

Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes (JLSP)

Edited by the *Research Group for Communication in Business and Foreign Languages (RGCBFL)* within the *Research Centre for Competitiveness and Sustainable Development (RCCSD)* and the *Department of International Business*,
Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea

Acknowledgements:

Special thanks for the permanent support and valuable advice,
to the initiator of this project,
Dr. Adriana Giurgiu,
Vice Dean of the Faculty of Economics,
University of Oradea.



ISSN print 2359 – 9103
ISSN online 2359 – 8921
ISSN-L 2359 – 8921

The **Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes (JLSP)** is an open access journal and publishes studies on **Applied Modern Languages (English, French, German and Italian)** and Language teaching at academic levels of specialization for various professions or fields of activity.

The purpose of this journal is to create a communication platform for foreign language teachers with academic activity in non-philological fields and it aims to facilitate exchange and sharing of experience and ideas. Given the specificity of their intermediate status, between philology and various fields of specialty, these teachers – researchers at the same time – need their own forum to express the aforementioned dichotomy and pluralism. It is this role that the journal wants to assume, offering its contributors help in their didactic activity, through the exchange of experience between academics. At the same time, the journal shall provide these specialists, besides new perspectives, a large recognition and professional prestige for the research work they undertake.

The studies published in the **Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes** fall into one of the following **categories**: state-of-art articles, methodological studies, conceptual articles, original research reports, case studies, book reviews - under one of the journal's **sections**: Language studies, Applied Modern Languages, Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes, Professional Communication.

All papers submitted to JLSP undergo a process of **double-blind peer review**.

JLSP is presently indexed in the following databases and catalogues:

- Index Copernicus ICI Journals Master List
- ERIH PLUS
- EBSCO's Education Source
- Ulrich's Periodicals Directory
- Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ)
- Directory of Research Journals Indexing (DRJI)
- SCIPION
- Google Scholar
- Open Academic Journal Index
- Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek
- WorldCat
- The Linguist List
- Advanced Science Index
- Scientific Indexing Services
- Academic Resource Index – ResearchBib
- International Institute of Organized Research (I2OR)
- Polska Bibliografia Naukowa

Editor in Chief

Dr. Ioana Claudia HOREA

Assistant Editor

Dr. Andrea HAMBURG

Editorial Board

Dr. Cristina Laura ABRUDAN

Dr. Rodica BOGDAN

Dr. Andra Teodora CATARIG

Dr. Felicia CONSTANTIN

Dr. Anamaria Mirabela POP

Dr. Adina SĂCARA – ONIȚA

Dr. Monica Ariana SIM

Scientific Board

Dr. Deb REISINGER

Duke University – Durham – USA

Dr. Mary RISNER

University of Florida – Gainesville, Florida – USA

Dr. Rafal SZUBERT

University of Wroclaw – Wroclaw – Poland

Dr. Judit PAPP

University of Naples “L’Orientale” – Naples – Italy

JLSP Editorial Review Board for the seventh issue – March 2020

- Dr. Emily BELTRAN – Technological University of the Philippines – Dasmariñas City, Cavite – Philippines
- Dr. Mario BISIADA – Pompeu Fabra University – Barcelona – Spain
- Dr. Veronica BUCIUMAN – University of Oradea – Oradea – Romania
- Orlyn Joyce ESQUIVEL – University of the Philippines Diliman – Rizal – Philippines
- Dr. Katalin FOGARASI-NUBER – Semmelweis University – Budapest – Hungary
- Dr. Andrea HAMBURG – University of Oradea – Oradea – Romania
- Dr. Samira HASSA – Manhattan College – New York – USA
- Dr. Hjalmar Punla HERNANDEZ – University of the Philippines Los Banos – Laguna – Philippines
- Dr. Jolita HORBACauskiene – Kaunas University of Technology – Kaunas – Lithuania
- Dr. Ioana-Claudia HOREA – University of Oradea – Oradea – Romania
- Dr. Arburim ISENI State University of Tetova – Tetova – Macedonia
- Dr. Mojca KOMPARA LUKANČIČ – University of Primorska – Koper – Slovenia
- Dr. Alan Reed LIBERT – University of Newcastle – Callaghan – Australia
- Dr. Manjola LIKAJ – Armed Forces Academy, Ministry of Defense & Albanian University – Tirana – Albania
- Dr. Riccardo MORATTO – Foreign Studies College, Hunan Normal University – Changsha, Hunan – China
- Dr. Ana Cristina NEVES – USJ – Macau – China
- Dr. Andra-Teodora PORUMB – University of Oradea – Oradea – Romania
- Dr. Simona Laura ŞUTA – University of Oradea – Oradea – Romania
- Dr. Simona ŞIMON – Politehnica University of Timișoara – Timișoara – Romania
- Dr. Nghi TRAN TIN – Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry – Ho Chi Minh City – Vietnam
- Dr. Kam Yin WU – Hong Kong University of Science and Technology – Hong Kong

TABLE OF CONTENTS

AUTHORS	TITLES	PAGES
Junko Winch	EDUCATIONAL CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT RUBRICS: A CASE STUDY OF JAPANESE LANGUAGE AT A BRITISH UNIVERSITY	7-14
Marija Kusevska	CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS OF THE PRAGMATIC MARKER <i>LIKE</i> IN NON-NATIVE CONVERSATION	15-24
Tharwat EL-Sakran	PEER AND SELF-ASSESSMENT IN A PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION COURSE: DOES TASK TYPE MAKE A DIFFERENCE?	25-41
Monica Condruz-Bacescu	PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION IN COMPANIES	43-55
Timea Németh Erika Marek Gabriella Hild Alexandra Csongor	DEVELOPING STUDENTS' INTERCULTURAL AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCE THROUGH THE ERASMUS PROGRAMME: LESSONS LEARNT AND CURRICULAR CHANGES IMPLEMENTED	57-68
Claire Chaplier	L'ENGAGEMENT DE L'ENSEIGNANT-CHERCHEUR EN ANGLAIS DE SPÉCIALITÉ : CAS D'UNE UNIVERSITÉ SCIENTIFIQUE / THE COMMITMENT OF RESEARCHERS IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: THE CASE OF A SCIENTIFIC UNIVERSITY	69-81
Katalin Fogarasi Rita Kránicz Renáta Halász Anikó Hambuch	DIE ROLLE MEDIZINISCHER WISSENSVERMITTLUNG IN ARZT-PATIENTEN-GESPRÄCHEN: DIE BEDEUTUNG DES ÄRZTLICHEN CODE-WECHSELS IN HAUSÄRZTLICHEN KONSULTATIONEN / THE ROLE OF MEDICAL KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER IN DOCTOR-PATIENT INTERACTIONS: THE IMPORTANCE OF MEDICAL CODE SWITCHING IN GENERAL PRACTITIONERS' CONSULTATIONS	83-96

Andrea Hamburg	<i>Book Review:</i> PAVEL ZGAGA / ULRICH TEICHLER / HANS G. SCHUETZE / ANDRÄ WOLTER (Editors) HIGHER EDUCATION REFORM: LOOKING BACK – LOOKING FORWARD	97-103
Andrea Hamburg	<i>Rezension:</i> ANNA GONDEK / JOANNA SZCZĘK (Hrsg.) PHRASEOLOGIE UND PARÖMIOLOGIE DER (UN)HÖFLICHKEIT / ANNA GONDEK / JOANNA SZCZĘK (Eds.) PHRASEOLOGY AND PAROMIOLOGY OF (IM)POLITENESS	105-110
Ioana Claudia Horea	<i>Book Review:</i> SEVEN ECONOMIC FIELDS IN FOUR LANGUAGES	111-116

EDUCATIONAL CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT RUBRICS: A CASE STUDY OF JAPANESE LANGUAGE AT A BRITISH UNIVERSITY

Junko Winch

University of Sussex (Sussex Centre for Language Studies), Falmer,
United Kingdom

J.Winch@sussex.ac.uk

Abstract: *The standard of language assessment is considered to be similar within the same country, but it actually varies from institution to institution even within the UK. Rubrics are important for language teachers to assess students' written work, and it also relates to teachers' objective or subjective marking. This paper looks at Japanese assessment criteria in a British STEM university where students study Japanese in the IELP context. Using two dimensions from Hofstede et al.'s (2010) cultural taxonomy and Hall's (1976) concept of high- and low-context culture, Japanese language rubrics for the written assessment was analysed in 2017. The findings show that the rubrics examined in this study were under the influence of Hofstede et al.'s (2010) collectivist and strong uncertainty avoidance educational culture. The emphasis on the correct use of grammar was observed and also found that language teachers in this institution grade students' written work more objectively using quantitative method. The rubrics includes instructions which enhance the quality of grading consistent and standardise among all language teachers. This process also helps to justify the first markers' awarded marks to the second marker and also the external examiner. Recommendations are given to language teachers and managers who coordinate languages. Language teachers are recommended to inform students whether the focus is accuracy or creativity as this information affects students in working on their assessed work. It is also recommended for managers at language centres to revise periodically the definition of categories to examine if there are any duplication among the rubrics and update them. Incorporating some aspects of rubrics mentioned in this study may enhance the quality of language teachers' grading to be standardised and consistent.*

Keywords: writing assessment; educational culture; higher education; Japanese language teaching; rubrics.

1. Introduction

A rubric is a document which contains the scales and criteria of what is assessed and how scores are given, but it also functions as a standard of assessment constructs who set it. As each language teacher and institution has a different rubrics for what qualifies as good writings compared to poor writings (Erdosy, 2003; Lumley, 2002; Lumley, 2006). Various factors affect to rubrics, such as teacher's rating style, personal characteristics, rating experience and educational background (Lumley & McNamara, 1995; Weigle, 1998). As language teachers'

criteria may not necessarily match with that of institution they belong, each institution sets their own rubrics for their language teachers. Rubrics are usually set by the head of the language department or the person who coordinates the languages, which represents the value and the belief of the person who sets the rubrics. Language departments at British universities usually set their own rubrics which are often based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) descriptor. They are often shared with students via Virtual Learning Environment. However, it should be noted that the rubrics in this study is not shared with students.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the Japanese language teachers claim that they have more of a workload in marking and grading compared to that of other institutions they are teaching based on the rubrics. It is true that every assessment in every subject is not the same. However, if the workload of marking and grading of assessment of the same language are substantially different, culture may be considered as a possible candidate to explain the differences. According to Jonsson & Svingby (2007), the majority of rubric-related articles discuss the development and benefits of using rubrics but none have looked into cultural investigation on Japanese language rubrics.

This study is guided by following three Research Questions (RQ):

RQ1 Are there any cultural influences in the rubrics on Japanese language writing assessment?

RQ2 Is the assessment of students' written work a subjective process?

RQ3 What are the strengths and weaknesses of this rubrics?

2. Theoretical framework

Three cultural concepts are used as a theoretical framework and explained in three sections for this study. Hofstede et al.'s (2010) Uncertainty Avoidance (UA) and Collectivist dimensions are explained in the first two section. The final section discusses the second concept by Hall's (1976) high-context culture.

Geert Hofstede is considered as one of the leading academics on culture (Kirkman et al., 2006; Merkin et al., 2014). Despite some criticism (e.g., Baskerville, 2003; McSweeney, 2002; Spector, Cooper & Sparks, 2001; Taras & Steel, 2009), 'Hofstede's model has been used most often' (Merkin et al., 2014, p. 3). This study utilises Hofstede's framework as a basis of assessment marking scheme analysis. Hofstede et al.'s (2010) cultural taxonomy consists of five dimensions and has two opposing poles. Having two opposing poles on the spectrum is the main reason to choose as a framework for this study as it is easier to compare and understand educational culture and underlying pedagogies. Categorising a particular nationality into one of two cultures may be too stereotypical and simplistic as the reality is much more complex. Given that today's society consists of people with different heritages and preferences due to globalisation, it is difficult to generalise the cultural preferences of a particular nationality or heritage. However, we cannot dismiss that there is also some truth of Hofstede et al.'s cultural taxonomy.

Hofstede et al. (2010) divide cultures into five dimensions: large vs. small power distance; individualism vs. collectivism; masculinity vs. femininity; strong vs. weak uncertainty avoidance; and long- vs. short-term. Among these, uncertainty avoidance is explained next, which is followed by collectivist and high context culture.

2.1. Strong UA and accuracy

Hofstede et al. (2010) define UA as ‘the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations’ (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 191). High/Strong Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) scoring countries need predictability and low/weak UAI scoring nations are not concerned about unknown situations. Japan is one of high/strong UAI scoring nations (Hofstede et al., 2010) and one of the pedagogies of a strong UA culture include ‘precision and punctuality come naturally’ (Hofstede, 1991, p. 37). Following Stevens (1998) summarises the different emphasis on reward comparing the British and the Japanese.

The Japanese feel most comfortable in a situation where there is only one correct answer that it is possible to find. They also expect to be rewarded for accuracy. The British, however, expect to be rewarded for originality (Stevens, 1998).

The emphasis on accuracy increases a sense of security for the students, which helps to reduce uncertainty and contributes to strong UA culture. It is hypothesised that the emphasis on accuracy may be found in this study as the rubrics are set by the Japanese coordinator.

2.2. Collectivist culture and information sharing

Collectivist is defined as ‘the interests of the individual prevail over the interests of the group’ (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 91). Hofstede (1991) uses Japan as being an example of a collectivist country (Hofstede, 1991, p. 57). It is hypothesised that the writing rubrics set by a Japanese coordinator may have a collectivist cultural influence. Varner & Beamer (2005) explains the relationship between collectivist and information sharing 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).

Information sharing is also hypothesised to be found in the writing rubrics.

2.3. Writing style: indirect and vague

Hall’s (1976) high-context culture is the second concept. 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). Charnock (2010) also 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). Both Hall (1976) and Charnock (2010) agree that the Japanese

uses vague language and relying on the readers' ability to grasp the meaning. As the rubrics are set by a Japanese coordinator, a high-context (Hall & Hall, 1990) cultural influence may be influenced.

Kaplan (1966) analysed writings of several students from different cultures and he also hypothesised their 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). 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). Kaplan's (1966) analysis of Japanese writing matches with vagueness claimed by Hall (1976) and Charnock (2010). The rubrics which are set by the Japanese may also have influence of indirect and vague language.

3. Methodology

This study analyses a Japanese language summative assessment writing rubrics for Japanese beginners' level from a British STEM university in 2016/2017.

3.1. Data collection

Data collection was a convenient sampling which the researcher was able to access by teaching at this STEM university. The assessment of this university consists of six pieces of coursework, a final exam and an oral exam during one year. The writing task is part of the final exam which includes grammar, reading and writing skills. The writing task takes open-ended question. The rubrics for the writing assessment are not shared with students. As rubrics were set by a Japanese coordinator, the researcher translated the appropriate Assessed criteria and Scoring criteria into Japanese for the purpose of this study. Assessed criteria has four criteria: 1) Grammar & Structure, 2) Vocabulary, 3) Spelling, and 4) Content & Organisation. The scoring criteria and guide ranges from 0 to 100%. At this university, following six bands are given: over 80%, 70s, 60s, 50s, 40s and below 30%.

3.2. Data analysis

To find out the strong UA, the number of word related to accuracy (i.e. the term 'correct') which appeared in the rubrics was examined and counted as for strong UA. The collectivist culture was examined by looking at instructions in the rubrics which the person who set the rubrics (coordinator) shares information with all language teachers. To identify the high context culture, whether there are any vague or indirectness instructions in the rubrics.

4. Results and discussion

The results of analysis are discussed on three headings strong uncertainty avoidance, collectivist culture and high context culture.

Strong uncertainty avoidance culture: accuracy

The word 'correct' was mentioned total of five times in the assessment criteria of Spelling, Grammar & Structure and Scoring Guide.

In the Spelling Instruction, the word ‘accurate’ is mentioned once: ‘Please check if the students write hiragana and katakan *accurately*’ (ICL, 2016). This is the emphasis which shows strong UA.

In the Grammar & Structure instruction, ‘correct’ was mentioned four times in the following instructions:

1. ‘Please check if students have used studied grammar *correctly*’ (ICL, 2016) which is an emphasis on correct grammar, which shows preference for strong uncertainty avoidance culture.
2. ‘Please write down all grammar points which are used *correctly* at the bottom of the grid paper’ (ICL, 2016).
3. Plus points are given for the *correct* use of adverbs such as ‘sometimes’, ‘always’, ‘very’ and ‘not very’ (ICL, 2016).
4. Plus points are given to the *correct* use of connectors such as ‘and’ and ‘then’ (ICL, 2016).

Furthermore, the following Scoring guide instructions emphasise the accuracy regarding the use of grid paper and word count:

The deductions are instructed in the following two occasions:
1) when students do not master how to use the grid papers,
2) when students do not write the required number of words (ICL, 2016).

These deduction points emphasize accuracy and also imply control in details which shows strong UA.

Collectivist culture: information sharing

Information sharing is common in collectivist culture which is represented by ‘what is known by one member of a group is known by all members of the group’ (Varner & Beamer, 2005, p. 241). Information sharing is observed by the coordinator’s two instructions. The first instruction implies that the more students use learned vocabulary and grammar, the higher their marks on three criteria on ‘Content’, ‘Grammar’ and ‘Vocabulary’.

‘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 use various learnt vocabulary and grammar points are usually rich and interesting enough. Those who have a few mistakes but do not include various learnt vocabulary and grammar points are not so rich and interesting in content’ (ICL, 2016).

In the second instruction, the coordinator shares information which all language teachers are expected to follow.

'Please write down all grammar points which are used *correctly* at the bottom of the grid paper. 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 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)' (ICL, 2016).

This instruction makes the quality of grading/marketing consistent and standardised. It also implies the use of quantitative method for justification of the awarded marks. To justify their marks, each language teacher goes through the following three stages:

- 1) The first marker must count the number of grammar and vocabulary mistakes in each student's essay writing and record the number to justify the 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.

This procedure uses descriptive statistics which each teacher has to find the maximum, minimum and average to determine the benchmark. Furthermore, the benchmark alters every time writing assignments are submitted. As this university sets six essay writing assignments in a year, it takes up a large amount of the language teachers' time for grading in addition to their teaching and marking. From the above three stages, it is possible to say that these assessment criteria are not very subjective.

High-Context (HC) culture: vague and indirect

As far as this study's rubrics are concerned, the instructions are very specific ('Please write down all grammar points which are used *correctly* at the bottom of the grid paper' and '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)' (ICL, 2016) and and in detailed (plus points and deduction points). It is unexpected results to say that the influence of high context culture is very small from the collected data.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1. Conclusions

A brief review of the three RQs will enable the key conclusions to be summarised in this study. The conclusion considers answering the following questions in this study:

1. Are there any cultural influences in the assessment criteria?

HC, collectivist and strong uncertainty avoidance culture were observed in the assessment criteria. The accuracy related terms were mentioned five times in the instruction, which indicates a strong UA culture. Information sharing was observed in two instructions. The information was the procedure which all language teachers are expected to follow. The information of deduction and plus points were written very specifically and in detail. Indirect instructions were not observed, which implies that the influence of HC culture was not very strong from this data.

2. Is assessment of students' work a subjective process?

Although the rubric does not specifically mention quantitative methods, the actual work which the Japanese language teachers involves with quantitative methods to justify the first markers' awarded marks to the second and external markers. This indicates that assessment of students' work based on these assessment criteria is not very subjective.

3. What is the strength and weakness of these assessment criteria?

The strength of these assessment criteria is the consistency of the grading by standardisation, whereas the weakness is time-consuming to mark and grade, which creates additional work for language teachers.

5.2. Recommendations

Recommendations for this study considers two parties: 1) the managers/directors who coordinate languages; and 2) language teachers.

1) The managers/directors who coordinate languages

It is recommended that managers/directors who coordinate languages should revise the definitions of Categorisation 1 to examine if there are any duplicated categories and update any unclear, ambiguous or inappropriate definitions to enhance the quality of assessment criteria. Although all language teachers refer to the assessment criteria, they may question the validity of their assessment criteria as they are aware that their assessment criteria may not be very clear and useful. It is worth considering incorporating some aspects of the assessment in this paper to standardise and consistent.

2) Language teachers

As for language teachers, it is important to inform students whether the focus of the institution is on accuracy or creativity. This information affects the students' focus to work on their assessment. For example, if the assessment criteria focus on accuracy, students will focus on writing accurately in grammar and vocabulary use. If the assessment criteria focus on creativity, students will write creatively beyond their level and they do not have to concern about making mistakes.

References

- Baskerville, R. F. (2003). Hofstede never studied culture. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 28 (1), 1–14.
- Charnock, K. (2010). The right to reticence. *Teaching in Higher Education*. 15(5), pp. 543–552.
- Erdosy, M. U. (2003). Exploring valiability in juding writing abiliyt in a second

- language: A study of four experienced teachers of ESL compositions. TOFL Research Reports, RR-03-17. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond Culture*. New York: Anchor Press, Doubleday.
- Hall, E. & Hall, M. 1990. *Understanding cultural differences: Germans, French and Americans*. Yarmouth: Intercultural Press.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations – Software of the mind*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J. & Minkov, M. (2010) *Cultures and Organizations – Software of the mind*. New York, NY: Yarmouth: Intercultural Press.
- Imperial College London. (2016). *Japanese Level 1 Marking Scheme (writing) for summative assessment*.
- Jonsson, A. & Svingby, G. (2007). The use of scoring rubrics: Reliability, validity and educational consequences. *Educational Research Review*, 2, 130–144.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education. *Language Learning*. Vol. 16, 1–20.
- Kirkman, B. L., K. B. Lowe, & C. B. Gibson. (2006). A quarter century of culture's consequences: A review of empirical research incorporating Hofstede's cultural values framework. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37(3), 285–320. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400202>
- Lumley, T. (2002). Assessment criteria in a large-scale writing test: what do they really mean to the teachers? *Language Testing*, 19(3), 246–276.
- Lumley, T. (2006). *Assessing second language writing: The teacher's perspective*. Frankfurt and Main: Peter Lang.
- Lumley, T. & McNamara, T. F. (1995). Teacher characteristics and teacher bias: Implications for training. *Language Testing*. 12(1), 54–71.
- McSweeney, B. (2002). Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: A triumph of faith – A failure of analysis. *Human Relations*, 55(1), 89–118.
- Merkin, R., Taras, V., & Steel, P. (2014). State of the art themes in cross-cultural communication research: A systematic and meta-analytic review. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 38, 1–23. doi.[org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2013.10.004](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2013.10.004)
- Spector, P. E., Cooper, C. L., & Sparks, K. (2001). An international study of the psychometric properties of the Hofstede Values Survey Module 1994: A comparison of individual and country/province level results. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50(2), 269–281.
- Stevens, B. (1998). *An investigation of problems experienced by Japanese students, learning English in Great Britain*. MA dissertation: University of Southampton.
- Taras, V., & Steel, P. (2009). Beyond Hofstede: Challenging the ten commandments of cross-cultural research. In C. Nakata (Ed.), *Beyond Hofstede: Culture frameworks for global marketing and management* (pp. 40–61). Chicago, Ill: Macmillan/Palgrave.
- Varner, I. I. & Beamer, L. (2005). *Intercultural Communication in the Global Workplace*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Weigle, S. C. (1998). Using FACETS to model teacher training effects. *Language Testing*, 15, 263–287.

A CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS OF THE PRAGMATIC MARKER *LIKE* IN NON-NATIVE CONVERSATION

Marija Kusevska

*Department of English, Faculty of Philology, Goce Delchev University, Shtip,
Republic of North Macedonia
[marija.kusevska @ugd.edu.mk](mailto:marija.kusevska@ugd.edu.mk)*

Abstract: *The study presented in this paper is part of the research project "Developing cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research and its practical implications" currently implemented at Goce Delchev University in Shtip, Republic of North Macedonia. It investigates the use of the pragmatic marker 'like' by Macedonian learners of English. For this purpose, we compiled a research corpus of conversations produced by 76 students of English at Goce Delchev University. The participants had been asked to choose and discuss three topics out of the following five: problems with stray dogs, living and working abroad, body piercing and tattoos, the healthy amount of time to spend with the person you're dating, and talking on the phone while sharing time with friends. The time of the conversations mounted to 9.9 hours, or 66,696 words. The conversations were then transcribed and analysed. Additionally, attitudinal data were collected from 40 of the participants about their perception of 'like' with respect to the age and gender of the speakers, formality of the situation, grammaticality, acceptability, distractibility, and politeness of the utterances. They also rated users for fluency and their level of English. The findings of this investigation show that the pragmatic marker 'like' is salient for the learners and that they use it similarly as native speakers. It also shows that its frequency correlates with language proficiency levels. However, other factors also influence its usage, such as learners' perception of the marker, length of turns and speakers' personal features. The present study makes an important contribution to interlanguage pragmatics. First, it investigates spoken language and reveals some aspects of learner communication that cannot be observed in class. Second, it shows that learning a foreign language is a complex process that involves not only instruction but all other resources that learners have access to through the Internet.*

Keywords: interlanguage; pragmatic markers; functions; language proficiency; language corpus.

1. Introduction

All researchers who have investigated pragmatic markers (PM) agree that these elements facilitate spontaneous speech production and interaction and prevent the speaker from being seen as impolite or awkward (Crystal, 1988). The aim of this study, therefore, is to investigate how foreign language learners, with little exposure to real-life communication in the foreign language that they are learning, apply pragmatic markers to manage communication. In particular, the paper analyses the use of the PM *like* by Macedonian learners of English (MLE). Our

attention to it was attracted by the surprisingly high frequency of *like* in the conversations of some learners, as in the example below:

Just *like* two months ago I was ... you know we were *like* having coffee at a friend's place and we stayed up to *like* two or three in the morning and *like* everybody left and I was *like*, 'I live nearby' and I'm *like*, 'OK I'm gonna walk home you know I'm not gonna call a cab' and there are *like* I'm going home and five dogs are, *like*...

There are eight instances of *like* as a pragmatic marker in this turn in which a learner is describing his experience with stray dogs at night. In addition to its frequency, *like* is used with a variety of different functions. Motivated by this phenomenon, this paper sets to investigate how MLE use the PM *like*. This general question breaks down into three sub-questions:

- Which functions of the PM *like* occur in native and which in non-native conversation?
- Do proficiency levels of English influence learners' use of *like* as a pragmatic marker?
- What other factors influence the use of *like* by foreign learners of English?

2. Review of Literature

The PM *like* is the most common innovative feature of modern English (Andersen, 2001; Blyth, Recktenwald, and Wang, 1990; Buchstaller and D'Arcy, 2009; Tagliamonte and D'Arcy, 2004; Tagliamonte and Hudson, 1999). As it tends to be associated with southern Californian teenage talk (Valley speak; Valley girls), most of the studies of *like* deal with American data (Blyth, Recktenwald, and Wang, 1990; Fox Tree, 2006; Fuller, 2003; Jucker and Smith, 1998; Meehan, 1991; Miller and Weinert, 1995; Schourup, 1985; Tannen, 1986; Underhill, 1988). It is believed that from the US it spread to other English speaking countries as a result of extensive cross-cultural contact. Some in-depth research on *like* has also been carried out in Britain (Andersen, 2001; Cheshire, 2007; Dailey-O'Cain, 2000; Tagliamonte and Hudson, 1999), Canada (Tagliamonte and D'Arcy, 2004), as well as Australia (Winter, 2002). An often-cited study is Buchstaller and D'Arcy (2009) who compared the usage of quotative *like* in the United States, England, and New Zealand.

The PM *like* is one of those markers which are often stigmatized. In his corpus on narratives, Underhill (1988) calls it "ungrammatical in standard English". The use of *like* as in *we hitch a ride out of there with uh this like one crazy like music major guy* is considered by many "to be superfluously sprinkled into talk, a bad habit best avoided" (Fox Tree, 2006). Dailey-O'Cain's study (2000) also shows that generally people have negative opinions about *like*. In fact, the use of *like* is perceived as both positive and negative at the same time. She also concludes that "the use of *like* tends to be associated with 'solidarity' traits, while the non-use of it with 'status' traits" (Dailey-O'Cain, 2000: 76). It is significantly more frequent between friends than between strangers and it steers the conversation to a more casual style (Fuller, 2003; Jucker and Smith, 1998; Redeker, 1990).

Markers are not only multifunctional in the sense that they can serve different pragmatic functions in different contexts, but they can also have several pragmatic features at the same time. Underhill (1988: 234) suggests that *like* functions as a marker of new information and focus as in *But then the first day of our skiing, you*

know we're gettin all excited to go skiing the first day it's like snowing ... blizzard snowing. The information that it brings in is not only new but also most significant in that situation. Several publications view *like* from a relevance-theoretic perspective. For example, Jucker and Smith (1998) see *like* as an information-centered presentation discourse marker which modifies the information it accompanies. In this sense, *like* marks a clause, or an expression, to indicate that it should not be taken too literally but only as a sufficient approximation. Andersen (2001) gives a comprehensive account of the usage of *like* in London teenage talk in terms of its syntactic-semantic, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic properties. Her analysis of the functions of *like* is also based on the theory of relevance and looks at it as a signal to the hearer that there is a non-identical resemblance relation between a linguistically encoded concept and the concept in the speaker's thought and instructs the hearer to opt for a less-than-literal interpretation of the utterance. Beeching (2016: 133) adds that *like* is also used for hedging the potentially critical and emphatic stance of the speaker.

The functions of quotative *like* have also received significant attention (Andersen, 2001; Beeching, 2016; Blyth, Recktenwald and Wang, 1990; Buchstaller and D'Arcy, 2009; Meehan, 1991; Tagliamonte and Hudson, 1999). *Belike* operates as a fixed unit which may be close in meaning to verbs of saying/thinking (Andersen, 2001). It cannot be omitted in this position, and it is essential for the syntactic well-formedness of the utterance. Its function is to point to a thought produced by the speaker, or someone else, and which may or may not have been verbally realized in an utterance: *... and then, and then Kevin came up to me and said erm [...] if you if you go and see Mark this afternoon erm he would like to speak to you, I was like, 'He should come and speak to me'* (Andersen, 2001: 250). Although the quotative *like* may appear both in the present and in the past tense, it is more likely to convey the effects of the historical present, such as adding vivacity and immediacy, demarcating authority, or structuring discourse (Buchstaller and D'Arcy, 2009).

Most of the studies on pragmatic markers focus on their functions in native-speaker conversations. In spite of the great interest in the development of pragmatic competence in foreign/second language learners, the role of the pragmatic markers in general, and of *like* in particular, has been largely neglected. The most extensive study to my knowledge in this field was done by Müller (2005). It focuses on *so*, *well*, *you know* and *like*, and compares how they are used by American native speakers and German learners of English. Hellermann and Vergun (2007) investigate the usage and functions of three discourse markers (*like*, *you know*, *well*) in the speech of beginning adult learners of English. Polat's paper (2011) approaches the area of pragmatic markers by using a developmental learner corpus to examine pragmatic marker usage by one naturalistic adult language learner for one year. The focal markers of this study are *you know*, *like* and *well*.

