, foltern, massakrieren, zuführen) usw. Des Weiteren geben wir einige Beispiele, die von Substantiven abgeleitet sind und hauptsächlich in Texten der Presse und Publizistik gebraucht werden; Flüchtling- (Flüchtlingselend, Flüchtlingstragödie) usw. Wir erforschen die Gewaltlexeme und die Gewaltdarstellungen, weil sie im öffentlichen Diskurs eine herausragende Stellung einnehmen.

Schlüsselwörter: *Emotion; wertende Lexik; Gewaltlexeme; Mordlexeme;*

1. Einleitung

Die Bedeutungsbeschreibungen von Emotionen bzw. Gefühlen fallen in philosophischen Traditionen und in Lexika zur deutschen Sprache unterschiedlich aus, wobei die unterschiedlichen Beschreibungen, etwa in *Duden-Universalwörterbuch* (2001) und *Wahrig-deutsches Wörterbuch* (2006) deutlich durch etymologische Überlegungen motiviert sind. In den Bedeutungsbeschreibungen zu *Gefühl* kommen Paraphrasen mit „Empfindung“ vor, in den Bedeutungsbeschreibungen von „Emotion“ kommen Wörter wie „Gefühls-, Gemütsbewegung, Erregung“ vor, aber durchaus auch das Wort „Gefühl“.

Die Erforschung der Kategorie *des Emotionalen* gilt als eine der wichtigsten Richtungen der kommunikativ-orientierten Linguistik – *Emotionslinguistik*. Emotionen gelten als ein Apparat der Wertung, als Mittel zu ihrer Realisierung. Nicht zufällig schneiden sich die Parameter der Wertung und Emotionen: etwas *Angenehmes* wird als gut (positiv) und etwas *Unangenehmes* als schlecht (negativ) (Lukjanova 1983: 12-14) bewertet.

Nach Schwarz-Friesel (2007) werden die Emotionen in angenehme/positive und unangenehme/negative eingeteilt. Zu der ersten Gruppe gehören Emotionen wie Liebe und Freude, zu der zweiten Gruppe Emotionen wie Furcht, Zorn, Trauer und Angst. Thomas Hülshoff (2006) beschreibt den Begriff *Emotion* als körperlich-seelische Reaktion, durch die ein Umweltereignis aufgenommen, verarbeitet, klassifiziert und interpretiert wird. Emotionalität als semantische Komponente des Wortes aktualisiert eine positive oder negative Wertung des Gegenstandes seitens des Sprechenden. Die Interaktion von Sprache, Emotion und Kognition über Gewalt wird in diesem Beitrag thematisiert. Das Thema Sprache und Gewalt involviert allgemein stets zwei Dimensionen: zum einen, die Darstellungsfunktion von Sprache betreffend, die Frage, wie mittels sprachlicher Strukturen Gewalt(akte) verbal repräsentiert und damit spezifisch symbolisiert werden. Bühler K. (1934, Würzburger Schule) unterscheidet zwischen Darstellungs-, Ausdrucks-

und Appellfunktion der Sprache. Die Darstellungsfunktion beruht auf der Zuordnung sprachlicher Zeichen zu den damit bezeichneten Objekten (semantischer Aspekt). Die Darstellungsfunktion soll v. a. begriffliches Denken ermöglichen.

Sie fehlt in keiner sprachlichen Äußerung, dominiert aber in den wissenschaftlichen Sprachregelungen. Insgesamt stellt die Darstellungsfunktion für die menschliche Sprache den wichtigsten Aspekt dar. Karl Bühler leistete bedeutende Beiträge auf den Gebieten der Denk- und Willenspsychologie, der Gestaltpsychologie. Besonderen Rang nehmen seine Ergebnisse bei der Systematisierung der Sprach- und Ausdrucksphänomene ein. Seine Sprachtheorie ist nunmehr ein klassisches Werk, deren Ergebnisse und Einsichten zu den wissenschaftlichen Grundlagen der Linguistik zählen. Zum anderen, die Appellfunktion betreffend, stellt sich aber auch die Frage, inwiefern die Sprache selbst ein Mittel zur Ausübung von Gewalt ist, d.h. die Sprache als Gewalt.

Zur emotional-wertenden Lexik sind also diejenigen Wörter zu zählen, in denen die Bedeutung als eine emotional-wertende Komponente vorhanden ist. Das sind Wörter mit fester Emotionalität, d.h. Wörter, deren Emotionalität nicht von irgendeinem Kontext, von irgendeiner Situation oder von irgendeiner subjektiven Verwendung abhängt, sondern deren Emotionalität ein unentbehrliches Element ihrer Bedeutung ist.

Die Begriffe, die zur Analyse und Beschreibung der semantischen Kategorisierung von menschlichen Emotionen erforderlich sind, sind ebenfalls zweifacher Natur: einerseits beziehen sie sich auf den Bereich der Psychologie, z.B. *Emotion*, *Emotionalität*, *emotional*, etc., andererseits werden sie aus linguistischer Sicht betrachtet. Der Begriff *emotiv* hat denselben Sinn wie der Begriff *emotional*, aber er wird nur in Bezug auf die Sprache gebraucht. Einen Überblick über die Erforschung von Emotion und Wertung/Bewertung findet man in den folgenden linguistischen und psycholinguistischen Arbeiten: Auer/Uhmann (1982), Hannapel/Melenk (1982), Bayer (1982), Ripfel (1987), Sandig (1990, 1993), Kovecses (1990), Apresjan (1996), Barry (1996), Battacchi (1996) u.a.

Die emotional-wertende Lexik der deutschen Gegenwartssprache ist in ihrem lexikalisch-semantischen Bestand sehr reich und vielfältig. In diesem Beitrag haben wir den Versuch unternommen die "Gewaltlexeme" der emotiven Lexik zu erforschen und zu analysieren. Für die Lösung der betreffenden theoretischen Probleme haben wir folgenden Forschungsfragen gestellt:

-die Ausarbeitung der emotional-wertenden Wörter sowie die Ausgliederung und Charakteristik solcher lexikalischer Einheiten, in deren Bedeutung eine emotional-wertende Komponente vorhanden ist.

-Feststellung der emotional-wertenden Wortarttypen und die Hervorhebung der emotional-semantischen Typen der Substantive (wie z.B.: *Mord*, *Delikt*, *Tötung* u.a.)

-die Analyse der sprachlichen Einheiten verschiedener kategorialer Zugehörigkeit unter dem emotiv-axiologischen Aspekt und die Bestimmung der Explikationsmittel zum Ausdruck emotiv-wertenden Potenzen.

-das Allgemeine und das Spezifische in der Bedeutung der sprachlichen Einheiten, und zwar im emotiven Lexikon, als auch die Beschreibung der relevanten

Merkmale der emotional-wertenden Lexik.

- die Analyse der Emotionskonzepte der bestimmten Gewaltlexeme.

2. Materialbasis. Zielsetzung. Methodik zur Analyse der Gewaltlexeme

Die vorliegende Untersuchung beruht auf lexikalischem Material, das aus folgenden Quellen entommen ist:

- deutschen Zeitungstexten, Zeitschriften, Journalen (2010-2014) /Artikeln/;
- Texten der deutschen wissenschaftlichen Literatur;
- Texten der populär-wissenschaftlichen Literatur (Artikel, Umriss), als auch aus dem *Online Wörterbuch zur deutschen Gegenwartssprache (elexiko)*.

In dieser Arbeit haben wir zugleich den Versuch unternommen, eine Methodik zur Analyse der emotional-wertenden Lexik auszuarbeiten. Sie schließt folgende wichtige Kriterien ein, die wir von Fomina S. (1999: 14) übernommen haben:

- das kategoriale Kriterium (die Wörter werden nach dem Wortarttyp gruppiert);
- das lexikographische Kriterium (die Lexeme wurden lexikographisch analysiert um ihren semantischen Inhalt festzustellen);
- das axiologische Kriterium (*Bewertungssubjekt*-eine/mehrere Personen, die mittels des Gebrauchs des betreffenden Wortes irgendeiner Gegebenheit oder irgendeinem Individuum einen Wert zuschreibt/zuschreiben; *Bewertungsobjekt*-Gegenstand, Begriff, die zu bewertenden Ereignisse, Erscheinungen, Merkmalen etc; *Bewertungsstatus* - positiv, negativ, indifferent);
- das moralisch-ethische Kriterium; das Verhältnis des Subjekts zur Umwelt, zur Gesellschaft;
- das subjektiv-persönliche Kriterium;
- die Qualifizierung des Bewertungsobjekts aus der individuellen, persönlichen Sicht des Sprechers/Schreibers;
- das intellektuell-logische Kriterium – die Feststellung des intellektuell-logischen Kriteriums (moralisch-unmoralisch).

Der relativ häufige Gebrauch von *Gewaltlexemen* in den schriftlichen Texten ist zum Teil auf die Spezifik unserer Zeit zurückzuführen, für die viele negative Realitäten, vor allem Terror und Gewalttaten, charakterisch sind. Trotzdem kann man nicht sagen, dass dieses negative Phänomen nur ein Kennzeichen unserer Epoche ist. Das Thema der Gewalt regte die progressiven Geister der Menschheit seit langen Zeiten zum Philosophieren an. Der bedeutendste Vertreter und der Anführer der europäischen Aufklärung, Voltaire, betonte:

„Da Mord, Krieg, Gewalt, Raub, Verletzung der Menschenrechte und schlechte Lebensbedingungen das menschliche Handwerk sind, so ist der Mensch selbst imstande, das alles zum Guten zu ändern“. (In: Fomina, 1999: 185)

Die Gewalt in all ihrer Vielfalt wird auf den Menschen gerichtet. Sie wird sehr häufig mittels der *„Zerstörungs- bzw. Vernichtungsverben“* verbalisiert, die ihrerseits auf einzelne konkrete Typen des Menschenmords zurückgreifen. Beachtenswert ist dabei, dass das Korpus solcher Gewaltverben, Gewaltadjektive, Gewaltsubstantive außerordentlich groß ist.

“Der *Mörder*, wenn er sein Werk getan, seine Pflicht erfüllt, wenn er diejenige, die er nicht mehr ertragen konnte, deren Leben sein eigenes Leben, deren Gegenwart seine eigene Gegenwart *erdrückte*, *erstickte*, *zermalmte*, *getötet hatte* [...]” (K. Räber “Der Kopf”).

Als Schlüsselwörter, die am häufigsten auftreten, kommen in der Gewaltsprache hauptsächlich folgende Lexeme vor: “*Mord*”, “*Tod*”, “*Blut*” und dgl.

Die Palette lexikalischer Mittel, die für die sprachliche Darstellung verschiedenartiger mörderischer und trauriger Erlebnisse gebraucht werden, ist durchaus heterogen. Vorrang gewinnt vor allem die extrem negativ gefärbte Lexik. Als verbale Repräsentanten der Gewaltlexeme treten hauptsächlich folgende Typen der Lexik auf: *Schmerz-*, *Tod-*, *Krankheits-*, *Defekt- oder Mängel-*, *Wahnsinns-*, *Gewalt-*, *Mord-*, *Blutlexeme* und dgl. (z.B.: *schmerzen*, *wehtun*, *Seelenschmerz*, *seelische Schwere*, *Erschütterung*, *physische Erstarrung*, *seelische Leere*, *Trauer*, *Verzweiflung* usw.).

3. Das Konzept "Mord" und seine sprachliche Darstellung im deutschsprachigen Diskurs

Die durchgeführte Analyse der Emotionskonzepte, die in den deutschen Zeitungstexten verbalisiert werden, hat gezeigt, dass das Konzept “*Mord*” nicht nur für das mazedonische Welt- und Sprachbild, sondern auch für den modernen deutschsprachigen literarischen Diskurs relevant ist. Aus kognitiver Sicht ist das Emotionsphänomen „Mord“ mit folgenden Gegebenheiten am häufigsten verbunden: “*Schmerz*”, “*Tod*”, “*Krankheit*”, “*physische, psychische und geistige Defekte*”, “*Unvollkommenheit*”, “*Mängel*”, “*auf den Untergang angelegte Umwelt*” (“*Apokalypse*”), “*sterbende Natur*”, “*negativ charakterisierte Fauna*”, “*Gewalt*” (*Blut*, *Terror*), die Farbe “*schwarz*”, “*technokratische Welt*” u.a.

Im *Deutschen Wörterbuch mit einem Lexikon der Deutschen Sprachlehre* (1992) wird das Lexem *Mord* sprachlich beschrieben als: *Mord* <m. 1> als *absichtl. Tötung eines Menschen* (Gift~, Lust~, Raub~), *Bluttat*; wenn das geschieht, dann gib es ~ und *Totschlag* <umg.> *dann gibt es heftigen, blutigen Streit, Kampf*; Zeter und ~ *schreien laut, übertrieben um Hilfe schreien*; einen ~ *begehen, verüben*; das ist ja (der reinste, reiner) ~! <fig.; umg.> *das ist ja grausam, fürchterlich*; grausamer, heimtückischer~; der ~ an einem Menschen; auf ~ *sinnen* [<ahd. *Mord*, got. *maurbr* < germ *murba „absichtl., heiml. Tötung“, urspr. „Tod“; zu idg. *mer-, *mr-, *sterben“]

Im *Power Wörterbuch Deutsch* wird das Lexem *Mord* im folgenden sprachlichen Diskurs dargestellt: **der Mord** *der; -es, -e*; **der Mord** (an jemandem) eine kriminelle Tat, bei der jemand einen Menschen mit Absicht tötet <einen Mord begehen; jemanden des Mordes verdächtigen; Mord aus Eifersucht> II Mordanklage, Morddrohung, Mordplan, Mordversuch, Mordwaffe II Raubmord, Völkermord II Mord und Totschlag *umg*; ein schlimmer gefährlicher Streit; **das ist (der reine, reinste, glatte) Mord!** *umg*; das ist sehr anstrengend oder gefährlich II **hierzu Mörder** *der; -s -*.

Im Weiteren stellen wir das Konzept des Mordes vor, die Erläuterung der Bedeutung und der Funktion dieses Lexems nach *ellexiko* – das Online-Informationssystem ("Wörterbuch") zur deutschen Gegenwartssprache, das den Wortschatz der deutschen Sprache (so aktuell wie möglich) korpusgestützt dokumentiert, erklärt und wissenschaftlich kommentiert.

Grammatisch gesehen ist *Mord* nach der Wortart ein Nomen (Maskulinum); als Wortklasse ist das Wort ein Handlungsprädikator (resultativ), und ist als eine semantische Einheit, nicht als Ausdruckselement zu verstehen. Die Formen im Nominativ Singular sind: *der/ein Mord*, im Genitiv Singular: *des/eines Mordes* (fast immer), oder seltener: *des / eines Mords*; im Nominativ Plural: *die Morde*. Häufig trifft man den Anschluss: *Mord an jemandem*.

Mit *Mord* bezeichnet man eine Handlung, bei der eine Person eine andere Person absichtlich (und meist geplant) tötet. Einige Beispiele dafür aus den Zeitungen:

“Wegen des brutalen Mordes an dem 16-jährigen Schüler Marinus S. im brandenburgischen Potzlow hat das Landgericht Neuruppin am Freitag gegen drei junge Männer aus der rechtsextremen Szene langjährige Haftstrafen verhängt. Der 18-jährige Hauptangeklagte Marcel S. erhielt wegen Mordes und gefährlicher Körperverletzung eine Jugendstrafe von achteinhalb Jahren. Sein mehrfach vorbestrafter 24-jähriger Bruder Marco muss wegen versuchten Mordes für 15 Jahre ins Gefängnis. Der 18-jährige Mittäter Sebastian F. wurde wegen gefährlicher Körperverletzung zu zwei Jahren Haft verurteilt”. (die Tageszeitung, 25.10.2003, S. 1, Hass, Wahn, Suff, Mord.)

Jurat weiß, dass viele Afghanen ihn im Verdacht haben. Denn seine Leute waren im Januar in den Mord an Luftfahrtminister Abdul Rahman verwickelt. Hamid Karsai bezeichnete Jurat damals als eine Schlüsselfigur des Attentates, konnte aber nie durchsetzen, dass der General verhaftet oder wenigstens aus seinem Amt entlassen wurde”. (Berliner Zeitung, 08.07.2002, "Jede Version ist logisch", S. 3.)

Das Nomen *Mord* kommt in folgenden Kombinationen vor (als Wortbildungsprodukte: Komposita):

- Nomen und Nomen als zweiter Bestandteil (*Ehrenmord, Brandmord, Brudermord*),
- Nomen und Nomen als erster Bestandteil (*Mordabend, Mordabsicht, Mordaktion, Mordaffäre, Mordanklage, Mordanschlag*),
- Nomen und Adjektiv (*mordbereit, mordgefährlich*),
- Derivate (Adjektive) */mordmässig/*.

Welche Aspekte an diesen Beispielen sind es nun, die als ‚Muster‘ gefasst werden sollen? Die Wortfolge *einen Mord begehen* ist eine Verbindung von Wortformen, die in genau dieser Kombination oft vorkommt. Daneben werden die einzelnen Wortformen auch in Kombination mit anderen Wortformen verwendet. Doch da diese Kombination besonders häufig ist, möchten wir hier von einem ‚musterhaften Sprachgebrauch‘ sprechen. Das Nomen *Mord* haben wir in folgenden Kollokationen gefunden, als Antworten auf die folgenden Fragen:

a) Wer führt einen Mord aus bzw. Wer ist an einem Mord beteiligt? (*Angeklagte, Auftraggeber, Drahtzieher, Männer, Täter, Verdächtige*). Als Handlungsträger sind im elexiko-Korpus häufig konkrete Personen thematisiert (vgl. den Beleg).

Der wegen Mordes an seiner Ehefrau angeklagte Gabor Bilkei muss sich ab 15. November in einem Indizienprozess vor dem Geschworenengericht verantworten. (Zürcher Tagesanzeiger, 17.07.1999, S. 16, Mordprozess im November.)

b) Wer ist von einem Mord betroffen? (*Ehefrau, Juden, Kinder, Töchter*)

Als Betroffene eines Mordes werden im elexiko-Korpus häufig konkrete Personen thematisiert (vgl. den Beleg).

Unzählige Kommissionen haben diese und andere Fragen überprüft. Verschwörungstheorien aller Art schossen ins Kraut. Abschließend geklärt wurde der Mord an Kennedy nie. (Die Zeit /Online-Ausgabe/, 20.11.2003, Nr. 48, "Wir werden nie wieder jung sein", S. 82.)

c) Wer oder was beschäftigt sich aus beruflichen Gründen mit Mord? (*Ermittler, Gericht, Geschworene, Journalisten, Landgericht, Polizei, Polizisten, Schwurgericht, Staatsanwalt, Staatsanwaltschaft*)

d) Was macht man bzw. was geschieht mit einem Mord? (*Anlasten, anstiften, Anstiftung, aufklären, Aufklärung, befehlen, begehen, ermitteln, Ermittlungen, gestehen, herbeiführen, (sich) beteiligen, Verabredung, verüben, Vorwerfen*)

e) Was macht ein Mord? (*geschehen, verjähren*)

f) Was geschieht mit einer Person, die einen Mord ausübt? (*Anklage, anklagen beschuldigen, bezichtigen, freisprechen, hinrichten, inhaftieren, (sich) verantworten, verhaften, verurteilen, Verurteilung*)

g) Welche Strafen bekommt eine Person für einen Mord? (*Gefängnis, Haft, Haftstrafe, Höchststrafe, Jugendstrafe, Tod, Todesstrafe*)

h) Was sind Motive für einen Mord? (*Eifersucht, Habgier, Rache*)

i) Wie ist ein Mord? (*heimtückisch, kaltblütig, mysteriös, perfekt, gemeinschaftlich bestialisch, brutal, Feige, schwer unaufgeklärt, ungesühnt, versucht, vollendet, vorsätzlich*)

Im Folgenden geben wir die Konstruktionen und typischen Verwendungen dieses Lexems sowie die Funktionen dieses Lexems in konkreten sprachlichen Einheiten an (dem elexiko-Korpus entommen):

Verwendungen mit Attribut: *versuchter Mord und schwere Körperverletzung, wegen versuchten Mordes, Mord in mehr als zehn Fällen, Mord und Raub mit Todesfolge* u.a.

Verwendungen in Verbalphrasen und Sätzen: *einen Haftbefehl wegen des Verdachts eines Mordes erlassen, wegen Mordes zum Tode verurteilen, wegen Mordes zu lebenslanger Haft verurteilt worden, im Verdacht stehen, einen Mord begangen zu haben, die Anklage lautet auf Mord, [Person: z. B. der Täter] bekam lebenslang für den Mord, [Personenname] ist wegen mehrfachen Mordes angeklagt, als Landgericht hatte auf heimtückischen Mord plädiert* u.a.

Verwendungen als Attribut: *Aufklärung des Mordes an [Person: z. B. dem Journalisten, einem Polizisten]; Hintergründe eines brutalen Mordes, wegen Verdachts eines gemeinschaftlichen Mordes, Anstiftung zum Mord, Beihilfe zum Mord, im Prozess um die Morde von [Ortsname: z. B. Mölln, Solingen]* u.a.

Sonstige Verwendungen (*Entführung, Mord und Erpressung; Mord, Folterungen und Vergewaltigungen; Morde bzw. Mordversuche*).

Im Diagramm I wird die Korrelation zwischen den häufigsten strukturellen Typen dieser Konstruktionen und den typischen Verwendungen dieses Lexems (*Mord*) gezeigt:

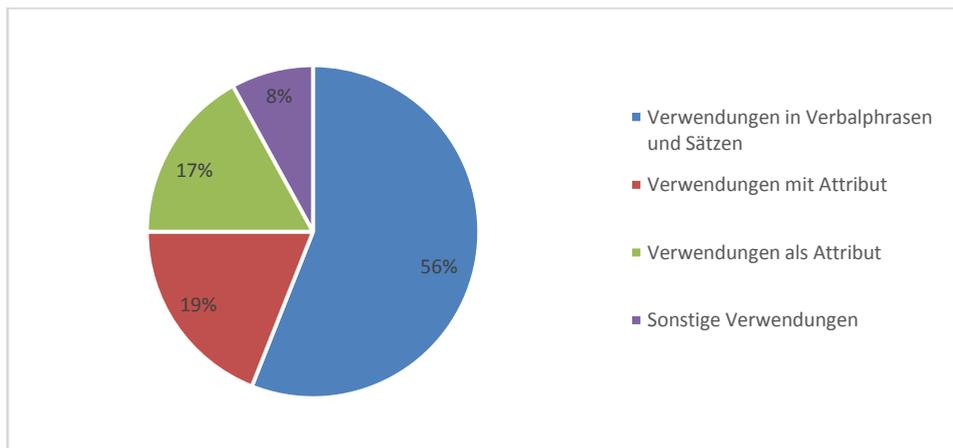


Diagramm I: Typische Verwendungen und die Funktionen dieses Lexems (in Prozent ausgedrückt).

Besonderheiten des Gebrauchs

Das Lexem *Mord* ist im strafrechtlichen Sinn ein fest definierter Terminus, der vor allem von anderen Straftaten wie Totschlag abgegrenzt wird (vgl. die Belege).

Nach unserem Strafgesetzbuch sind Verbrechen nicht verboten, haben aber

ihren gesetzlich vorgeschriebenen Preis. "Also, für wie viel Gefängnis bekomme ich welche Straftat?" fragt Koczvara, wie etwa beim "Suppenurteil" des Bundesgerichtshofes: Frau vergiftet Mann mit Suppe - schmeckt die Suppe gut, ist es Mord, schmeckt sie schlecht, kommt die Frau mit Totschlag davon. Das liegt daran, dass bei gut schmeckender Suppe das Mordmerkmal "Heimtücke" dazu kommt. (Mannheimer Morgen, 27.02.2004.)

Das Recht unterscheidet nicht zwischen Mord und Mord aus Not. Der Mörder wird mit lebenslanger Freiheitsstrafe bestraft. So steht es im Paragraphen 211 des Strafgesetzbuches. Mörder wie Totschläger, beide töten vorsätzlich. Wer aber einen Mitmenschen heimtückisch umbringt, ist ein Mörder. Während der Totschlag mit einer befristeten Freiheitsstrafe belegt wird, gibt es für Mord nur lebenslang. Ein klares Wort. Doch die Wirklichkeit ist nicht immer so klar. Denn was ist mit jenen Tätern, die zwar heimtückisch, aber aus einer großen inneren Notlage töten? (Die Zeit (Online-Ausgabe), 25.07.2001, Nr. 31, Milde, trotz Heimtücke, S. 9.)

Themengebundene Verwendung(en):

Mord ist im elexiko-Korpus häufig in Berichten über kriminelle Straftaten belegt. Besonders häufig wird im elexiko-Korpus über das Strafmaß bei solchen Delikten berichtet (vgl. den Beleg).

Zwölf Jahre Gefängnis wegen Totschlags, so lautet das gestern gesprochene Urteil der siebten Strafkammer des Landgerichts Verden über Werner B. Der seit neun Jahren arbeitslose Ingenieur hatte am 6. Februar dieses Jahres den Direktor des Verdener Arbeitsamts, Klaus Herzberg, getötet - vor dessen Haus mit 28 Stichen in den Kopf. Angeklagt war B. wegen Mordes. Er habe beschlossen, Klaus Herzberg "als Symbol für das Arbeitsamt und die gesamte Gesellschaft zu töten, um damit ein Signal zu setzen". So hatte es der Staatsanwalt Gunther Bredereck zu Prozessbeginn formuliert. Gestern forderte der Anklagevertreter eine Freiheitsstrafe von 13 Jahren - B. habe die Wehrlosigkeit seines Opfers bewusst ausgenutzt. Doch das Gericht schloss Heimtücke aus. (die Tageszeitung, 14.08.2001: 7, Er fühlte sich nur verwaltet.)