3. Description of the Study

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 76 students of English enrolled at the Department of English language and literature at Goce Delcev University, Stip, Republic of North Macedonia. 28 of the participants were male and 48 were female. Their ages ranged from 19 to 25. All participants learned English for at

least five years in primary school and four years at high school. After high school, they enrolled in the English department. Very few of the students had been to an English speaking country and had had a chance to learn English in an informal environment: seven had been on *Work and travel* for two to six months in the USA and one of them had been on a student exchange programme to the USA for ten months. Their primary language of communication is Macedonian. All students sat the Quick Placement Test designed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate and their proficiency level in English was determined in compliance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001). Most of the participants were B2, C1, or C2 level. There were only five students at the B1 level. I decided to mention them in the analysis because of the language performance of one of the participants. All students signed a consent form before the beginning of the investigation.

3.2. Data collection

The research in this study was carried out on a small corpus of conversations produced by the participants, henceforth referred to as Macedonian Learner Corpus (MLC). The conversations were organized in dyads or triads. The conversations are semi-spontaneous because they were collected in an experimental environment, but the respondents were not aware of what was being observed in their speech. The participants were asked to choose three of the following five topics and discuss them: problems with stray dogs, living and working abroad, body piercing and tattoos, the healthy amount of time to spend with the person you're dating, and talking on the phone while sharing time with friends. The conversations were then transcribed and analysed. The time of the conversations mounted to 591.35 minutes (9.9 hours), with the total number of 66,696 words.

In addition to this, attitudinal data were collected from 40 of the participants about their perception of *like* with respect to the age and gender of the speakers, formality of the situation, grammaticality, acceptability, distractibility, and politeness of the utterances. They also rated users for fluency and their level of English. The participants were asked to explain if they use *like* in a similar way and for what purposes as well as how they learned it. The attitudinal survey was adapted from Dailey-O'Cain (2000). The examples, however, were from my data. The results of the attitudinal survey give clues about the usage or avoidance of *like* by the learners.

4. Results

As Müller (2005, p. 204) notes, *like* appears in three functional groups: as a pragmatic marker; as a quotative; and as a verb, noun, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and in fixed expressions. The total number of tokens of *like* in the MLC was 957: 637 of these were PM or quotative *like* and 320 were the other usages. This paper is devoted to the first two functions.

4.1. The functions of the PM *like* in the English interlanguage of Macedonian learners

The theoretical framework of the analysis was based on the functions of *like* described by Andersen (2001), Müller (2005) and Beeching (2016). The taxonomies in all three studies include approximation, exemplification, and

quotative *like*. Andersen's and Müller's taxonomies add the function of *like* as a hesitational/ linking device while Müller's and Beeching's taxonomies include the function of *like* to mark lexical focus. Additionally, Andersen includes the function of metalinguistic focus, Müller includes the function of introducing an explanation and Beeching includes the function of hedging. The following functions of *like* were found in the MLC:

- Approximation of a measurable unit (*It's like five hundred euros I believe*)
- Loose use of lexical expression (*They... were like speaking English I'm... I really... I was confused. That was the English department, but they didn't speak good English*)
- Exemplification (*When you're out of the comfort zone like you go running, you see a movie*)
- Introducing an explanation (*No, I... I'm not judgmental about that, like it's your own body, you do...*)
- Marking lexical focus (*I don't agree with like poison, but at the end of the day ...; I have a cousin and he like moved abroad; But, that's like crazy like all the time*)
- *Like* as a hesitational/ linking device (*I thin... Yes, I think it's different like ... and so many of hmm... our students and the youth, in general, go because of the... To have a bet... Hmm... Like... To live hmm... To earn money because the standards here are low and...*)
- Quotative *like* (*You know I'm like, 'First I'll finish college and settle hmm...'*)

4.2. Distribution of *like* across MLC data

The quantitative results of the distribution of *like* as a pragmatic marker across the MLC are shown in Figure 1. A certain number of pragmatic functions of *like* were difficult to classify due to its multifunctionality. In those cases, I opted for the function that seemed the most salient in the given context. The three top functions among MLE were introducing an explanation, using *like* as a hesitational/ linking device and marking lexical focus, while the least used as an approximation of a measurable unit.

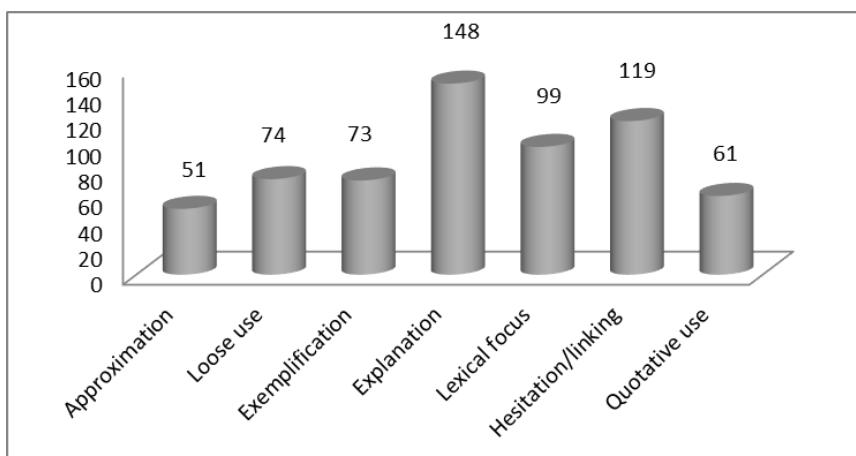


Figure 1 Distribution of all functions of *like* across the MLC

4.3. Distribution of *like* across proficiency levels

Most of the participants of this study were learners at B2, C1, and C2 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the proficiency groups, along with the mean values and standard deviations (SD) of the number of words and uses of *like*, and the mean rate of *like* for each level. The frequency rate of the usage of *like* was calculated by dividing the total number of *likes* produced by the speakers of each level by the total number of words produced by them, times 100. Although the B1 level was represented by only 5 participants it was also included in the table. However, their mean and frequency rates were not calculated because all 34 tokens of *like* were produced by a single speaker.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the rate of use of *like* across proficiency levels

	Learners per level	Number of words per level	Mean number of words (SD)	Number of PM per level	Mean No of PM (SD)	Frequency rate (per 100 words)
C2	12	9979	832 (562)	77	6.4 (9)	0.72
C1	26	30394	1169 (711)	377	14.5 (24)	1.24
B2	33	23832	722 (453)	137	4.2 (8)	0.57
B1	5	2491		34		

*34 tokens of *like* were used by a single learner

The SD for all groups is large which means that the data is spread out in the distribution. The data are widely scattered from the central tendency and the learners of each level showed very different results with respect to using the PM *like*. C1 learners performed best: they produced the largest number of *like* tokens and the number of participants who didn't use *like* at all was the lowest (23% in comparison with the 50% C2 learners and 42% B2 learners). The chi-square test with two degrees of freedom was run to calculate the dependence between the production of *like* and the proficiency levels. The chi-square value equals 255.838 and the two-tailed p-value is less than 0.0001. By conventional criteria, this difference is considered to be extremely statistically significant. This allows for the rejection of the null hypothesis that the levels do not influence the production of the PM *like*. The p-value indicates a strong relationship between proficiency levels and the use of *like*. The results of the analysis of the usage rate of *like* also positively support the correlation between the use of *like* and the proficiency levels. It again indicates that C1 learners used *like* at a much higher rate than B2 learners. It is surprising, however, that the C1 learners performed better than the C2 learners. This suggests that the relationship between the use of *like* and the proficiency levels is not straight forward. I will refer to this in the discussion section.

5. Discussion

5.1. Use of *like* by native speakers and MLE

The results of this investigation show that the PM *like* is salient for MLE and that they use it similarly as native speakers (see 3.1). One function that MLE do not use *like* for is hedging quoted by Beeching (2016) who thought that it was quite prominent in British speakers. *Like* as a PM is not taught in EFL classes and it is

not illustrated in EFL listening and reading materials. In the attitudinal survey, students reported that they had learned it through media exposure especially movies, reality shows, interviews, YouTube videos, etc.

5.2. Frequency of *like* across proficiency levels

The second question that this study aimed to answer was if there is a correlation between the use of *like* and language proficiency levels. I assumed that learners of higher proficiency levels are more likely to use the PM *like* than learners of lower proficiency levels. Most *likes* were produced by the students at the C1 level. The big difference between C1 and B2 level is not surprising, 14.5 and 4.2 per person respectively. The C1 learners talked more, produced longer turns, gave more arguments and supported their arguments more efficiently. The use of *like* enabled them to talk more fluently and sound more native-like. What is surprising, however, is the much lower production of *like* by the C2 learners in comparison with C1 learners, 6.4 and 14.5, respectively. Generally, the gap between C2 and C1 level is not as drastic as between C1 and B2 and I would have expected the C2 participants to have produced at least closely as many *likes* as C1 participants.

According to previous research, it is expected that PM use would rise with proficiency level (Hasselgreen, 2004; Hellerman and Vergun, 2007; Neary-Sundquist, 2014). The B1 level student who lavishly used *like* is an exception. The other students at this level did not use it at all.

5.3. Other factors that influence the use of *like*

Another phenomenon that is easily observed is that the frequency of *like* across individual speakers varies tremendously. Some learners have produced a high number of tokens of *like* in their speech, others have produced none. The varied use of *like* by foreign language learners has been noticed in previous research as well (Müller, 2005; Dailey-O'Cain, 2000; Hellermann and Vergun, 2007). Our lead user produced 101 tokens of *like* in his speech and the next one produced 55. The production of 16 of the learners ranged between 21 and 54, 32 produced from 1 to 10 tokens while 26 of the learners completely avoided using the PM *like*. Such discrepancy indicates that other factors also influence the use of *like*. One of the possible factors mentioned in other studies is a longer stay in an English speaking country. The few examples that I had seem to suggest that this does not have a crucial influence on the usage of *like*. Besides, the participant who had spent ten months in the USA on an exchange programme did not produce more *likes* than his interlocutor who had never been to an English speaking country, 12 and 16 respectively. In fact, his production of *like* was lower than of some other participants who produced between 21 and 54 tokens of *like*.

What seems to influence the use of *like*, however, is learners' perception. The findings from students' reports in the attitudinal survey of their view of *like* suggest that there is a connection between the frequency of use of *like* in learners' conversations and their attitudes towards this marker. The more positive they are, the more likely they are to use it more frequently. In spite of the high level of proficiency in English (C1 or C2), learners who took a very negative attitude to *like* and reported to find it annoying avoided using it in their conversations. Interestingly, a lot of the learners have a negative perception of the usage of *like*. The 40 participants who did the survey see native speakers who use it abundantly as unfriendly (25), not cheerful (24), uninteresting (24), impolite (31). As for

education, 12 learners see the speakers using *like* uneducated while 19 said that they wouldn't know. They find such conversations distractive (26) and difficult to follow (29). They see *like* as a marker of disfluency (24) and a low level of proficiency in English (30). It is interesting that the respondents in Dailey-O'Cain's (Dailey-O'Cain, 2000) study also indicated an abundance of very strong negative opinions. Only 6 of the students were positive about the usage of the PM *like* in conversation and think that it helps them organize their speech, 19 said that they don't use it at all and 15 said that they sometimes or rarely use it. Previous studies of discourse markers showed that students at higher proficiency levels in the learned language who are more acculturated to the L2 environment are more likely to use more discourse markers (Hellermann and Vergun, 2007; Polat, 2011). The usage of *like* in our data supports this finding.

Personal features of learners also play a significant role. More talkative learners tend to produce longer turns. Longer turns are more demanding and require more time and effort to be organized. There is pressure for selecting the exact vocabulary and structure. Other authors have also noted that there is a correlation between frequency of disfluencies (fluencemes) and length of utterances (Shriberg, 1994; Eklund, 2004; Crible 2018). The group of disfluencies (fluencemes) includes repetitions, substitutions, insertions, deletions, filled pauses, explicit editing terms, uses of discourse markers, coordinating conjunctions, word fragments, misarticulations, contractions, and syntactic incompletions. Learner data at higher proficiency levels do appear to display better command of the items that contribute to fluency (McCarthy, 2010).

6. Conclusion

The results of the present study provide new data on the use of the PM *like* in the interlanguage of MLE. Our research confirms that the functions that they identify with *like* are similar to those used by native speakers. This is remarkable when we consider that *like* is not taught in the classroom. The research also implies that proficiency levels play a significant role in the use of *like*. However, they are not the only factor. There is a strong indication that learners' perception of the marker, length of turns and personal features are also very influential. Gender and stay in an English speaking country, on the other hand, do not seem to be of significant importance.

The present study aims to make an important contribution to interlanguage pragmatics. First, it investigates spoken language and reveals some aspects of learner communication that cannot be observed in class. Second, it shows that learning a foreign language is a complex process that involves not only instruction but all other resources that learners have access to through the media. The study presents a strong case for encouraging students' initiative and autonomy in language learning in order to increase learners' awareness of many aspects of the target language.

The present study is by no means without its limitations, some of which may be addressed by future research. First, it investigated the use of *like* in mostly argumentative discourse in which learners expressed their opinions on different topics. Other types of discourse (narrative, expositional, or descriptive) may provide insight into different patterns. Second, this study focused on B2+ levels. Following the example of the B1 learner in this study, it would be useful to

investigate the use of *like* at lower proficiency levels. Other similar examples may also give valuable information about the developmental patterns of *like* across proficiency levels. It may also be useful to conduct further research on C2 learners. A larger population of C2 learners would certainly give more reliable results about their use of *like*. Finally, there are certain methodological issues to be considered. As more people were involved in the first stage of this project, it was difficult to ensure consistency in collecting the data. For example, the learners were more spontaneous with some of the interviewers but less with others. Also, caution should be raised about the difficulty of collecting spoken language. Namely, some of the transcribers were more thorough and noted all pauses, longer syllables, laughter, repetitions, overlappings, etc. Others were less so and missed some of these. Their transcriptions were improved by two reviewers who checked them and inserted the omissions.

References

- Andersen, G. (2001) *Pragmatic markers and sociolinguistic variation*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Beeching, K. (2016) *Pragmatic markers: Meaning in social interaction*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Blyth, C., Recktenwald, S. and Wang, J. (1990) "I'm like 'Say what?!': A new quotative in American oral narrative", *American Speech* Vol. 65, No. 3, pp. 215-227.
- Buchstaller, I. and D'Arcy, A. (2009). "Localized globalization: A multi-local, multivariate investigation of quotative *be like*", *Journal of Sociolinguistics* 13 (3), 291–331.
- Cheshire, J. (2007) "Discourse variation, grammaticalization and stuff like that", *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 155–193.
- Council of Europe. (2001) *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crible, L. (2018) *Discourse Markers and (Dis)fluency*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Crystal, D. (1987) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- D'Arcy, A. (2007) "'Like' and language ideology: Disentangling fact from fiction", *American Speech* Vol. 82, No. 4, pp. 386-419.
- Dailey-O'Cain, J. (2000) "The sociolinguistic distribution of and attitudes toward focuser *like* and quotative *like*", *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 60-80.
- Eklund, R. (2004) Disfluency in Swedish Human-human and Human-machine Travel Booking. *Ph.D. thesis*. Linköping Studies in Science and Technology.
- Fox Tree, J. E. (2006) "Placing *like* in telling stories", *Discourse Studies* Vol. 8, No. 6, pp. 723–743.
- Fuller, J. M. (2003) "Use of Discourse marker *like* in interviews", *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 365-377.
- Hasselgreen, A. 2004. "Testing the Spoken English of Young Norwegians: a study of test validity and the role of 'small words' in contributing to pupils' fluency", *Studies in Language Testing*, 20. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hellermann, J. and Vergun, A. (2007) "Language which is not taught: The discourse marker use of beginning adult learners of English", *Journal of Pragmatics* Vol. 39, pp. 157–179.
- Jucker, A. H. and Smith, S. W. (1998) "And people just you know like 'wow':

- Discourse Markers as Negotiating Strategies",in Jucker A. H. and Ziv Y. (ed.) *Discourse Markers*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- McCarthy, M. (2010) "Spoken fluency revisited", *English Profile Journal* Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 1-15.
- Meehan, T. (1991) It's like 'What's happening in the evolution of *like*?', *Kansas Working Papers in Linguistics* Vol. 16, pp. 37-51.
- Miller, J. and Weinert, R. (1995) "The function of *LIKE* in dialogue", *Journal of Pragmatics* Vol. 23, pp. 365-393.
- Müller, S. (2005) *Discourse markers in native and non-native English discourse*, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Neary-Sundquist, C. (2014). "The use of pragmatic markers across proficiency levels in second language speech", *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching* 4 (4), 637-663.
- Polat, B. (2011) "Investigating acquisition of discourse markers through a developmental learner corpus", *Journal of Pragmatics* Vol. 43, pp. 3745-3756.
- Redeker, G. (1990) "Ideational and pragmatic markers of discourse structure", *Journal of Pragmatics* Vol. 14, pp. 367-381.
- Schourup, L. C. (1985) *Common discourse particles in English conversation*, New York/London: Garland Publishing, Inc.
- Shriberg, E. (1994) Preliminaries to a Theory of Speech Disfluencies. *Ph.D. thesis*. University of California at Berkeley, CA.
- Tagliamonte, S. and D'Arcy, A. (2004) "He's like, she's like: The quotative system in Canadian youth", *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol. 8, No. 4, pp. 493-514.
- Tagliamonte, S. and Hudson, R. (1999) "Be like et al. beyond America: The quotative system in British and Canadian youth", *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol. 3, No. 2, pp. 147-172.
- Tannen, D. (1986) "Introducing constructed dialogue in Greek and American conversational and literary narrative", In Coulmas F. (ed.) *Direct and Indirect Speech* (pp. 311-332). Berlin/Amsterdam/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Underhill, R. (1988) "Like is, like, focus", *American Speech* Vol. 63, No. 3, pp. 234-246.
- Winter, J. (2002) "Discourse quotatives in Australian English: Adolescents performing", *Australian Journal of Linguistics* Vol. 22, pp. 6-21.

PEER AND SELF-ASSESSMENT IN A PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION COURSE: DOES TASK TYPE MAKE A DIFFERENCE?¹

Tharwat EL-Sakran

English Department, College of Arts and Sciences, American University of Sharjah, Sharjah, United Arab Emirates

telsakran@aus.edu

Abstract: *The extensive literature on peer and self-assessments, their outcomes and effectiveness in developing students' critical thinking and objectivity cites numberless benefits. One such benefit is that they help pass on skills of evaluation and critical judgment to students. However, the effectiveness and limitations of peer and self-assessments have yet to be established in professional communication courses, where students get involved in several types of assessment tasks. Thus, this research tests and compares the use of assessment tools in a professional communication course for engineers at a private educational institution in the United Arab Emirates and reports the potential benefits and limitations of peer and self-assessments. Specifically, the focus of this research project was on the assessment practices of two distinct technical communication written genres- the resume and the internship application letter (IAL). Results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between students' self-assessments and peers' assessments of resumes, indicating that students awarded themselves higher grades than their peers. Moreover, statistical analyses of marks given by peers and the course instructor on the initial drafts of the resumes demonstrate a statistically significant difference between peers' assessment and the instructor's assessment; that is, peers assigned higher grades to students than the instructor. However, results for the students' self-assessments of the IAL and the instructor's assessments of the same showed that students assigned themselves higher grades, but the difference is not statistically significant. This research contributes to growing studies on peer- and self-assessment by suggesting that the type of tasks being assessed may facilitate or complicate the assessment task. It also shows that students' emotions may interfere in the assessment process. The study concludes with limitations and recommendations for further research in the area of professional communication.*

Keywords: Peer and self-assessment; assessment and task type; assessment in professional communication courses; assessment and critical thinking; emotions and assessment

1. Introduction

The past four decades have witnessed several paradigm shifts in education, its

¹ The author thanks the two anonymous reviewers for their insightful and constructive feedback on the originally submitted manuscript.

philosophy and mission (Taatila, 2017). Consequently, research has emphasized the active engagement of students in their own learning, developing learner responsibility and metacognitive skills, and adopting a dialogical, collaborative model of teaching and learning. Thus, higher education institutions are expected to produce employable graduates who possess refined team work skills, can assess their own work and that of others, provide sound feedback and make rational decisions. Such soft skills are especially critical for today's university graduates and the labour market's employability (EL-Sakran, 2018a; 2018b; 2014a; EL-Sakran and Awad, 2012; El-Sakran, Prescott and Mesanovic, 2013).

According to Ahmed and Abouabdelkader (2018) and Wee and Kek (2002), self and peer assessment tools are important aspects of assessment for learning practice. The authors argue that when students assess their own work or that of others, such a practice helps them develop their understanding of both the targeted learning objectives and success criteria. Andrade and Du (2007) define self-assessment as a process of formative assessment where students reflect on and evaluate the quality of their work and their learning, judge the degree to which they reflect explicitly stated goals or criteria, identify strengths and weaknesses in their work, and revise accordingly (2007, p.160). For Falchikov (2007) "peer assessment requires students to provide either feedback or grades (or both) to their peers on a product or a performance, based on the criteria of excellence for that product or event which students may have been involved in determining" (p.132). There are many variants of peer assessment, but essentially it involves students providing feedback to other students on the quality of their work. In some instances, the practice of peer feedback will include the assigning of a grade, but this is widely recognized to be a process that is fraught with difficulties (Boud and Falchikov, 2006; Macdonald, 2004; Ross, 2006; Sistrom, Magyari, Kellner and Edwards, 2003; Tan, 2012).

Along the same lines, Leong and Lee (2018) and Hattum-Janssen and Lourenço (2008) note that self-assessment is a way of improving student learning by passing on skills of evaluation and critical judgment to them. Thus, self-assessment can be both formative and summative. Likewise, peer assessment can be both formative and summative, and it can be a useful way of enabling students to think critically about their own work. Research has shown that learners make more progress when they are actively involved in their own learning and assessment (Boud, 1985; Tan, 2012). Moreover, self-assessment is one useful device for enabling students to reflect on practice (Bifuh-Ambed, 2013; EL-Sakran, Ahmed and EL-Sakran, 2017; EL-Sakran and Mesanovic, 2012; EL-Sakran, 2014b; Gunn, 2010; Schön, 1983; Sharma, Jain, Gupta, Garg, Batta and Dhir, 2016; Zimmerman, 2002).

2. A Brief Review of Studies on Peer and Self-Assessment

The importance of feedback is more essential when writing is viewed as a process; writing occurs and feedback is provided in the stages of drafting, editing, redrafting, etc. rather than feedback only being given on a summative product. Hyland and Hyland (2006, p. 86) indicate that "commentary on a draft is likely to serve more immediate pedagogical goals than that given on a final product". Likewise, Scrivener (2005) states that "feedback on writing isn't something to save up until the entire text is fully completed" and "it is of very little use then, as the thing is over and students will probably just want a complementary comment and then to forget

it” (p. 199). Nowadays it is common to engage students in the assessment of the learning tasks. Consequently many researchers have begun exploring the effects of peer and self-assessment on students’ learning. Although several of these studies have underscored the benefits of peer and self-assessment in helping students self-regulate and become critical of their work and others’ work (Andrade and Valtcheva, 2009; Bolívar-Cruza and Verano-Tacoronte, 2018; Bouziane and Zyad, 2018; Hattum-Janssen and Lourenço, 2008), there is evidence that peer and self-assessments are still fraught with much subjectivity. In this regard, Ross (2006), Macdonald (2004) and Sistrom, Magyari, Kellner and Edwards (2003) reported learners’ higher tendency towards self-overestimation and overestimation of others. Along the same lines, Becker, Geer and Huthes (1995) note that students are driven by a natural desire for high grades. Contrary to these findings, Kun (2016) reports “that students are less likely to overestimate their own results, which means they have a more realistic attitude” (p. 365). Likewise, Sharma, Jain, Gupta, Garg, Batta and Dhir (2016) reported a significantly positive correlation between student and teacher marking ($r = 0.79$).

Summarizing the situation of assessment tools, Nicol and MacFarlane-Dick (2006) also contend that by commenting on the work of their peers, students develop objectivity in relation to standards which can then be transferred to their own work while acknowledging that the reliability of students’ judgements remains an important concern. On this particular issue, Isaacs (2001) points out that many students find it uncomfortable to grade friends or fellow students too harshly. For example, students tend to avoid the extreme ends of a scale when marking between groups, whereas they tend to prefer the high end of the scale when grading within their own group. In support of this, Brown & Knight (1994) mention that power relations among students can result in over-marking, resulting in the noisiest or most dominant getting the highest marks. As a consequence, Isaacs (2001) proposes that peer and self-assessments will increase instructors’ workload because they have to check and collate the marks assigned by peers and students in addition to the feedback they also provide. Although Rowe (2013) argues that peer and self-assessment tools are promoted as a way of increasing student responsibility for learning, developing students’ abilities to make judgments about their own and others’ work, personal dimensions of feedback, including emotions, remain a big concern in these types of assessment tools. Rowe rightly believes that feedback will evoke emotions within students; hence, it is important to understand the roles that positive and negative emotions play in assessment.

This quick review reflects discrepancies in the results of previous studies on peer- and self-assessment. Furthermore, the effect of task type(s) being assessed has not been considered in the context of writing genres in a professional communication course.

3. The Present Study

The effectiveness and limitations of peer and self-assessment as assessment tools have yet to be established because the literature indicates that they can be subjective (Tan, 2012). Thus, it is the aim of this research to test the use of these two tools in a professional communication course for engineers at a private educational institution in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). It seeks answers to the following questions:

1. Do student assessors give reliable and constructive feedback to their peers?
2. Do marks assigned by student assessors on their peers' work match the course instructor's marks for the same work?
3. Does assessment differ in accordance with the type of task being assessed?
4. Do affective factors (i.e. fear, friendship relationships, etc.) play a role in self and peer assessment?

To date there has been little practical evidence concerning the effectiveness of self and peer-assessment in professional communication courses and the role that affective factors might play in these processes (Tehrani, 2018).

3.1. The Context

The activities described in this paper were carried out in a Professional Communication for Engineers Course taught to engineering students at a private higher educational institution located in the UAE. In this course, engineering students study and learn several technical communication skills required for the workplace. They are taught how to write and produce several technical written communication genres addressed to a real audience. The course is a prerequisite study for engineering students to be undertaken before going for an internship position and before starting the senior design project in their final year.

3.2. Assessments

The course contains several assessment tasks such as delivering team oral progress reports, writing engineering multidisciplinary research proposals and projects, designing and giving poster presentations, writing transmittal letters and executive summaries, constructing individual resumes, writing internship application letters and sitting for a midterm and a final exam.

3.3. Research Design

This study was conducted over the period of two academic semesters during the year 2017-2018 and the course content was delivered through the traditional method. That is, it is normal practice in this course that students do peer and self-assessment for some of the writing tasks.

3.3.1. Participants

Four sections of the Professional Communication for Engineers course that the researcher taught were used for data collection. The participants were 91 male and female students from all engineering disciplines at the academic institution that the researcher works for. There were not enough female students in the course to allow for gender comparisons of assessment.

3.3.2. Focus of the Research

This research focused on the use of peer, self and instructor assessments in two distinctive professional writing genres: the resume and the internship application letter (IAL). The peer assessment procedure was conducted before the self-assessment as the former "serves to give students a chance to apply the skills they have learnt to their own work (Bouziane and Zyad, 2018, p.133). The instructor's assessment was completed third (last).

3.3.3. Research Procedures

Task 1: The Resume Exercise

At the start of the resume teaching and writing classes, the students were lectured on the components of the resume, the different sections it may contain, the resume layout, font size and type and consistency issues. They were also provided with samples of problematic and exemplar resumes for which they were shown how to perform a resume assessment. Additionally, prior to the individual assessment, they were presented with detailed assessment and marking rubrics (see appendix 1). Then, they were instructed to write their own individual resume using Microsoft Word and follow the below instructions with the colleague that the professor paired each student with:

- The individual student will send his/her resume to the classmate s/he is paired with via the university email by the date the course instructor specified.
- Once the resume is received, it will be saved on the receiver's desktop, read carefully, and commented on; when necessary, using the Microsoft Track Change feature, save and send back to the writer with a mark out of 5.
- The other student does the same with the colleague's resume.
- The course instructor is cc-ed with a copy of the resume with the comments and the assigned mark.
- The resume recipient reads the comments and implements the recommended modifications/changes, provided they are convincing and make sense.
- Hard copies of the resumes with the peers' comments and the final modified ones are sent to the course instructor for further feedback.

In this exercise, students were not told that their resumes with the colleagues' comments had been subjected to assessment by the instructor, since they knew that this exercise would follow a process writing procedure. According to Hyland (2003), the process-oriented approach emphasizes the writer as an independent producer of texts, but it goes further to address the issue of what teachers should do to help learners perform a writing task.

Task 2: The IAL Exercise

In engineering programs, completing an internship period that ranges between 6 to 10 weeks is an integral part of the engineering education. Thus, the students are required to apply for any engineering company that offers professional engineering practice in their area of specialization. Therefore, they are taught how to write an impressive IAL. The communicative aim of such letters is to secure an interview for an internship position by highlighting the most relevant information and skills within the candidate's resume, and how relevant those are to a specific position's requirements. Students are supplied with specific procedural steps of how to analyze the internship ad, group the requirements into categories (thematic groups), and how to use the outcome of their thematic analysis to guide and inform the contents of the IAL and the divisions between its components. Additionally, a detailed description of the IAL's schematic pattern, the linguistic realizations of these schematic units and how these different units relate to each other is made available to students.

Prior to this activity, students were required to find and bring to class an

engineering internship ad that they intended to apply for after completing this prerequisite course. All students, individually, were asked to carefully read and examine the requirements section in the ads and try to familiarize themselves with company demands. Second, a class-wide discussion took place where all students shared the requirement details for their prospective internship opportunities.

In line with Race's (2000) recommendation, students were taught and trained in how to use rubrics (see appendix 2) when assessing their own work and that of their peers. To possibly eliminate irresponsible grading, students were told that their awarded marks were not final since the course instructor would be providing further feedback.

3.3.4. Data Analysis

Task 1: The Resume Exercise

The students' comments on the online submitted resumes were examined in accordance with the resume rubric and the learning objectives that had been explicitly targeted in the course (see appendix 1). When analyzing the samples for learning outcomes, use of targeted resume writing skills was considered an indicator of learning transfer. Thus, each resume was coded according to whether or not the learning outcomes had been applied. These were rated as 0 for no use of learning outcome (poor), 1 for minimal use of learning outcome (average) and 2 for extensive use of learning outcome (superior).