Die Lexeme, die als sinnverwandte Wörter die Beziehungen der Bedeutungsgleichheit, -äquivalenz darstellen, sind *Bluttat* und *Tötung*.

Dann seien sie davon gefahren. Erst sechs Stunden später wurde das Verbrechen entdeckt. Erneut hatten Nachbarn wegen der Blutspuren die Polizei gerufen. Die Polizisten dieser Streife traten die Tür ein und entdeckten die Bluttat. Die Getötete war 23 Jahre und stammt aus Mecklenburg. (R97/JAN.05523 Frankfurter Rundschau, 23.01.1997, S. 30, Ressort: Aus aller Welt; Polizisten sahen keinen Anlaß zum Handeln / Frau erstochen)

Trotz unmenschlichen Unrechts etwa in Bosnien, Ruanda und Tschetschenien sei wachsendes Gerechtigkeitsbewußtsein in der Welt spürbar. Dennoch blieben Recht und Gerechtigkeit eine beständige Aufgabe, in der sich Christen von niemandem übertreffen lassen dürften. Während Schlembach die innerdeutsche Entwicklung positiv bewertete, warnte er vor einem dem Zeitgeist angepaßten Gerechtigkeitsverständnis mit Tabuzonen. Kritisch beurteilte er die neue gesetzliche Abtreibungsregelung, nach der bei Vorlage eines Beratungsscheins die Tötung ungeborener Kinder nicht nur in den ersten drei Monaten straffrei, sondern unter bestimmten Bedingungen auch bis unmittelbar vor der Geburt nicht mehr rechtswidrig sei. Die hohe Zahl der Abtreibungen signalisiere ein reduziertes Gerechtigkeitsbewußtsein, geißelte Schlembach Tendenzen, aktive Euthanasie als persönliches Freiheitsrecht zu fordern. (M95/507.06181 Mannheimer Morgen, 03.07.1995, Ressort: Nachbarschaft; Gerechtigkeit gepredigt)

Als Hyperonyme des Lexems *Mord* treten vor: *Delikt, Kapitalverbrechen, Menschenrechtsverletzung, Straftat, Tat, Tötungsdelikt, Verbrechen*. Dafür einige Beispiele aus den Zeitungen:

Alternativ können Autofahrer zwei Jahre warten, bis die Punkte automatisch verfallen. Kommt es in dieser Zeit jedoch zu weiteren Verstößen, verlängert sich die Frist: Die Punkte werden dann erst nach Ablauf der Tilgungsfrist des letzten Eintrages gelöscht. Doch auch dann bleiben Punkte maximal fünf Jahre lang in der Datenbank. Eine Ausnahme bilden Strafpunkte aufgrund schwerer Delikte. Wer seinen aktuellen Punktestand wissen möchte, kann diesen kostenlos durch einen schriftlichen Antrag in Flensburg erfragen. (M07/SEP.03517 Mannheimer Morgen, 15.09.2007, Ressort: Auto und Verkehr; Strafpunkte durch Seminare tilgen)

Außerdem sei er von seinen deutschen Komplizen mehr oder weniger gezwungen worden mitzumachen. Die Fahndung nach den Mittätern verlief übrigens bisher ergebnislos. Die Holzplastiken und die Kreuzwegbilder werden auf rund 100.000 S geschätzt. Dieser Diebstahl ist ein schweres Verbrechen, weil er in einem der Religionsausübung dienenden Raum stattgefunden hat. Die Richterin vertagte den Prozeß zwecks weiterer Beweisaufnahme. (I96/AUG.33209 Tiroler Tageszeitung, 29.08.1996, Ressort: Tirol aktuell; Kirchendiebstahl in Kirchbichl)

Der Mord steht im Kontrast zu mildereren Straftaten: *Mordversuch, Totschlag*. Zwischen *Mordversuch* bzw. *Totschlag* und *Mord* besteht eine Steigerungsrelation. Besonders im juristischen Sinne wird zwischen diesen Straftaten unterschieden und ein unterschiedliches Strafmaß angesetzt. Die mit *Mord* bezeichnete Handlung besitzt strafrechtlich gesehen einen gesteigerten Status gegenüber Delikten

wie *Mordversuch* und *Totschlag*.

Vor drei Tagen hatten Beamte die Viernheimerin nach mehreren Zeugenhinweisen bereits verhört und eine DNA-Probe genommen. Die Frau hatte ihr Kind heimlich in einer Toilette des Krankenhauses zur Welt gebracht. Sie konnte der Polizei keine Gründe für ihre Tat nennen. Die Staatsanwaltschaft ermittelt wegen Totschlags. bhr Bericht Nachbarschaft (M07/MAR.14791 Mannheimer Morgen, 02.03.2007, Ressort: Politik; Gesuchte Mutter stellt sich der Polizei)

Metaphorische Funktion der Gewaltlexeme

Bühler weist vier Funktionen der metaphorischen Sprache zu: Metaphern machen es möglich, neue Phänomene zu beschreiben, andere klarer zu beschreiben, Unbekanntes wird durch Bekanntes dargestellt, und Metaphern helfen dabei, anstößige oder verpönte Sachverhalte auf eine verschleiernde Weise aber dennoch nachvollziehbar zum Ausdruck zu bringen (Bühler 1934, 342, 352f.). Nach Bühler ist unser Denken metaphorisch konfiguriert, ganz im Sinne von Lakoff und Johnson und deren Zusammenhang von Kognition und Sprache und deren Vorstellung von der metaphorischen Natur der Kognition. Metapher wird traditionell als die wichtigste Form der figurativen Sprache angesehen. Metapher wurde länger als 2000 Jahren innerhalb der Rhetorik gelehrt. *Metaphorität* ist ein wesentliches Merkmal der emotiv-wertenden Lexik, welcher vor allem kognitive und psychologische Faktoren zugrunde liegen.

Lakoff und Johnson sehen in der Metapher eine Verbindung zwischen Sprache, Erfahrung und Denken und belegen, dass das menschliche Denken in großem Ausmaß metaphorischer Natur ist. Die zwei Linguisten sind aber tiefer Überzeugung, dass die Metapher, der traditionell nur minimale Bedeutung eingeräumt wurde, unsere Sprache und Denken markant beeinflusst (Lakoff, Johnson, 2002:11).

Die Metapher dient dabei u. a. als Werkzeug, um mittels einfacher Erfahrungen abstraktes Denken zu können. Metaphorische Beziehungen entstehen auf der Grundlage konstaterter Ähnlichkeitsbeziehungen und sollen Ähnlichkeitsassoziationen auslösen. Metaphorische Relationen haben gemeinsame Bedeutungsmerkmale, die darauf beruhen, dass ein Wort-Objekt Verhältniss eines Bereichs auf einen anderen übertragen wird.

Die Verteilung der Metaphern im Wortschatz ist unterschiedlich. Bestimmte Bereiche werden als Ausgangsbereiche besonders häufig genutzt, andere weniger. Mit Hilfe metaphorischer Übertragungen kann das Neue, noch nicht begrifflich Gefaßte oder noch Unbekannte dem bereits bestehenden Begriffssystem zugeordnet werden.

An der Versprachlichung des konzeptuellen Modells *des Mordes* beteiligen sich in deutschsprachigen Zeitungstexten auch die kognitive Metaphern, die negativ gefärbt sind (z.B.: die Benennung der Täter im Diskurs zum islamistischen Terrorismus als *Gotteskrieger*, *Märtyrer*, *Freiheits-* oder *Widerstandskämpfer*, *Rebellen* oder aus Opferperspektive als *Terroristen*, *Verbrecher*, *Mörder* usw.).

Metaphern spielen bei der Darstellung und Vermittlung von Gewalt-, Bedrohungs-

und Angstszenarien eine besondere Rolle, da sie über Analogien auf anschauliche Weise das schwer verständliche Phänomen des Mordes repräsentieren und zugleich über Perspektivierungen und Evaluierungen sehr spezifische Konzeptualisierungen erzeugen. Die linguistische Analyse der Berichterstattung zum Mord, insbesondere zu den Metaphernkomplexen, ist daher nicht nur geeignet, die themenspezifische Behandlung dieser gesellschaftlichen Problematik im Spiegel der Sprache transparent zu machen, sondern auch Aufschluss über grundlegende Diskursstrategien und Verbalisierungsmuster zu Gewaltdarstellungen im öffentlichen Kommunikationsraum geben zu können. Neben der physischen Gewalttätigkeit, die zu Mord, Tod und Leid unschuldiger Menschen führt, gibt es somit immer auch die kognitive und emotionale Gewalt des Terrorismus. Seine Akteure verwenden mit ihren Botschaften an die (Welt-)Bevölkerung die mentale Macht, mittels Gewalt und Gewaltandrohung in das Bewusstsein von Menschen einzudringen, sie als potenzielle Opfer zu verängstigen, ihr emotionales Gleichgewicht und Sicherheitsgefühl zu zerstören. Wie das terroristische Gefahren- und Bedrohungspotenzial dann in den Medien thematisiert wird und welche spezifischen mentalen Modelle dabei vermittelt werden, wird von kommunikations-, medien- und sprachwissenschaftlichen Analysen dokumentiert.

Also werden Emotionskonzepte wie auch ihre sprachliche Repräsentation erfasst. Wir können Metaphern finden, die Emotionen bezeichnen und Metaphern, die Emotionen erzeugen. In der Kommunikation geht es meistens um den Anspruch auf Authentizität. Schwarz-Friesel bezeichnet dieses Problem als Konflikt zwischen Intimität und Konventionalität, der in der Metapher ausgetragen wird. In unserer Konzeption des Lexems *Mord*, werden auch Emotionen bezeichnet und erzeugen. Konzeptuelle Metaphern bestehen aus einer Menge von Abbildungen oder Korrespondenzen, die eine zusammenhängende und straff organisierte konkrete Wissensstruktur abbilden. Individuen können sich darin unterscheiden, ob sie alle übergeordnete Zuordnungen einer Metapher verwenden, wenn sie in bestimmten Kommunikationssituationen eine bestimmte Metapher verwenden. Als Grenzfall kann dies vorkommen (und es kann sogar in poetischen Texten vorkommen) und alle Zuordnungen können gelegentlich verwendet werden. Gefühlswert kann auch durch die assoziative Sphäre des Wortes erzeugt werden. Diese assoziativen Beziehungen (*Verlust der Kontrolle, Verlust der Unschuld*) können sowohl von Formativ als auch vom Denotatsbereich ausgehen. *Mord* weckt fast immer negative Begleitvorstellungen, die durch das euphemistische *Verbrechen* oder *Delikt* gemildert werden sollen. Starke assoziative Bindungen von *Mord* erklären die unterschiedliche Emotionalität von *Freitod* (*den Freitod suchen oder wählen*) und *Selbstmord* (*sich selbst vorsätzlich töten*). Mit der Erfahrung der Bedeutungsassoziationen des Lexems *Mord* und dessen Konzeptualisierung als körperliche und mentale Schwäche des Opfers, also im Grunde mit der Assoziation und Symptomatik der Handlung des Mordes hängt der Gebrauch von Verben/Nomen/Adjektiven zusammen, die eine bestimmte Bewertung des Lexems anzeigen. Zum Beispiel: *Mord* bedeutet vorsätzliche Tötung eines oder mehrerer Menschen aus niedrigen Beweggründen, und kommt oft in folgenden Konnotationen vor: ein bestialischer, feiger, grausamer, heimtückischer, politischer Mord; ein perfekter Mord; mehrfacher Mord (*Mord an mehreren Personen gleichzeitig*); einen Mord begehen, aufklären, sühnen; er wird wegen dreier Morde

(Morde, die bei verschiedener Gelegenheit begangen wurden) gesucht; <in übertragener Bedeutung>: (umgangssprachlich) das ist [(ja) der reine, glatte] Mord! (das ist eine sehr anstrengende, gefährliche Angelegenheit); <in übertragener Bedeutung>: (umgangssprachlich) es gibt Mord und Totschlag (es gibt heftigen Streit.). Das Lexem *Mordskerl* bedeutet ein sehr großer, breiter, kräftiger Mann, oder ein sehr tüchtiger, mutiger, anständiger Mann. Die Bedeutung von *Mordent* hat nichts mit dem Mord zu tun und bedeutet musikalische Verzierung, die aus einfachem oder mehrfachem Wechsel einer Note mit ihrer unteren Nebennote besteht, oder Pralltriller. Das Wort *Mordant* bedeutet Ätzmittel, ätzende Paste, die mit dem Pinsel auf die Platte aufgetragen wird. (<https://www.duden.de/suchen/dudenonline/>) Wir können schlussfolgern, dass unterschiedliche Kollokationen des bestimmten Lexems unterschiedliche Bedeutungsassoziationen im mentalen Lexikon wirken können.

4. Schlussbemerkungen: die sprachliche Darstellung der Emotionalität im deutschsprachigen Diskurs

Die Autoren dieser Texte verwenden nicht ausschließlich eine emotional-neutrale Lexik sondern auch eine emotional-wertende Lexik bei der sprachlichen Darstellung von Gewaltlexemen, das in dieser Sprachkultur stark ausgeprägt ist. Die Charakteristik der Grundwortarten (Substantive, Adjektive, Adverbien, Verben) wurden unter dem *emotional axiologischen (wertenden)* Aspekt dargelegt. Dabei haben wir die Grundelemente der von ihnen explizierten emotionalen Wertung bestimmt: die Kategorie des Emotionalen hängt mit einem komplizierten psychischen Phänomen wie der "menschlichen Emotion" zusammen. Das emotionale Verhältnis ist unmittelbar mit der Wertung verbunden und tritt als Bestandteil der sprachlichen Modalität auf. Auf der einen Seite hängen emotionale Motive in der Tätigkeit des Menschen mit der Formierung eines wertenden Verhältnisses (eines Wertverhältnisses) zu den Resultaten dieser Tätigkeit, wie aber auch mit der Wertung der Bedeutung dieser Resultate für die gesellschaftliche Praxis zusammen.

Die Verwendung der Gewaltlexeme in deutschen Zeitungstexten zeichnet sich durch eine stark ausgeprägte emotionale Wertung aus. Zu den gemeinsamen Merkmalen in Bezug auf die sprachliche Explikation der Emotionalität gehören:

- Das Vorkommen des emotional-wertenden Stils in deutschsprachigen Zeitungstexten;
- Das Auftreten der typischen Kollokationen und der korrekten Verwendungen der beschriebenen Gewaltlexeme in obenangeführten deutschsprachigen Zeitungstexten;
- Die Bedeutungsfunktionen dieser Lexeme in konkreten sprachlichen Einheiten;
- Die metaphorische Funktion und die Emotionskonzepte der Gewaltlexeme (am Beispiel vom Lexem *Mord*)
- Die Bevorzugung und der aktive Gebrauch *moderner/gegenwärtiger* Lexik anstatt des *archaischen* (Mordbube, Totmacher-kindersprachlich) Wortschatzes in deutschen Zeitungstexten;
- Die *sozioorientierte Tendenz* in deutschsprachigen Texten (diese Lexeme explizieren soziale Realitäten, die meist durch verschiedene negative

Tätigkeiten/Handlungen der Menschen verursacht werden, und beziehen sich auf die kriminelle und psychologische Sphären des menschlichen Lebens) an Stelle der *egozentrierten* ("ich- zentrierten", auf die erste Person bezogenen) Tendenz.

- Die Verwendung des negativen Spektrums im Bereich sprachlicher Mittel, mit deren Hilfe mannigfaltige Gewalterlebnisse in deutschen Zeitungstexten der Presse beschrieben werden;
- Im kommunikativen Prozess zwischen Autor, Text und Leser spielen die Emotionen für die Gestaltung des Textes eine sehr wichtige und entscheidende Rolle und die Merkmale eines Textes lassen sich auf diese Emotionen hin untersuchen;
- Der hohe Grad der Expressivität in Bezug auf die sprachliche Gestaltung der Gewaltlexeme.

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EIN PLÄDOYER FÜR DIE REHABILITIERUNG UND RETABLIERUNG DER ÜBERSETZUNG IM DAF-UNTERRICHT

A PLEA FOR THE RESTORATION OF TRANSLATION IN THE TEACHING OF GERMAN AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract: *Foreign languages in general are taught through the communicative method. The grammar-translation method is considered obsolete today, and that is why translation tasks in foreign language teaching (in Hungary) are used only in secret, if at all. However, with this we neglect the development of certain skills, and make the development of subordinate bilingualism into coordinate bilingualism more difficult. Based on language teaching methodology, results on the mental lexicon and empirical research results, this paper argues for restoring translation in teaching German as a Foreign Language to the place that it duly deserves.*

Keywords: mediation competences; translation; language awareness; mental lexicon; subordinate bilingualism; coordinate bilingualism

Abstract: *Fremdsprachen werden heute generell nach der kommunikativen Methode unterrichtet. Die Grammatik-Übersetzungs-Methode gilt als nicht mehr zeitgemäß, deshalb werden heute Übersetzungsaufgaben im Fremdsprachenunterricht (in Ungarn) nicht – oder nur „heimlich“ – eingesetzt. Dadurch wird auf die Förderung mancher Fertigkeiten verzichtet und es wird auch erschwert, den subordinierten Bilingualismus in einen koordinierten Bilingualismus zu verwandeln. Auf Grundlage von fremdsprachendidaktischen Überlegungen, von den Ergebnissen der Untersuchungen zum mentalen Lexikon und von empirischen Untersuchungen wird in diesem Aufsatz dafür plädiert, der Übersetzung im DaF-Unterricht wieder den gebührenden Platz zu gewähren.*

Schlüsselwörter: Sprachmittlungskompetenz; Übersetzung; Sprachbewusstheit; mentales Lexikon; subordinierter Bilingualismus; koordinierter Bilingualismus

1. Einführung

Im Fremdsprachenunterricht, so auch im DaF-Unterricht, ist heute auch in Ungarn der kommunikative Ansatz der Trend. Diese fremdsprachendidaktische Konzeption hat zur Dominanz der Mündlichkeit geführt und auf die Förderung der schriftlichen Fertigkeiten wird weniger Wert gelegt. Nachdem die Grammatik-Übersetzungs-Methode als überholt abgestempelt wurde, werden die Übersetzungsaufgaben im

DaF-Unterricht – zumindest in Ungarn – vernachlässigt, obwohl sie mehrere Kompetenzen fördern können. Übersetzungsaufgaben machen nämlich die Unterschiede in den Sprachstrukturen bewusst, im Wortschatz und in der Grammatik ebenfalls. Durch Übersetzungsaufgaben kommt die kontrastive Sicht zur Geltung, d.h. dadurch kann Sprachbewusstsein sowohl in der Fremdsprache als auch in der Muttersprache gefördert werden. (Zum Begriff von Sprachbewusstsein, Sprachbewusstheit, Sprachaufmerksamkeit und Language awareness s. die Definitionen von Knapp in Barkowski und Krumm, 2010: 296f.; s. noch Iványi, 2012: 263ff.)

Wenn auf die Übersetzungsaufgaben – als nicht mehr zeitgemäße Aufgabentypen – im DaF-Unterricht verzichtet wird, werden damit die Umstände des gesteuerten Spracherwerbsprozesses außer Acht gelassen: Beim subordinierten Bilingualismus fungiert die Muttersprache der Lernenden als Vermittlersprache, d.h. es wird im Kopf ständig übersetzt und verglichen. Auch in der Wortschatzarbeit ist es nicht sinnvoll, auf die Muttersprache der Lernenden zu verzichten: Neben den einsprachigen Erklärungsverfahren ist es ratsam, auch zweisprachige Verfahren, vor allem Übersetzung, einzusetzen.

Auf Grund der obigen Argumentation wird in diesem Aufsatz dafür plädiert, den Übersetzungsaufgaben im DaF-Unterricht – auch in Ungarn – den gebührenden Platz zu gewähren. Es wird auf meine Untersuchungen zur Übersetzungskompetenz ungarischer Lehramtsstudierenden Bezug genommen und es wird kurz exemplarisch aufgezeigt, wie Sprachkompetenzen durch Übersetzung gefördert werden können. Davor soll aber im ersten Schritt die Terminologie geklärt werden.

2. Translation, Übersetzung, Dolmetschen und Sprachmittlung

In der Translationswissenschaft, d.h. in der Übersetzungs- und in der Dolmetschwissenschaft, wird der Begriff „Translation“ zusammenfassend für Übersetzen und Dolmetschen verwendet. Die Definition von Kade (1968: 35) gilt heute noch: Unter Übersetzen ist „die Translation eines fixierten und demzufolge permanent dargebotenen bzw. beliebig oft wiederholbaren Textes der Ausgangssprache in einen jederzeit kontrollierbaren und wiederholt korrigierbaren Text der Zielsprache“ zu verstehen; unter Dolmetschen versteht man „die Translation eines einmalig (in der Regel mündlich) dargebotenen Textes der Ausgangssprache in einen nur bedingt kontrollierbaren und infolge Zeitmangels kaum korrigierbaren Text der Zielsprache“ (vgl. noch Koller, 2011: 5). Mittlerweile hat sich aber in der Fachliteratur neben dem Begriff „Translation“ auch der Begriff „Sprachmittlung“ etabliert, und es herrscht eine terminologische Verwirrung. Es gibt Definitionen, nach denen der Begriff „Sprachmittlung“ das Übersetzen, d.h. die schriftliche Überführung eines ausgangssprachlichen Textes in einen zielsprachlichen Text umfasst wie auch das Dolmetschen, d.h. die mündliche Umsetzung (vgl. Königs, 2003: 315; s. noch die Definition von Reimann in Barkowski und Krumm, 2010: 305). Demnach seien „Sprachmittlung“ und „Translation“ weitgehend Synonyme. „Sprachmittlung“ wird aber auch noch in einer anderen Bedeutung verwendet, vgl. z.B. Philipp und Rauch (2010: 4): „Wir definieren Sprachmittlung (in Abgrenzung zur Übersetzung) als die adressaten-, sinn- und situationsgerechte Übermittlung von (ausgewählten) mündlichen oder schriftlichen Informationen von einer Sprache in eine andere mit dem Ziel,

fremdsprachige Informationen für Kommunikationspartner nutzbar zu machen, welche sie aufgrund fehlender Fremdsprachenkenntnisse nicht oder nur unzureichend verstehen“.

Um eine terminologische Abgrenzung zu schaffen, verwende ich allerdings „Sprachmittlung“ als Oberbegriff, als Hyperonym. „Translation“ betrachte ich als ein Hyponym mit zwei weiteren Hyponymen, d.h. mit Übersetzen und mit Dolmetschen, wobei zu betonen ist, dass es Mischformen gibt. Unter Sprachmittlung fällt des Weiteren – nach meiner Terminologie – das Zusammenfassen und die paraphrasierende Wiedergabe eines schriftlichen oder mündlichen Textes. Bei dieser Art der Sprachmittlung handelt es sich in erster Linie um die (zusammenfassende, paraphrasierende) Übertragung eines Ausgangssprachlichen Textes in einen Zielsprachlichen Text. (Zur Typologie der Sprachmittlungsaktivitäten s. Reimann 2014.) Neben dieser interlingualen Sprachmittlung gibt es allerdings auch eine intralinguale Art der Sprachmittlung, die zweierlei sein kann, d.h. kann nicht nur in L2, sondern wohl auch in L1 erfolgen. (So hat z.B. Gergely Nógrádi klassische Werke der ungarischen schöngestigen Literatur, genauer die Romane von Géza Gárdonyi (2014) und die von Mór Jókai (2014) aus dem Ungarischen ins Ungarische übertragen, d.h. nach dem Original „neu erzählt“ („újramesélte“).)

In diesem Aufsatz wird von den sprachmittlerischen Aufgaben auf die Übersetzungsaufgaben fokussiert.