Task 2: The IAL Exercise

The online submitted IALs were assessed according to IAL guidelines (see appendix 2), the internship ads they were written in response to and the course learning outcomes. The same coding procedures used in Task 1 were followed here.

4. Results

As for research question 1, Do student assessors give reliable and constructive feedback to their peers?, careful examination of comments given on peers' resumes and IALs show that students provided clear and objective substantive feedback on the work of their peers. That is, students were able to detect shortcomings with layout, formatting, typos, under-informativity, categorization and grouping of entries under their relevant sections, etc.

Examples of these are:

- a. Specify the city and the country (a comment on the address given)
- b. The most recent degree comes first (A comment on the sequence of qualifications)
- c. You can specify how well your knowledge on these program skills is (a comment on listed computer skills)

Also noted that the comments made were focused on and restricted to local issues within individual resume sections. In other words, global intersection comments among the different sections of the resume were missing. In spite of this, modified versions submitted later on in the course of the semester did not support positive uptake of these local comments (EL-Sakran, 2014a), which may suggest that the

students waited for more reliable feedback from the course instructor. Findings also show signs that students are not able to do the same for their own resumes; they seem to be writing for themselves or people who are in the same environment as them. This could be a problem of being self-centred and oblivious to audience information requirements, so they do not have a full understanding of text.

In regards to the second research question, Do student assessors' assigned marks of their peers' work match the course instructor's marks for the same work?, statistical analysis of marks given by peers and the course instructor on the initial drafts of the resumes indicate a statistically significant difference ($t=3.54$, $df=179$, $p\text{-value}=.001$) between peers' assessment and the instructor's assessment, indicating that peers awarded higher grades to students than the instructor as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Two-sample t-test and ci: Peer and instructor assessments of resumes

Sample	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean
Peers' Assessments of Resumes	91	3.161	0.465	0.049
Instructor's Assessments of Resumes	91	2.920	0.454	0.048

As for self-assessment of the resumes, there is also a significance difference ($t=7.28$, $df=176$, $p\text{-value}<.001$) between the grades that the instructor assigned to resumes compared to grades assigned by the students to their own resumes; that is, students allotted themselves higher grades in comparison with those given to the same work by the course instructor as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2 Two-sample t-test and ci: Students assessments of their own resumes and instructor's assessment

Sample	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean
Students' Assessments of their own Resumes	91	3.377	0.392	0.041
Instructor's Assessments of Students' Resumes	91	2.920	0.454	0.048

Results also indicate that there is a statistically significant difference ($t=3.40$, $df=174$, $p\text{-value}=.001$) between students' self-assessments and peers' assessments of resumes; that is, students gave themselves higher grades than their peers as demonstrated Table 3.

Table 3 Two-sample t-test and ci: Students' assessments of their own resumes and their peers' resumes

Sample	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean
Students' Self-assessments of Resumes	91	3.377	0.392	0.041
Peers' Assessments of other Students' Resumes	91	3.161	0.465	0.049

When looking at students' self-assessments of the IAL and the instructor's assessments of the same (Table 4), there are differences. Students assigned themselves higher grades; however, the differences are not statistically significant ($t=1.45$, $df=177$, $p\text{-value}=.148$).

Table 4 Two-sample t-test and ci: Students' assessments of IAL in comparison to instructor's assessment

Sample	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean
Students' Self-assessments of their IAL	91	3.458	0.321	0.034
Instructor's Assessment of Students' IAL	91	3.385	0.362	0.038

This last finding may indicate that the assessment of a running text (i.e. IAL) is different than assessing another composed of different sections with different functions, which may be an answer to question no. 3: Does assessment differ in accordance with the task type being assessed? Also observed that students, in contrast with the resume activity, highlighted local and global shortcomings on the the IAL. That is, comments covered different issues within the single paragraphs of the IAL as well as the transition from one paragraph into the other and the overall format. Some of these are:

- a. You list courses studied here. How do these relate to the position you are applying for?
- b. You have not addressed the personal attributes required in the internship add.

As far as research question number 4 is concerned, Do affective factors (i.e. fear, friendship relationships, etc.) play a role in self and peer assessment?, based on the marks the students assigned themselves and their peers and comparing them with those assigned by the instructor, there seems to be a strong element of emotional involvement when dealing with products of self and less when dealing with peers' products, although emotions are there in both cases. In other words, students awarded their own products more marks than the high marks they gave their peer. This is supported by the extensive number of shortcomings pointed out on their peers' documents and the high marks assigned to the products. That is, the greater the number of negative comments made, the lower the grade should have been, but this was not the case.

5. Discussion

While the author of this research strongly believes in teaching writing as an ongoing process, analysis of students' provisional writing drafts of two professional communication writing genres clearly support the view previous researcher held that student-instructor mark agreement is difficult to achieve (Bouziane and Zyad, 2018; Isaacs, 2001; Nicol and MacFarlane-Dick, 2006). It is also evident that self-assessment is inflated compared to peer-assessment, and that the instructor's assessments are the lowest. This corroborates the argument Andrade and Valtcheva (2009) put forward that students perceive themselves as "A" students, regardless of their performance. This also suggests that the use of self- and peer-assessments must be considered carefully, which can be implemented through extensive training in these two tools. In this context, Bouziane and Zyad (2018) note that "the instructor has an important role to play in monitoring the students' feedback and offering guidance on how to suggest a balanced assessment that taps on local and global aspects of writing" (p.133). It is also worth noting that students did provide substantive feedback on the work of others; however, contrary to Lapp, Shea and Wolsey's (2011, p. 33) findings, subsequent submissions of the

same writing documents showed that student writers ignored some of the useful tips the peers made on their drafts. This may indirectly indicate that students still did not trust the comments made by their peers and instead preferred to wait for the instructor's comments, which they consider to be the most important since a course instructor is the one who ultimately provides a summative grade on an assignment. Another factor could be that students treated the assignment as an ongoing improvement process and therefore did not bother much about the weight of the assigned mark. The disconnect between the volume of negative comments made and the weight of the assigned mark may also be interpreted as either the students not taking the task seriously, or the students not wanting to make a negative emotional impact on their peers' work.

The other important issue that calls for an interpretation is:

- Why do students overrate themselves in self-assessed works and award higher grades to the works of their peers, while ignoring the volume of comments they made on the drafts?

There could be two main reasons for this kind of behavior as reported by Abdelfatah and Tabsh (2010) and McCabe, Feghali, and Abdallah (2008). These are:

- The culture the students were brought up in which considers helping others, regardless of whether this kind of help is acceptable or unacceptable, as support.

Although the results of this study clearly demonstrated that students were able to make evaluative decisions of their own and peers' work based on the available information supplied to them through the rubrics, nevertheless they failed to assign a mark that would reflect the accurate assessments they made. Worthy of note is that this had happened in spite of the fact that the participants in this study had to read and sign an ethics statement! Perhaps this could be remedied and addressed through the frequent use of self- and peer assessment in and out of class under the instructor's direct supervision and scrutiny (Lundquist, Shogbon, Momary and Rogers, 2013), and making peer and self-assessment a standard practice in and out of class.

- This takes us to the second factor, which is the emotional involvement in one's own work and other self-interests.

In this regard, Falchikov (2007) argues that assessment creates the potential for strong feelings within the students. This seems to explain why students generally enjoy supporting one another in their work for fear of losing friendship or becoming unhelpful outcasts, or what Rowe, Fitness and Wood (2014) refer to as "provide protection against rejection". This is also supported by research that Gentina, Tang and Gu (2017) conducted on French and Chinese students. This means that changing students' mindset on the subject of peer and self-assessment is needed. This also underscores the imperative of involving students as partners in the development of feedback practices, whether at the course or institutional level, since it contributes to an enhanced sense of belonging on the student's part (Cook-Sather, Bovill and Felten, 2014; Leong and Lee, 2018; Rowe, 2017). Worthy of note here that the students' comments on peers' products did reflect any interpersonal relations among them. That is, the judgment of inflated marks is purely based on the high mark(s) given, in comparison with the volume of the comments made on the product.

6. Conclusion

While it is undeniable that through feedback and the provision of clear and specific assessment criteria that students reflect a good understanding of the task at hand, results of this research point out that there are still discrepancies between students' self-assessed tasks, the assessment of their peers, and that of the instructor's. Findings also indicate that the type of tasks being assessed may facilitate or complicate the assessment task. In other words, it seems that assessing the resume was more difficult than assessing the IAL. Searching for reasons why such a difference exists, it seems that the latter was a straightforward process since it was written in response to a series of questions/statements represented in the internship ad requirements, which may have made it easier to for students to assess. The former assignment, on the other hand, was written with discrete and varied sections, which may have made the assessment task difficult. Another factor could be that the resume construction and assessment was a novel exercise (Hussein. 2014) that students were exposed to for the first time in their educational career, in comparison to the IAL where they did have experience assessing similar tasks in their previous writing courses (Sayed and Curabba, 2019), which may be referred to as transfer of training (James, 2009). This could prompt researchers to look into the impact of genres on assessment and the relationship that might exist between frequency of assessment exposure and its effect on the specific assignments being assessed. Worth noting that the participants in this study had carried out several assessment tasks in previous prerequisite writing courses they completed before beginning this professional communication course. Researchers may also try the same procedures with students across sections of the same course and compare their findings when emotional involvement is considered. Students could also be asked to provide reasons for the marks assigned to the assessed drafts to better chart and understand their individual progress. Future researchers may also consider gender effects on assessment. To conclude, involving students in self and peer assessment may also lead to a reduction of complaints students may initiate against instructors' assigned marks.

References

- Abdelfatah, A. S. and Tabsh, S W. (2010) "Engineering Students' Perception of Academic Dishonesty at an American University in the Middle East", *Online Journal for Global Engineering Education*, Vol. 5, No.1, Article 1.
- Ahmed, A., & Abouabdulkader, H. (eds.) (2018) *Assessing EFL writing in the 21st century Arab World: Revealing the Unknown*, London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Andrade, H., & Du, Y. (2007) "Student responses to criteria-referenced self-assessment", *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, Vol. 32, No. 2, pp. 159-181.
- Andrade, H., & Valtcheva, A. (2009) "Promoting Learning and Achievement Through Self-assessment", *Theory into Practice*, Vol. 48, pp. 12-19.
- Becker, H., Geer, B., & Huthes, E. (1995) *Making the grade: The Academic side of college life* (2nd ed.), New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction publishers.
- Bifuh-Ambed, E. (2013) "Developing Successful Writing Teachers: Outcomes of Professional Development Exploring Teachers' Perceptions of Themselves

- as Writers and Writing Teachers and their Students' Attitudes and Abilities to Write across the Curriculum", *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, Vol.12, No.3, pp. 137-156.
- Bolívar-Cruza , A., & Verano-Tacoronte, D. (2018) "Self-assessment of the Oral Presentation Competence: Effects of Gender and Student's Performance", *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, Vol. 59, pp. 94-101.
- Boud, D. (1995). Enhancing learning through self-assessment. London: Kogan Page.
- Boud, D., & Falchikov, N. (2006) Aligning Assessment with Long-term Learning. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, Vol. 31, No.4, pp. 399-413.
- Bouziane, A., & Zyad, H. (2018) "The Impact of Self and Peer Assessment on L2 Writing: The Case of Moodle Workshops, in Ahmed, A. & Abouabdelkader, H. (eds.) (2018) Assessing EFL writing in the 21st century Arab World: Revealing the unknown (pp. 111-136), London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Brown, S., & Knight, P. (1994) *Assessing learners in higher education*, London: Kogan Page.
- Cook-Sather, A., Bovill, C., & Felten, P. (2014) *Engaging students as partners in learning and teaching: A guide for faculty*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- El-Sakran, T. M. (2018a) "Engineering Internship Ads Informing the Teaching of Writing of Internship Application Letters (IALs). *Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education*, Vol.6, No.2, pp.135-147.
- El-Sakran, T. M. (2018b) "Understanding our Audience: The Writing of Email Messages from Concept to Completion", *The Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes*, Vol.5, pp.19-30.
- El-Sakran, T. M. (2014a) "Students Cannot Cross Resume Borders: A Case Study of Transfer of Learning", *The ESP World Journal*, Vol.15, No.43, pp. 1-24.
- EL-Sakran, T. M. (2014b) "MATESOL Students' Reflections and Perceptions of an ESP Course in the United Arab Emirates", *Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education*, Vol. 2, No.1, pp. 137-151.
- El-Sakran, T. M., & Awad, A. (2012) "Voices from the United Arab Emirates: Engineering Graduates' Labour Market Requisite Competencies", *American Journal of Engineering Education*, Vol. 3, No. 2, pp.105-114.
- El-Sakran, T. M., Ahmed, K., & EL-Sakran, A. (2017) "University Students' Perceptions of Transfer of Academic Writing Skills Across Time", *Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes*, Vol.1, No.4, pp. 7-23.
- El-Sakran, T. M., Prescott, D., & Mesanovic, M. (2013) "Contextualizing Teamwork in a Professional Communication Course for Engineering Students", *International Journal of Engineering Education*, Vol.29, No. 2, pp. 439-449.
- Falchikov, N. (2007) Assessment and emotion: The impact of being assessed, In D. Boud & N. Falchikov (eds.), *Rethinking assessment in higher education: Learning for the longer term* (pp. 144–156, London: Routledge.
- Gentina, E., Tang, T. & Gu, Q. (2017) "Does Bad Company Corrupt Good Morals? Social Bonding and Academic Cheating among French and Chinese Teens", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 146, No.3, pp. 639-667.
- Gunn, C. (2010) „Exploring MATESOL Student 'Resistance' to Reflection”, *Language Teaching*, Vol.14, No.2, pp. 208-223.
- Hattum-Janssen, N. V., & Lourenço, J. M. (2008) "Peer and Self-assessment for

- First-year Students as a Tool to Improve Learning”, *Journal of Professional Issues in Engineering Education and Practice*, Vol. 134, No. 4, pp. 346–352.
- Hussien, A. M. (2014) “Reading Arabic Shallow and Deep Genres in the Fifth and Tenth Grades: Indispensable Variables to Science of Reading”, *Journal of Education and Learning*, Vol. 3, No.1 , pp. 60-69.
- Hyland, K. (2006) *English for Academic Purposes: An advanced resource book*, London: Routledge.
- Hyland, F. (2003) “Focusing on Form: Student Engagement with Teacher Feedback”, *System*, Vol.31, No.2, pp. 217-230.
- Isaacs, G. (2001) *Assessment for learning*, Brisbane: The University of Queensland.
- James, M. A. (2009) “Transfer of Learning Outcomes From an ESL Writing Course: Can the Gap be Bridged?”, *Journal of Second Language Writing*, Vol.18, No. 2), pp. 69-84. doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2009.01.001.
- Kun, A. I. (2016) “A Comparison of Self Versus Tutor Assessment Among Hungarian Undergraduate Business Students”, *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, Vol.41, No.3, pp. 350-367.
- Lapp, D., Shea, A., & Wolsey, D. W. (2011) “Blogging and Audience Awareness”, *Journal of Education*, Vol. 191, No.1, pp. 35-44.
- Leong, A. P., & Lee, H. H. (2018) “From both Sides of the Classroom: Perspectives on Teacher Feedback on Academic Writing and Feedback Practice”, *The Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, Vol. 6, No.1, pp. 151-164.
- Lundquist, L. M., Shogbon, A. O., Momary, K. M., & Rogers, H. K. (2013) “A Comparison of Students’ Self-assessments with Faculty Evaluations of their Communication Skills”, *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, Vol. 77, No. 4, p. 72. doi: 10.5688/ajpe77472.
- Macdonald, A. (2004) “Student Self-evaluation of Coursework Assignments: A Route to Better Perception of Quality”, *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education*, Vol.1, No.1, pp. 102–107.
- McCabe, D.L., Feghali, T., & Abdallah, H. (2008) “Academic Dishonesty in the Middle East: Individual and Contextual Factors”, *Research in Higher Education*, Vol. 49, No. 5, pp. 451-467.
- Nicol, D., & MacFarlane-Dick, D. (2006) “Formative Assessment and Self-regulated Learning: A Model and Seven Principles of good Feedback Practice. *Studies in Higher Education*, Vol.31, No.2, pp. 199-218.
- Pearce, C. (2007) “Ten Steps to Writing Curriculum Vitae Covering Letters”, *Nursing Management*, Vol. 14, No.8,pp. 25-25.
- Race, P. (2000). *500 tips on group learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Ross, J. A. (2006) “The Reliability, Validity, and Utility of Self-assessment”, *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, Vol. 11, No.10, pp. 1–13.
- Rowe A.D. (2017) Feelings About Feedback: The Role of Emotions in Assessment for Learning. In: Carless D., Bridges S., Chan C., & Glofcheski R. (eds.) *Scaling up Assessment for Learning in Higher Education. The Enabling Power of Assessment*, Vol. 5. Springer, Singapore
- Rowe, A. D. (2013) Feedback in higher education: Personal, relational and emotional dimensions, *Unpublished doctoral dissertation*, Australia:

- Macquarie University.
- Rowe, A., Fitness, J., & Wood, L. (2014) "The Role and Functionality of Emotions in Feedback at University: A Qualitative Study", *The Australian Educational Researcher*, Vol. 41, No. 3, pp. 283–309.
- Schön, D. A. (1983) *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*, Basic Books: New York.
- Scrivener, J. (2005) *Learning teaching: The essential guide to English language teaching*, Oxford: Macmillan Education.
- Sayed, S. and Curabba, B. (2019) "Harnessing the Power of Feedback to Assist Progress: A Process-based Approach of Providing Feedback to L2 Composition Students in the United Arab Emirates". In A. Ahmed, S. Troudi, and S. Riley (eds.), *Feedback in L2 English writing in the Arab World: Inside the black box*, London: Palgrave MacMillian.
- Sharma R., Jain A., Gupta N., Garg S., Batta M., & Dhir S. K. (2016) "Impact of Self-assessment by Students on their Learning", *International Journal of Applied and Basic Medical Research*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 226-229.
- Sistrom, C. L., Magyari, E. J., Kellner, R. K., & Edwards, R. K. (2003) "Medical Student Self-assessment of Performance on an Obstetrics and Gynaecology Clerkship", *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology*, Vol. 188, No. 4, pp. 1078–1082.
- Taatila,V. (2017) "Paradigm Shift in Higher Education?", *On the Horizon*, Vol. 25, No.2, pp. 103-108, <https://doi.org/10.1108/OTH-06-2016-0030>
- Tan, K. H. K. (2012) *Student self-assessment: Assessment, learning and empowerment*, Singapore: Research Publishing.
- Tehrani, F. A. (2018) "Feedback for Writing or Writing for Feedback", *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, Vol. 14, No.4, pp. 162-178.
- Wee, K.N.L., & Kek, Y.C. (2002) *Authentic problem-based learning*, Singapore: Prentice-Hall.
- Yu, H. (2008) "Contextualize Technical Writing Assessment to Better Prepare Students for Workplace Writing: Student-Centered Assessment Instruments", *Journal of Writing and Communication*, Vol. 38, No. 3, pp. 265-284.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2002) "Becoming a Self-regulated Learner: An Overview", *Theory Into Practice*, Vol. 41, No. 2, pp. 64-71.

Appendix 1

The résumé and job application letter are two separate professional documents covered in the course as two individual assignments. However, in business they should be sent together to recruiters by students / job applicants seeking internships and job positions. The résumé is a carefully thought and written account of a job seeker's academic and professional qualifications and experiences and a summary of their competencies and skills relevant to the internship / job position advertised. These skills include teamwork, management, verbal and written communication, computer skills and languages. It is important to tailor the résumé to the needs of the recruiter and the advertised job. The purpose of the résumé is to kindle employer interest and generate an interview. In most cases, a résumé needs to make a positive impression within 30-45 seconds; only

then will someone read it in detail. Therefore, it should not list all the applicant's skills and abilities (only the most important ones and those relevant to the internship / job position advertised or sought. The résumé should be written in a positive, honest way. Failing to do so may result in adverse consequences and end of employment.

The following measures and criteria should be taken into consideration when writing résumés:

1. Language: The résumé should employ accurate language, action verbs, and power words. It should avoid jargon, vague statements and any inappropriate abbreviations.
2. Sections: The résumé should have a number of sections starting with the most important and ending with the least important, given the fact that recruiters scan résumés at the initial stage. Such sections mainly include the applicant's education, work experience, skills (soft skills which are contextualized in statements rather than listed, computer skills, and languages), and references (available upon request). Other sections can be added by applicants if they deem them necessary, such as the optional introductory statement titled "Objective," and sections covering their awards, achievements, training, workshops, conferences and publications if any.
3. Formatting:
 - Appropriate address (including the applicant's name, city and country, telephone number and a professional email that contains an appropriate username)
 - The information in the "Education" and "Work Experience" sections should be arranged in reversed chronological order (from the most recent to the least recent). Dates of institutions attended and tasks in work-related experiences should be given.
 - For students, degree statement should be accurate and have the following details: the applicant's major of study, name of institution, current standing, GPA, and expected graduation.
 - Suitable use of white space
 - Standard constant font use
 - Left justified
 - Non-intrusive punctuation
 - Minimal use of lines and boxes
 - Significant information highlighted (preferably through boldface)
 - Consistent capitalization
 - Suitable length

Résumé Grading Rubric

Name: -----

Attribute	Superior 2	Average 1	Poor 0
LANGUAGE			
Accurate language			
Action verb use			
Absence of jargon			
Absence of vague statements			

MECHANICS			
Non-intrusive punctuation			
Standard consistent font use			
No inappropriate abbreviations			
Consistent capitalization			
FORMAT			
Minimal use of lines & boxes			
Significant information highlighted			
Suitable use of white space			
Left justified			
Dates used for education, work experience, etc.			
Suitable length			
Overall Shape/Appearance			
CONTENT			
References (available on request)			
Suitable objective			
Appropriate address			
Degree statement accurate			
Skills contextualized in a statement NOT listed			
Expected graduation			
Current standing			
Languages			
Computer skills			
GPA (optional no grade if included)			

Total /50 \Rightarrow /5

Appendix 2

Job Application Letter

This document, also known as “job cover letter” or “covering letter,” should be submitted together with the résumé (not separately) to recruiters. This is because the job application letter is intended to encourage recruiters to read the résumé and request an interview.

There are three basic elements to preparing an effective job application letter:

1. Conducting excellent research about the company and industry
2. Making the letter short and to the point
3. Following up quickly

The following measures and criteria should be taken into consideration when writing job application letters (the format is given below):

Language:

- Accurate and appropriate language
- Clear, positive, polite tone throughout
- Power words
- Sentences employing action verbs
- Appropriate, consistent use of clear font
- Letter mentions résumé

- No inappropriate abbreviations
- Appropriate verb tense usage
- Consistent capitalization

Sections: There should be a balanced layout and suitable use of white space throughout. The sections should run as follows:

- Writer's address
- Date of writing the letter
- Recipient's address (title, full name, job position, and address of company). As for titles, use "Mr." for males and "Ms." for females.
- Standard salutation (Dear + title + addressee's surname)
- Paragraph 1: purpose of letter, source of information (how the applicant has known about the job), first reference to the attached / enclosed résumé
- Paragraph 2: background, study, relevant academic and professional achievements
- Paragraph 3: particular employer needs addressed (only if required in the job advertisement). Alternatively, the applicants should mention what attracts them to the role, showing that they have done their research about the company and industry
- Paragraph 4: key skills and experiences highlighted. This paragraph refers to résumé.
- Paragraph 5: restates intention of internship and encourages follow-up by
 - a. expressing that the internship / employment will be mutually beneficial
 - b. thanking them for reviewing the résumé
 - c. requesting an interview
 - d. telling them that the applicant will follow up soon.
- Standard closure ("Yours sincerely" if the addressee is a person, and "Yours faithfully" if the addressee is a department or company).
- Signature and full name of applicant
- Enclosure: resume

Formatting: The job application letter should not take more than one side of an A4)

Applicant's address here

Date

Recipient's title and full name,

Position and full address of company

Salutation:

Paragraph 1:

Paragraph 2:

Paragraph 3:

Paragraph 4:

Paragraph 5:

Closure,

Signature (four spaces between closure and applicant's name)

Applicant's full name

Enclosure:

Internship Application Letter Grading Rubric Name: -----

Attribute	Superior 2	Average 1	Poor 0

Writer's address			
Address of institution			
Standard salutation			
Greeting			
Left justified			
Non-intrusive punctuation			
1 st paragraph = purpose of letter			
2 nd paragraph = background, study, relevant academic & professional achievements			
3 rd paragraph = particular employer needs addressed (Practical Experience)			
4 th paragraph = relevant personal traits & other attributes; refers to résumé			
5 th paragraph = restates intention of internship and encourages follow-up			
Standard closure			
Absence of letterese			
Consistent capitalization			
Signature, name, enclosures			
Clear, polite tone throughout			
Suitable use of white space			
Appropriate clear font consistently used			
Accurate & appropriate language			
Letter mentions résumé			
No inappropriate abbreviations			
Balanced layout			
Appropriate verb tense usage			
Maximum 2 A4 Sheets			
No overlapping between paragraphs			

Total /50 \Rightarrow /5

PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION IN COMPANIES

Monica Condruz-Bacescu

Department of Modern Languages and Business Communication, Faculty of International Business and Economics, Bucharest University of Economic Studies, Romania

monicabacescu@yahoo.com

Abstract: *The paper focuses on the issue of professional communication in companies. Communication is the art of transmitting messages and deciphering different information. The term professional communication refers to the various forms of speaking, listening, writing and responding carried out both in and beyond the workplace, whether in person or electronically. From meetings and presentations to memos and emails to marketing materials and annual reports in business communication, it is essential to take a professional and formal tone to make the best impression on colleagues, supervisors, or customers. The ability to communicate with people both inside and outside an organisation is a key characteristic of successful business builders. Effective communication strengthens the connections between a company and all of its stakeholders and benefits businesses in numerous ways: stronger decision making and faster problem solving; earlier warning of potential problems; increased productivity and steadier workflow; stronger business relationships; clearer and more persuasive marketing messages; enhanced professional images for both employers and companies; lower employee turnover and higher employee satisfaction; and better financial results and higher return for investors. Usually in organizations there are two types of communication networks: formal and informal. Formal communication networks are those through which messages circulate on official channels, information moves within the chain of command where almost everything is established and regulated by well specified rules. This type of communication is influenced by many factors including the structure of the organization, the type of technology used. Informal communication networks operate through spontaneously created informal channels. Such networks are diffused and sometimes only overlap with formal ones. Informal communication networks operate through spontaneously created informal channels. The informal circuit can be unexpected even for the members of the organization. This circuit appears in the context of professional-affective relationships. In such a network circulates opinions, aspirations, emotions, dissatisfaction and gossip. The dynamics of these channels is uncontrollable, constantly changing. Often the information on informal channels is more honest. Informal communication better corresponds to the psychological needs of people, similarities of age, sex, concerns (professional or otherwise).*

Keywords: professional communication; information; organisations; networks; ethics; channels

1. Preliminary considerations

Communication is a topic at the intersection of several disciplines: social psychology, semiotics, linguistics, social anthropology, philosophy, sociology. As a result, it can be said that its approach is interdisciplinary or even transdisciplinary. Competences in the area of communication most often ensure the success of activities in all fields. The concept of communication itself is overloaded with meanings in both common and theoretical language. In Latin, *communis* indicates the fact of being in a relationship, of agreeing and doing something in common. Historically, the concern for good communication has its origins in ancient times. In ancient Greece, for example, there was a constant concern for the art of rhetoric (see Socrates, Aristotle, Plato, Cicero). Today it is a real fashion for public speaking, oratory-speaking people from very different fields, investing in gaining such skills.

Communication is the art of transmitting messages and deciphering different information. Communication has some defining features: it is inevitable, continuous, irreversible; it takes place at many levels (informational, relational, normative); it involves processes of adjustment and accommodation. All the definitions of human communication, regardless of the schools of thought they belong to or the ideological orientations, highlight human communication as a necessity for people. Communication is essential in any type of human relationship. Individuals know each other through communication. Man needs to know others and become known to others.

A person consumes an average of 11 hours a day communicating on various communication channels. The quality of the human relations, the degree of cohesion of the group and the efficiency of the act of coordinating a human community, all depend on the content, dynamics and credibility of the message communicated. The classification of human communication' forms is made according to several criteria:

- interpersonal, intrapersonal or mass communication (criterion: number of participants);
- direct and indirect / mediated communication (criterion: the spatial or temporal context of the messages);
- verbal (oral or written), non-verbal communication (body language: body position, personal space, eye contact, clothing, etc.) and / or paraverbal (such as words, tone of voice, pauses, speed of speech) (criterion: the tools used).

It can be easily seen that the problems of human communication are many and complex. The theoretical debate on human communication in the contemporary era of globalization is gaining new aspects and meanings. Computer technology has produced serious changes, causing a permanent rethink even in defining the concept, in the search for competitive models of communication in the development of types and techniques of communication meant to accelerate the process.

The term *professional communication* refers to the various forms of speaking, listening, writing and responding carried out both in and beyond the workplace, whether in person or electronically. From meetings and presentations to memos and emails to marketing materials and annual reports, in business communication, it is essential to take a professional, formal tone to make the best impression on your audience, whether its members be your colleagues, supervisors, or

customers. Good professional communication means „writing or speaking that is accurate, complete, and understandable to the audience”. (Bertrand, 2014:85)

One issue in today's global, interconnected economy is the potential for miscommunication when dealing with people of other cultures if employees are not sensitive to the norms of people that they have to interact with—and a company does not have to be dealing with people across the globe for this to apply.

2. Communication in organisations

The ability to communicate with people both inside and outside an organisation is a key characteristic of successful business builders. Effective communication strengthens the connections between a company and all of its stakeholders in numerous ways: stronger decision making and faster problem solving; earlier warning of potential problems; increased productivity and steadier workflow; stronger business relationships; clearer and more persuasive marketing messages; enhanced professional images for both employers and companies; lower employee turnover and higher employee satisfaction; and better financial results and higher return for investors.

The importance of communication is not surprising when considering the staggering amount of time people spend communicating on the job. According to Sullivan “workers send and receive an average of 2000 messages each day via telephone, email, faxes, papers, and face-to-face communications. The average business executive spends approximately 75% to 80% of the day engaged in oral or written communication”. (Sullivan, 2016:74) The need for communication skills is important in virtually every career. Technical people with good communication skills earn more, and those who are weak communicators suffer. “American businesses spend 3.1 billion dollars annually training people to write. At least 80% of companies in finance, insurance, real estate and services assess writing skills during their hiring processes”. (Beebe, Mottet, 2017:104) Moreover, communication plays a key role in efforts to improve efficiency, quality, responsiveness and innovation.