Über den Einsatz sprachmittlerischer Übungen wurde viel diskutiert. Bereits vor fünfzehn Jahren hat Königs (2003: 315) festgestellt: „In letzter Zeit neigt sich die Waagschale eher zugunsten des Einsatzes von sprachmittlerischen Übungen im Fremdsprachenunterricht“. Seitdem hat sich allerdings die Situation in Ungarn nicht wesentlich verändert: Es ist immer noch bestritten, ob Übungen zur Sprachmittlung im Fremdsprachenunterricht eingesetzt werden sollten. Es kann mit Recht angenommen werden, dass die Abneigung daraus resultiert, dass Übersetzungsaufgaben die Grammatik-Übersetzungs-Methode heraufzubeschwören scheinen, und viele Lehrende einfach Angst davor haben, negativ beurteilt zu werden, da sie sozusagen nicht nach zeitgemäßen Methoden unterrichten. Was Marquardt (1997: 52) vor gut zwei Jahrzehnten geschrieben hat, gilt in Ungarn – in Bezug auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht – immer noch: „Erwähnt man den Begriff Übersetzen im Kontext des Zweitspracherwerbs, so kann man für gewöhnlich nur skeptische Blicke ernten. Verständlich ist dies aus dem Grunde, da man mit diesem Begriff allzu schnell die antiquierte Methode des Grammatik-Übersetzungsunterrichts assoziiert.“

Was die Position von Sprachmittlung in Ungarn betrifft, kann eindeutig ein Rückstand verzeichnet werden, wie auch Pantó-Naszályi (2015: 152) feststellt: „Die Sprachmittlung erlebt im multikulturellen Europa derzeit einen Aufschwung, eine Aufwertung, aber diese Tendenzen erscheinen leider kaum in dem ungarischen DaF-Unterricht“. Pantó-Naszályi (2015: 160) fügt noch hinzu: „Im Vergleich zu Deutschland ist in Ungarn hinsichtlich der Kompetenzschulung und der Leistungsmessung von Sprachmittlung eine Phasenverschiebung, ein Rückstand zu beobachten. In dem heutigen sekundären DaF-Unterricht in Ungarn widerspiegeln sich die europäischen Tendenzen (vgl. GER) hinsichtlich der Sprachmittlung – die Ausbreitung der Kompetenzbereiche und die damit verbundene Anpassung der Leistungsmessungsformate (vor allem in den Abiturprüfungen) – leider nicht.“ Die Abiturprüfungen in den Fremdsprachen –

sowohl das Mittelstufenabitur als auch das Oberstufenabitur – verlaufen in Ungarn einsprachig, d.h. auf die Messung der Sprachmittlungskompetenz wird völlig verzichtet.

Die Debatte ist schon deshalb unverständlich, weil die Relevanz der Sprachmittlung auch durch seine Stellung im Gemeinsamen Europäischen Referenzrahmen (GER) bestätigt wird: Neben Rezeption, Produktion und Interaktion stellt die Sprachmittlung die vierte Art der kommunikativen Aktivitäten dar. „Bei *sprachmittelnden Aktivitäten* geht es den Sprachverwendenden nicht darum, seine/ihre eigenen Absichten zum Ausdruck zu bringen, sondern darum, Mittler zwischen Gesprächspartnern zu sein, die einander nicht direkt verstehen können, weil die Sprecher verschiedener Sprachen sind (was der häufigste, aber nicht der einzige Fall ist). Zu den sprachmittelnden Aktivitäten gehören Dolmetschen und Übersetzen sowie das Zusammenfassen und Paraphrasieren von Texten in derselben Sprache, wenn derjenige, für den der Text gedacht ist, den Originaltext nicht versteht [...]“ (Siehe GER, 2001: 89f.) Die Sprachmittlungskompetenz kann neben Hörverstehen, Leseverstehen, Sprechen und Schreiben als eine eigenständige Grundfertigkeit aufgefasst werden, oder es geht m.E. eher darum, dass die Sprachmittlungskompetenz die anderen Grundfertigkeiten voraussetzt und subsumiert. (Zur Sprachmittlung als fünfte Fertigkeit s. Reimann 2016.)

Aber um den Stellenwert der Sprachmittlung zu erkennen, sollte man eigentlich einfach nur an die Anfrage auf dem Arbeitsmarkt denken. Eine sprachmittlerische Kompetenz wird nicht nur von den professionellen ÜbersetzerInnen und DolmetscherInnen erwartet, sondern kommt auch jeder Fremdsprachenlernerin und jedem Fremdsprachenlerner zugute. Besonders ist dies der Fall bei ungarischen LehramtskandidatInnen: Viele von ihnen gehen nach ihrem Studium nicht in die Schule, sondern nehmen eine Stelle bei einer Firma an, wo sie übersetzen und dolmetschen müssen, wobei sie allerdings Translation nicht studiert haben, d.h. eine institutionelle Übersetzer- und Dolmetscherausbildung nicht absolviert haben. Würde man allerdings im Fremdsprachenunterricht und besonders in der FremdsprachenlehrerInnenausbildung auf die Sprachmittlung als „informelle, alltägliche und nicht-professionelle Aktivität in mündlichen und schriftlichen Kommunikationssituationen“ (Rössler und Reimann, 2013: 12) mehr Wert legen, so wären die Lernenden/LehramtskandidatInnen in der Lage, gesprochene oder schriftliche Texte interlingual zu vermitteln und Inhalte in L1 oder in L2 sinngemäß zusammenzufassen. Ich stimme der Meinung von De Florio-Hansen (2013: 91) zu: „Im Rahmen von Forschungen und vor allem im Unterricht ist zu berücksichtigen, dass Sprachmittlung jetzt schon eine Hauptaktivität im Bereich fremdsprachlicher Aktivitäten und translatorische Kompetenz folglich eine Schlüsselqualifikation darstellt“. Ähnlich argumentiert auch Reimann (2014): „Im Alltag mehrsprachiger Schülerinnen und Schüler bzw. der Absolventinnen und Absolventen schulischer Fremdsprachenlehrgänge sind Situationen der Sprachmittlung im Vergleich zur einsprachigen Konversationssituation nur mit Muttersprachlern einer anderen Sprache mindestens ebenso häufig, wenn nicht häufiger“.

Die schriftliche sprachmittlerische Kompetenz kann vor allem durch Übersetzungsaufgaben gefördert werden. Das Hin-Übersetzen, d.h. das Übersetzen in die Fremdsprache verlangt zweifelsohne mehr fremdsprachliche Kompetenz als das Her-Übersetzen. Beim Hin-Übersetzen muss vorerst der

ausgangssprachliche, d.h. der muttersprachliche Text verstanden werden, beim Her-Übersetzen muss ein kohärenter muttersprachlicher Text geschaffen werden. Durch Übersetzungsaufgaben kann also sowohl die fremdsprachliche als auch die muttersprachliche Kompetenz gefördert werden. Im Lichte der immer schlechter werdenden PISA-Ergebnisse ungarischer Lernender im Textverstehen plädiere ich für eine zweisprachige Kompetenzschulung. Ich stimme der Meinung von Dóra Pantó-Naszályi (2012: 275) zu: „Als Resultante des Trends der einsprachigen Kompetenzschulung sind einerseits die Einengung der sprachimmanenten Multidimensionalität, andererseits der Rücktritt von kontrastiven Aspekten des Fremdsprachenunterrichts sowie die Einschränkung einer wichtigen, sehr komplexen Kompetenz, nämlich die der Sprachmittlung zu befürchten, die vom Curriculum so gut wie ausgeklammert worden ist“.

3. Die Muttersprache und die Fremdsprache im mentalen Lexikon

Der Begriff „kommunikative Kompetenz“ erschien – laut Marquardt (1997: 54) – „wie eine magische Formel [...] unter dem Theorienhimmel“. Mit dem kommunikativen Ansatz ist die Einsprachigkeit im Fremdsprachenunterricht aufs Engste verbunden. Vgl. Pantó-Naszályi (2015: 153f.): „Nach der Abkehr von der Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode des 19. Jahrhunderts war die Übertragung von Texten in den nachfolgenden didaktischen Strömungen nicht bzw. kaum repräsentiert. Seit dem Aufkommen der direkten Methode der Fremdsprachendidaktik, in der weitgehend das Prinzip der Einsprachigkeit herrscht, wurde die Übersetzung stark in den Hintergrund gerückt bzw. verschwand sogar aus dem FSU [...]“. Oft sind die Lehrenden mit dieser Unterrichtsmethode selbst nicht einverstanden, doch sie müssen dem Trend gehorchen: Lehrende werden auch auf ihre Unterrichtsmethoden hin bewertet und sie möchten vermeiden, dass man denkt, sie verwenden die Muttersprache, da sie mangelhafte Fremdsprachenkenntnisse haben. Die Einsprachigkeit verrichtet aber meines Erachtens Schaden, sie ist sinnlos und widerspricht jeglicher Logik.

Erstens sprechen die psycholinguistischen Untersuchungen dafür, dass man die Muttersprache der Lernenden in den Fremdsprachenunterricht – auch in Form von Sprachmittlungsaufgaben – einbeziehen sollte. Die Zielgruppe, von der hier die Rede ist, sind GermanistikstudentInnen, genauer Lehramtstudierende mit Ungarisch als Muttersprache. Sie haben das Deutsche beinahe ohne Ausnahme im schulischen Rahmen, d.h. im gesteuerten Fremdsprachenunterricht gelernt. Sie haben mit dem Deutschen angefangen, als sie in ihrem mentalen Lexikon bereits ein System, das System ihrer ungarischen Muttersprache, herausgebildet haben. Zu den deutschen Wörtern gelangen sie über die ungarische Lexik, und dies bedeutet, dass sie im Kopf praktisch ständig übersetzen. (Zu den Arten des Bilingualismus, zum mentalen Lexikon und zur kontrastiven Sprachbetrachtung s. Drahotová-Szabó, 2017; zur kontrastiven Wortschatzarbeit s. noch Drahotová-Szabó, 2015.) Diesen Umstand sollte man im Unterricht so ausnutzen, dass man zwischen den Wörtern der Muttersprache und denen der Fremdsprache netzartige Verbindungen herstellt. Die psycholinguistischen Untersuchungen bezeugen, dass im mentalen Lexikon bei Zwei- und Mehrsprachigen die Verbindungen in der Lexik über die Grenzen der Sprachen hinausgreifen können bzw. dass Zwei- und Mehrsprachige ihre andere Sprache bzw. Sprachen nie ausschalten können (vgl. Navrácsics, 2007: 94).

Das muttersprachliche Denken zeigt sich auch in den deutschsprachigen Aufsätzen der Studierenden. Manche Studierende verfassen ihre Aufsätze zuerst sogar auf Ungarisch und erst dann übersetzen sie ihren eigenen Text ins Deutsche. Aber auch wenn sie das nicht tun, d.h. gleich auf Deutsch schreiben, sind ihre deutschsprachigen Texte trotzdem quasi-ungarische Texte. In einem Aufsatz eines Studierenden aus dem dritten Studienjahr heißt es z.B. (das Thema des Aufsatzes war: „Können Sie sich ein Leben im Ausland vorstellen?“):

„Die Ursache dafür ist **das**, dass sie am Anfang ihres Lebens mehr Geld brauchen, um eine Familie gründen zu können.“

„Die attraktivste Sache ist **das**, dass man mehr verdienen kann.“

Die Verwendung des Korrelats im Hauptsatz ist eindeutig ein typischer und häufiger Interferenzfehler: Es wurde hier „heimlich“ aus dem Ungarischen ins Deutsche übersetzt.

Die subordinierte Zweisprachigkeit ist nicht nur am Anfang des Fremdsprachenlernens typisch, d.h. in der Grundschule, sondern sogar auf Universitätsebene. Die Interferenzfehler in der Grammatik und die ständige Frage „Wie sagt man das auf Deutsch?“ liefern die Beweise dafür. Es sei hinzugefügt, dass der Aufbau des mentalen Lexikons individuelle Unterschiede aufweisen kann: „Der Aufbau des mentalen Lexikons hängt vom Niveau der Sprachkenntnisse ab, vom Typ der Wörter, von den Spracherwerbsstrategien, von der Häufigkeit der Sprachverwendung, wie auch von dem Alter, in dem man zweisprachig geworden ist“ (Navracscics, 2007: 128; Übersetzung von mir – E. D.-Sz.). Die Sprachkenntnisse der ungarischen GermanistikstudentInnen werden Jahr zu Jahr immer schwächer. Tut man in der DeutschlehrerInnenausbildung dennoch so, als hätten die Studierenden den koordinierten Bilingualismus erreicht, so ignoriert man alle Erfahrungen der täglichen Unterrichtspraxis. Somit stellt sich die berechnete Frage: Wenn die Muttersprache sowieso immer anwesend ist und ihren Einfluss ausübt, warum stützen wir uns nicht systematisch durch Übersetzungsaufgaben auf sie? Die Mehrsprachigkeitsdidaktik (oder Tertiärsprachendidaktik) hat erkannt, dass man die bereits vorhandenen Kenntnisse der Fremdsprachenlernenden, die sie in anderen Fremdsprachen erworben haben, nutzen soll (s. die Definition von Krumm zu Mehrsprachigkeitsdidaktik in Barkowski und Krumm, 2010: 208). Doch wird paradoxerweise immer noch außer Acht gelassen, dass die Lernenden in Bezug auf ihre Muttersprache – in unserem Fall in Bezug auf das Ungarische – durch den schulischen Unterricht sogar über metalinguistische Kenntnisse verfügen.

Durch die Übersetzung von Texten und durch die Übersetzung von Wortverbindungen können verschiedene Ziele verfolgt werden, die im Folgenden kurz gezeigt werden.

4. Übersetzung von Texten

Die Textkompetenz wird selbstredend vor allem durch die Übersetzung ganzer Texte gefördert.