In order to achieve their goals, organizations are structured into relatively autonomous social entities with distinct particularities and with their own group life. Organizational communication is a relatively new field. The research in this area appeared and developed in the era of industrialization and developed capitalism. In the 1920s, when the number of organizations increased significantly, these researches multiplied in response to the social need to improve the organizational management.

The main communication models in organizations circulating in the specialized literature are (Quintanilla, Wahl, 2016: 95):

- communication as interaction that can be linear (sender-receiver) or more complex: a source sends a message that reaches the receiver, is decoded and feed-back is sent to the original source.
- communication as transition. The meaning comes from the combination of participants communicating in specific contexts. Meaning that will not be limited to the content of the words but also includes intentions, contexts, attitudes, stories. Participants participate with prejudices, presuppositions, feelings, experiences, attitudes, etc. which influence the reception of

messages. Communication cannot be broken into distinct parts (source, message, receiver) and has no beginning and no end.

- communication as a structure not only in the sense of a certain infrastructure but also of human interactions, labor relations, experiences and rules, values and beliefs. The structure of the organization appears as an image imposed on the communicative behavior.

At present, communication problems in organizations are becoming more complex. "The development of new communication technologies, the fact that we are today in the era of global communication, has fundamentally changed the ways of transmitting information and human relations".(Quintanilla, Wahl, 2016: 25) Intra and interorganizational diversity is another feature of the organizational spectrum with important consequences on organizational communication. There have been major changes in the structure of organizations (minority groups entering the labor market, internationalization of the labor force, demographic changes, etc.) that have determined the organizations to a process of learning intercultural communication and respect for human rights.

There is also a tendency towards horizontality, towards flattening of hierarchies, empowering employees (collaborators, partners, consultants). All these changes have resulted in complex processes of adjustment and adaptation of organizations to the new global environment, through new communication strategies, with a major focus on the management of organizational communication.

The objectives of communication in organizations are (Roman, Raphaelson, 2014: 101):

- information / transmission of information;
- positioning (communicate the desired identity, the image you want in the communication situation). Communication as an instrument of existential positioning corresponds to the need to recognize the role and status held.
- facilitating adherence to the common values of your own organization and cooperation with other organizations on this basis.
- mobilization in order to achieve internal coherence, collective identity and attempt to enroll in a wider trend.
- evaluation is either relational (sympathy / antipathy in order to determine the nature of the relationship with the interlocutors) or normative (it cannot be communicated without a minimum system of shared rules).

Types of communication in organizations

Communication in organizations is a very complex phenomenon; depending on the direction of communication there is internal and external communication. Separations between identifiable boundaries appear between organizations. In an organization, a number of individuals agree to cooperate in order to achieve a goal by communicating with each other (internal communication) and at the same time communicating with the other organizations to achieve wider interests of the society as a whole (external communication). The two types of communication are complementary. Usually, any external communication is preceded and followed by internal communication. External communication is addressed to clients, suppliers, politicians, civil society, etc. and focuses on product, advertising and marketing, public relations and lobbying. Internal communication generally refers to the set of functional and psychosocial interactions within an organization and considers various levels:

- interpersonal relationships within the organization (motivational issues, staff recruitment, daily service relationships, spatial organization of jobs);
- distribution, circulation and use of information (making procedures, dissemination of internal information);
- management communication between management and employees, aspects of human resources management.

Regarding the meaning, communication in organizations can be:

- descendant (hierarchical, video, phone);
 - ascending (suggestion box, display, surveys);
 - lateral / horizontal - between departments or sectors on the same hierarchical level (group frustrations may appear here). Frustrations often have their source in group psychologies that tend to self-value at the expense of other groups (according to group theory);
 - crossed (diagonally or obliquely) between people at different levels of the organization without intermediaries (general meeting, informal at certain holidays).
- Depending on the degree of formalization, there are formal organizations (orders, written or oral regulations); informal (usually informal leaders transmit rumors, gossip). Depending on the way of communication within the organization, there is: direct communication, face-to-face which in turn can be unilateral (descending) or bilateral (it is waiting for feed-back). "New type organizations develop special techniques for this type of communication with creative potential (project teams, creative, design groups) and indirect - impersonal, reciprocal or unilateral communication depending on the transmission channel (telephone, email)".(Roman, Raphaelson, 2014:45)

Depending on the form of communication within organizations, there is written communication (letters, notes, information files, display, box for ideas); oral communication (discussions, integration seminars, annual conventions, visits, telephone dialogue); multimedia communication (film, telephone conference, video conference, internet)

The knowledge and recognition of communication problems in organizations is of particular importance for the efficiency, prestige and quality of work in that organization. The problems of communication in organizations are many, and in the present age they are treated with all the attention. Through the communication policies of an organization, communication strategies are adapted to different contexts, responsibilities are set, results are evaluated.

3. Formal and informal communication networks and channels in organisations

An organization is a social system in which and through which people interact for the achievement of common goals. In order to harmonize the general goals with the individual goals of the organization, an important role is played by the management of the organizational communication, which is achieved mainly through the various channels and communication networks. Both at the theoretical level and especially at the practical level, the most efficient solutions and methods are sought for efficient messages and information exchange in organizations. Through communication channel, I understand the access path of the individual to his partners, the environment through which the messages are transmitted and received (online newsletters, teleconferences, team building, specially organized

events, mentoring programs). The communication network designates the set of communication channels and the environment in which the communication is carried out in relation to the respective group or the task assumed. Metaphorically it can be said that networks and channels are veins through which blood flows (information, messages). The channel has the role of conveying the information and messages necessary for the functioning, success or survival of an organization. The proper functioning of a communication network depends on a number of factors such as the coherence of the organization, the existence of a good communication plan, the understanding of the leaders, the quality of the listening, etc. The communication specialists, given the diversification of the communication channels, have the role to make a good selection, at the right time, of the access and use of certain channels.

Communication networks and channels are distinguished by:

- (a) degree of system interdependence. Universities, for example, are poorly coupled organizations as opposed to the chain of Mc Donald restaurants which by their nature require a high degree of interdependence;
- (b) the degree of psychological interdependence / identification of the members of the network with the objectives of the organization. From this point of view, a family business organization is an organization with higher connectivity than a multinational organization. It is interesting to note that over-connectivity in an organization has disadvantages related to collective thinking. If everyone thinks the same then often the solution to a problem cannot be found and sometimes an external consultant, someone outside is needed. This phenomenon is known in the literature as "the paradox of weak links".(Coman, 2013: 47)

Usually in organizations there are two types of communication networks: formal and informal. Formal communication networks are those through which messages circulate on official channels, information moves within the chain of command where almost everything is established and regulated by well specified rules. Messages are usually recorded and kept in the organization's records (work orders, reports, inventory, job descriptions). During the formal communication, the formal roles, rights and duties expressed in desirable behaviors are activated. This type of communication is influenced by many factors including the structure of the organization, the type of technology used, etc. Formal communication can develop in two directions. This can be vertical communication that can be downward (top to bottom) and upward (bottom up) or horizontal communication (between employees in similar positions).

Downward communication occurs from bosses to subordinates, its purpose being the division of tasks, the explanation of the regulations, the delimitation of responsibilities, the delegation of the authority, etc. The transmitter is the manager, the purpose being to motivate the employees, to transmit the characteristic values to the collective identity, to influence behaviors in the desired direction. Although it is desired through this type of communication, the design and maintenance of the culture and positive climate of the organization, things are not always so. Sometimes a closed system is created that sometimes privileges the information power of some groups without giving the necessary additional explanations, which produces resistance to change. There is not always a correspondence between the intentions of the heads and the perception of the other members of the organization. This is largely explained by dysfunctions that appear along the way: a tense state, conflicts.

Upward communication is directed from employees to bosses. In this way, information is communicated about the implementation of decisions, the fulfillment of tasks, activities in progress. It is a communication that functions as a feedback for the management of the organization, the information treated seriously by bosses can be an important resource for knowing the working climate and for improving the organization's activity. A deficiency of this communication is the interpretation and filtering of the information provided to the superiors, the fact that there appears the tendency of intentional distortion of situations due to personal interests, conflicting states, attempts of certain employees to increase their influence. It would be ideal for employees to exchange information on professional topics horizontally. However, in most organizations this type of formal communication is weaker, with informal channels being preferred. Formal communication structures and networks can also be classified into centralized networks, with a single hierarchical level, or decentralized depending on the product line or geographical area.

Informal communication networks operate through spontaneously created informal channels. Such networks are diffused and sometimes only overlap with formal ones. If one perceives organizational communication as a road map then what one sees on the map are national and regional roads (formal channels). What one doesn't see - the smaller, bypass routes are the informal channels. The informal circuit can be unexpected even for the members of the organization. This circuit appears in the context of professional-affective relationships. In such a network circulates opinions, aspirations, emotions, dissatisfaction and gossip. The dynamics of these channels is uncontrollable, constantly changing. Often the information on informal channels is more honest. Informal communication better corresponds to the psychological needs of people, similarities of age, sex, concerns (professional or otherwise). Informal communication has a double advantage: on the one hand it has a utilitarian value for the organization, on the other hand a therapeutic role. Such channels create the work climate and solidarity necessary for an organization. Informal communication goes parallel to formal communication but with a faster pace and therefore with greater efficiency. In the specialized literature, experts talk about non-centralized informal networks such as *circle* and *chain*, in which there is no privileged position regarding the information circuit. (Roman, Raphaelson, 2014: 58)

In the circle type network, there is the disadvantage that one member communicates with only two others which reduces the group interaction. In the chain-type network, however, there is no solidarity, the leadership is of the "laissez faire" type, which creates a certain neutrality in relation to the objective pursued. More appreciated is the form of informal communication known as *vine* (*grapevine*-name that comes from the fact that during the civil war the telegraph wires for secret messages were hanging from tree to tree so that they resembled a vine).

In this case, the channel activates if the other channels are blocked, inaccessible or unsafe. This type of communication fills the information gaps, offers explanations for some decisions being very active in times of change, choice, crisis. It is a type of communication with a powerful therapeutic role. Such a form of communication is what we commonly call the rumor. The rumor, the gossip, is among the oldest forms of communication between people being considered very important social and cultural phenomena in the life of a society, an organization. The rumor is "an assertion intended to be believed that it relates to the actuality,

disseminated without being officially verified; a special case of informal communication that includes myths, legends, jokes".(Kapferer, 2006:91). The rumor is a process of transmission of information with a value that can affect the group to which it refers, in which the transmitted messages travel in the organization without an apparent structure, without a clear direction. To become a rumor, information must be important but also sufficiently ambiguous. The rumor is a powerful weapon. Even if it is often spontaneous, there are also rumors of a premeditated nature (they occur especially in very competitive environments and situations). A brand can die if it is attacked by an uncontrolled rumor. A politician can be buried with the help of rumors. An organization's reputation can be shattered by a few such messages. A simple rumor can create mass hysteria with unexpected effects. Rumors especially appear in times of crisis, change, uncertainty, when formal communication is not sufficient and efficient, when the volume of new information is too large, when, for various reasons, direct communication is not easy. Although it often has negative connotations being considered a disruptive factor in the communication process, such communication, done in moderation, has many advantages. People who contribute to the rumor play different roles in an organization. There is a real division of labor. "We can have the instigator, the interpreter, the opinion leader, the opportunist, the receiver, the rumor-resistant". (Kapferer, 2006:58).

Rumors in an organization cannot be eradicated but can be controlled and diminished. This is due to the efficient management of internal communication. Silence or denial can be used as communication strategies. One can take a radical attitude, at the management level, by blocking and monitoring personal emails or by dismantling the coffee machine (as an informal place of speech). Instead of controlling the gossip, some influential people can be used to counter the rumors, to feed the rumor network with the correct or desired information.

Recently, a new form of informal communication in organizations - storytelling is being considered. The role of stories for the leadership of an organization is already investigated, being an independent field of study in which there are professionals. Each of us grew up with stories and assimilated a series of cultural norms and customs through stories. Storytelling plays a fundamental role in understanding people's lives so it is natural for them to play an important role in communicating in organizations. People have always told stories that they have passed down from generation to generation through music, poetry, drawing and words. Through stories, culture is transmitted and learned, experiences are shared, intimacy is created, meaning is made, emotional connections are made. Storytelling is increasingly accepted as a viable method of achieving certain managerial goals. In an organization, storytelling can be the best way to interact with the people you lead. Leadership in an organization means inspiring people to act, it means convincing. Knowing how to speak to them according to the rules of the story can be the solution to achieve these things. From this perspective, it can be said that the story is profitable. A brand is built and maintained through stories. The image of a manager is often based on a story created around his charisma, ascension or notoriety of his family.

4. Examples of poor and professional communication

Professional communication is one of the pillars of any organisation, as poor or effective communication directly impacts company performance. Sharing information, sending instructions, planning and learning are all forms of professional communication directly affecting the company.

Chamber's study (2018) analysed 390,000 employees in 81 organisations spread over 10 countries and found several key differences in communication between high-performing and average companies:

- High-performing organisations were twice as likely to use less jargon when communicating, keeping language simple and direct. Only 21% of employees in average organisations claim to use jargon-free communication.
- Average organisations are 40% more likely to pack messages into their communication. High-performers prefer to avoid cluttered and mixed messages.
- High-performance companies are 60% more likely to consider their audiences when communicating.(Chambers, 2018:12)

These are simple dos and don'ts that can easily be incorporated into any communication strategy to improve organisational productivity:

Table 1. Informal to formal phrases

Poor communication		Professional communication
1	I just need to finish this report. ('Just' is an unproductive word that makes you look apologetic for needing something.)	I need some time to finish this report.
2	Our clients are very happy about our new product. (The word 'very' is intended to enforce a statement but instead dilutes it.)	Our clients are ecstatic about our new product.
3	I have stuff to do before the meeting. (Perhaps you know what you mean by 'stuff', but the recipient of your message doesn't and this makes you look unsure of yourself.)	I have to finish the X report before the meeting.
4	So , the uh manager will see you in around... um ... half an hour. (On average people use filler words for every 4 seconds of spontaneous speech. Communicate with authority by replacing these words with silent pauses. They allow your listener time to process the information you're communicating and make you more convincing.)	The manager will see you... I'm not sure when. Probably in about half an hour.
5	She was like , 'I can't believe I have to do this. ('Like' is another form of filler word that buys time to introduce your next idea, and instantly destroys the credibility of that idea.)	She said she couldn't believe she had to do it.
6	And that's why we should have longer breaks. You know what I mean? (When you ask others if you're making sense, it opens up the possibility for them to question whether you are, and makes you seem desperate for approval. If you want to engage your	And that's why we should have longer breaks. What are your thoughts?

	listener, ask for their opinion.)	
7	That idea could work, but what if we tried doing it this way? (Presenting an idea as a question subconsciously communicates to your audience that you don't value your idea. Phrase your ideas as statements to convey confidence and authority.)	I think we should do it this way.
8	No problem. I'll get to it straight away. (Stating this communicates that what you've been asked to do is actually a problem or inconvenience. Communicate with more confidence by framing the task in a positive light.)	I'll happily take care of that.
9	I'll try my best. (This common phrase communicates that you are unsure of your abilities.)	I'll get it done.
10	This isn't my specialty , but I think we should cut the red wire. (Starting a sentence with a qualifier such as this discredits anything that follows it. Communicating where you lack expertise serves no purpose).	I think we should cut the red wire.

Source: Jay Sullivan (2016), Communicating better at work and beyond

5. Ethics and communication in organisations

Communication in organizations is based essentially on the culture of that organization. In other words, it expresses the set of values, attitudes, beliefs, hopes shared by the members of that organization. Creating and maintaining a positive moral climate within the organization is not a simple thing but it is necessary. People are human beings subject to countless influences. Organizational cultures are bodies that are constantly changing and adapting. Any discussion of morals and ethics, presents many difficulties. Many impediments stem from the use in the common language of the terms ethical, moral with different meanings, loaded with ambiguity. Thus, a prior definition of the terms is required, without going into the subtleties of the theoretical debates in this field.

Moral designates a real phenomenon that is related to the daily behavior of practical and spiritual life of humans and human collectivities, of human relations with nature. The moral comprises all the values and norms of behavior, it also includes aspects related to affectivity, it refers to norms and values unwritten but rooted in the tradition of people.

Ethics is a theoretical discipline that studies the ideas of good, justice, duty, etc. Ethics studies moral values and norms in action. In a broad sense, ethics seeks to provide the tools to make moral judgments. It includes language, concepts and methods that give the individual the ability to make moral decisions. The attempts to base a science of good have their origin in ancient times (Socrates, Plato, Aristotle). In today's era, there are major concerns for shaping professional ethics as well as for formulating rules for various activities. It is an obvious process of institutionalizing ethics, starting with the formulation of some deontologies, codes and even the regulation of moral values.

Any organization regardless of its size and profile is in continuous intercommunication with the external and internal environment. "Interconnection is inevitable and is expressed through communication between organizations and

organizational culture".(Marinescu, 2013:71) One can easily see that the core of this organizational culture is its ethical content. A healthy ethic expresses what values, principles, behaviors, ideals and hopes unite a group of people and give identity to the respective organization, produce its notoriety, its image and reputation. Every organization needs a moral benchmark for a proactive and responsible attitude towards social aspects, towards the environment. In this context, the specialized literature intensively discusses the professional deontologies, the codes of ethics and conduct that any organization must develop. Thus, ethical communication within organizations appears in a close relationship with social responsibility. Without a minimum of ethical values and rules, it is difficult to conceive a normal moral life within any community of people. Good ethical communication is learned and practiced.

Nowadays, there is an obvious tendency to standardize the communication ethics in documents and actions. The codes of ethics encompass the mission of such an organization, its values, procedures and standards used. Respecting ethical principles in organizations has become increasingly important and beneficial to any organization for a variety of reasons:

- the immoral policies promoted by the organization can cause damages to the individual, the community, the environment (for example the privatization programs within which, for reasons of efficiency, massive redundancies are made but the salaries of the managers increase);
- on the other hand, given that the state has taken over, has withdrawn from certain sectors of activity, organizations and private companies must take on social, charitable, educational responsibilities, must support art, science, health. From this point of view more and more emphasis is placed on the concept of corporate social responsibility, on the fact that any organization must develop mechanisms and structures to assume social responsibility, to achieve economic success and performance in an ethical manner, with respect for people, community, environment. The concept applies mainly to marketing communication, of course being relevant also for communication in organizations in general.
- the observance of ethical principles in organizations is also necessary from the perspective of recent developments related to new communication technologies. The opening of economies until recently closed to market economies, access to information, data security, espionage, sophisticated mechanisms of workplace surveillance have made ethical debates grow.
- increased militancy, awareness of different groups of stakeholders (employees, consumers, local communities, etc.) has also determined an increased interest in ethical issues. Today, employees are attracted not only by wages but by job satisfaction, the possibilities of professional perfection, the moral quality of the employers and implicitly of the company, the reputation of the workplace.
- globalization, expansion of more complex and dynamic cross-border organizations and companies have raised new problems, replacing the ethical certainties of local business environments with the relativity of a multinational and multicultural context, a context that raises various ethical issues.

Ethical issues in communication in an organization can occur both in terms of external and internal communication. As far as external communication is concerned, many of these possible problems are related to marketing policies. In this regard, we can find ads for retail prices never applied; subliminal advertising as a coercive form of advertising; the advertisement addressed to the preschool

children that can create an innocent but effective pressure on the parents (those who buy); "false promises contained by some advertising messages, masked advertising, visual distortions using new digital technologies".(Hayhoe, Grady, 2015: 67)

In terms of internal communication, ethical issues relate to honest communication and fair treatment both to employees (issues related to employees 'and employers' rights) and to shareholders (issues related to fair management, loyalty, adequate information, transparency, confidentiality) and towards the community (aspects related to environmental protection, contribution to solving social problems, respecting cultural diversity).

Ethical issues at the level of internal communication in an organization may arise in relation to:

- human resources: attention to the ethical issues that arise in employment, pay, motivation, evaluation, promotion; responsible approach to restructuring in case of crisis;
- ensuring a safe and healthy workplace (for example minimizing the negative impact of activities on the environment and natural resources);
- the quality of life of employees at work and outside it.
- the way in which the confidential information is used (respecting the confidentiality by the employees towards the company, towards customers);
- attitude towards bribery;
- involvement of employees in community issues;
- how to resolve conflicts of interest and crisis situations;
- respecting the rights and freedoms of others / respecting the human being (how any form of discrimination in the workplace is addressed);
- protecting and respecting the private area;
- respect for the rules of law;
- professional conscience, professionalism;
- sense of responsibility.

6. Conclusion

Any organization is connected both to the internal environment (employees, managers, shareholders) and to the external environment (partners, beneficiaries, suppliers, community). From this point of view, every organization needs a benchmark to guide its behaviors, procedures, decisions - for example, codes of ethics and morals / codes of ethics and conduct that represent a set of standardized, unanimously accepted practices that summarize the basic principles that guide the organization, the members. The priority areas of a code include aspects of social responsibility that are focused on all areas of interest and influence of an organization (management, human resources, decision making).

More and more in the world of organizations there is talk of the need for ethical expertise in organizations, of management of ethics in organizations, in the sense of a complex system that requires exhaustive management of the moral aspects of organizations. This ethical expertise within an organization is realized with various tools. The organization creates its own mechanisms and structures for assuming social responsibility (ethical codes, operating regulations, CSR departments), designs and develops thematic training programs, invests in ethical audit, provides hotlines dedicated to ethical issues, designs specific internal policies and

procedures (non-discriminatory policies, policies regarding the use of customer data). There are organizations (few in Romania) that have in the scheme of human resources personnel an ethics counselor / ethics consultant. Respecting the principles of integrity, objectivity, confidentiality, the ethical expert puts his full competence to guide the organization in the desired direction.

References

- Bertrand, C.J. (2014) Deontologia mijloacelor de comunicare, Iași: Institutul European.
- Chambers, H.E. (2018) Effective Communication Skills for Scientific and Technical Professionals, London: Basic Books.
- Cristina, C. (2013) Comunicarea de criză, Bucureşti: Polirom.
- Hayhoe, G.F., Grady, H.M. (2015) Connecting People with Technology: Issues in Professional Communication, UK: Routledge.
- Kapferer, J. N. (2006) Zvonurile, Bucureşti: Humanitas.
- Marinescu, V. (2013) Introducere în teoria comunicării, Bucuresti: Tritonic.
- Mottet, T.P. (2017) Business & Professional Communication: Principles and Skills for Leadership, London: Pearson.
- Quintanilla, K.M., Wahl, S.T. (2016) Business and Professional Communication: Keys for Workplace Excellence, UK: Sage Publications.
- Roman, K., Raphaelson, J. (2014) Writing That Works. How to Communicate Effectively In Business, London: Collins Reference.
- Sullivan, J. (2016) Simply Said: Communicating Better at Work and Beyond, UK: Wiley.

DEVELOPING STUDENTS' INTERCULTURAL AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCE THROUGH THE ERASMUS PROGRAMME: LESSONS LEARNT AND CURRICULAR CHANGES IMPLEMENTED

Timea Németh¹, Erika Marek², Gabriella Hild¹, Alexandra Csongor¹

¹Department of Languages for Specific Purposes, Medical School, University of Pécs, Hungary

²Department of Operational Medicine, Medical School, University of Pécs, Hungary

nemethtimi@yahoo.com

erika.marek@gmail.com

gabriella.hild@aok.pte.hu

alexandra.csongor@aok.pte.hu

Abstract: A nation-wide survey was conducted between 2009 and 2014 in Hungary to examine the intercultural impact of the Erasmus student mobility programme on Hungarian students (Németh, 2015). A mixed methods research was carried out incorporating both quantitative and qualitative aspects. Primary and secondary source data analysis was included, comprising literature review and statistical records. An online questionnaire was distributed amongst former Hungarian Erasmus students, the results of which were analysed and compared with the outcome of an EU-level study (ESN Survey, 2008). Interviews were conducted with academic and administrative staff regarding their experience with the Erasmus programme. The results suggest that the Erasmus programme significantly facilitates the development of intercultural competences, including the foreign language skills of Hungarian Higher Education students. However, the findings also imply that, as not all students are mobile, alternative teaching methods, training programmes and classes should be implemented in the curricula to increase these skills of the non-mobile student population locally, as part of Internationalisation at Home.

This paper aims at giving a brief summary of the background, methods and specific findings of the study related to the development of Hungarian Higher Education students' intercultural competence and foreign language skills. Another goal of the present paper is to draw conclusions from the above study and provide insights into curricular innovations and changes that have since been implemented by the University of Pécs Medical School to increase the intercultural competence and foreign language skills of non-mobile medical students. The importance of these skills within medical and healthcare education has to be underscored, as the lack of a common language between patient and healthcare provider can result in misdiagnosis and may lead to improper treatment. Inability to communicate appropriately can be an obstacle to proper medical and healthcare and undermines trust in the quality of the system.

Keywords: Erasmus student mobility; foreign languages; intercultural competence; non-mobile students; Higher Education; Internationalisation at Home

1. Introduction

"I would make it compulsory for everyone to stay at least half a year abroad before getting a degree." (Anonymous former Erasmus student)

Europe and the European student environment have been undergoing radical changes in the past few decades. An increasingly high number of students go to study abroad through several bilateral agreements or European Union-level mobility programmes. Globalisation and worldwide migration are also part of the reasons why the scope of Higher Education has completely changed, thus enabling increased contact of diverse cultures (ESN Survey, 2008; Teichler, 2018). Therefore, a clear-cut need has emerged in recent decades for the implementation of international dimensions in the curricula, i.e. to internationalise Higher Education worldwide (Knight, 1993; de Wit and Hunter, 2015; Teichler, 2018). However, internationalisation is a relatively new concept in several countries, including Hungary. It has been in use for several centuries in political science and governmental relations, but has only become a buzzword in Higher Education since the late 1980s and early 1990s. Bentling and Lennander maintain that "internationalisation promotes cultural competence" (2008: 15). Nonetheless, it means different things to different people and is often confused or used interchangeably with the term globalisation. Knight (1997: 5–7) argues that whilst globalisation is the flow of technology, economics, people and cultures across borders, the internationalisation of Higher Education is one of the ways a country can react to the challenges of globalisation. Therefore, these terms can be interpreted as different in meaning but closely related dynamic processes. As Knight claims (1999: 14), "globalisation can be thought of as the catalyst, whilst internationalisation as the response, albeit a response in a proactive way".

Several attempts have been made to redefine internationalisation, de Wit and Hunter (2015: 3) offer an update, specifying that internationalisation should enable institutions to "enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society". Therefore, internationalising the curricula is of major significance nowadays, although, it is not an easy process, as claims Dunne (2011). According to the research of Van der Wende (1997) it has been implemented most commonly in the fields of economics and business studies, the humanities and social sciences. International subjects, studies with interdisciplinary as well as international comparative approaches have been included in such curricula. Leask (2009) argues the importance of the formal and the informal curricula to encourage intercultural engagement, which promotes interactions between local and international students. However, Van der Wende concludes (*ibid*) that internationalising the curricula is a lengthy and complex process in which individual academics play a vital role and therefore, it requires a combined bottom-up and top-down strategy.

1.1 The need for student mobility in Higher Education

As Németh claims (2017), it is crucial for today's students, who are surrounded by a mass of information coming from the online world, which, undoubtedly, does not equal a wealth of knowledge, to develop critical thinking skills and question what is communicated by the media and the online "non-reality world". No matter how old fashioned it may sound, but still today, the best and most genuine way to

familiarize yourself with another culture, to challenge your stereotypes and prejudices is to travel and visit countries, as in ancient times.

One approach for students, as part of internationalisation, is to participate in various study abroad and mobility programmes, such as the Erasmus programme. International organisations, including the UNESCO (2009: 48–53) and economic and political partnerships such as the European Union (Erasmus statistics, 2014), consider it imperative to encourage worldwide mobility and exchanges of students and staff. Hence, student mobility programmes can be considered as a means of internationalising the curricula. Several research studies (Economist insights, 2012; CBI, 2012) suggest that in today's computerised work environment digital skills are merely not enough to work efficiently after graduation, but an ability to work with people from diverse backgrounds and cultures, in a similar vein as speaking foreign languages, are of primary importance. However, it seems that employers have difficulties finding graduates with such skills, as the 542 employers in the CBI's study (2012) reported being least satisfied with employees' skills in foreign languages and cultural awareness.

Numerous international surveys have proved (BIHUNE, 2003; Callen & Lee, 2009; Teichler, 2018) that a period spent abroad enriches students' lives not only in the academic field but also in the acquisition of intercultural skills, development of foreign language proficiency and self-reliance. Therefore, in today's globalised world, an international education is a must-have for talented young people. However, abundant research on the topic has highlighted that mere international knowledge is not enough and encounters with diverse cultures are vital in providing an effective learning environment for the development of intercultural competences (McCabe, 2006; Flaskerud, 2007; Callen & Lee, 2009). The experiences students gain during their stay abroad change their lives forever and have a reverberating impact on their environment. As Kalsi claims (2018) living and working abroad improves your problem solving and creativity and this cultural experience can even foster your career. Most employers already understand that, hence they want and need globally-minded and experienced employees. They seek mobile, flexible, cosmopolitan-minded and multilingual staff, which they can find partly attributed to mobility programmes (Németh et al., 2009).

In the past, internationalisation centred around mobility throughout Europe. The Erasmus programme, in particular, was a strategic step towards internationalisation. High numbers of students have studied abroad through bilateral agreements or European Union-level mobility programmes (Erasmus statistics, 2014), thus enabling increased contact among diverse cultures.

When the programme started in 1987, Erasmus targeted only Higher Education students, but it has since grown to offer opportunities in the vocational education and training sector, school education, adult education, youth and sport sectors. Today, all these programmes fall under one umbrella term: Erasmus+ (Erasmus statistics, 2017). Erasmus+ provides abundant opportunities for people of all ages and background facilitating knowledge and experience sharing at institutions and organisations in different countries. Erasmus+ contributes to enhancing intercultural skills, competences and awareness, enabling also the participants to become engaged citizens.

Hungary joined the Erasmus programme in the academic year of 1998/99. In the first year Hungary sent as many as 856 students to study abroad and by 2011/12 this number increased to 5,250, which is a significant six-fold increase. Between

2007 and 2013, Erasmus was integrated into the Lifelong Learning Programme and mobility was expanded to include internships for students and offer mobility for both academic and administrative staff. Company placements abroad have become very popular among students, 2,535 benefited from this mobility option until 2011, spending five months abroad on average (Erasmus statistics, 2014). Table 1 below demonstrates the estimated number of those Hungarian students, who participated in both the Erasmus and Erasmus+ programmes between 1998 and 2017

Table 1: Hungarians who benefited from the Erasmus and Erasmus+ programmes between 1998 and 2017

Estimated number	Hungarian participants
66,200	Higher Education students
40,600	Youth exchange participants
30,400	Vocational training learners
87,400	Education staff and youth workers
2,400	European volunteers
1,200	Erasmus Mundus students and staff

Source: Erasmus statistics, 2017

2. Method

A mixed methods research was carried out between 2009 and 2014 with the aim of gaining an in-depth understanding of the intercultural impact of the Erasmus programme on Hungarian students (Németh, 2015). Part of the research was an online survey prepared by adapting and modifying the questionnaire of the 2008 ESN Survey (ESN Survey, 2008), and adding three qualitative questions regarding descriptions of students' experience abroad. The survey contained a total of 46 questions. The questions were divided into four main sections. The first section was concerning the socio-demographic background of the students, followed by study abroad data. The third section focused on students' intercultural competence, language proficiency and personality development. The last section included three open-ended questions in free-text format regarding the best and worst experiences the students had had during their study abroad period.

The language of both the original and the present questionnaire was English to enable comparative studies and to target international students as a future extension of the research. It was pretested in October 2011 by 10 Hungarian and 10 international students, and then modified based on their feedback. The questionnaire targeted all the 65 Higher Education institutions participating in the Erasmus programme in Hungary. The Erasmus coordinators of these institutions were requested to distribute the link of the survey amongst their 2010/2011 outgoing Erasmus students. The online questionnaire was open for two weeks from 15 until 30 November, 2011. It took approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The data were analysed with the statistical programme SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Statistics 20.

Pursuant to Erasmus statistical data (Erasmus statistics, 2014), altogether 4,164 Hungarian students were involved in Erasmus outgoing mobility during 2010/2011, which is only 1.09% of the total Hungarian student population of the same

academic year (Oktatási-Évkönyv, 2011). Overall 657 valid responses from 37 Higher Education institutions were received, which is a 15% response rate, assuming that, in theory, all 2010/2011 Erasmus outgoing students received the link sent by their institutional coordinator. For comparative analysis, the findings of the present research were compared with those of the ESN Survey of 2008. The latter was a Europe-wide study online reaching over 8000 international students, out of which more than 5000 were Erasmus students.

3. Results

Due to word count limitations, only a brief summary of the quantitative and the qualitative findings will be detailed below.

As Figure 1 illustrates, out of the 598 students 16% studied in Germany, followed by Finland (8.5%), Italy (8.1%) and Spain (7.6%). They spent 5.5 months abroad on average (standard deviation: 2.185).

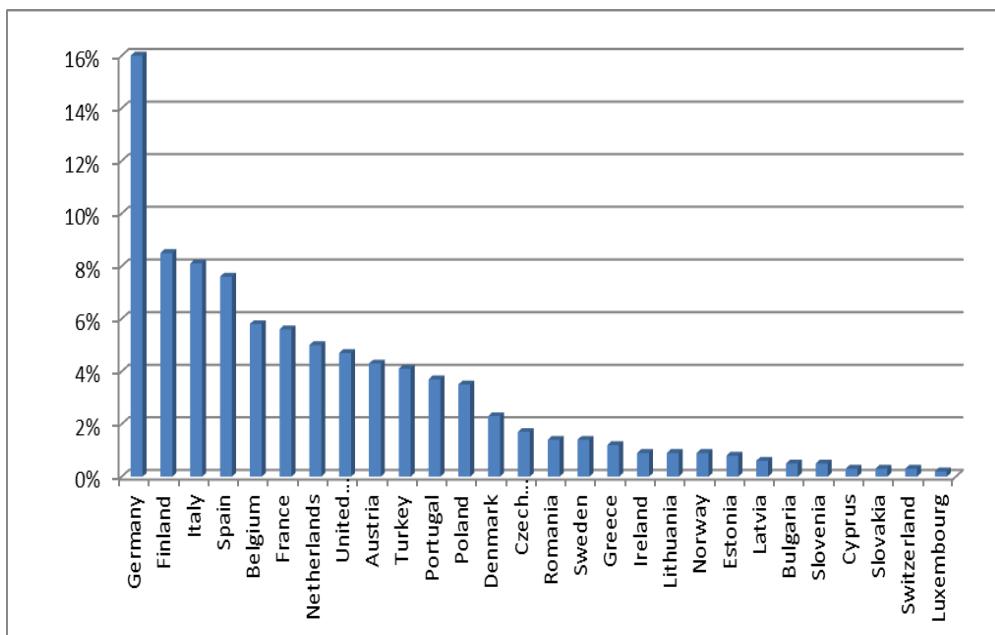


Figure 1 Host countries of the Hungarian Erasmus Students (N=598)
Source: Németh, 2015: 48

As regards the proficiency development in foreign languages, the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative analyses (online survey, comparative analysis and structured interviews) suggest that the students' foreign language skills improved significantly both in English and in the language of the host country. At the beginning of their stay, 31.3% of the students claimed that their English was average, 25.8% said that it was very good, 25% stated that it was good, 15.3% claimed that it was not so good and only 2.6% said that it was not good at all. However, by the end of their stay, 12.2% claimed that their English was average, 49.3% said it was very good, 35.7% stated it was good, 1.9% claimed that it was

not so good and only 0.9% said that it was not good at all, which is a major improvement.

The majority of the students are highly proficient in foreign languages, mainly in the English language that works as a lingua franca, and therefore, there is considerable awareness of its communicative effectiveness. Even though substantial foreign language proficiency had been reported before the study period abroad, students and academic staff who participated in the interviews observed significant language improvement.

As Figure 2 suggests, one unanticipated finding to emerge from this study for the authors was that students' foreign language proficiency development in the language of the host country was significantly greater than in English. These outcomes are in agreement with earlier research findings (Teichler & Janson, 2007; ESN Survey, 2008; Jenkins, 2009; Orr et al., 2011). The study of Souto Otero and McCoshan (2006) points out that by the end of their Erasmus period more than a quarter of students were fluent in their second or third language. Byram (1997) highlights the significance of linguistic competence, which, he claims, plays a key role in intercultural knowledge and competence.

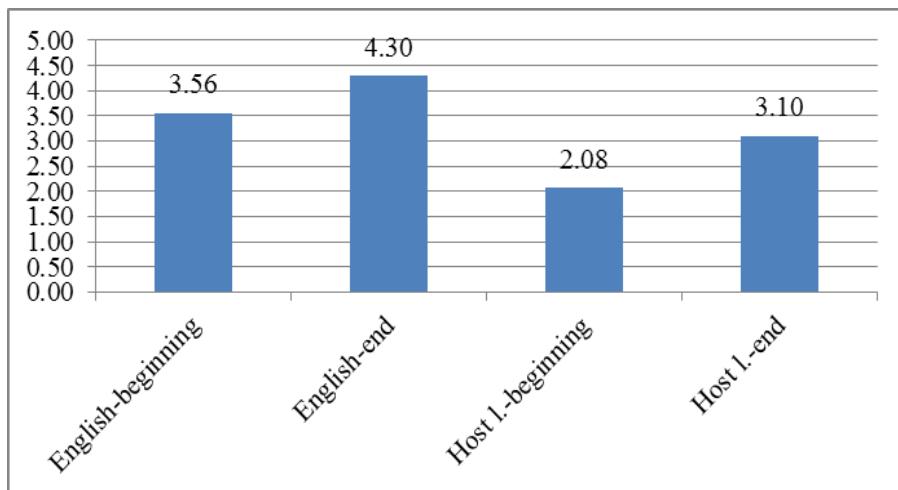


Figure 2 Language progress in English and the language of the host country (N=536)

Source: Németh, 2015: 50

Regarding the intercultural skills development of the Hungarian Erasmus students, 84.8% agreed or strongly agreed that their stay abroad helped them improve their skills related to working in a team with people of different cultural backgrounds. Concerning their problem-solving skills, 90.1% agreed or strongly agreed that those improved in unexpected situations, whereas 64.4% claimed that their time and project management skills developed and 74.3% indicated that taking responsibility of their tasks and duties increased. 92.9% agreed or strongly agreed that their skills related to adapting to new situations developed. Related to their communication skills with people from different cultural backgrounds, 91.1% agreed or strongly agreed that those improved, whereas 80.6% agreed or strongly agreed that their negotiating skills with people from different cultural backgrounds

also developed. The majority, 71.9% agreed or strongly agreed that their conflict management skills with people from different cultural backgrounds improved.

Concerning Hungarian Erasmus students' intercultural knowledge improvement, 91.6% agreed or strongly agreed that their foreign language knowledge improved and helped them in communicating with people from different countries, 75.7% agreed or strongly agreed that their knowledge of the characteristics of their own culture improved, whilst 82.2% claimed that their knowledge of the characteristics of other cultures also developed. Regarding their knowledge of different work attitude at work places 64.5% agreed or strongly agreed that it developed considerably.

Structured interviews were conducted with the purpose of approaching the research topic from various angles and foster the understanding of the patterns in the quantitative analysis. The structured interviews were targeted at groups of stakeholders of universities in Hungary both at administrative and academic levels who work in an international, multicultural setting. This included administrative staff of international offices as well as Erasmus coordinators of faculties, academic staff and doctoral students. Altogether, 15 stakeholders were interviewed: 11 females and 4 males. Their age ranged between 28 and 49. The majority, nine interviewees worked at universities in the Southern Transdanubian region, two in the Southern Great Plain region, in Central Hungary and the Northern Great Plain region respectively.

Regarding the advantages of the Erasmus mobility program, the language learning and cultural aspects were highlighted by the majority (12 respondents), one claiming that "...the best way of learning a foreign language is within the target language environment...and the Erasmus mobility programme makes it feasible."

The majority of stakeholders considered the Erasmus programme as a positive attribute to developing students' intercultural knowledge and skills, however they also argued that there were some specific downsides of the programme that deter students from participating. As there are still a high number of non-mobile students in the country, specific training programmes, intercultural classes, involvement in international projects and the importance of carrying on with the learning of foreign languages in Higher Education have been mentioned as alternative methods to this cohort of students.

4. Lessons learnt and curricular changes implemented

The findings of the above research study highlight that the Erasmus programme facilitates the development of intercultural and foreign language competences of Hungarian Higher Education students significantly. However, similarly to Hamburg's (2016) study findings and conclusion, this survey also implies that alternative teaching methods, training programmes and classes should be implemented in the curricula to increase these skills of both the mobile and especially the non-mobile student population locally. Hence arises the question: What are the lessons learnt and the curricular changes that have been implemented since the survey was carried out at the Medical School of the University of Pécs (UPMS)?

To achieve the above goals and as part of its Internationalisation at Home (IaH) strategies, UPMS has implemented several curricular changes since 2015. One of the future implications of the above research was to *emphasise the importance and*

sustain the teaching of foreign languages in Higher Education in Hungary. Regarding the medical and healthcare curriculum, the significance of studying languages for medical and healthcare purposes has to be highlighted and maintained even more so, as the lack of a common language between patient and healthcare provider can result in misdiagnosis and may lead to improper treatment. Inability to communicate appropriately can be an obstacle to proper medical and healthcare and undermines trust in the quality of the system. The medical curriculum at UPMS has incorporated English (EMP), German (GMP) and Hungarian (HMP) for Medical Purposes classes for several years now. EMP and GMP classes are taught to Hungarian medical students to benefit them in the future either as Erasmus students completing part of their clinical training abroad, or as practising doctors working outside the borders of Hungary. Moreover, as English is the lingua franca in science, it is undoubtedly needed to keep up-to-date with the latest results in any medical fields.

The reasoning behind the HMP classes is the increasing number of international students studying medicine in Hungary, who during their senior years participate in clinical training sessions at local hospitals, where the average Hungarian patients do not speak any foreign languages. Maintaining and developing these language classes for medical purposes in the future have been considered of primary importance by the management of UPMS since the findings of the above research were revealed, and continuous support is provided for the Department of Languages for Specific Purposes for further curricular developments and projects.

Another implication of the study was to *highlight the significance of classes and training programmes to develop students' intercultural competence and increase their cultural awareness, knowledge and skills.* The multicultural cohort of students at UPMS has led to the development and implementation of the first Intercultural Competence in Doctor-Patient Communication elective course in September 2016. This course—aims at increasing medical students' awareness of sociocultural influences on health beliefs, attitudes and behaviours, as well as providing skills to understand and manage these factors during medical care involving patients from diverse cultural backgrounds. It was of crucial importance to ensure this course is available not only for the Hungarian but also for the international medical students. It is firmly believed that having a mixed, intercultural classroom setting provides an added value towards serving the purposes of raising intercultural awareness and sensitivity later on in their careers as physicians.

As the Hungarian medical and healthcare education involves hundreds of international students nowadays, the option of *studying in mixed classes was introduced* in 2016, in which Hungarian students can study together with their international peers. These seminars also serve the purposes of enhancing intercultural competence and are beneficial for both target groups. In such classes, diversity should be viewed less as a problem, and more as a resource. Inevitably, students' attitude, behaviour, academic background and learning tradition may differ in these multicultural classroom settings. However, students can contribute to the lessons effectively by adding their particular cultural insights, experiences and foreign language skills. In this way, the multicultural classroom may be transformed into a platform for intercultural learning, which contributes to developing students' intercultural as well as foreign language skills.

New *classes preparing students for their study abroad period* were introduced in 2018 with the aim of preparing students, who are thinking of, have applied for, or

have already won international scholarships or internships, to acquire those skills and competences deemed necessary for their study or training abroad period. The course covers a variety of key topics including the development of their medical English language skills and addressing problems arising from cultural differences in medical settings. This class may also serve the role of motivating non-mobile students to take part in mobility programmes.

Involvement in international projects and studies with international guest lecturers are also an essential means of an internationalised curriculum. There is an increasing number of *Erasmus teachers and visiting professors*, who give lectures at UPMS. Moreover, *returnee scholars and academics* also contribute to IaH activities. The UPMS has been investing in providing incentives to Hungarian scholars and academics living outside the country to lure them back home. Many have now returned. Their international expertise and know-how contribute to the IaH processes of the university. Scientific laboratories have been set up by and for them in the past few years, in which local students collaborate and perform research projects rich with international dimensions. The returnee academic faculty, who continuously integrate global aspects into their teaching activity, also facilitate special seminars and lectures.

5. Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to summarise and present the background, methods and findings of a former nation-wide survey focusing on the intercultural impact of the Erasmus mobility programme on Hungarian students. The goal of the present paper was also to draw conclusions and provide some insights into curricular innovations and changes that have since been implemented by the University of Pécs Medical School to increase the intercultural competence and foreign language skills of non-mobile medical students. The findings highlight that the Erasmus programme significantly facilitates the development of these skills. However, it was also implied by the study that as not all students are mobile, alternative methods and classes should be implemented in the curricula to increase the foreign language skills and intercultural competence of non-mobile students locally. To achieve these goals and as part of its Internationalisation at Home strategies, UPMS has implemented several curricular changes. With all these modifications and innovations detailed above, specific steps have been made by UPMS to increase non-mobile medical students' intercultural competence and foreign language skills locally, as well as to internationalise the curriculum.

Today, Erasmus+ provides countless opportunities for people of all ages and it contributes to enhancing intercultural skills, competences, and awareness, as well as foreign language development. However, as Németh (2017) argues developing intercultural competence and foreign language skills through mobility and study abroad programmes is not a one-off project, by which it gets done and dusted and the mission is completed, but more like part of a lifelong-learning task (LLT) for the individual. It cannot and should not be left off after returning to the home country, instead, should be viewed as the start of such LLT. As long as the students can keep their curiosity and have an open mindset while studying, travelling, working or living their daily life, they will continuously be exposed to novel and new intercultural stimuli that will inevitably all add to the development of their "*intercultural competence database*". It is our role, as teachers to assist them in

every possible way we can to keep on improving and cultivating this unique database in order to increase their intercultural and foreign language competence.

References

- Bentling, S. & Lennander, A., 2008. Visible, invisible and made visible. *The Nordic Journal of Nursing Research*, 3(2), pp. 39-41.
- BIHUNE, 2003. *Benchmarking Internationalisation at Home (IaH) in Undergraduate Nursing Education in Europe*, Växjö: Final report. Socrates programme "General activities of observation and Analysis". Action 6.1.
- Byram, M., 1997. *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Callen, B. & Lee, J., 2009. Ready for the world: Preparing nursing students for tomorrow. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 25(5), pp. 292-298.
- CBI, 2012. *Learning to Grow. What Employers Need From Education and Skills*. London: CBI. [Online] Available at: http://www.cbi.org.uk/media/1514978/cbi_education_and_skills_survey_2012.pdf [Accessed 25 March 2015].
- de Wit, H. & Hunter, F., 2015. The Future of Internationalization of Higher Education in Europe. *International Higher Education*, Issue 83, pp. 2-3.
- Dunne, C., 2011. Developing an intercultural curriculum within the context of the internationalisation of higher education: Terminology, typologies and power. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), pp. 609-622.
- Economistinsights, 2012. *The Economist Intelligence Unit. 2012. Competing across borders. How cultural and communication barriers affect business*. [Online] Available at: <http://www.economistinsights.com/countries-trade-investment/analysis/competing-across-borders> [Accessed 25 March 2015].
- Erasmus statistics, 2014. European Commission. [Online] Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/education/library/statistics/aggregates-time-series/country-statistics_en.pdf [Accessed 20 May 2014].
- Erasmus statistics, 2017. *European Commission Country Fact Sheets*. [Online] Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/sites/erasmusplus2/files/30year_country_fact_sheets/erasmusplus-factsheet-hu-hd-cr.pdf [Accessed 20 July 2017].
- ESN Survey, 2008. *Exchanging culture*. [Online] Available at: http://www.esn.org/sites/default/files/ESNSurvey_2008_report_0.pdf [Accessed 30 November 2009].
- Flaskerud, J., 2007. Cultural Competence: What is it?. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, Volume 28, pp. 121-123.
- Hamburg, A., 2016. Comparative Analysis on Eastern and Central European Students' Intercultural Sensitivity. Research Conducted in Romania, Hungary and Slovenia. *Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes*, Volume 3, pp. 63-71.
- Jenkins, J., 2009. English as lingua franca: Interpretations and attitudes. *World Englishes*, 28(2), pp. 200-207.

- Kalsi, S., 2018. *How Living and Learning Abroad Makes You a Better Entrepreneur*. [Online] Available at: <https://cutt.ly/awz4T9O> [Accessed 31 August 2019].
- Knight, J., 1993. Internationalization: Management Strategies and Issues. *International Education Magazine, CBIE, Ottawa.*, pp. Vol.9, No.1, 21-22.
- Knight, J., 1997. *Internationalization of higher education: A conceptual framework..* Amsterdam, s.n., p. 5-19.
- Knight, J., 1999. *Internationalisation of Higher Education*. Paris, s.n., pp. 13-29.
- Leask, B., 2009. Using formal and informal curricula to improve interactions between home and international students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(2), pp. 205-221.
- McCabe, J., 2006. An assignment for building an awareness of the intersection of health literacy and cultural competence skills. *Journal of Medical Library Association*, 94(4), pp. 458-461.
- Németh, T., 2015. *The intercultural impact of the Erasmus programme on Hungarian students, with special regard to students of medicine and health care*. Doctoral Thesis: Doctoral School of Health Sciences, University of Pécs.
- Németh, T., 2017. *Betegellátás, munkavégzés multikulturális környezetben (Patient care and working in a multicultural environment)*. Medical School, University of Pécs, PhD course lecture: s.n.
- Németh, T., Trócsányi, A. & Sütő, B., 2009. *The need for a study to measure the intercultural impact of mobility programmes among health care students in Hungary*. Liverpool, Whose culture(s)? Proceedings of the Second Annual Conference of the University Network of European Capitals of Culture Liverpool 16/17 October 2008, pp. 175-182.
- Oktatási-Évkönyv, 2011. *Statisztikai tájékoztató-Oktatási évkönyv 2010/2011 (Statistics on Education)*. [Online] Available at: <http://www.kormany.hu/download/4/45/50000/Oktat%C3%A1si%20%C3%89vk%C3%B6nyv-2010.pdf> [Accessed 5 August 2014].
- Orr, D., Gwosc, C. & Netz, N., 2011. *Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe, Eurostudent IV Final Report 2008-2011*. s.l.: Bielefeld W. Bertelsmann Verlag .
- Souto Otero, M. & McCoshan, A., 2006. *Survey of the Socio-Economic Background of ERASMUS students ECOTEC Research and Consulting Limited, Final Report to the European Commission*. [Online] Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc/publ/survey06.pdf> [Accessed 10 March 2010].
- Teichler, U., 2018. *Higher Education and Graduate Employment: Changing Conditions and Challenges*. INCHER Working Paper Nr. 10 , s.l.: International Centre for Higher Education Research Kassel.
- Teichler, U. & Janson, K., 2007. The professional value of temporary study in another European country: Employment and work of former ERASMUS students. *Journal of Studies in International Education* , 11 (3/4), pp. 486-495 .
- UNESCO, 2009. *World Conference on Higher Education. The New Dynamics of Higher Education and Research for Societal Change and Development*. [Online] Available at:

http://www.unesco.org/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/ED/pdf/WCHE_2009/FINAL%20COMMUNIQUE%20WCHE%202009.pdf

[Accessed 5 April 2010].

Van der Wende, M., 1997. Internationalising the curriculum in Dutch higher education: An international comparative perspective. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 1(2), pp. 53-72.

L'ENGAGEMENT DE L'ENSEIGNANT-CHERCHEUR EN ANGLAIS DE SPECIALITE : CAS D'UNE UNIVERSITE SCIENTIFIQUE

THE COMMITMENT OF RESEARCHERS IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: THE CASE OF A SCIENTIFIC UNIVERSITY

Claire Chaplier

UMR EFTS, Université de Toulouse, France

claire.chaplier@univ-tlse3.fr

Abstract

This preliminary research is based on the process of the researcher's commitment. A series of data collected from professors of specialized English in a French scientific university will enable us to lay the foundations for research that is part of a more general approach: the foundations for an epistemology of specialized languages. This research consists in making a brief assessment of the representations of the practice of these professors in the field of science. First, we will analyze the regularities of teaching practices through the institutional constraints to which teachers have to comply with. The issue of the diversity of practices will be addressed to identify the leeway that professors have in research beyond the constraints (Roditi, 2003). We will see that between constraints and flexibility, there is the issue of commitment of the researcher of specialized English. This issue is rarely asked in the field of teaching English in courses other than English (e. g. law, science) and yet this question seems as fundamental as that of the content to be taught. The commitment of a language teacher in the teaching process appears to be an essential psychological and professional provision for the proper exercise of the teacher's profession. This issue relates to the epistemological reflection on specialized languages (Van der Yeught, 2014, 2016) which is still ongoing in France. Van der Yeught (2014) advocates basing LSPs on what constitutes their "central and stable core". This core could be the intersection between a language and a specialty field. The problem comes from the nature of one of the two elements of the intersection, namely the specialty that is mainly disciplinary or professional before being linguistic. Finally, we will see which research perspectives in specialized languages can be proposed following our research in specialized English in the field of ("hard") sciences: the construct of "English for science".

Keywords: commitment; motivation; researcher; LSP; English for science

Introduction

La question de l'engagement de l'enseignant-chercheur d'anglais de spécialité (ASP) est rarement posée dans le domaine de l'enseignement de l'anglais dans des formations autres que l'anglais (ex. droit, sciences) (en France on parle du secteur Langues pour spécialistes d'autres disciplines -LANSAD) et pourtant cette question semble aussi fondamentale que celle des contenus à enseigner. Ce

secteur reste un territoire pédagogique aux contours imprécis et aux caractéristiques hétérogènes (Van der Yeught, 2014). Il revient souvent aux enseignants d'inventer les différents aspects de leur acte pédagogique, avec les avantages et les inconvénients de cette liberté quasi totale.

Une série de données collectées auprès d'enseignants-chercheurs de l'Université Toulouse 3 (UT3) nous permettra de poser les bases d'une recherche qui s'inscrit dans une démarche plus générale : il s'agit, en effet, de contribuer à jeter les bases d'une épistémologie des LSP. Cette recherche exploratoire consiste en un bilan préliminaire des représentations de la pratique des enseignants-chercheurs anglicistes dans le domaine des sciences dans une université scientifique française (UT3).

Tout d'abord, nous présenterons et analyserons les régularités des pratiques d'enseignement à travers les contraintes institutionnelles auxquelles répondent les enseignants. Quant à la question de la diversité des pratiques, elle sera posée pour identifier les marges de manœuvre investies par les enseignants-chercheurs dans la recherche, par-delà ces contraintes (Roditi, 2003). Nous verrons qu'entre contraintes et marges de manœuvre se pose la question de l'engagement. Le chercheur en LSP qui s'engage dans une recherche souhaite obtenir une reconnaissance, car c'est elle qui motive son engagement. Elle est le problème majeur du métier de chercheur en LSP dans un contexte institutionnel autre que celui des langues, car le chercheur dans une université scientifique cherche la reconnaissance des scientifiques et de ses pairs. Or, pour être reconnue, la recherche en LSP doit satisfaire des critères de validité scientifique (ex. méthode). Il est alors nécessaire de construire une épistémologie des LSP dans une perspective didactique. Finalement, nous verrons quelles perspectives de recherche en LSP peuvent être envisagées en considérant notre recherche sur l'ASP dans le domaine des sciences (« dures »).

1. Le cadre théorique

1.1. La langue de spécialité

Le monde universitaire de l'enseignement et de la recherche dans le monde anglo-saxon et en France a donné une réalité institutionnelle aux LSP qui ont émergé comme objet de recherche. Ainsi, de nombreux enseignants-chercheurs et enseignants ont rejoint une communauté de recherche spécialisée qui relève soit des langues sur objectifs spécifiques (*Languages for Specific Purposes*) pour la conception anglo-saxonne, soit des LSP pour la conception française. Dans le cas de l'anglais, on distingue l'anglais sur objectifs spécifiques (*English for Specific Purposes*) et l'ASP (Mémet, 2001). Dans un premier temps, l'ESP a influencé le courant « anglais de spécialité » français avant que ce dernier ne se constitue de façon autonome. En France, une nouvelle situation s'est donc créée dans le paysage universitaire, ce qui signifiait de revoir les contenus d'enseignement des langues étrangères. L'ASP s'est développé initialement pour répondre aux besoins des étudiants français inscrits dans des filières autres que celle des études anglophones, en adaptant l'enseignement de l'anglais. Cependant, en 1995, Perrin a abordé la question de l'ASP sous l'angle de l'utilisation, à des fins particulières, dans un contexte précis, le plus souvent correspondant à une pratique professionnelle, des constituants d'une langue. Il ne s'agissait plus de se focaliser

sur les objectifs spécifiques de la langue utilisée (ESP) mais sur le caractère spécialisé de la langue. Une conception française de l'ASP a commencé à se dégager. Petit a proposé une première définition de l'ASP en 2002 : « La branche de l'anglistique qui traite de la langue, du discours et de la culture des communautés professionnelles et groupes sociaux spécialisés anglophones et de l'enseignement de cet objet » (Petit, 2002 : 2). Cette définition reconnaît aux LSP des dimensions linguistique, discursive et culturelle et forment des ensembles particulièrement complexes. Mais il reste qu'on ignore toujours si la LSP et l'ASP désignent une notion, un objet, un champ disciplinaire, etc. (Petit, 2010). Ces définitions ont permis, d'une part, d'instituer la recherche des objets « langue » et « anglais » dans les domaines de spécialité et, d'autre part, de faire reconnaître la LSP et l'ASP auprès de la communauté des études anglophones dans son ensemble.

1.2. Le processus d'engagement

L'engagement d'un enseignant de langues dans le processus d'enseignement apparaît comme une disposition psychologique et professionnelle indispensable au bon exercice du métier de l'enseignant. L'engagement 'positif' facilite à la fois le processus d'enseignement et celui d'apprentissage des apprenants car il découle de la motivation.

Kiesler et Sakumura (1966 : 349) ont donné une première définition de la psychologie de l'engagement : « le lien qui relie l'individu à ses actes comportementaux ». À travers ce lien, la personne est engagée par son acte. Cependant, cette définition semble incomplète pour Beauvois et Joule. Selon ces auteurs, « l'engagement correspond, dans une situation donnée, aux conditions dans lesquelles la réalisation d'un acte ne peut être imputable qu'à celui qui l'a réalisé » (Beauvois & Joule, 1998 : 60). Dans ce cas, l'engagement est externe, c'est-à-dire que l'engagement fait appel à des facteurs externes qui vont influencer le comportement de la personne. Dans tous les cas, c'est la situation qui détermine le comportement et non pas les attitudes ou la personnalité des participants à l'expérience.

Nous nous appuierons sur un bilan de la pratique des enseignants-recherches en anglais scientifique dans le cas de l'UT3. Nous considérerons l'engagement de l'enseignant-rechercheur au niveau psychologique et en termes de régularité et de variabilité (Roditi, 2003). Ces derniers font face à des contraintes : est-ce que dans leurs représentations, ces contraintes ont le même poids et les mêmes effets pour tous?

Nous avons opté pour le modèle tridimensionnel du processus d'engagement (Dubé *et al.*, 1997 ; Jodoin, 2000), au sein duquel il n'y a qu'un seul type d'engagement qui est alors défini comme l'interaction dynamique de trois éléments, les forces affective, comportementale et cognitive, qui font qu'une personne initie, puis maintient une ligne d'action ou de pensée envers un objet social important et valorisé. Nous revenons sur chacune de ces trois forces :

- La force affective est responsable du déclenchement du processus d'engagement, elle correspond au plaisir, à l'intérêt personnel ou à l'attraction ressentie par l'individu à l'égard de l'objet d'engagement ;
- La force comportementale favorise la poursuite des actions et des efforts que nécessite l'engagement malgré les obstacles rencontrés ;

- La force cognitive est la capacité à réconcilier les éléments positifs et négatifs associés au fait de s'engager. Elle renvoie à la capacité de comprendre et d'accepter que l'engagement implique toujours certains aspects difficiles auxquels il est nécessaire de faire face pour pouvoir profiter des avantages qu'il comporte.

Ce modèle rend compte du caractère dynamique et évolutif de l'engagement humain. En effet, les trois composantes n'agissent pas en même temps, elles n'ont pas toujours la même intensité.