Des Weiteren wird durch die Teilergebnisse einer kleinen (im Jahre 2018 durchgeführten) empirischen Untersuchung aufgezeigt, was für einen Nutzen Textübersetzungen haben. Die Probanden waren Lehramtsstudierende im

sechsten Semester. Der ungarische Text, den die Studierenden ins Deutsche übertragen haben, fungierte als Prüfungstext bei der Zulassungsprüfung im Jahre 2002. (Beim Lehramtsstudium gibt es in Ungarn keine Zulassungsprüfungen mehr – deshalb wurde ein Text aus dem Jahre 2002 gewählt.) Die Übersetzungen wurden nicht benotet, das Ziel war keine Leistungsmessung. Übersetzungsaufgaben sind dann effektiv, wenn die Übersetzungen nachher mit der Gruppe gemeinsam analysiert werden. Die Übersetzungsvarianten sollen verglichen und diskutiert werden, es soll Stellung genommen werden, die eigene Übersetzung soll reflektiert werden. Dadurch werden die Studierenden dafür sensibilisiert, dass vielfach mehrere Übersetzungen akzeptiert werden können. Die gemeinsame Analyse der Übersetzungen hat auch noch einen weiteren didaktischen Nutzen: Dadurch, dass die Studierenden mit ihren eigenen Fehlern konfrontiert werden, wird ihre – oft falsche, denn allzu positive – Selbsteinschätzung „zurechtgerückt“, d.h. der Realität angenähert. Aus Platzgründen kann hier der ganze Text nicht präsentiert werden, dem Text werden zwei Textpassagen entnommen.

(1) Der erste ungarische Textausschnitt lautet:

„A háromnapos konferencia megállapította: jelenleg a legtöbb feszültség abból az általánosan követett gyakorlatból származik, hogy a kisebbségi képviselők rendszerint csak sérelmeiket hangsúlyozzák, míg a többségi képviselők nem ritkán a kisebbségekkel szemben érzett félelmeikről beszélnek. Ilyen körülmények között nem csoda, ha minden **kísérlet** kudarcba fullad, és a felek nem értik meg egymást.“

[Übersetzung nach dem Lösungsschlüssel: Die dreitägige Konferenz stellte fest: Gegenwärtig ergeben sich die meisten Spannungen noch aus der allgemein verfolgten Praxis, dass die Minderheitenvertreter in der Regel nur ihre Kränkungen akzentuieren, während die Mehrheitsvertreter nicht selten über ihre Angstgefühle sprechen, die sie den Minderheiten gegenüber empfinden. Unter diesen Umständen ist es kein Wunder, wenn alle **Versuche** ein Fiasko erleben und die Parteien einander nicht verstehen.]

Das hervorgehobene ungarische Wort *kísérlet* hat mehrere Bedeutungen und diesen Bedeutungen entsprechen im Deutschen mehrere Wörter: (*der*) *Versuch*, (*die*) *Probe*, (*das*) *Experiment*, (*der*) *Test* (vgl. Halász et al., 2003: 818). Bei der Eins-zu-viele-Äquivalenz kann es vorkommen, dass das semantisch falsche zielsprachliche Wort ausgewählt wird, wie in der folgenden Übersetzung:

„Unter solchen Umstände (sic!) ist es kein Wunder, wenn alle **Experimente** (sic!) nicht zu Ende geführt werden können, und wenn die Teilnehmer einander nicht verstehen.“

Lexikalische Fehler können nicht nur dadurch entstehen, dass unter den Synonymen eine falsche Wahl getroffen wird: Wörter einer Wortfamilie können auch durcheinander gebracht werden:

„Unter solchen Umständen ist es kein Wunder, wenn **Versuchungen** (sic!) keinen Erfolg aufzeigen und die Teilnehmer einander nicht verstehen.“

„In so einer Situation ist es nicht überraschend, wenn alle diese **Versuchungen** (sic!) kaputt gehen (sic!) und die zwei Seiten einander nicht verstehen können.“

„Unter diesem (sic!) Umstände (sic!) ist es nicht ein (sic!) Wunder, wenn alle **Versuchungen** (sic!) Erfolglos (sic!) sind und die Teilnehmer einander nicht verstehen können.“

Den Bedeutungsunterschied zwischen den Substantiven (*der*) *Versuch* und (*die*) *Versuchung* kann man zuerst einsprachig erklären: Im obigen Kontext bedeutet *Versuch* 'eine Handlung, eine Bestrebung, mit der versucht wird, dass die Parteien einander verstehen'. *Versuchung* ist dagegen 'ein Verlangen, etw. Unerlaubtes/Unrechtes zu tun'. Den Unterschied zwischen den Bedeutungen der beiden Wörter kann man auch durch die ungarischen Äquivalente klären: dt. (*der*) *Versuch* → ung. *kísérlét*; dt. (*die*) *Versuchung* → ung. *kísértés*. Zur Kontexteinbettung eignet sich sogar das Vaterunser: „[...] und führe uns nicht in Versuchung“, auf Ungarisch „[...] és ne vígy minket kísértésbe“.

(2) Das Wort *helyzet* ist ebenfalls polysem, seinen aktuellen Bedeutungen können im Deutschen mehrere Wörter entsprechen, wie z.B. (*der*) *Zustand*; (*die*) *Lage*; (*die*) *Situation*; (*die*) *Umstände* (vgl. ung. *körülmények*); (*die*) *Verhältnisse* (vgl. ung. *viszonyok*); (*die*) *Gegebenheiten* (vgl. ung. *adottságok*); (*die*) *Stellung*, (*die*) *Haltung*, (*die*) *Pose*, (*die*) *Positur* (vgl. ung. *testtartás*) usw. (vgl. Halász et al., 2003: 626f.).

Im Original lautet die Textpassage wie folgt:

„A konferencia résztvevői kiemelték, hogy néhány közép- és kelet-európai országban a kisebbségek voltak a társadalmi átalakulások legnagyobb vesztesei, többszörösen hátrányos **helyzetből** kell a piacgazdaságban folyó létharcot felvenniük.“

[Übersetzung nach dem Lösungsschlüssel: Von den Konferenzteilnehmern wurde unterstrichen, dass in manchen mittel- und osteuropäischen Ländern die Minderheiten die größten Verlierer der gesellschaftlichen Umwälzungen sind. Sie müssen den Existenzkampf in der Marktwirtschaft aus einer mehrfach nachteiligen **Situation** aufnehmen.]

In den Übersetzungen der Studierenden kamen mehrere Synonyme vor, wie z.B.:

„[...] sie müssen aus mehrmals gehindertem **Zustand** (sic!) den Seinskampf aufnehmen [...]“

„[...] sogar sie sollten den Kampf auf dem Weltmarkt in einem mehrfach benachteiligten **Zustand** (sic!) aufnehmen.“

„[...] aus diesen (sic!) sehr ungünstigen **Zustand** (sic!) mussten sie den Krieg auf dem Marktwirtschaft (sic!) um das Sein aufnehmen.“

„[...] sie sollten den Kampf aus benachteiligtem (sic!) **Position** auf dem Marktwirtschaft (sic!) aufnehmen.“

„[...] sie müssen den an (sic!) der Wirtschaft existierenden Kampf aus mehrfach schwieriger **Lage** aufnehmen.“

Bei der Analyse der Übersetzungen können auch zwei- und einsprachige Wörterbücher zur Hilfe gezogen werden, um die Wörterbuchbenutzung zu schulen. So lässt sich erschließen, dass die Verwendung von *Position* und *Lage* in dem

obigen Textzusammenhang richtig ist, während *Zustand* nicht in den Kontext passt (vgl. DUW, 2003: 1883).

5. Übersetzung von Wortverbindungen

Die Übersetzung von Wortverbindungen hat einen anderen Zweck. Betrachten wir z.B. ein und dasselbe Wort in mehreren Wortverbindungen, so lässt sich die Polysemie dieses Wortes erschließen und je nach kontextueller Bedeutung lassen sich die zielsprachlichen Äquivalente angeben. Ein wichtiger Nutzen des Übersetzens wird hier deutlich: „es verhindere durch seine Vorlagegebundenheit die Herausbildung absoluter 1:1-Entsprechungen bei den Lernenden“ (Königs, 2001: 957). In den Übersetzungsaufgaben reichen gewöhnlich Syntagmen aus, um das mehrdeutige Wort zu disambiguieren und das zielsprachliche Äquivalent zu finden, z.B.:

a színházban az első sorban ülni → im Theater in der ersten **Reihe** sitzen
első sorban kitértésre van szükség → in erster **Linie** muss man Ausdauer haben
a lap első sorába írni → in die erste **Zeile** der Seite schreiben
a sorok között olvasni → zwischen den **Zeilen** lesen ('auch das nicht ausdrücklich Gesagte verstehen')
hosszú sor a pénztárnál → eine lange **Schlange** an der Kasse
sorba állni a pénztárnál → an der Kasse **Schlange** stehen; sich anstellen
kilóg vki a sorból → aus der **Reihe** tanzen ('sich nicht einordnen, eine vorgegebene Ordnung o. Ä. nicht einhalten')
sorra kerülni a pénztárnál → an der Kasse an die **Reihe** kommen
te vagy most soron → jetzt bist du an der **Reihe**; jetzt bist du dran
várj a sorodra → warte bis du an die **Reihe** kommst; warte bis du drankommst
sorban/sorjában ('egymás után') *belépni a terembe, elmesélni vmit* → der **Reihe** nach eintreten, etw. erzählen
jó sora van vkinek → jmdm. geht es gut; jmd. hat es gut
nemesi sorból származik → jmd. ist adeliger Abstammung
ez tiszta sor → das ist sonnenklar
ha arra kerül a sor → wenn es dazu kommt
a vita során → während der Diskussion.

Das ungarische Wort *sötét* ist semantisch komplex, d.h. polysem, deshalb soll bei der Auswahl des deutschen Äquivalents die jeweilige aktualisierte Bedeutung beachtet werden (s. Halász et al., 2003: 1292; DUW 2003: 405., 416., 547.):

in der Bedeutung 'nicht hell, sondern von intensiver Färbung, ins Schwärzliche spielend':

sötét ruha → **dunkle** Kleidung

sötét haj, szem → **dunkle** Haare, Augen

in der Bedeutung 'schwermütig, niedergedrückt (und daher unheimlich wirkend)'

sötét hangulat → eine **düstere** Stimmung

sötét gondolatok → **düstere** Gedanken

in der Bedeutung 'bedrückend negativ'

sötét jövő → eine **düstere** Zukunft

sötét képet festeni vmiről → ein **düsteres** Bild zeichnen über etw.

in der Bedeutung 'geistig unaufgeklärt':

a *sötét középkor* → das **finstere** Mittelalter

in der Bedeutung 'anrühlich, zwielichtig':

sötét alak → eine **finstere** Gestalt

Phraseologismen mit der Komponente *sötét*:

a *sötétben* tapogatózik vki → im *Dunkeln* tappen ('in einer aufzuklärenden Sache noch keinen Anhaltspunkt haben')

sötéten lát vki vmit → etw. *schwarz* sehen ('die Zukunftsaussichten negativ, pessimistisch einschätzen; Unerfreuliches, Schlimmes befürchten').

Obwohl sich Fremdsprachenlernende auf ihre Muttersprache stützen und deshalb in den Übersetzungsaufgaben primär die Muttersprache als Ausgangssprache fungiert, sollte man die Perspektive auch wechseln, d.h. die Position von Ausgangssprache und Zielsprache ändern. In diesem Sinne gehen wir jetzt vom Deutschen aus und nehmen zur Verdeutlichung das deutsche Adjektiv *faul* und seine ungarischen Entsprechungen (s. DUW, 2003: 524; Halász et al., 2004: 539):

1. 'durch Einwirkung zersetzender Bakterien (und unter Entwicklung übel riechender Gase) in Gärung, Verwesung geraten, übergegangen (und dadurch verdorben, unbrauchbar)' (vgl. *faulen* 'faul werden, in Fäulnis übergehen, durch Fäulnis verderben')

faules Obst → *rohadt/rohadt gyümölcs*

faules Holz → *korhadt fa*

faules Fleisch → *romlott hús*

faules Ei → *záptojás*

faules Wasser → *poshadt/állott víz* (aber: (*das*) *Faulwasser* → *holtvíz* [Totwasser])

fauler Zahn → *odvas (rossz, romlott) fog*

2. (ugs., abwertend) 'sehr zweifelhaft, bedenklich, (moralisch) unsauber; nicht einwandfrei, nicht in Ordnung und daher unbefriedigend'

faule Sache → *kétes/kényes/beteg ügy/dolog*

an der Sache ist etwas faul → *a dolog nem stimmel; valami büzlik az ügyben*

faule Ausrede → *ócska/üres kifogás* (vgl. noch den umgangssprachlichen Phraseologismus *faule Fische* ('dumme Ausreden, Lügen'); s. Duden, 2002: 226)

Es ist etwas faul im Staate Dänemark. ('da stimmt etwas nicht, da ist etwas nicht in Ordnung'; s. Duden, 2002: 210) → *Valami büzlik Dániában.* [Etwas stinkt in Dänemark.]