A partir de ces éléments théoriques, l'engagement sera défini comme un processus psychologique, qui correspond à l'interaction dynamique de trois facteurs : facteurs personnels (affectifs) qui déclenchent des comportements, facteurs sociaux (notamment institutionnels), et facteurs cognitifs (ici lié à la LSP considérée comme un savoir). L'interaction de ces facteurs fait qu'en situation de travail un individu veut s'engager, maintient son engagement envers un objet social important, et veut recommencer... ou pas. Le facteur affectif est considéré comme étant souvent responsable du déclenchement du processus d'engagement. L'intérêt de cette conception est qu'elle permet de mettre en relation les trois facteurs supra afin de rendre compte du processus dynamique de l'engagement humain, vu comme un processus plus que comme une motivation initiale. Il convient cependant d'ajouter une dimension motivationnelle au modèle existant.

1.3. Le concept de motivation en langues

La motivation ne se confond pas avec le désir ou l'intérêt, elle suppose le passage à l'action et le maintien de l'effort : elle est le produit de facteurs cognitifs, affectifs et sociaux - c'est un état instable qui fluctue en fonction de l'expérience du sujet. La motivation en langues étrangères est un construit du chercheur, c'est-à-dire un concept opérationnalisable en relation avec le terrain (Raby, 2018). Elle ne s'observe pas directement (Narcy-Combes *et al.*, 2009 ; Raby, 2008a, 2009).

On partira des travaux sur la motivation en langues du point de vue des enseignants et des étudiants en situation de travail (Raby). En effet, nous nous concentrerons la motivation des enseignants-chercheurs et l'impact du contexte (l'université scientifique). L'étude de la motivation en situation de travail implique que la motivation soit abordée de manière dynamique, c'est-à-dire qu'on étudie l'évolution de la motivation en relation avec l'accomplissement de la tâche : avant la tâche (phase préopératoire), pendant la tâche (phase opératoire ou exécutoire) et après la tâche (phase postopératoire) (Dörnyei, 2001 ; Raby 2008b). On aboutit ainsi à un modèle complexe de la motivation qui naît de l'interaction de facteurs internes (caractéristiques propres à l'individu) et externes (caractéristiques propres à l'environnement, Raby, 2007).

Raby définit la motivation pour l'apprentissage des langues en milieu académique : « un mécanisme psychologique qui génère le désir d'apprendre la langue seconde, qui déclenche des comportements d'apprentissage (notamment la prise de parole en classe de langue), qui permet à l'élève de maintenir son engagement à réaliser les tâches proposées quel que soit le degré de réussite immédiate dans son interaction avec les autres apprenants ou l'enseignant, qui le conduit à faire usage des instruments d'apprentissage mis à sa disposition (manuel, dictionnaire, tableau, CD) et qui, une fois la tâche terminée, le pousse à renouveler son engagement dans le travail linguistique et culturel » (Raby, 2008a : 2).

La motivation est ici envisagée comme un désir suivi de conséquence par l'action.

2. Analyse des représentations des pratiques enseignantes des enseignants-chercheurs – régularité et variabilité

Afin de faire le bilan des pratiques d'enseignement, nous avons élaboré un questionnaire (cf. Annexe) de type qualitatif qui comprend 15 questions ouvertes et que nous avons distribué aux dix enseignants-chercheurs d'un département de langues dans une université scientifique et médicale (UT3) en France. Nous avons alors recueilli leurs propos qui constituent les représentations de leurs pratiques d'enseignement et de recherche. Nous nous appuierons sur ces données pour illustrer notre problématique. Le département de langues de l'UT3 compte dix enseignants-chercheurs et trente enseignants. Il s'agit d'un petit échantillon d'enseignant-chercheur qui est représentatif de la recherche en langues dans une université qui n'est pas dédiée aux langues et notamment scientifique. L'université choisie est représentative des universités scientifiques en France autant en réputation qu'en nombre d'étudiants (plus de 30 000) et d'enseignants-chercheurs (environ 2500).

En recherchant les régularités des pratiques, nous voulons montrer que les enseignants-chercheurs répondent à des contraintes de l'université mais aussi à des exigences liées à l'exercice même du métier d'enseignant-chercheur. La question de la diversité des pratiques est posée pour identifier les marges de manœuvre investies par les enseignants-chercheurs par-delà les contraintes.

Parmi les dix EC, six font leur service statutaire d'enseignement et quatre sont principalement intéressés et/ou pris par leur cours, ceci est dû notamment au manque d'enseignants, aux tâches administratives importantes. Le constat de régularité - faire les cours - fait ressortir les contraintes qui sont minimales comparées à celles du lycée (absence de programme) et essentiellement institutionnelles concernant le cours et le contexte : le service statutaire de l'enseignant-chercheur (192h de cours), l'arrêté des examens, le volume horaire (à l'UT3, 48h/an L et 24h/an M), le niveau hétérogène de compétences en langue des étudiants et la formation des enseignants-chercheurs en LSP. Dans l'enseignement supérieur français, la validation d'une compétence en langue étrangère est encadrée par un arrêté (2002) et se fait au niveau Master.

Ces contraintes qui sont faibles et le contexte de l'université scientifique influent sur les représentations et pratiques des enseignants-chercheurs.

En revanche, les représentations des dix enseignants-chercheurs d'anglais de l'UT3 concernant leurs pratiques de recherche varient : faire de la recherche ou peu/pas (absence ou forte contrainte ?). Six enseignants-chercheurs (EC1-6) font leur recherche dans le laboratoire de l'UT3 qui s'intéresse à la didactique du LANSAD et aux LSP. Trois enseignants-chercheurs (EC7-9) font partie d'autres laboratoires (ex. littérature) et un autre (EC10) effectue de lourdes tâches administratives.

Ces enseignants-chercheurs revendiquent leur statut de chercheur par leur recherche, qui se singularise par leur interdisciplinarité (en langue et liée à une spécialité non linguistique). En outre, il existe une variabilité dans la recherche effectuée au sein du laboratoire de l'UT3 : une recherche sur la langue (langue étrangère ou LSP) et/ou une recherche en didactique qui varie de son absence à son intégration. A partir de là plusieurs modèles de variabilité sont possibles :

1) Recherche différente de l'enseignement dispensé : cas de EC7-9

Un enseignant-chercheur enseigne dans son domaine de recherche, c'est la mission de l'université et la valeur ajoutée de l'université à la formation.

2) Recherche en LSP uniquement

3) Recherche en didactique de la LSP qui inclut la langue professionnelle : cas de EC1-6

4) Recherche en didactique générale des langues (pas ici)

5) Recherche sur la langue (linguistique)

Le constat de variabilité dans la recherche est interprété comme l'investissement d'une marge de manœuvre qui existe par-delà ces contraintes. Cette marge de manœuvre caractérise la procédure d'autonomie. Car les enseignants-chercheurs sont en situation de contrôle et de marge de manœuvre / autonomie. Ce bilan ouvre sur une problématique épistémologique des LSP.

3. Engagement et représentations des pratiques

Entre contraintes et marges de manœuvre, se pose la question de l'engagement du chercheur en LSP. Nous verrons le processus dans chaque pratique de façon linéaire sachant que les facteurs sont en interaction dynamique mais il n'est pas évident d'en rendre compte ici, c'est une première étape d'un travail en cours.

3.1. Point de vue de l'enseignement

3.1.1. Déclenchement du processus

Le processus d'engagement est déclenché par le facteur affectif : les EC interrogés manifestent un intérêt pour l'enseignement, ce qui se caractérise de deux manières. La première concerne l'intérêt pour l'« agir de l'enseignant » (théories de l'agir au travail, Bronckart, 2004 ; Theureau, 2006) qui s'exprime par la construction des connaissances de LSP ou pas, la pédagogie. L'effet psychologique d'un environnement, notamment l'effet motivationnel, ne se situe pas dans l'environnement lui-même mais dans les propriétés que lui prête le sujet qui y évolue (théorie de l'agir). La seconde concerne l'« intérêt » pour la LSP (combinaison langue et sciences) qui s'exprime comme :

- un défi (EC1) : le cours est une « sorte de jeu, de défi et surtout perspectives d'échanges » d'où le « grand intérêt » ;
- un intérêt intellectuel (EC2, EC3) qui émane du cours en raison des sujets abordés par EC2 qui rajoute qu'il n'y a « aucune contrainte » ; EC3 évoque un « intérêt toujours intact » qui est d'autant plus présent qu'il y a un « travail de concertation des équipes pédagogiques » scientifiques et linguistes ;
- un goût pour la spécialité (EC4, EC5, EC6) : par exemple, EC4 dit : « comme je me sens plus à l'aise dans ces domaines (ex. informatique), j'ai sans doute plus de plaisir que dans un domaine que je ne maîtriserais pas ou moins ». Le plaisir provient de la maîtrise du sujet.

3.1.2. Maintien de l'engagement

Les EC poursuivent leurs efforts en dépit des obstacles rencontrés : ils ont la capacité à s'adapter aux situations d'enseignement inédites liées à l'hétérogénéité des compétences en langues des étudiants et aussi à la LSP malgré l'absence de formation en LSP (Raby & Campanale, 2008). Il s'agit de « motivation en formation langagière » qui est la capacité d'un acteur à planifier et réguler le processus

d'enseignement ou d'apprentissage. Cette capacité est communément désignée dans la littérature scientifique comme le « contrôle de l'action » (Heckhausen & Heckhausen, 2008). La question du contrôle de l'enseignant sur sa classe montre l'importance de l'interaction enseignant-savoir qui a ensuite un impact sur l'apprentissage de l'étudiant. La classe de langue place les enseignants dans un environnement dynamique (Raby, 2008b) et pose le problème du champ de contrôle de l'enseignant qui se caractérise par l'étendue des informations immédiatement disponibles pour lui et par ses possibilités d'action.

Étant donné ces raisons, le champ de contrôle de l'enseignant est faible : celui-ci a peu de possibilités d'action sur certaines causes premières et cela le force à opérer des actions correctrices plutôt qu'anticipatrices. Cette première réflexion indique le lien entre le contenu du cours (LSP) et le contrôle que l'enseignant a sur sa classe. Cependant, une part de variabilité apparaît dans les pratiques d'enseignement: les enseignants investissent des marges de manœuvre qui existent par-delà les contraintes à l'intérieur de ce cadre contraignant. La diversité tient à la liberté pédagogique qui révèle la dimension personnelle de chaque pratique enseignante.

3.1.3. Dimension cognitive

La dimension cognitive se traduit par l'absence de véritable formation didactique en LSP (Festinger, 1957 ; Raby, 2009) pour les enseignants-chercheurs de ce secteur. En raison de cette absence, il en résulte :

- un impact sur leur identité professionnelle. En effet, l'environnement joue un rôle décisif dans le développement de l'identité (cf. travaux de psychanalystes comme Winnicott). On trouve une idée semblable chez Sainsaulieu (1977) qui a étudié l'identité professionnelle : « un espace de travail modèle les individus par l'intensité de la vie relationnelle qui s'y déroule ». Elle est donc indissociable du champ de l'activité, en l'occurrence, celui de l'enseignement d'une langue étrangère ou d'une LSP.
 - un impact sur l'engagement (sentiment d'efficacité chez Bandura, 2003) et de ce fait tant du point de vue de leur engagement (par rapport à ce qu'ils enseignent) dans la tâche (sentiment d'efficacité) que du point de vue de son maintien. Dans ce cas, l'impact se comprend dans le sens de la difficulté.
 - parfois même des états de dissonance motivationnelle, c'est-à-dire que l'individu n'a pas les moyens d'atteindre les buts fixés par l'institution (Raby, 2009), ou de dissonance cognitive (pratiques contraires aux valeurs, Festinger 1957). Ces états peuvent se manifester et créer des moments de découragement.
- Il s'agit en effet de s'intéresser à la question du contenu (LSP) non plus en termes de pédagogie mais en passant par la recherche en LSP. Car il n'y a pas de consensus dans les pratiques de l'enseignement de la LSP et de régularité ou de « noyau stable » de cette LSP.

3.2. Point de vue de la recherche

3.2.1. Facteur affectif

Les trois enseignants-chercheurs (hors laboratoire de didactique) n'ont pas souhaité parler de leur recherche (silence), on peut parler de dissonance (cf.3.1.3). Les enseignants-chercheurs du laboratoire de didactique ont exprimé des motifs différents : trois enseignants-chercheurs ont répondu par l'« agir » quand on leur

pose une question sur le désir (réponse d'internalité), cela déclenche une verbalisation de protection de la face (Goffman, 1982), des stratégies d'évitement. En effet, l'identité professionnelle est menacée donc il y a une réponse d'externalité. Parmi eux, deux ont répondu ainsi : l'un qui débute : « je fais de mon mieux », l'autre qui a des années d'expériences : « je ne peux pas faire plus », et a rajouté « Bien plus chronophages et morceleuses de temps sont les innombrables réunions en tout genre. C'est ça le véritable obstacle à la recherche car, après tout, les cours servent à alimenter la recherche ». Trois autres enseignants-chercheurs ont répondu que c'est par goût, un plaisir, une façon de vivre au quotidien.

3.2.2. *Maintien et renouvellement de l'engagement du chercheur*

Les enseignants-chercheurs en LSP maintiennent et renouvellent leur engagement, malgré l'absence de reconnaissance de l'UT3. C'est normalement cette reconnaissance qui motive l'engagement des enseignants-chercheurs, mais elle constitue un problème majeur. En effet, en raison de la variété d'anglais enseignée, ces enseignants-chercheurs souffrent d'un double déficit d'estime pour deux raisons : leur discipline a un statut secondaire par rapport aux disciplines de spécialité et ils ne se sentent pas reconnus comme de vrais linguistes à la différence de leurs collègues des départements de langues. Les collègues enseignants-chercheurs scientifiques peinent à reconnaître le travail des enseignants-chercheurs en LSP à l'UT3 et donc à leur octroyer une légitimité scientifique ; d'une certaine manière, ces derniers sont exclus de ces communautés : leur méthodologie est différente de celle reconnue par la communauté scientifique d'appartenance (disciplinaire et contexte de travail). Ces réticences voire résistances n'encouragent guère la prise de risque de l'inter- ou de la pluri-disciplinarité, qui permettrait pourtant de poser la question du contenu donc de la LSP (Rabaté, 2013). Les collègues scientifiques ne voient pas le lien entre la recherche des collègues en LSP et le contexte de l'université scientifique. Ils perçoivent les enseignants comme « des spécialistes du mot » (Beacco, 2017 : 143). Ils tendent à voir l'anglais comme « une discipline où la langue est essentialisée » (*Ibid.* : 27) car les scientifiques (de sciences expérimentales) ont des critères de scientificité différents de ceux dans les domaines des langues (ex. protocole d'expérimentation, notion de preuve).

Les enseignants-chercheurs en LSP poursuivent leurs actions et efforts dans la recherche, ce qui signifie implicitement qu'ils parviennent à une compétence minimale dans le domaine de recherche (et d'enseignement). Les raisons sont multiples : personnelles comme la carrière, déontologiques (faire de la recherche car c'est la mission de l'enseignant-chercheur), collectives comme le soutien de l'engagement par la communauté des enseignants-chercheurs, intellectuelles car la recherche elle-même est comme une aventure intellectuelle ou une passion.

4. Vers une réflexion épistémologique

L'analyse supra rejette la réflexion épistémologique initiée par quelques enseignants-chercheurs du domaine et toujours en cours : « Les linguistes n'ont pas encore totalement intégré le spécialisé dans leur vision épistémologique des LSP » (Van der Yeught, 2014). Van der Yeught (2014) préconise donc de fonder les LSP sur ce qui constitue leur « noyau central et stable » et non sur les « conditions passagères » d'un type d'apprentissage comme en ESP. Ce noyau

pourrait être l'intersection entre une langue et un domaine de spécialité. Le problème vient de la nature d'un des deux éléments de l'intersection, à savoir la spécialité qui est surtout disciplinaire ou professionnelle avant d'être linguistique. Or, les chercheurs, qui sont avant tout des linguistes de par leur formation, ne sont pas familiers avec ces domaines.

Pour être reconnue, la recherche en didactique et LSP doit satisfaire des critères de validité scientifique (ex. méthode). Or, la crédibilité pèse sur l'engagement dans le métier de chercheur en LSP. La recherche en LSP/LANSAD peine à être reconnue comme recherche (expérimentale) par les chercheurs scientifiques de l'UT3 qui considèrent ce type de recherche seulement comme des études de langue ne prenant pas en compte les méthodes et concepts issus des sciences sociales.

Les enseignants-chercheurs de l'UT3 travaillent dans le domaine des LSP. Certains ont débuté une réflexion sur l'épistémologie des LSP/ LANSAD. Cependant, une unité dans la recherche en LANSAD/LSP doit également être générée par exemple dans des unités de recherche (ex. équipes). Pour ce faire, il est nécessaire de rassembler des enseignants-chercheurs dont la mission ne peut « exister » que par leur engagement dans l'enseignement et la recherche dans le même champ professionnel et cognitif. L'enseignant-chercheur est censé enseigner ce qu'il puise dans sa recherche et sa recherche ne peut évoluer que si elle est nourrie de ses pratiques d'enseignement. C'est pourquoi il est essentiel de poursuivre ce travail et d'établir une épistémologie des LSP. Il s'agit d'interroger le bien-fondé de ce que nous croyons et faisons, en essayant de rendre le plus objectif possible notre retour sur ces fondements (Macaire & J.-P. Narcy-Combes, 2010 : 13-14). Quoi qu'il en soit, l'épistémologie est nécessaire quand on évoque le discours sur le savoir.

Les liens qui relient l'épistémologie d'un domaine de la connaissance (LSP), la constitution de l'objet LSP/ASP et sa mise en œuvre par le dispositif didactique et par la tâche n'ont pas été discutés de manière systématique, y compris la relation entre discours scientifique sur l'objet (épistémologie) et la dimension représentative des croyances issues de la pratique des chercheurs.

Par conséquent, les questions épistémologiques intégreront la perspective didactique car une discipline d'enseignement ne suffit pas plus à produire sa propre épistémologie ou son histoire qu'à produire sa didactique, parce que les questions n'appartiennent pas au champ de la discipline mais relèvent de ses conditions sociales d'existence (Mercier, 2008). C'est pourquoi, selon Mercier (2008), l'identification des organisations disciplinaires à usage didactique est un travail spécifiquement didactique.

5. Illustration

Voyons à présent quelles perspectives de recherche en LSP peuvent être engagées. Nous partirons de notre recherche en anglais des sciences que nous replacerons tout d'abord dans la langue des sciences car le territoire des sciences est géographiquement et temporellement vaste et évolutif. Notre but est de pallier le manque d'articulation entre le spécialisé et la langue ainsi que le manque de réflexion didactique liée à cette articulation. Il existe une « osmose entre les dimensions culturelles et langagières qui correspond à une représentation professionnelle commune : celle-ci est mise en circulation et comme symbolisée

par le mot composé langue-culture, commode, mais faussement symétrique, du fait de la juxtaposition non problématisée entre les deux éléments » (Beacco, 2017 : 23).

En effet, notre démarche se fonde sur l'idée que les éléments de la situation didactique (enseignant, apprenant, savoir) doivent être introduits dès le début de la réflexion sur l'élaboration de l'objet « anglais des sciences ». L'anglais des sciences est bien plus que l'anglais scientifique (la somme de ses parties) ; c'est un système qui favorise l'émergence d'un certain nombre de qualités nouvelles qui n'étaient pas présentes dans les parties séparées (Morin, 1990).

La formation en anglais pour les scientifiques devrait reposer sur la recherche qui a pour tâche d'identifier et de décrire une variété d'ASP en « science » appropriée à la formation scientifique. Par rapport à la formation globale de l'étudiant, l'articulation entre langue et sciences manque de consistance. Les étudiants scientifiques ont des compétences et des connaissances dans leur domaine de spécialité, à l'inverse des enseignants anglicistes qui ont généralement un déficit d'expertise dans ce domaine mais sont spécialistes de la langue. On peut y voir l'absence d'un socle de connaissances (*common knowledge*, Chevallard, 2016) entre les deux communautés d'enseignants, qui ne favorise pas le lien interdisciplinaire tant requis dans les programmes de recherche et de formation, ni dans la compréhension du champ de la science. Il n'y a donc pas de « dialogue disciplinaire », ni de coopération entre les enseignants-rechercheurs linguistes et scientifiques qui appartiennent à la même université. Ceci implique également une difficulté à faire dialoguer les apprenants et les enseignants dans ce contexte. La question qui se pose alors est la suivante : comment créer un *common knowledge* ? En effet, l'idée est de l'élaborer au sein d'un dispositif d'enseignement-apprentissage de l'anglais dans un esprit de médiation entre les étudiants et les enseignants scientifiques la culture scientifique par le biais des disciplines dites « humaines » dont la science est le point commun, à savoir la philosophie, l'histoire et la sociologie des sciences dans une perspective d'enseignement. Même si ces disciplines sont différentes, elles ne sont pas moins en relation avec la science et la langue et intègrent la perspective didactique. Nous pensons qu'il faudrait établir l'anglais des sciences comme un objet hybride complexe et analyser sa structure interne ainsi que les interactions disciplinaires qu'il suscite. Cette recherche contribuera à modifier la formation en anglais des enseignants et donc leur donnera un nouveau rôle et une nouvelle vision du cours d'anglais des sciences dans les universités scientifiques.

Conclusion

L'engagement de l'enseignant-chercheur dans sa mission d'enseignement et de recherche relève de facteurs multiples et complexes liés à l'individu et au contexte d'exercice. Tout d'abord, lorsque le chercheur choisit son sujet de recherche, il le fait en fonction de ce qu'il pense, croit, et de certains paramètres personnels qui dépendent de sa subjectivité (Narcy-Combes, 2008). Il dépend également de la contrainte institutionnelle due au statut de l'enseignant-chercheur qui lui confère une liberté pédagogique et de recherche. Il en résulte que la recherche en LSP/LANSAD est variable et part essentiellement des enseignants-chercheurs et non à la fois des besoins de formation, de l'université et du ministère qui a délégué la responsabilité sur ceux-ci. Or, la recherche est essentielle pour permettre

l'existence de formation en LSP et en sciences et dans d'autres disciplines, les formations étant adossées à la recherche. Ce type de recherche est donc pluri-, inter-disciplinaire voire transdisciplinaire (Morin) et donc l'enseignant-chercheur devra non pas être spécialiste de ces domaines mais former des collaborations avec des chercheurs d'autres disciplines et donc « intégrer » d'autres champs disciplinaires, d'autres chercheurs dans leur recherche en plus d'autres contextes de travail.

Annexe : Questionnaire sur l'engagement de l'enseignant-chercheur

Quel type d'anglais enseignez-vous ? :

A quels niveaux ? L1 L2 L3 M1 M2

Quel type de public d'étudiants ?

Quels contenus (brièvement) :

Part d'investissement dans votre préparation avant le cours (nombre d'heures) :

Pourquoi ?

Part d'investissement après le cours (ex. suivi de mémoires) :

Pourquoi ?

Intérêt pour le cours (ex. goût personnel, plaisir, contrainte) :

Par rapport à la recherche, vous estimatez que vos enseignements vous prennent :

peu de temps un temps correct trop de temps

Raisons :

Votre type de recherche :

S'inscrit-elle dans le projet scientifique de votre laboratoire ?

Souhaitez-vous faire un autre type de recherche ?

Pourquoi ?

Part d'investissement dans votre recherche (échelle de Likert):
1.....2.....3.....4.....5.

Pourquoi ?

Références

- Bandura, A. (2003) *Auto-efficacité. Le sentiment d'efficacité personnelle*, Paris : Éditions De Boeck Université.
- Beacco, J.-C. (2017) *L'altérité en classe de langue. Pour une méthodologie éducative*, Paris : Didier.
- Bronckart, J. P. (Ed.) (2004). *Pourquoi et comment analyser l'agir verbal et non verbal en situation de travail* (Vol. 103), Genève : Université de Genève. Faculté de psychologie et des sciences de l'éducation.
- Chevallard, Y. (2016) *Tout est général, tout est particulier : la didactique et les langues*, Texte issu de notes préparatoires à un exposé présenté à Toulouse le 15 avril 2016, dans le cadre du LAIRDIL.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001) *Teaching and Researching Motivation*, Harlow : Longman.
- Dubé L., Jodoin M. & Kairouz S. (1997) « L'engagement : un gage de bonheur ? » *Revue québécoise de psychologie*, Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 211-237.
- Festinger, L. (1957) *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Evanston, IL: Row and Peterson.

- Goffman, E. (1982) *Interaction Ritual: Essays on Face-to-Face Behavior*, New York : Pantheon Books.
- Heckhausen, J. & Heckhausen, H. (Eds.). (2008) *Motivation and action*, New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Jodoin M. (2000) *Engagement et sureengagement au travail : composantes psychologiques, antécédents potentiels et association avec le bien-être personnel*, Thèse de doctorat inédite, Université de Montréal, Montréal, Canada.
- Joule R.V. & Beauvois J.L. (1998) *La soumission librement consentie*, Paris : Presses universitaires de France.
- Kiesler, C.A., & Sakumura J. (1966) "A Test of a Model of Commitment", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 3, No. 3, pp.349-353.
- Macaire, D. & Narcy-Combes, J.-P. (2010) *Le Français dans le Monde, Recherches & Applications*, Vol. 48.
- Mémet, M. (2001) Bref historique de l'enseignement et de la recherche en anglais de spécialité en France : de l'anglais pour non spécialiste à l'anglistique du secteur LANSAD. In: Mémet, M. & Petit, M. (eds.), *L'anglais de spécialité en France : Mélanges en l'honneur de Michel Perrin*, ASp n° spécial.
- Mercier, A. (2008) Pour une lecture anthropologique du programme didactique *Éducation et didactique*, Vol. 2, No. 1. <http://educationdidactique.revues.org/251>
- Morin, E. (1990) *Introduction à la pensée complexe* Paris: Seuil.
- Narcy-Combes, J.-P., Narcy-Combes, M.-F., & Starkey-Perret, R. (2009) « Discours des enseignants sur leur formation et leur métier : quel lien avec la motivation des élèves ? Résultats d'une enquête préliminaire », *Lidil*, Vol. 40, pp.139-157.
- Narcy-Combes J.-P. (2008) « Conventionnel ou non conventionnel, une distinction trompeuse » *Les Cahiers de l'ASDFLE*, pp.79-93.
- Petit, M. (2002) « Éditorial », ASp, Vol. 35-36, pp.1-3.
- Petit, M. (2010) « Le discours spécialisé et le spécialisé du discours : repères pour l'analyse du discours en anglais de spécialité », *E-reas*, Vol. 8, No. 1. <http://erea.revues.org/14>.
- Rabatel, A. (2013) « L'engagement du chercheur, entre 'éthique d'objectivité' et 'éthique de subjectivité' », *Argumentation et Analyse de Discours*, Vol. 10. <http://aad.revues.org/1526>.
- Raby, F. (2005) A User-Centered Ergonomic Approach to CALL Research. In: Egbert, J. & Petrie, G. (éds), *CALL Research Perspectives*, Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, pp.179-190.
- Raby, F. (2007). "A triangular approach to motivation in Computer Assisted Autonomous Language Learning (CAALL)", *ReCALL*, Vol. 19, No. 2, pp.181-201.
- Raby, F. (2008a) *ESCALE : Évaluation d'un scénario cyber-collaboratif pour l'apprentissage d'une langue vivante étrangère*, rapport de recherche, Grenoble, LIDILEM, Université Stendhal-Grenoble 3 et Université Pierre Mendès France.
- Raby F. (2008b) « Comprendre la motivation en LV2 : quelques repères venus d'ici et d'ailleurs », *Les Langues Modernes*, No. 3, version longue disponible en ligne, http://www.aplv-languesmodernes.org/IMG/pdf/3_2008_art_Raby VERSIONSITE.pdf
- Raby, F. (2009) L'analyse de l'activité dans l'enseignement et l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère (Le cas de l'anglais LVE) Une démarche ergonomique. Synthèse d'HDR. Grenoble: Université Stendhal - Grenoble 3.

- Raby, F. (2018) « La motivation : démarches et méthodologies ». *Cycle de séminaires du LAIRDIL 2018 : Confluences en didactique des langues/LANSAD*, 2 février, 2018, IUT de Toulouse.
- Raby, F. & Campanale, F. (2008) *Une approche ergonomique du métier d'enseignant de langues dans un environnement hautement dynamique*, ACI École et sciences cognitives, axe 3 : la dynamique des apprentissages. Rapport disponible sur <http://www.grenoble.iufm.fr/fraby/programmes%20de%20recherche.htm>
- Roditi, E. (2003) « Régularité et variabilité des pratiques ordinaires d'enseignement », *Recherches en Didactique des Mathématiques, La Pensée Sauvage*, Vol. 23, No. 2, pp.183-216.
- Sainsaulieu, R. (1977) *L'Identité au travail, Les effets culturels de l'organisation*, Paris : Presses de la FNSP.
- Theureau, J. (2006) *Le cours d'action : méthode développée*, Toulouse : Octares.
- Van der Yeught, M. (2014) « Développer les langues de spécialité dans le secteur LANSAD –Scénarios possibles et parcours recommandé pour contribuer à la professionnalisation des formations », *Recherche et pratiques pédagogiques en langues de spécialité*, Vol. 33, No. 1, pp.12-32.
- Van der Yeught, M. (2016) « Protocole de description des langues de spécialité », *Recherche et pratiques pédagogiques en langues de spécialité* Vol. 35, No. spécial 1.<http://journals.openedition.org/apliut/5549> ; DOI : 10.4000/apliut.5549.

**DIE ROLLE MEDIZINISCHER WISSENSVERMITTLUNG IN ARZT-PATIENTEN-GESPRÄCHEN:
DIE BEDEUTUNG DES ÄRZTLICHEN CODE-WECHSELS IN
HAUSÄRZTLICHEN KONSULTATIONEN**

THE ROLE OF MEDICAL KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER IN DOCTOR-PATIENT INTERACTIONS: THE IMPORTANCE OF MEDICAL CODE SWITCHING IN GENERAL PRACTITIONERS' CONSULTATIONS

Katalin Fogarasi¹, Rita Kránicz², Renáta Halász², Anikó Hambuch²

¹ Institut für Fachsprachen, Semmelweis Universität Budapest, Ungarn

fogarasi-nuber.katalin@semmelweis-univ.hu

² Institut für Fachsprachen und Medizinische Kommunikation, Medizinische Fakultät der Universität Pécs, Ungarn

hambucha@gmail.com

rita.kranicz@aok.pte.hu

renata.halasz@aok.pte.hu

Abstract: General practitioners frequently induce therapies based on findings presented by patients and obtained previously from specialists who performed clinical examinations on them. As any kind of medical treatment (including medication) is to be considered as bodily harm from a criminal legal perspective, seeking informed consent from the patient is prescribed by law in every case. Due to the extensive use of professional terminology in medical documentation, it is essential that patients are provided with detailed explanations of their clinical findings by their general practitioners, so that they can give their consent based on real understanding. For such reasons, however, effective code-switching is needed, requiring both terminological and communicative competencies. The present pilot study provides a terminological and conversation analytical examination of 10 general practitioner-patient conversations related to medical findings by clinical specialists, using concordancing and transcription software applications. The conversations took place in the practices of general practitioners in the countryside of Hungary, and involved mainly less-educated patients. The terminological and concordance analyses focused on the use of terms in medical documentation and during code-switching as well as on phraseological units introducing diagnosis disclosure. Conversation analytical methods were applied to find out which communicative functions can be fulfilled by switching code, and how code-switching is apparent in the interactions. The authors plan to extend the research to find practical solutions for the communication failures in order to establish the framework of the targeted education of medical students on disclosing diagnoses to patients, involving the practicing of terminological and communication skills at the same time. The results provide a basis for the elaboration of practical courses in which Hungarian and German medical students can practise diagnosis disclosure in peer groups.

Keywords: medical terminology; phraseological units; code-switching; professional language use; disclosing diagnoses; conversation analysis

1. Einführung

Ärztinnen und Ärzte müssen einerseits die griechisch-lateinische medizinische Terminologie beherrschen, andererseits aber die Fachausdrücke der Alltagssprache einsetzen können, wenn sie mit Patienten im Gespräch sind. Ein wesentliches Element des effektiven Austausches zwischen Arzt und Patient ist der richtige Einsatz des Wechsels zwischen diesen Sprachen durch die behandelnden Ärztinnen und Ärzte.

Im Rahmen einer Pilotstudie soll der ärztliche Code- oder Sprachwechsel in ungarischen Hausarztpraxen im Falle der Erklärung von klinischen Befunden analysiert werden. In einer Vergleichsanalyse werden einerseits sowohl die Befunde als auch die Transkriptionen der Arzt-Patienten-Gespräche aus terminologischer Sicht, andererseits die Arzt-Patienten-Dialoge aus einer gesprächsanalytisch-funktionalen Betrachtungsweise untersucht.

In diesem Beitrag wird auf die rechtlichen Aspekte und dadurch die Bedeutung der Wissensvermittlung in den Arzt-Patienten-Konsultationen hingewiesen und die ersten Ergebnisse einer Pilotstudie zur Patientenaufklärung in einer hausärztlichen Praxis bekannt gegeben. An der Medizinischen Fakultät der Universität Pécs wurde im Jahre 2019 ein Pilotkurs ins Leben gerufen, in dem deutsche und ungarische Studierende der Medizin aus höheren Semestern im Rahmen einer Peergroup den Codewechsel an ungarisch- und deutschsprachigen Schauspielpatienten üben können. Die gegenwärtige Studie dient der Analyse der Diagnosemittelung zuerst in der ungarischen Praxis sowie der gültigen rechtlichen Grundlagen in beiden Ländern.

2. Rechtlicher Hintergrund der Patientenaufklärung

Strafrechtlich gesehen gilt jede medizinische Behandlung (sowohl instrumentelle Untersuchungen oder Eingriffe als auch medikamentöse Therapien) als Körperverletzung (§ 223 ff. StGB). Durch die Einwilligung des Patienten/der Patientin ist diese aber nicht rechtmäßig (§ 34 StGB; Jansen, 2019). Ohne die Einwilligung des Patienten/der Patientin wird der Tatbestand einer Körperverletzung jedoch erfüllt (Jobbágyi, 2013). Im Falle einwilligungsunfähiger Patienten wird die Einwilligung von dem dazu Berechtigten abgegeben, oder bei unaufschiebbaren Maßnahmen kann die Maßnahme auch ohne die Einwilligung durchgeführt werden, „wenn sie dem mutmaßlichen Willen des Patienten entspricht“ (Pramann, 2017).

Im Bürgerlichen Gesetzbuch sind weiterhin die Verpflichtungen des Arztes zur Patientenaufklärung im Sinne eines Behandlungsvertrages (§§ 630 a ff. BGB) festgelegt, in dem 2013 die Arzt-Patienten-Beziehung auf eine gesetzliche Grundlage gestellt wurde (Pramann, 2017). In Ungarn galt bis zu den 1990-er Jahren eine sogenannte paternalistische Auffassung der Arzt-Patienten-Beziehung, die in dem Verhältnis zwischen Behandelndem und Behandeltem eine Über- und Unterordnung voraussetzte und keine expliziten Patientenrechte

formulierte (Jobbágyi, 2013a). Das ungarische Gesundheitsgesetz von 1997 erhebt die Arzt-Patienten-Beziehung auch auf eine bürgerlich-rechtliche Ebene und betont die Autonomie sowie die Gleichberechtigung der Parteien (Jobbágyi, 2013b). Es bestimmt weiterhin, dass zwischen Behandelndem und Behandeltem ein bürgerlich-rechtlicher Vertrag besteht (Jobbágyi, 2013b).

Nach dem bürgerlichen Gesetz ist der Behandelnde verpflichtet, „vor einer medizinischen Maßnahme die Einwilligung des Patienten nach Aufklärung einzuholen“ (§ 630 d BGB zitiert von Pramann 2017 sowie Ung. GG von 1997. CLIV. tv. 5. § (32)). Gemäß dieser Verpflichtungen muss der Arzt den Patienten u.a. über „Art, Umfang, Durchführung, zu erwartende Folgen und Risiken der Maßnahme sowie ihre Notwendigkeit, Dringlichkeit, Eignung und Erfolgsaussichten im Hinblick auf Diagnose oder Therapie“ (Pramann, 2017) aufklären.

Die Aufklärung muss nach dem deutschen Gesetzgeber mündlich und rechtzeitig erfolgen (BGB 670e (2) 1 und 2.), sie soll in beiden Ländern für den Patienten verständlich sein (Ung. GG von 1997. CLIV. §13. (8), BGB 630 e (2) 3.). Im ungarischen Gesetz steht allerdings auch, dass die Aufklärung „in einer individualisierten Form“ erfolgen soll (Ung. GG von 1997 CLIV. §13. (1), was in der Praxis wohl ebenfalls auf eine mündliche Aufklärung hinausläuft. „Dabei muss sich der Arzt auf den Patienten einstellen, auf seinen körperlichen, seelischen und geistigen Zustand“ (Pramann, 2017 sowie fast wortwörtlich im Ung. GG von 1997. CLIV. §13. (8)).

Ärzte sind ebenfalls zur Dokumentation verpflichtet, geregelt in § 630 f BGB sowie in Ungarn im § 136 Ung. GG. Der Zweck der medizinischen Dokumentation ist, dass Patienten als Laien ihre Entscheidung bezüglich weiterer Maßnahmen in Kenntnis der ausführlichsten Informationen treffen und die Meinung anderer Ärzte einholen können. Ferner kann die Dokumentation als Beweismittel in Haftungsprozessen dienen (Schneider, 2017). Patienten haben das Recht, die über sie angefertigte Dokumentation kennen zu lernen, (Ung. GG von 1997 CLIV. § 24), weiterhin eventuelle Fehler korrigieren zu lassen (Ung. GG von 1997 CLIV § 4 (4)). Das heißt, Patienten sind ebenfalls Adressaten der über sie angefertigten Dokumentation, allerdings bedürfen sie beim Verständnis der Fachtermini professioneller Hilfe. Da unter medizinischen Experten die einzige eindeutige und genaue Kommunikation medizinisch-fachlicher Inhalte durch die Verwendung griechisch-lateinischer Termini möglich ist (Fogarasi, 2018), muss der behandelnde Arzt dem Patienten die Bedeutungen der Fachausdrücke in jedem Fall in einer für ihn verständlichen Sprache d.h. mit Hilfe von synonymen Ausdrücken der Nationalsprache oder Umschreibungen erklären.

Die Erklärung der Diagnosen erfordert in jedem Fall einen Code-Wechsel, zumal sich Ärzte im Rahmen des Medizinstudiums die ständige Verwendung griechisch-lateinischer Termini angewöhnt haben, um fachliche Inhalte so genau wie möglich auszudrücken. Da im Umgang mit Patienten diese Genauigkeit ebenfalls erforderlich ist, stellt es sprachlich nicht selten eine große Herausforderung dar, entsprechend der Aufnahmefähigkeit und -Bereitschaft sowie den Bedürfnissen eines gegebenen Patienten die gleichen Begriffe mit synonymen,

nationalsprachlichen Wörtern zu benennen.

Dies ist besonders der Fall, wenn ein Arzt seine Behandlung auf Grundlage von Diagnosen einleitet, die von einem anderen Facharzt gestellt wurden wie etwa in Hausarztpraxen. Hausärzte können eine Reihe von spezifischen Untersuchungen nicht durchführen, deshalb überweisen sie ihre Patienten regelmäßig zu Spezialisten. Die Durchführung der Therapie sowie die Weiterverfolgung des Behandlungsprozesses ist jedoch wieder ihre Aufgabe, zu der sie in jedem Fall die Einwilligung ihrer Patienten einholen müssen. Eine rechtlich relevante Bedingung für die Einwilligung ist in diesem Fall die Erklärung der klinischen Befunde, die die Patienten vom Spezialisten zum Hausarzt zurückbringen.

Klinische Diagnosen werden in Ungarn immer seltener mit den im medizinischen Diskurs als einzig und alleinig eindeutig geltenden griechisch-lateinischen Termini, sondern mit Hilfe der ICD-Codierung angegeben, deren Verwendung für Abrechnungszwecke in Ungarn verpflichtend ist. Bei der Verwendung der ICD-Codierung werden die Diagnosen mit Diagnosekategorien und Codes aus der ungarischen Übersetzung der ICD-Klassifikation verschlüsselt. Die ICD (International Classification of Diseases) ist ein von der Weltgesundheitsorganisation (WHO: World Health Organisation) herausgegebenes, weltweit anerkanntes Diagnoseklassifikationssystem (Schneider, 2017), das vor allem statistischen Zwecken dient. Die gängige ungarische Übersetzung der ICD-Diagnoseklassifikation (BNO-10:1995) enthält in ungefähr gleichem Maße griechisch-lateinische und ungarische Termini sowie gemischte Ausdrücke. Dadurch, dass die einzelnen Diagnosekategorien für den statistischen Vergleich konzipiert wurden, sind sie oft ziemlich allgemein gehalten. Zur Verallgemeinerung der Diagnosekategorien dienen verallgemeinernde Ausdrücke wie „ohne besondere Bezeichnung“, „nicht näher bezeichnet“, „sonstige“ etc. (Fogarasi, 2018). Selbst wenn Diagnosekategorien ungarische Elemente enthalten, stellt sich die Frage, wie allgemein sie formuliert sind und in welchem Maße sie auch eine detaillierte Erklärung durch den behandelnden Arzt erfordern.

3. Pilotstudie zum ärztlichen Code-Wechsel

Die terminologische Analyse der Befunde geht der Frage nach, wie eindeutig die Untersuchungsergebnisse in der Fachsprache zwischen Spezialist und Hausarzt formuliert werden, bzw. in wie vielen Fällen der Code-Wechsel in den Arzt-Patientengesprächen aus terminologischer Sicht erfolgreich stattfindet. Die Konkordanzanalyse untersucht, ob die Erklärungen von Diagnosen in Arzt-Patienten-Dialogen durch fachphraseologische Einheiten als Formulierungsmuster markiert werden, die normalerweise die hochgradig formalisierte Fachsprache der Medizin charakterisieren und vor allem als diskursgebundene Wendungen oder Kurztexte (Diskursphraseme, Phraseotexteme) bestimmte Gliederungseinheiten einleiten und markieren (Gréciano, 2006).

Die Gesprächsanalytische Annäherung beschäftigt sich mit den Fragen: a. Welche kommunikativen Aufgaben bzw. Funktionen können mit dem Sprachwechsel des Arztes verbunden werden? b. Wie wird der Code-Wechsel interaktiv sichtbar?

Hierbei folgt die Methodik der Tradition früherer Gesprächsanalytischer Untersuchungen von Arzt-Patienten-Gesprächen (Heritage and Maynard 2006;

Spranz-Fogassy, 2005; Koerfer und Köhle, 2008; Peters, 2015). Diese Studien beschrieben bzw. typisiertendurch die Untersuchung der sequenziellen Struktur und Muster der einzelnen Konsultationen die kommunikativen Aufgaben, die in und mit der Interaktion gelöst werden. (Deppermann, 2001) . Sie zeigten, dass durch die sequenzielle Analyse eines Gesprächs nicht nur die interaktive Struktur des Dialogs, sondern auch mögliche Asymmetrien (Wissen, Macht, Betroffenheit usw.), und an die sozialen Rollen gebundene Rechte und Pflichten der Gesprächspartner beschrieben werden können (Hambuch, 2013).

4. Untersuchungskorpora und -methoden

Zur Untersuchung des ärztlichen Code- oder Sprachwechsels wurden zwei Korpora herangezogen. Das erste Korpus basiert auf den schriftlichen Unterlagen, die von den Patienten in die hausärztliche Sprechstunde mitgebracht wurden. Die schriftliche Dokumentation wurde mit Hilfe der Konkordanzsoftware WordSmith 7.0 analysiert. Das zweite Korpus enthält transkribierte Texte von 10 Arzt-Patienten-Gesprächen, die in zwei Landarztpraxen in Südgarn aufgezeichnet und mit dem Programm FOLKER 1.2. transkribiert wurden. Die Länge der Gespräche beträgt 112 Minuten und 36 Sekunden. Das Alter der 4 Patientinnen lag zwischen 58-71 Jahren und das Alter der 6 Patienten zwischen 64-82 Jahren. Die Gespräche wurden im Rahmen hausärztlicher Konsultationen zur Klärung der Informationen der schriftlichen ärztlichen Dokumentation des ersten Korpus geführt.

4.1. Charakteristika der von Patienten in die Praxis mitgebrachten Dokumentation

Die von Patienten vorgelegten Dokumente widerspiegeln die Vielfalt der Textsorte „Arztbrief“, die die Grundlage der Kommunikation zwischen Ärzten, Institutionen und Patienten darstellen. Diese sind für den weiterbehandelnden Arzt konzipiert, enthalten aber auch wichtige praktische Informationen für die Patienten. Eine klare, übersichtliche Struktur wäre die Erwartung an diese Dokumente (Halász und Fogarasi, 2018), aber nur innerhalb einer beteiligten Institution ist eine einheitliche Struktur zu entdecken, ansonsten fehlt diese. In der Benennung der Befunde und Arztbriefe gibt es keine einheitliche Struktur. Die einzelnen strukturellen Einheiten werden meistens mit spezifischen Formulierungsmustern (Kühtz, 2007) eingeleitet, die aufgrund ihrer Häufigkeit und Festigkeit als Fachphraseme (Gréciano, 2006) betrachtet werden können (Halász und Fogarasi 2018).

Ungarischer Titel des Dokuments	Übersetzung
Ambulánslap (7)	Ambulantes Blatt
Ambulánslelet (1)	Ambulanter Befund
Radiológiailelet (3)	Radiologischer Befund
Zárójelentés (1)	Abschlussbericht
Klinikaizárójelentés (2)	Klinischer Abschlussbericht
Kórlap (1)	Krankheitsblatt
Lelet (6)	Befund
Keine Benennung (1) nur Briefkopf	Briefkopf: Diagnostisches Zentrum

Tabelle1: Die von Patienten mitgebrachte Dokumentation im Korpus 1

5. Ergebnisse der terminologischen Analyse der klinischen Befunde

Die klinischen Untersuchungsergebnisse waren in den meisten Fällen als Diagnosen ausformuliert. Die 15 Dokumentationen enthielten insgesamt 62, aus terminologischer Sicht vielfältige Diagnosen, die in Abbildung 1 zusammengefasst werden.

In vielen Fällen wurde das ICD-Klassifikationssystem für die Verschlüsselung der Diagnosen verwendet, das für die Bezeichnung eines jeden Krankheitsbildes oder Zustandes einen numerischen Code und eine dazu gehörige – meistens für statistische Zwecke ziemlich allgemein gehaltene – Diagnosekategorie anbietet.

In 3% hat der numerische ICD-Code eine medizinische Stellungnahme angedeutet, die Verschlüsselung wurde aber nicht einmal als Diagnosekategorie angegeben, z.B. M5450. In solchen Fällen muss sogar der weiterbehandelnde Arzt in der Klassifikation nachsehen, welche Veränderung hinter dem jeweiligen Code steckt.

Die restlichen Diagnosen wurden aus terminologischer Sicht nach Ursprung (individuell vom Arzt formuliert oder direkt aus der ICD-Klassifikation als ICD Kategorie übernommen), nach der Sprache (griechisch-lateinisch, abgekürzt mit LAT oder ungarisch, abgekürzt mit UNG) und nach der Genauigkeit und Eindeutigkeit (zu allgemein oder genau) klassifiziert. Als zu allgemein galten Diagnosen, die verallgemeinernde Ausdrücke wie „sonstige infiltrierende Veränderungen“ beinhalteten, oder eine Veränderung ohne spezifizierende Merkmale angaben (z.B. Herzkrankheit, nicht näher bezeichnet). Aufgrund der untersuchten Diagnosen lässt sich feststellen, dass die meisten eindeutigen und auf einen konkreten Patienten anwendbaren Diagnosen, mit Hilfe der griechisch-lateinischen Terminologie vom Arzt selber formuliert wurden (z.B. St. p. pneumoniam l.u. = Zustand nach beidseitiger Lungenentzündung, s. individuell LAT genau in Abbildung 1).

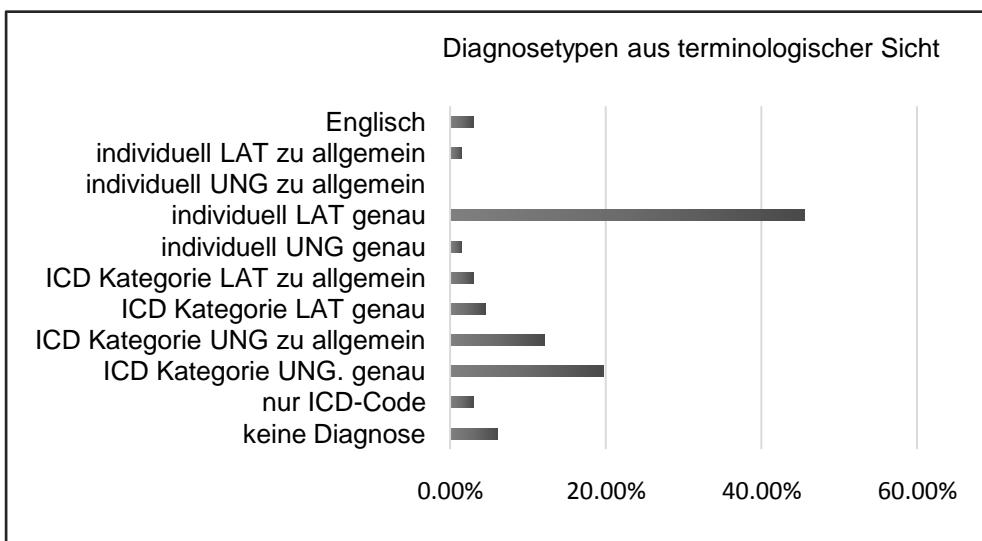


Abbildung 1: Typen der in der klinischen Dokumentation verwendeten Diagnosen aus terminologischer Sicht

In insgesamt 29 % der Fälle (inklusive der fehlenden Diagnosen) war die Stellungnahme in der klinischen Dokumentation zum Zustand des Patienten nicht informativ genug, um eine gründliche und ausführliche mündliche Patientenaufklärung als Grundlage der Patienteneinwilligung in die nachfolgende Behandlung entbehren zu können.

5.1. Ergebnisse der Konkordanzanalyse und terminologischen Untersuchung der Transkriptionen von Hausarzt-Patienten-Gesprächen

Die Transkriptionen wurden mit Hilfe einer Konkordanzanalyse nach Fachphrasemen (im Sinne von Halász und Fogarasi 2018) durchsucht, aber es wurden keine phraseologischen Einheiten gefunden, die die Erklärung der Diagnose innerhalb des Arzt-Patienten-Dialoges markiert hätten, z. B. „Das bedeutet, dass...“ etc. Allein Adverbien (z.B. also, deshalb) stellten einen Bezug zur Diagnose her. Aus fachphraseologischer Sicht konnte eine starke Kolloquialität der Konversation festgestellt werden.

Ein mehr oder weniger erfolgreicher Codewechsel aus terminologischer Sicht konnte nur im Falle von 8 Fachausdrücken entdeckt werden (Beispiele: Zuckerkrankheit statt Diabetes, Halsgefäß statt Arteria carotis), von denen sich 4 nicht auf die Diagnosen, sondern auf Symptome und sonstige Fremdwörter bezogen (Beispiele: eine erhöhte Leukozytenzahl im Laborbefund wurde für den Patienten mit Eiter „übersetzt“, Neurologe als Nervenarzt und Flecken statt intrapulmonaler Herde). In 3 Fällen ist der Codewechsel ausdrücklich misslungen, was an der Komplexität des zu erklärenden Begriffs, vermutlich der Schonung des Patienten und/oder am Fehlen nationalsprachlicher Synonyme lag (Beispiele: Zyste mit dem selben Wort, Krankheit statt Tumor, Kribbeln statt Polyneuropathie). In den Fällen, in denen die Erklärung nicht durch eine nationalsprachliche Entsprechung möglich war, bediente sich der Arzt ungenauer Hypo- und Hyperonyme bzw. einzelner Merkmale eines Krankheitsbildes.

6. Ergebnisse der gesprächsanalytisch-funktionalen Untersuchungen

6.1. Interaktive Transparenz des Code-Wechsels

Die Untersuchung der Dialogsequenzen mit Codewechsel richtete sich im ersten Schritt auf den zeitlichen Anteil dieser Gesprächsabschnitte. Abbildung 2 zeigt, wie klein der Anteil solcher Gesprächssequenzen im Vergleich zur Dauer des gesamten Gesprächs war, obwohl das Hauptziel jeder Konsultation die Besprechung der von den Patienten mitgebrachten medizinischen Dokumentation war (Abbildung 2).

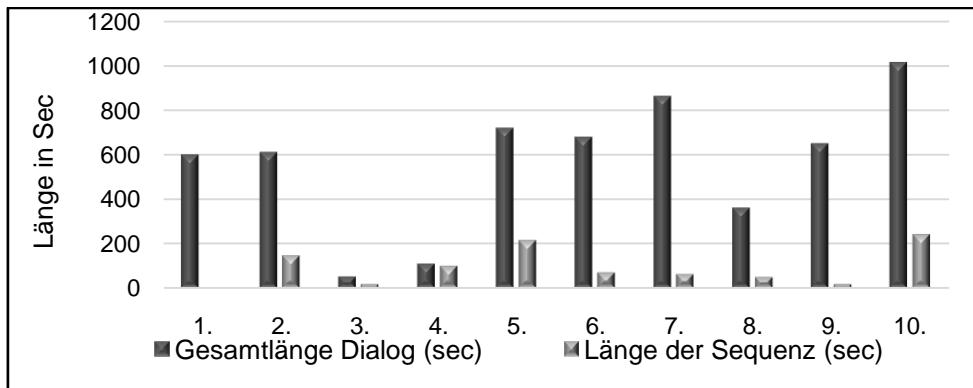


Abbildung 2: Gesprächssequenzen mit Codewechsel

Im zweiten Schritt der Untersuchung der Dialogsequenzen mit Codewechsel wurden die initialen Turns dieser Sequenzen analysiert und untersucht, von wem (der Arzt/A, der Patient/P oder die Sprechstundenhilfe/SH) und wie ein solcher Gesprächsteil initiiert wird. Früheren Forschungsergebnissen entsprechend (Brock und Meer, 2004) ergriff v.a. der Arzt die Initiative, wobei in Abbildung 3 auch ein relativ hoher Anteil von Patienteninitiativen zu beobachten ist, diese Initiierung wird jedoch sowohl vom Arzt als auch vom Patienten weniger in Form von Fragen, mehr durch Mitteilungen und Behauptungen verwirklicht.

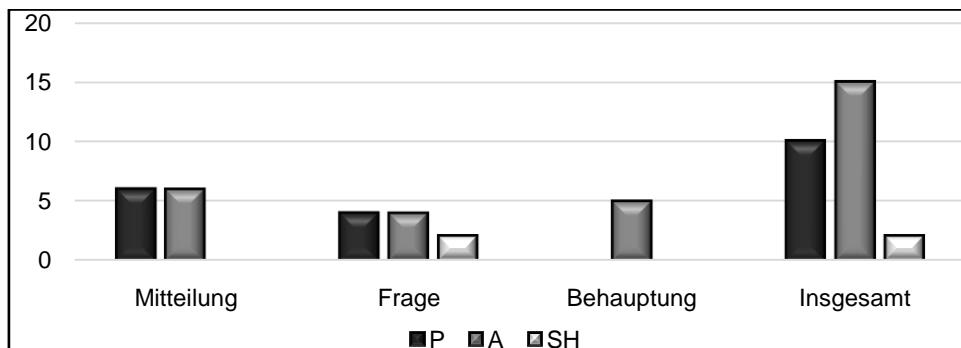


Abbildung 3: Initiale Turns der Sequenzen mit Codewechsel

6.2. Kommunikative Funktionen des Code-Switchings

Die qualitative Analyse der kommunikativen Funktionen des ärztlichen Codewechsels in den einzelnen Sequenzen ergab wie erwartet, dass der Arzt den Sprachwechsel in Erklärungen vornimmt. Überraschend war jedoch, dass diese kommunikative Strategie zur besseren Verständlichkeit medizinischer Informationen überwiegend die Erklärung therapeutischer Maßnahmen betraf und weniger der Verständigung der Informationen bezüglich der Diagnose oder des Krankheitsbildes des Patienten diente (Abbildung 4).

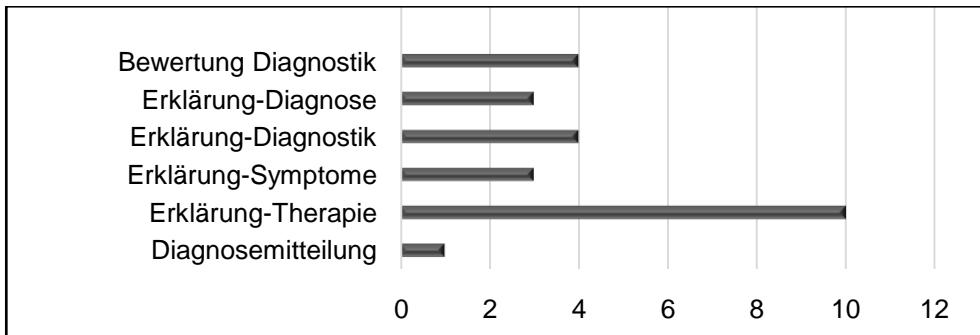


Abbildung 4: Kommunikative Funktionen des Codewechsels

6.3. Transkriptbeispiele

6.3.1. Beispiel 1: Erklärung der Diagnostik

Die Gesprächssequenz in der Tabelle 2 wurde vom Patienteninitiiert. Der ärztliche Codewechsel (006) erfolgte aufgrund des kommunikativen Anspruchs des Patienten, den in seinem dermatologischen Arztbrief stehenden Satz - und die daraus resultierenden Konsequenzen für ihn - zu verstehen:

„Der Patient soll sich wegen seines Hautsymptoms an der Schäfle an der Rezeption unserer Klinik zur Probeexzision melden.“ Um seinen kommunikativen Anspruch transparent zu machen, teilt er die Tatsache eines bevorstehenden diagnostischen Eingriffs mit (001-003). In 005 beschreibt er, wie ihm Probeexzision in der Klinik erklärt wurde: eine Probe rausgenommen wird. Er versteht aber die medizinische Indikation des Eingriffs nicht ganz. Seine Unsicherheit macht er dem Arzt durch die Mitteilung „nach Budapest geschickt wird ich weiß nicht wohin“ transparent. Scheinbar bezieht sich seine Unsicherheit auf den Ort der Untersuchung, der Hausarzt aber versteht, dass sein Patient den Begriff „histologische Untersuchung“ nicht benennen kann, und in 006 nennt er das Fachwort dafür, das der Patient in 007 schnell aufgreift.

```

{03:14} 001 P14 megyek (.) pénteken
        am Freitag (.) gehe ich
{03:16} 002 A1 = lesz egy Bőr beavatkozás
        =es wird einen eingriff an der HAut geben
        a Bőrből metszenek innen ki
        aus der HAut wird etwas hier ausgeschnitten
{03:19} 003 P14 =a professzor rendelte el;
        =der professor hat es angeordnet;
        Ő vizsgált meg engem (.) a PROFesszor
        er hat mich untersucht (.) der PROFessor
{03:23} 004 A1 aha
        hm
    
```

{03:24} 005 P14	az orvosom behívta; mein arzt hat ihn hereingerufen; ott volt a szomszédban valahol' er war irgendwo in der Nähe' és akkor azt mondta und dann hat er gesagt hogy két hét múlva (.) kiveszünk egy (.) mintát dass in zwei Wochen (.) eine Probe (.) rausgenommen wird és felküldjük budapestre .hhh nem tudom hova und nach Budapest geschickt wird .hhhich weiß nicht wohin
{03:34} 006 A1	=hát szövettani vizsgálat =die <u>gewebeprobeuntersuchung</u> halt
{03:35} 007 P14	=szövettani vizsgálat; =die <u>gewebeprobeuntersuchung</u> és ez pénteken reggel 8-kor und es am Freitag um acht Uhr

Tabelle 2: Transkriptausschnitt zum InhaltErklärung der Diagnostik; Gespräch Nr.14

6.3.2. Beispiel 2: Therapieerklärung

Die Gesprächssequenz in der Tabelle 3 wurde auch von einem Patienten initiiert. In seinem onkologischen Arztbrief berichtete der Onkologe über die Chemotherapie des Patienten: „Wegen mäßig erniedrigter Kreatinin-Clearance wird die Dosierung von Oxaliplatin auf 25% reduziert“. Der Erklärungsbedarf des Patienten bezieht sich auf die reduzierte Dosierung des verabreichten chemotherapeutischen Mittels. In 001 und 003 macht der Patient mit kurzen Mitteilungen seinen kommunikativen Anspruch transparent. In 002 und 004 wird die Ärztin dieser kommunikativen Aufgabe gerecht.