3. 'abgeneigt zu arbeiten, sich zu bewegen, sich anzustrengen; nicht gern tätig; bequem, träge' (vgl. *faulenz* 'sich dem Nichtstun hingeben (und dabei Dinge vernachlässigen, die man zu erledigen hätte)' → ung. *lustálkodni, henyélni, salopp dögleni*; vgl. noch (*der*) *Faulpelz* 'sehr fauler Mensch, Faulenzer' und das Synonym (*das*) *Faultier* → *naplopó, here, világ lustája*)

fauler Student → *lusta hallgató* (vgl. noch den Phraseologismus *jmd. ist faul wie Sünde* (s. Duden, 2002: 210) → *vki olyan lusta, mint a bűn*; vgl. noch die Wendung *vor Faulheit stinken* (s. Duden ebenda))

ein faules Leben führen → *henye életet él*

nicht faul ('ohne zu zögern, schnell reagierend, rasch bei der Hand'; s. Duden ebenda; vgl. das Textbeispiel in DUW, 2003: 524: „sie, nicht faul, beantwortete seine Zudringlichkeit mit einer Ohrfeige“) → *nem rest vmit megtenni.*

6. Übersetzung von Phraseologismen

Da Phraseologismen in allen Textsorten vorkommen, sind sie sowohl bei der Textrezeption als auch bei der Textproduktion relevant. Deshalb können in den Übersetzungsaufgaben auch Phraseologismen eingesetzt werden.

Eine von mir durchgeführte Untersuchung zur Bekanntheit des deutschen parömisches Minimums hat ergeben, dass die ungarischen GermanistikstudentInnen von den entsprechenden ungarischen Sprichwörtern ausgehen, d.h. diese eins zu eins ins Deutsche übertragen (vgl. Forgács, 2007:

241-264). Durch muttersprachlichen Transfer lassen sich die folgenden Fehler erklären: **Der Krug geht so lange zu Wasser, bis er nicht bricht.* (richtig: *Der Krug geht so lange zu Wasser/zum Brunnen, bis er bricht.*; vgl. ung. *Addig jár a korsó a kútra, míg el nem törik.*); **Hunde, die bellen, nicht beißen.* (richtig: *Hunde, die bellen, beißen nicht.*; vgl. ung. *Amelyik kutya ugat, nem harap.*); **Irren ist menschliche Sache.* (richtig: *Irren ist menschlich.*; vgl. ung. *Tévedni emberi dolog.*); **Der Klügere lässt, der Dummere leidet.* (richtig: *Der Klügere gibt nach.*; vgl. ung. *Okos enged, szamár szenved.*). Dem ungarischen Wort *szem* entsprechen im Deutschen mehrere Wörter, so lässt sich der muttersprachliche Transfer auch im folgenden Beleg eindeutig ertappen: **Ein blindes Huhn findet auch ein Auge/Kern/Ähre/Samen.* (richtig: *Ein blindes Huhn findet auch mal ein Korn.*; vgl. ung. *Vak tyúk is talál szemet.*).

Das Ziel der Übersetzungsaufgaben mit Phraseologismen kann sein, die Übereinstimmungen bewusst zu machen, z.B.:

ung. *a fején találja a szöget vki* – dt. *den Nagel auf den Kopf treffen*

ung. *megmossa a fejét vki vkinek* – dt. *jmdm. den Kopf waschen*

ung. *fennhordja az orrát vki* – dt. *die Nase hoch tragen*

ung. *kiönti/kitárja a szívéét vki vkinek* – dt. *jmdm. sein Herz ausschütten*

ung. *süket füleknek prédikál vki* – dt. *tauben Ohren predigen.*

Durch die Übersetzungen können auch die kleineren Unterschiede unter den interlingualen Synonymen erschlossen werden, um weitere Interferenzfehler zu vermeiden, z.B.:

ung. *Az alma nem esik messze a fájától.* [Der Apfel fällt nicht weit von seinem Baum.] – dt. *Der Apfel fällt nicht weit vom Stamm.*

ung. *Ajándék lónak ne nézd a fogát!* [Einem geschenkten Pferd schaue nicht die Zähne!] – dt. *Einem geschenkten Gaul schaut man nicht ins Maul.*

Des Weiteren kann durch Übersetzungsaufgaben aufgezeigt werden, dass durch die wörtliche Übertragung der Phraseologismen ihre idiomatische Bedeutung vielfach nicht erschlossen werden kann, z.B.:

dt. *wissen / jmdm. zeigen o. Ä., wie der Hase läuft* ('wissen / jmdm. zeigen o. Ä., wie es gemacht wird, damit es die gewünschte Wirkung, den gewünschten Erfolg erzielt'; vgl. Duden, 2002: 332) [*vki tudja/megmutatja vkinek, hogyan fut a nyúl*] – die ungarischen synonymen funktionalen Äquivalente sind: *tudja vki, (hogy) mitől döglük a légy* [jmd. weiß, wovon die Fliege krepirt]; *ismeri/érti a dürgést/dörgést vki* [jmd. kennt/versteht das Balzen/das Balzverhalten] (Das Wort *dürgés* kommt aus der Jägersprache und bezeichnet die Lautgebung des Balzhahnes. Kennen die Jäger das Balzverhalten des Hahnes, wenn dieser weniger aufmerksam ist, so können sie ihn leichter erlegen. Die Herkunft der Wendung ist mittlerweile verblasst, so wird das fachsprachliche Wort *dürgés* vielfach mit *dörgés* [Donnern] ersetzt.).

Bei der wörtlichen Übertragung von deutschen Realien-Phraseologismen – anders ausgedrückt nationalen oder kulturell geprägten Phraseologismen – kann auch ihr kulturhistorischer Hintergrund erschlossen werden, z.B.:

seinen Friedrich Wilhelm unter etw. setzen ('etw. unterschreiben') [vki aláírja vminek a Friedrich Wilhelmjé] – zur Herkunft s. Duden (2002: 244): „Die Wahl der Vornamen bezieht sich auf die preußischen Könige und besonders wohl auf Friedrich Wilhelm I., der zur Unterzeichnung von Schriftstücken beide Vornamen voll ausschrieb“.

Phraseologismen kann man bekanntlich auch dann korrekt verwenden, wenn man ihre Etymologie nicht kennt. Doch die Fremdsprachenlernenden übersetzen auch wörtlich und werden stutzig, wenn sie zwischen der wörtlichen und der idiomatischen Lesart keine Verbindung herstellen können. Deshalb soll die wörtliche Übersetzung mit der Klärung der Etymologie verbunden werden, so auch im Falle des folgenden deutschen Realien-Phraseologismus:

aus die Maus ('es ist Schluss, das war es') [kint van az egér] – zur Herkunft s. Duden (2002: 509): „Dies sind die Schlussworte der beliebten »Sendung mit der Maus« aus dem Kinderfernsehen.“

Die wörtliche Übertragung kann sogar zu volksetymologischen Deutungen führen, daher ist das Erschließen der Herkunft wichtig, z.B.:

sich nicht ins Bockshorn jagen lassen ('sich nicht einschüchtern, in Bedrängnis bringen lassen') [vki nem hagyja magát a bika szarvába kergetni] – zur Herkunft s. Duden (2002: 132): „Der Ursprung der seit dem 15. Jh. bezeugten Wendung ist nicht sicher geklärt. Vielleicht hängt sie mit dem Haberfeldtreiben (eigentlich Ziegenfelltreiben) zusammen, einem früher üblichen (nächtlichen) Rügegericht, bei dem der Übeltäter in ein Ziegenfell gesteckt und umhergetrieben wurde. »Bockshorn« wäre dann eine Umdeutung aus *bockes hamo* »Ziegenfell«.“

7. Übersetzungsarbeit und Grammatik

Übersetzungen sind nicht nur für die Wortschatzarbeit geeignet. Durch Übersetzungsaufgaben wird deutlich, wo die Lernenden grammatische Schwierigkeiten haben. Durch die Analyse der Übersetzungen des in Kapitel 4 erwähnten Textes konnte z.B. festgestellt werden, dass die Studierenden mit dem Finalsatz nicht zurechtkommen. Im ungarischen Original hieß es:

„**Annak érdekében, hogy** a kisebbségek beilleszkedjenek a különböző társadalmakba, s ugyanakkor identitásukat is meg tudják őrizni, mindenekelőtt toleranciára és empátiakészségre van szükség – hangsúlyozták a résztvevők az Európai Katolikus Információs Központ magyar szervezete által Dobogókőn megrendezett konferencián.“

Typischerweise haben die Studierenden in der Verbindung mit dem Verb *sich integrieren* die hier falsche Konstruktion *um + zu + Infinitiv* gewählt, z.B.:

***Um sich die Minderheiten in die verschiedenen Gesellschaften einordnen zu können**, und auch ihre Identität aufbewahren (sic!) zu können, braucht man vor allem Toleranz – und Empathiefähigkeit – haben die Teilnehmer der in Dobogókő von dem ungarischen Verein des Europäischen Katholischen Informationszentrum (sic!) veranstalteten Konferenz hervorgehoben.“

***Um die Nationalitäten sich in verschiedenen Gesellschaften zu integrieren** und sie können gleichzeitig ihre Identität auch bewahren, braucht man Toleranz und Empathiefähigkeit (sic!) – betonen (sic!) die Mitglieder der Konferenz in Dobogókő, der

(sic!) von dem ungarischen Verein des europäischen (sic!) katholischen informativen Zentrums (sic!) organisiert wurde.“

8. Fazit

In diesem Beitrag wurde dafür plädiert, die Muttersprache der Lernenden aus dem Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht zu verbannen. Dies hat schon deshalb keinen Sinn, weil die Muttersprache im Bewusstsein der Lernenden mehr oder weniger ständig präsent ist und ihren Einfluss ausübt. Die Muttersprache soll nicht als eine Lernbehinderung aufgefasst werden. Die bewusste Kontrastierung der Fremdsprache mit der Muttersprache ist sowohl in den Fällen nützlich, in denen die Muttersprache typischerweise Interferenzfehler verursacht als auch dann, wenn der muttersprachliche Transfer zu korrekten fremdsprachlichen Äußerungen führt. Das Prinzip der strengen Einsprachigkeit sollte auch in Ungarn aufgegeben werden, und sogar statt der sog. „aufgeklärten Einsprachigkeit“ (vgl. Rössler 2009: 158) soll das Prinzip einer „aufgeklärten Zweisprachigkeit“ verwirklicht werden. Unter „aufgeklärter Zweisprachigkeit“ verstehe ich, dass man sich explizit auf die Muttersprache stützen sollte, wenn dies Sprachkompetenzen in der Fremdsprache und/oder in der Muttersprache fördert und die Effektivität des Lehrens und des Lernens unterstützt. Budai (2015: 49) meint ebenfalls: „das völlige Negligieren der Muttersprache der Lernenden ist eine aus Unwissenheit resultierende Zeit- und Energieverschwendung“ (Übersetzung ins Deutsche von mir – E. D.-Sz.).

Übersetzungen geben Anlass dazu, die Unterschiede unter den Synonymen in der Fremdsprache und in der Muttersprache zu klären, Polysemie-Unterschiede zu erkennen, die Äquivalenztypen im lexikalischen Bereich zu erschließen, d.h. bewusst zu machen, dass die Sprachen die Welt unterschiedlich gliedern.

Irma Marquardt (1997: 52) hat in einem Aufsatz, in dem sie sich für den Einsatz von Übersetzungsaufgaben im Fremdsprachenunterricht einsetzt, Folgendes geschrieben: „Die Begriffe Übersetzen im Fremdsprachenunterricht und moderner Fremdsprachenunterricht erscheinen in ihrer gemeinsamen Erwähnung wie Anachronismen, wie eine Methodenkonfrontation des Damals mit dem Heute“. Seitdem sind mehr als zwei Jahrzehnte vergangen. Es wäre an der Zeit, „Heute“ und „Damals“ auch in Ungarn in Einklang zu bringen, d.h. endlich einzusehen, dass die Muttersprache der Lernenden aus dem Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht wegzudenken ist. Die Muttersprache der Lernenden sollte im Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht nur latent im Hintergrund stehen, sondern vielmehr explizit mit einbezogen werden. Sprachmittlungsaufgaben – und darunter Übersetzungsaufgaben – sollten auch in Ungarn einen hohen Stellenwert erlangen, sonst werden wir in der Fremdsprachendidaktik weiterhin „hinten hinken“ und wir werden den Anforderungen des Gemeinsamen Europäischen Referenzrahmens nicht gerecht. Auf die explizite Grammatikvermittlung sollte auch mehr Wert gelegt werden, denn ohne Grammatik gibt es auch keine Sprachmittlungskompetenz. Dies soll allerdings das Thema eines anderen Aufsatzes sein.

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BOOK REVIEW

MELINDA DOOLY / ROBERT O'DOWD (Editors) IN THIS TOGETHER: TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES WITH TRANSNATIONAL, TELECOLLABORATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING PROJECTS

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Reviewed work:

In This Together: Teachers' Experiences with Transnational, Telecollaborative Language Learning Projects

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The series of scholarly works dealing with education was enriched in 2018 with some new publications of Peter Lang Publishing House, one of these being the collective volume coordinated by Melinda Dooly and Robert O'Dowd. *In This Together: Teachers' Experiences with Transnational, Telecollaborative Language Learning Projects* is volume 6 in the series *Telecollaboration in Education* and combines the outcomes of research and practice in the domain of innovative, IT-based and -assisted teaching and learning practices. Among the authors we find four researchers: Dr. Melinda Dooly and Dr. Dolores Masats Viladoms, both with a wide experience in teacher training, Dr. Robert O'Dowd and Dr. Randall Sadler, experts in the application of telecollaboration in education with a special focus on language teaching and learning, as well as practicing, experienced educators like Alexandra Bonet Pueyo, Sara Bruun, Maria Mont, graduated and respectively wannabe teachers with telecollaborative and intercultural experience, such as: Granada Bejarano Sánchez, Anaïs García-Martínez, Gerard Giménez Manrique, Maria Gracia-Téllez, Jennie Ingelsson, Anna Linder and Anna Morcilo Salas.

The first chapter of this collective work, *Telecollaboration in the foreign language classroom: A review of its origins and its application to language teaching practice*, signed by the editors offers insight into the practice of telecollaboration – the concept refers to a structured, online collaborative learning process taking place among geographically apart groups of learners –, its origins and implementation into the language teaching process. Having a strongly practical character, the volume shares primary and secondary school teachers' experiences with telecollaborative projects, highlights and difficulties included. Although it might seem an innovative teaching practice – taking into consideration the use of technology, indeed it is – with a rapid expansion in the past ten years, its origins date back at least one century: “School pen pal exchanges and even multimedia exchanges have existed since at least the 1920’s when Célestin Freinet established the Modern School Movement in Europe.” (Kern, 2013, p. 206 in Dooly & O’Dowd, 2018, p. 12). During this decade of expansion it experienced numerous definitions, “virtual connections” (Warschauer 1996), “teletandem” (Telles 2009), “globally networked learning” (Starke-Meyerring & Wilson 2008), “online interaction exchange” (Dooly & O’Dowd 2012) are only a few among the terms used referring to it. Still, the authors of the volume prefer the term telecollaboration as being the most wide-spread denotation. In terms of the two editors, telecollaboration can be defined as:

“the engagement of groups of learners in extended periods of online intercultural interaction and collaboration with partners from other cultural contexts or geographical locations as an integrated part of their educational programmes and under the guidance of educators and/or expert facilitators.” (p. 16)

or even beyond the limits of education:

“the process of communicating and working together with other people or groups from different locations through online or digital communication tools (e.g., computers, tablets, cellphones) to co-produce a desired work output. Telecollaboration can be carried out in a variety of settings (classroom, home, workplace, laboratory) and can be synchronous or asynchronous. In education, telecollaboration combines all of these components with a focus on learning, social interaction, dialogue, intercultural exchange and communication (...)” (Dooly, 2017, pp. 169-170 in Dooly & O’Dowd, 2018, p. 16).

Although there is no consensus in classifying telecollaboration as a method, methodology, approach or practice, one thing is sure, as an object of study it has slowly become part of teacher education and training. The subsequent chapters of the book, where more or less experienced teachers and even student-teachers report about their results in telecollaborative educational projects or units should stay as a proof for that. A real strength of the book is the authors' reflection on the results of their telecollaborative projects, the analysis of positive and negative experiences to draw conclusions for the improvement of similar future endeavours. In the second chapter entitled *A telecollaborative science project: Searching for new ways to make language learning authentic* Anaïs García-Martínez and María Gracia-Téllez, students of pedagogy approaching graduation reflect upon their teaching internship offering them the experience of a telecollaborative project. As

devoted aspirant teachers wanting to embrace this profession in a conscious way, they consider this new approach being of great impact upon language learning and above all authentic language learning, capable to face the communicational needs of nowadays' 'information society'. In designing a telecollaborative project they relied on the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to be most efficiently realized according to them by means of Project-Based Language Learning (PBLL), implying beside language competence both social (communication, sharing, collaboration) and working skills (documentation, use of IT devices, sorting, decision making, etc.). Throughout the project the two future teachers had following criteria in mind: students should acquire beside foreign language (English) specific content, too, they should use the language in a natural, real-like manner and language learning should be aided by modern technology (Technology-Enhanced Project-Based Language Learning – TEPBLL).

Two groups of students were involved into this innovative project: one group of 3rd grade students of a school in a socially disadvantaged area next to Barcelona and a 4th grade class in a school in Mollet del Vallès belonging to the metropolitan area of Barcelona, having experiences with innovative language teaching methods and the use of technologies. An auxiliary but not less important aim of the project was inclusion of socially disadvantaged children and of students with learning difficulties:

“As we saw it, bringing innovative methodologies to the classroom to engage those students who do not possess the cultural capital to succeed in education was crucial to help them escape from social determinism and start conceiving their social mobility in the near future as a reachable aspiration.” (p. 40)

The two classes participating in the project had to find out how humans can move, one of them exploring the skeletal and the other one the muscular system by using English as means of communication. The expected outcome was a final video about their findings put together and uploaded to YouTube and to the school blogs.

The topic of chapter three, *Are we really that different? A telecollaborative project between refugee students from Myanmar and a primary school in Sabadell (Spain)*, signed by Anna Morcilo Salas, is a collaboration between refugees in Thailand, youngsters between the age of 17 and 23, taking educational courses, and a primary school in Spain. Beside the innovative approach of telecollaboration, the project faced one more challenge implying collaborative work between two groups of students very distant in age, with the scope of improving language and digital competence on both sides. The initiators of the project hoped for an additional gain with European children in social sensitivity for the problems of refugees and on behalf of the latter ones in extended education and didactic issues, as they were supposed to collaborate with the project teachers regarding material design and to give feedback: “Once again it seemed important to involve the students in the decision-making process since they were adults who had their own conception of the education they wanted. (...), so I tried to involve them in the planning process as much as possible.” (p. 70)

The twofold topic of the telecollaborative project being the use of Present simple tense, respectively comparing the daily programme of the two groups of students,

primary school pupils in Spain (Peacock School) drilled grammar with help of materials offered to them by their teacher, while Myanmar students (Meerkat School) were in charge of creating different types of materials to this grammar issue to help their telecollaborative partners to learn it. The final outcome was a presentation/debate on similarities, differences between the two groups involved.

Chapter four, authors Maria Mont and Dolors Masats, is dedicated to giving to teachers with no or less experience with the telecollaborative approach practical advice for a successful implementation of this type of projects. All this happens based on two projects conducted with the same class of a public school in Mollet del Vallès, Catalonia - Spain in one year with a class in Toronto - Canada to the topic of *Travelling through Arts* and in the following year with an Austrian group of pupils from Vienna, bearing the title *Healthy Habits*. Of course one of the goals of the projects was improving language competence in English.

In chapter five, *Making a difference: Reflecting on a telecollaborative project aimed at social change*, Alexandra Bonet Pueyo presents the concern of the teachers' collective in the school she is working at, about educating socially committed youth using telecommunication tools in a conscious and responsible way. To reach that, the skills to be acquired by the students are: "(...) critical thinking and problem solving; collaboration across networks and leading by influence; agility and adaptability; initiative and entrepreneurialism; effective oral and written communication; accessing and analysing information; and curiosity and imagination." (p. 124)

The project meant to bring linguistic (English language) and intercultural gains, as well as, dealing with the problem of Syrian war refugees, to have a certain social impact, was run between a school located in Terrassa, Spain and one in Furuthorpkolann, Sweden. By means of the project's final result, a blog created by the joint Spanish-Swedish group, the participants hoped to raise public awareness of the Syrian crisis and to invite to reflection upon possible ways of offering help. As 21st century education should also aim at forming critical citizens capable of independent thinking, part of the tasks implied debating and argumentative text writing to learn how to take into consideration both sides of the problem – for and against.

Totally conscious of the drawbacks, hard work and in spite of this possible mistakes emerging from the participation in a project of this kind and complexity, the author summarizes with full satisfaction "And when 12 and 13 year old students can stand up and claim they know how the world must be, that the world must be different from the one that exists, one knows a good job has been done." (p. 144)

The next chapter reports about telecollaboration experience also made by prospect teachers in their internship period. Both of the schools involved are located in Spain, but one has English as language of teaching (School Queen Mary) for multilingual students and the other one Catalan, mainly for Spanish-speaking students (School Vaillet). In this way the authors, Granada Bejarano Sánchez and Gerard Giménez Manrique, present a linguistic exchange including English for the Catalan-speaking and Catalan for the English-speaking education institution. Through the cooperative approach and the technological background introduced to language classes both of the schools with a tradition in project-based learning

experienced also something new and unusual in their daily routine. We perceive the working group contract containing every student's assignment signed by each member of the respective group, as really original and probably even efficient in raising sense of responsibility with children.

The telecollaborative project described in chapter seven, *Intercultural meetings in a Swedish-Kiwi e-mail exchange: Lessons Learnt*, focused on culture and everything this concept may involve and it was run with the participation of four classes in two different schools in Sweden and one oversized (about 90 pupils) class in a New Zealand school. Unlike the other projects presented in this volume, this one was not that much technology-based and -aided due to the gaps in students' IT competence.

"Clearly digital tools can and should transform teaching and by using them wisely teachers can take their students far beyond textbooks and workbooks and vocabulary tests." (p. 200) confesses Sara Bruun, the author of chapter eight, *Global goals: A virtual project with students from Sweden and Tanzania*, presenting a telecollaborative project between a school in Hässleholm, Sweden and one in Bagamoyo, Tanzania related to sustainability and also focusing on the improvement of English language competence. Two special issues should be mentioned here: first, this was the project facing maybe the biggest challenge taking into consideration the large cultural and infrastructural gap (lack of electricity and internet after a rain) between a European and an African country, and second, the participants were given due to the Swedish Council for Higher Education even the opportunity of personal meeting realized through a mutual visit in Hässleholm and Bagamoyo. It should be considered also positive, that students found out about critical reading and were offered guidance related to the reliability of information sources.

The framework initiated by Dooly and O'Dowd in their introductory part, embracing the seven descriptive chapters reporting about experiences with telecollaborative projects comes to closing in the last chapter signed by Randall William Sadler, not only summing up the content of the volume, but also offering rules/instructions for a successful collaboration emerging from the long-year experiences of all persons involved. Because running such projects means an increased workload and hopefully fruitful collaboration with a strange partner, taking into consideration the needs of all the participants, possible unexpected events, different school calendars and time zones when working with far-away countries and last but not least a good choice regarding technological tools used.

Certainly the above presented work has its undeniable merits, however we have to perceive as shortcomings the reduced readability of some of the inserted charts or graphics, the quite frequent occurrence of mistakes: "given that we had in mind that it could easily happened" (p. 59), "(...) I have a better idea of how live is in Spain as a young student. (...)" (p. 84), or "Moreover, these great amount of differences (...) was seen as an advantage (...)" (p. 148), of omissions: "They immediately saw that there was a real reason for them to be quiet and thereafter the recordings increasingly more accurate." (p. 60), "(...) the students may be using only one language, (...) or two languages (each partner may as a language mentor for the

other); (...)" (p. 111), "Moreover, through the use of the target language as a means of getting to know and work with other learners from another they would broaden their knowledge other cultures and traditions." (p. 140), – or just the omission of 's' in the third person singular –, of typing errors like "You can even try to join a teaching groups in your area (...)" (p. 107), "(...) to try to have a social impact through our everyday our jobs." (p. 143), just to mention a few of them. One could claim as reasons for dissatisfaction stylistic issues "(...) the challenges the students had were context-specific." (p. 192), or the use of acronyms not introduced previously – BIE staying for Buck Institute for Education, issue tackled and explained only in the list of references –, respectively the lack of interpunctuation affecting comprehension "Preparing for the future challenges they will face in their lives as the world becomes more and more interlinked must be a high priority for teachers everywhere." (p. 123), all avoidable through careful proof-reading. Still, these formal aspects cannot diminish the overall and above all practical value of the book, since we have to agree with the editors when summing up at the end of their introduction to this work:

"If telecollaboration is to continue to grow as an educational practice, it will of course need the support of policy makers and researchers. But it will also need the contributions of reflective practitioners such as the ones featured in these chapters, providing insights into how telecollaboration can become an integral part of foreign language education." (p. 29)