001 P15	<<p>de megnézik mindig ezt a vese meg a májt> <<p>aber diese Nieren und die Leber werden immer angesehen>
002 A2	.h ezt azért kell nézni .hier muss deshalb angesehen werden mert 660 a gyógyszer (.) amit kap (.) ez ugye ez a kemoterápiás szer denn ähm das Medikament (.) das sie bekommen (.) ist ja ein chemotherapeutisches Mittel <<acc>ez tudja bántani sajnos itt a vesét is a májat is> <<acc>es kann leider hier sowohl den Nieren als auch der Leber etwas angetan werden> öhm .h a legutóbbi vérvételeknél, egy picikét úgy találták hogy hogy a vese [nem működött annyira jól] ähm .h bei der letzten Blutentnahme wurde ein bisschen so gefunden dass dass [die Niere nicht so gut funktionierte
003 P15	láttam hogy VAstagon volt odairva] ich sah dass es Fett draufgeschrieben war]
004 A2	=igen igen igen =ja ja ja és Ezért egy kicsivel kevesebb gyógyszert tettek bele (.) hogy azért kíméljék a vese; und deshalb haben sie ein bisschen weniger Medikament da reingetan (.) damit sie die Nieren schonen
005 P15	=igen igen =ja ja

Tabelle 3: Transkriptausschnitt zum InhaltTherapieerklärung; Gespräch Nr.15

7. Diskussion

In der vorliegenden Pilotstudie wurde die ärztliche Wissensvermittlung in hausärztlichen Konsultationen in den Mittelpunkt gestellt. Vor dem Hintergrund eines speziellen Konsultationsanlasses – in die Konsultation neu mitgebrachte medizinische Dokumentation der Patienten - wurde kontrastiv mit einem terminologischen und einem gesprächsanalytisch-funktionalen Ansatz den Wissenstransfer zwischen Arzt und Patienten untersucht.

Die terminologische Analyse zeigte eine Vielfalt von Diagnoseformulierungen (in 15 Unterlagen 62 unterschiedliche Diagnosenbenennungen) und wies in fast einem Drittel der Fälle eine aus terminologischer Sicht mangelhafte klinische Stellungnahme zum Zustand des Patienten nach. In den Dialogtexten fehlten solche phraseologischen Einheiten, die die Erklärung der Diagnose eingeleitet hätten.

Aus terminologischer Sicht konnte insgesamt in 8 Fällen ein mehr oder weniger erfolgreicher Codewechsel festgestellt werden.

Die Untersuchung kommunikativer Funktionen des Codewechsels zeigte, dass Gesprächssequenzen mit Mitteilung bzw. Erklärung der Diagnose in den Gesprächen weniger präsent waren, ein ärztlicher Sprachwechsel konnte überwiegend in Sequenzen mit Erklärung und Aushandlung möglicher therapeutischer Schritte beobachtet werden. Zeitlich waren Sequenzen mit durchgeführtem ärztlichen Codewechsel proportional zur Dauer der einzelnen Dialoge kurz. Die interaktive Ausarbeitung solcher Sequenzen lässt indirekt darauf schließen, dass keiner der Gesprächspartner großen Wert auf die genaue und ausführliche Klärung der medizinischen Informationen der Unterlagen legte. Die Gründe dafür können sehr vielfältig sein und bedürfen weiterer Forschungen. Aufgrund der vorliegenden Studie scheint die Arzt-Patienten-Beziehung dabei eine wesentliche Rolle zu spielen: Die PatientInnen beider Landarztpraxen haben einen langjährigen Kontakt und damit absolutes Vertrauen zu ihren Ärzten.

Dieses Vertrauensverhältnis benötigt nicht immer und nicht unbedingt weitgehende Erklärungen, bzw. die Bewältigung der Alltagswelt der PatientInnen – zu der auch die Art und Weise der Durchführung der benötigten Therapie gehört - kann mehr in den Vorschein rücken und als wichtigstes kommunikatives Ziel durch die und mit der interaktiven Struktur der Gespräche etabliert werden.

Weitere Gründe für die teils unerwarteten Ergebnisse dieser Studie können im soziodemografischen Hintergrund – wie relativ hohes Alter und niedrigeres Bildungsniveau - der PatientInnen gesucht werden. Diese Faktoren verstärken die asymmetrischen Wissens- und Rollenverhältnisse der Gesprächspartner. Auf der Interaktionsebene könnte dafür die dargelegte Ausarbeitung von initialen Turns erklärender Gesprächssequenzen als Beispiel herangezogen werden: Statt direkte Fragen zu stellen, initiiert sowohl der Arzt als auch der Patient solche Sequenzen eher mit Mitteilungen. Patienten deuten Fakten aus ihrer Alltagswelt an, etwa wie „am Freitag muss ich gehen“, oder „diese Leber- und Nierenwerte werden immer angesehen“, wobei die erste Patientenäußerung auf die im dermatologischen Arztbrief verordnete Probeexzision, in dem zweiten Beispiel auf die durchgeführte, neulich geänderte Chemotherapie hindeutete. In beiden Fällen hatten die Patienten Erklärungsbedarf, im ersten Fall, weil der Terminus Probeexzision für den Patienten unbekannt war, im zweiten Fall, weil der onkologische

Entlassungsbefreiung den folgenden Abschnitt beinhaltete: „*Wegen mäßig erniedrigter Kreatinin-Clearance wird die Dosierung von Oxaliplatin auf 25% reduziert*“. In dieser Situation wusste der Patient nicht genau, warum die Dosis des chemotherapeutischen Mittels reduziert wurde, und war vielleicht um die Wirksamkeit der Therapie besorgt. Keiner der Patienten stellte direkt eine Frage etwa wie „Was bedeutet“, oderäußerte sich konkret „Ich verstehe nicht“. Selbst die Ärzte – die ihrem Rollenverständnis entsprechend die meisten Sequenzen initiierten – fragten bis auf einen Fall nicht direkt, ob der Patient/die Patientin die Informationen der mitgebrachten ärztlichen Dokumentation verstehe. Sie leiteten ihre Erklärungen mit solchen Mitteilungen oder Behauptungen ein, die inhaltlich durch die Konkordanzanalyse detailliert beschrieben wurden, etwa wie „die Laborwerte sind schön“, „der Kliniker hat nichts Besonderes gefunden“ usw.

Zusammenfassend kann festgestellt werden, dass weder die terminologische noch die gesprächsanalytisch-funktionale Analyse eine standardisierte Struktur in der Informationsvermittlung nachweisen konnte. Beide Untersuchungen zeigten, dass der Wissenstransfer und der damit verbundene ärztliche Codewechsel vor allem im Zusammenhang mit der Therapie und ihrer Verwirklichung stehen. Im Rahmen dieser Pilotstudie konnten nur einige mögliche Ursachen dafür dargelegt werden: wie die langjährige Arzt-Patienten-Beziehung und soziodemografische Aspekte. Die Rolle psychischer oder medizinisch-fachlicher Faktoren (zum Beispiel eventuelle Mängel in der Ausbildung) konnten in diesem Rahmen nicht untersucht werden, aber sie sind weiterführende Forschungsziele unseres Teams sowie die Analyse von Arzt-Patientengesprächen im deutschsprachigen Raum.

8. Ausblick: Relevanz der Forschungsergebnisse für den Fachsprachen- und Kommunikationsunterricht - Ansätze der didaktischen Vermittlung

Die vorliegende Studie zeigte, dass im Hausarzt-Patienten-Gespräch die Erklärung von Diagnosen – trotz der gesetzlichen Vorschriften - auch in dem Fall nicht im Vordergrund steht, wenn der Hausarzt eine Therapie aufgrund von Fremddiagnosen verordnet. Der Mangel an sprachlichen Mittel des Codewechsels könnte auf terminologische Schwierigkeiten sowie an fehlende phraseologische und/oder strukturelle Modelle hindeuten. In der untersuchten einschlägigen Literatur konnten auch keine allgemein anwendbaren sprachlichen Richtlinien für die Diagnosemitteilung gefunden werden.

Im Fokus des Fachsprachen- und Kommunikationsunterrichtes sollten Ansätze stehen, die sich – sowohl schriftlich, als auch mündlich – auf die Struktur der Informationsvermittlung konzentrieren und Sprach- und Kommunikationsmuster vermitteln, die im ärztlichen Alltag auf einem breiten Spektrum verwendet werden können. Die Ausbildung angehender Ärztinnen und Ärzte sollte Modelle nicht nur für das Überbringen schwerwiegender Diagnosen und heikler Themen vermitteln, sondern auch solche, die der alltäglichen medizinischen Informationsvermittlung gerecht werden. Diese sollten über die Entwicklung der ärztlichen kommunikativen Kompetenzen hinaus, als Grundlage - aus juristischer Sicht - akzeptabler Informationsvermittlungsprotokolle dienen können. Ein weiterer wichtiger Aspekt könnte auch die Weiterentwicklung der Teamkommunikation der ärztlichen Praxis sein: Sprechstundenhilfen und Krankenschwestern können als "communication broker" (Bourhis, Roth and Marqueen, 1989) betrachtet werden, die sowohl die

Alltagssprache der Patienten als auch die medizinische Fachsprache beherrschend, zwischen Patienten und Ärzten Informationen vermitteln, bzw. die Ärzte in der Informationsvermittlung unterstützen können. Diese Rolle der Vermittler könnte Studierenden der Medizin durch den Einsatz effektiver Tools sowohl im Terminologie- als auch im Kommunikationsunterricht bewusst gemacht werden. Die bereits eingeführten Pilotkurse an der Universität Pécs und künftig an der Semmelweis Universität Budapest haben sich die Ausarbeitung entsprechender sprachlicher (terminologischer, strukturell-phraseologischer und pragmatischer) Richtlinien in ungarischer und deutscher Sprache zum Ziel gesetzt, die über die Ausbildung von Studierenden hinaus in die Praxis umgesetzt werden könnten.

Referenzen

- BNO-10 (1995) *Betegségek Nemzetközi Osztályozása*, (Hungarian Translation of ICD-10), Budapest: Népjóléti Minisztérium.
- Bourhis, RY., Roth, S., MacQueen, G. (1989) Communication in the hospital setting: a survey of medical and everyday language use amongst patients, nurses and doctors, *Soc Sci Med.* 1989;28(4), pp. 339-46.
- Brock, D., Meer, D. Bourhis, RY., Roth, S., MacQueen, G. (2004) Macht-Hierarchie-Dominanz-A-/Symmetrie: Begriffliche Überlegungen zur kommunikativen Ungleichheit in institutionellen Gesprächen. *Gesprächsforschung-online Zeitschrift zur verbalen Interaktion*, ISSN, 1617- 1837, Ausgabe 5, Available: www.gespraechsforschung-ozs.de, pp.184-209.
- Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch* (BGB). Bundesministerium der Justiz und für Verbraucherschutz. Bundesamt der Justiz. Deutschland, Available: <https://www.gesetze-im-internet.de/bgb/BJNR001950896.html>.
- Deppermann, A. (2001) Gespräche analysieren, Eine Einführung, *Qualitative Sozialforschung*, Band 3., Opladen: Leske+Budrich
- Fogarasi, K. (2018) A diagnózis jelentése és jelentősége a betegszemszögéből. In Dombi, J., Farkas, J.,Gúti, E. (ed.) *Aszimmetrikus kommunikáció – aszimmetrikus viszonyok*, Bicske: SZAK, pp. 774-804.
- Gréciano, G. (2006) Zur Textrelevanz von Phraseologie im Bereich Medizin. in Häcki Buhofer, A. (Hg.) *Phraseology in motion 1. Akten der Internationalen Tagung zur Phraseologie* (Basel, 2004). Baltmannsweiler: Schneider Verlag Hohengehren. pp. 219-228.
- Halász, R., Fogarasi, K. (2018) Arztbriefe im medizinischen Fachsprachenunterricht Deutsch. *Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes* 87-102.
- Hambuch, A. (2013) *Szubjektív betegség-elképzések nyelvészeti elemzése hipertóniás beteg-háziorvos konzultációkban*, PhD Dissertation. University of Pécs, Available:http://doktoriiskola.etk.pte.hu/public/upload/files/Doktoriiskola/Tezisfuzete/k/ham_d.pdf.
- Heritage, J., Maynard, D. (2006) Introduction. Analysing Interaction between Doctors and Patients in Primary Care Encounters, in Maynard, D., Heritage, J. (ed.) *Communication in Medical Care: Interaction between Primary Care Physicians and Patients*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 1-21.
- Jansen, Ch. (2019) *Der Medizinische Standard: Begriff und Bestimmung ärztlicher*

- Behandlungsstandards an der Schnittstelle von Medizin, Haftungsrecht und Sozialrecht*, Heidelberg-Berlin: Springer.
- Jobbágyi, G. (2013a) Az orvosi kezelési szerződés a magyar jogban – s az állam felelőssége. *Magyar Jog*. Vol. 60, No.4, pp. 486-492.
- Jobbágyi, G. (2013b) Az orvos–beteg jogviszony az új Ptk.–ban. *Polgári Jogi Kodifikáció*. Vol. 7, No.3, pp. 15–20.
- Koerfer, A.,C.,Thomas, W.,Köhle, K.,Obliers, R. (2008) Kommunikationsmuster in der medizinischen Entscheidungsfindung. in Niemeier, S.Diekmannshenke, H. (ed.) *Profession und Kommunikation*, Bern: Lang, pp. 121–156.
- Kühtz, S. (2007) Phraseologie und Formulierungsmuster in medizinischen Texten. Tübingen: Narr
- Peters, T. (2015) *Die interktionale Aushandlung der therapeutischen Entscheidungsfindung in der medizinischen Ausbildung*, Mannheim: Verlag für Gesprächsforschung.
- Pramann, O. (2017) Einwilligung des Patienten: Rechtliche Details, die Ärzte kennen sollten, *DtschArztebl* 2017; 114(38)
Available:<https://www.aerzteblatt.de/archiv/193487/Einwilligung-des-Patienten-Rechtliche-Details-die-Aerzte-kennen-sollten>.
- Schneider, P. (2017) *Die klinisch-medizinische Dokumentation von vorsätzlichen Körperverletzungsdelikten durch stumpfe und scharfe Gewalt im Strafverfahren und die Folgen unzureichender Beschreibung und unpräziser Terminologie*, PhD, PhD Dissertation. University of Pécs.
- Selting, M., Auer P., et al. (2009) Gesprächsanalytisches Transkriptionssystem 2 GAT 353-402. <http://www.gespraechsforschung-ozs.de/heft2009/px-gat2.pdf>
- Spranz-Fogasy, T. (2005) Kommunikatives Handeln in ärztlichen Gesprächen. Gesprächseröffnung und Beschwerdenexploration, in Neises, M.,–Ditz, S.,–Spranz-Fogasy, T. (ed.) *Psychosomatische Gesprächsführung in der Frauenheilkunde. Ein interdisziplinärer Ansatz zur verbalen Intervention*. Stuttgart: Wissenschaftliche Verlagsgesellschaft GmbH, pp. 17–47.
Ungarische Gesundheitsgesetz von 1997. CLIV.
Available:<https://net.jogtar.hu/jogszabaly?docid=99700154.tv>.

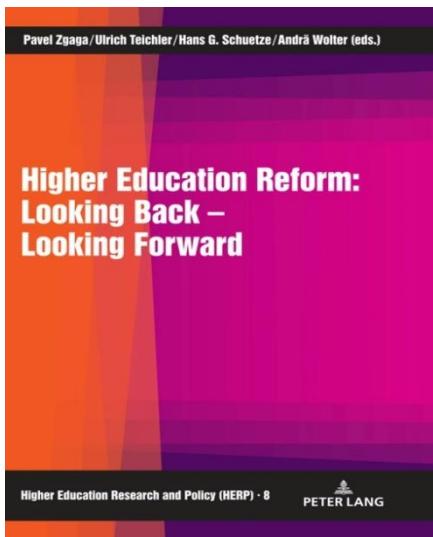
BOOK REVIEW

**PAVEL ZGAGA / ULRICH TEICHLER / HANS G. SCHUETZE / ANDRÄ WOLTER
(Editors) HIGHER EDUCATION REFORM: LOOKING BACK – LOOKING FORWARD**

Andrea Hamburg

Department of International Business, Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea, Romania

a_hamburg@uoradea.ro



Reviewed work:

**Higher Education Reform:
Looking Back –
Looking Forward**

Pavel Zgaga, Ulrich Teichler, Hans G. Schuetze, Andrä Wolter (eds)

Peter Lang Edition, 2nd, revised edition Berlin 2019
Higher Education Research and Policy, 8

ISBN 978-3-631-66275-5 (Print)
E-ISBN 978-3-631-79306-0 (E-PDF)

Dealing with a current topic of worldwide interest – after its first publication in 2015 – *Higher Education Reform: Looking Back – Looking Forward* has come in 2019 to a second revised edition by Peter Lang Publishing House. The four editors: P. Zgaga, professor of Philosophy of Education at the University of Ljubljana, U. Teichler, professor at the International Centre for Higher Education Research at the University of Kassel, Germany, H. G. Schuetze, professor emeritus of Higher Education at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada and Andrä Wolter, professor for Higher Education Research at Humboldt University of Berlin, Germany, gathered beside their own views, experiences and conclusions, the research results and ideas of an international group of professionals participating in workshops upon higher education reform in the period 2003-2015, into the present collective volume offering both retrospection and a prospective view.

The book is divided into 5 sections comprising 18 chapters preceded by the editors' introductory essay about *Reforming Higher Education for a Changing World*. Speaking about the historical and social changes academic environment has been going through, they notice the worldwide marketisation of higher education, the

governance of educational institutions based on cost-benefit calculations which turned students from 'learners' into 'customers'. The topics dealt with on the pages of this monograph are: learning and teaching in higher education; financing and quality assurance; change in governance; mass education vs. equity and equality in higher education; internationalisation and academic mobility; lifelong learning and higher education and others.

Parallel to the massification of higher education other worldwide trends can be noted, such as the need for completing public funds by additional private funds of different sources, as state investments in this sector proved not to be as rentable as hoped for, the 'transnationalisation' of higher education by the Bologna Process, or the internationalisation by increasing academic mobility promoted by the European Commission.

The first part of the monograph, section A, consists of three essays concerned with the context reforms have taken place in and the directions they are going into.

In his study Ulrich Teichler contemplates about different scenarios of higher education "convinced that researchers have to be even more active than actors and other experts in deliberating possible future of higher education." (p. 31) and foresee potential problems in this field. In this sense he analyses different research projects like that of Martin Trow in the 70s of the past century, the projects called 'Higher Education Forward Look' in 2005 or 'Higher Education to 2030', coordinated by OECD in 2008-2009 and the Bologna Process with its aim of creating a 'European Higher Education Area' by 2010. By doing so, he points out several scenarios regarding the future of higher education: 'continuity of trends', 'the glass is half empty and half full', 'changing fashions' or 'completely new', to list only a few of them, and that of graduates of the tertiary educational process in the age when supply continuously exceeds demand. His concern is not only for quantitative issues (number of enroled students and graduates), but also for structural ones like the fashionable terms of present days: employability of graduates, internationalisation of educational institutions and organisational topics referring to governance, decision-making and assessment of teaching and research respectively. Going through the possible scenarios and dealing with the questions they might raise, the conclusions are rather pessimistic: "the current preoccupation with ranks at the top suggests that higher education is afraid of a knowledge society in terms of a 'highly educated society' (Teichler, 1991), (...) striving for excellence and serving almost everybody." (p. 47)

In the second study Peter Scott looks for answers to the dilemma, if the turn of mass into market higher education systems represents a transition or rather a paradigm shift, "a false dawn"? According to him two possible scenarios emerge from the present state of affairs: going on with higher education in the way and direction it was set on by mass higher education, or a total rupture with all the norms and practices it has initiated. Analysing the history and impact of mass higher education, it becomes obvious that it "has not delivered the social justice it was once imagined it could" (p. 55), as the rate of socially unprivileged classes to that of the upper stratum hasn't changed considerably. To the negative connotation of mass higher education contribute aspects like growing unaffordability for state systems, the dilemma regarding decrease in academic standards and the discrepancy between educational output and the demands of the labour market. The questions for Scott are: does market higher education, evolved mainly as a

result of ‘the neo-liberal turn’ (the transition from ‘welfare’ to ‘market state’ and consequently the introduction of universal standard level of taxation instead of different tax thresholds) on one hand and the natural socially, culturally, technologically conditioned transition of mass higher education on the other, represent a better alternative and will it last or there will be a return to mass higher education? The author’s conclusion is:

As a result, while for neo-liberal enthusiasts, ‘market’ higher education is likely to prove to be a false dawn, a disappointment, for the majority it may be prove (sic!) to be less a decisive paradigm shift than another stage in the evolutionary development of modern higher education systems. (p. 67)

The concluding essay of section A signed by Pavel Zgaga deals with higher education reforms in Southeast Europe, especially in the Western Balkans minding both global trends and local variations and offering introspection to the historical, socio-political, religious and economic conditioning of higher education system and institutions in this region. His findings are based on a survey conducted at sixteen universities in eight countries of the respective region. Generally three waves of reforms can be identified in the analysed post-communist countries, the first one being characterised mostly by a high level of freedom in terms of control and quality assurance, as he calls it “(...) the mushrooming of non-accredited private higher education institutions” (p. 74). The second wave of reforms occurred in the legislation under the auspices of the common European Higher Education Area and the Bologna Process, but in many cases it didn’t lead to profound changes in the system, admittedly quite impossible overnight. The third wave brought a whole series of often contradictory decisions and laws adopted only for the sake of showing some change to previous governmental regulations. Private education institutions and tuition fees appeared, being regulated in different countries of the studied region in different ways. Even the number of public institutions and students increased and the variety of languages of study was enlarged. However, privatisation in the domain of education is seen with distrust and skepticism, as not resulting from market trends but being politically induced, in more countries of the research “The private sector did not bring investment to higher education, these institutions have been established on the principle ‘take the money and run’” (p. 82) - is the opinion of one interviewee in Bosnia and Herzegovina in the 2012 conducted CEPS survey.

Coming back upon the question formulated in the title of the study *How to Gain Global Connectivity While Retaining Respect for Local Variations?*, the attempt to achieve unity in European education by fostering diversity of different regions seems to be the only solution.

Section B comprising four contributions and an introductory note by Hans G. Schuetze deals with reforming higher education and trends in it in Europe and Asia respectively. According to Marek Kwiek, the author of the first essay, *Reforming European Universities: The Welfare State as a Missing Context*, reforms in higher education should be interpreted in the context of the reform of the welfare state (reform of pension and health care systems, as well) and in line with it.

Otherwise:

The myth of exceptionalism of higher education among other public sector institutions and of its immunity to global public-sector reform trends increases the chances that higher education will be reformed mostly from the outside rather than mostly from the inside. (p. 101)

The conclusion is that public sectors, registering a harsh competition for subsidies among one another, need worldwide more and more private sources of funding, the state offering to these actors wider autonomy in exchange.

Shinichi Yamamoto analyses in his study, entitled *Higher Education reform: Why Did It Start and Has It Ended? An Analysis of the Japanese Case*, the causes – of socio-political and demographic nature – leading to higher education reform in Japan and the stages of it. Throughout its history, dating back to the end of the 19th century, Japanese tertiary education has undergone more waves of reforms, arriving at the beginning of the 21st century to the reforms still in process induced by the decrease in student number and change in preferences. He lists a few of these reforms, like the introduction of periodical evaluation at least every seven years, turning all national universities into independent legal corporations having some more autonomy but less public funding, improving quality of teaching by achieving supplementary funds called competitive fund, underlining the drawback of this continuous reforming in the impossibility to implement a stable and sustainable educational policy.

Truly meaningful reforms of the Japanese higher education system should be conceived with longer and broader views and perspectives than are presently popular. (p. 141)

In the next study, signed by W. James Jacob and John N. Hawkins, the authors identify the following five trends in Chinese higher education as sources for opportunities and challenges in the future: structural reforms, finance, continuing educational programmes, mobility and, respectively, quality assurance and assessment. Regarding structural reforms two main issues are presented, namely changing the gao kao (national entrance examination) and the independence and governance of higher education institutions. Continuous and lifelong learning serves in China professional aims and contributes to the country's economic growth. In the authors' opinion in the field of internationalisation and mobility Chinese need to keep balance not to lose the specific character of Chinese education and the same is valid for the relation between internal and external evaluation and quality assurance.

In the next essay, Andrä Wolter is interested in finding out if massification of higher education has led to diversity of the group of students in Europe. After some preliminary considerations regarding the terminology used – diversity/heterogeneity – he analyses the structure of student body regarding gender, age, the proportion of part-time studies, non-traditional way of access to higher education, educational and social background as a European average compared to data related to Germany, to draw the conclusion that there is no correlation between expansion and the representation of diverse social groups in higher education. "There is no automatism between massification and heterogeneity – neither (sic!) in Germany nor in other European countries." (p. 178)

Having the same structure as the previous section (three studies accompanied by an introductory note by one of the authors of the essays), part C is dedicated to the issue of academic freedom. Based on the Humboldtian ideas and giving voice to his worries about the present and the future of academic freedom, Rolf von Lüde, the author of the initiating study, tries first to define the essence of it, as it is formulated in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (2002):

(...) the freedom of teachers and students to teach, study and pursue knowledge and research without unreasonable interference or restriction from law, institutional regulations, or public pressure. Its basic elements include the freedom of teachers to inquire into any subject that evokes their intellectual concern; to present their findings to their students, colleagues and others; to publish their data and conclusions without control or censorship; and to teach in the manner they consider professionally appropriate. For students, the basic elements include the freedom to study subjects that concern them and to form conclusions for themselves and express their opinions. (p. 197)

Economisation and ‘marketisation’ of higher education leading to a ‘New Managerialism’ jeopardise academic freedom and are contradictory to the Humboldtian idea of non-utilitarianism of universities, the author concludes.

While von Lüde’s concern has been of German universities, Rosalind M. O. Prichard offers in her essay insight into English higher education system being less keen on academic freedom – as it is not protected by a written constitution – and more enthusiastic about marketisation of the academic environment, and William Bruneau militates for academic freedom in North American universities. By analysing “the recent history of attack-and defence” (p. 232) of academic freedom, Bruneau also considers managerialism to present a peril for it. Still the resonance of the study is optimistic:

Waves of this kind [managerialist ones - n. a.] have come and gone in the past century (...). Behind them is a still larger contrary wave, the growing force of the teaching-learning-research-minded university, working openly and accountably in an open society. (...) That is why one can and should speak of academic freedom ... in post-managerial times. (p. 245-246)

The essays of section D have a view upon the American continent analysing the private higher education sector in Mexico, the USA and Canada. Besides a set of common characteristics, it definitely shows differences in extension and image in the public opinion in the three countries. After summing up the topics of the different studies, Germán Álvarez Mendiola makes, first in co-authorship with Mitzi Danae Morales Montes and in the next essay with Wietse de Vries, his own contribution to the chapter by presenting trends in private higher education and the evaluation system applied in Mexico. Surprisingly there are not the same quality standards imposed on the public and private education sector, consequently private academic institutions offer a quite low quality instruction given by poorly qualified teachers mainly to high costs. Still they are facing an increasing demand for enrolment. On the other hand the newly created assessment rules and procedures for the public higher education sector based on financial incentives

have led to a “whole new culture of proof and accountability” (p. 283), as professors have to prove their merits and advance in teaching and above all research by diplomas signed by different officials. In spite of all these there is no evidence for better teaching methods resulting in a higher graduation rate of students or higher international ranking of Mexican academic institutions with respect to research and its outcomes.

US and Canadian higher education policies are analysed in the next study signed by Hans G. Schuetze underlining the main difference between the two countries, namely the large extension of for-profit private higher education institutions in the US and the marginal position of the whole private education sector in Canada.

Section E includes five essays and an introductory note by Andrä Wolter concerning lifelong learning and its relation to higher education, as in some countries this makes part of higher education strategies, whereas in other parts of the world it is meant to take place outside academia.

The author of the first study, Ulrich Teichler, offers introspection into the evolution of a so called quaternary education and lifelong learning in higher education since the 1970s labeled as ‘adult education’, ‘continuing (professional) education’, ‘recurrent education’, ‘further education’, ‘lifelong education’, concluding that expectations towards these new concepts were once more much higher than the actual development.

Anna Spexard analyses in the next study lifelong learning policies issued by the European Commission, the Council of the E.U. and based on them by higher education institutions and their implementation in Europe. In concordance with the directives of the E.U. and of the ministries of education, academic institutions are in charge of facilitating lifelong learning at higher educational level by recognising previous learning even if not having happened within institutional frameworks and creating alternative learning paths. Analysing the European situation, it can be generally stated that policies and strategies regarding lifelong learning, like widening student participation from different socio-economic, national, racial etc. groups, flexibilisation of educational programmes, alternative ways of access to higher education exist in the whole European Higher Education Area, but their practical implementation is far from being complete.

The next study, signed by Maria Slowey, deals with one aspect of LLL (lifelong learning) and widening participation, namely the age of potential candidates introducing the notion ‘age friendly university’. According to research results, without intervention at institutional, national and international level, the intergenerational educational gap remains constant, when not even increases, due to higher participation rates of younger people in tertiary education, their increased likeliness to continue their education some time later and the growth in life expectancy and consequently in the number of elder people. Such an example for intervention at institutional level is the pilot programme of Dublin City University in creating an Age Friendly University where one of the leading principles is what one could label as good practice, namely an intergenerational learning programme, where different generations can learn from and offer support to one another.

In the next study, Andrä Wolter analyses the possibilities of opening up higher education for new target groups in Germany aiming to find out reasons for its delay and for the reluctance of higher education institutions in realising it. Under the umbrella term lifelong learners he identifies groups like: second chance learners –

most of them not admitted to higher education in the traditional way –, equity groups – socially disadvantaged people –, deferrers – not continuing with higher education directly upon leaving school –, recurrent students coming back to higher education for a second degree, returners taking up their studies again, refreshers seeking to update their skills and learners in later life comprising mainly retired persons interested in non-credit educational programmes.

His recommendation for the evolution of continuing education refer to the “formats and provisions of initial higher education” which “should be more conducive to the specific expectations and demands of lifelong learners with a particular educational and professional biography before taking up studies” (p. 410) and point out to even lifting the traditional differentiation between initial and continuing higher education.

The topic of the last study in this collective volume is massive open online courses (MOOCs) and their rapid growth in the academic area. In spite of being a very up-to-date notion and probably a largely known acronym, still it would have needed extending upon even in the title (MOOCs: Unbundling in Higher Education) to assure overall understanding. By catching up the idea of Anant Agarwal, the founder of the first online academia, Maureen W. McClure presents MOOCs as a means for total flexibilisation and cost optimisation of higher education.

Today, why is it that every student has to learn in college when they are 18 (sic!)? Why four years? How about unbundling time? Imagine that a student comes into college having done their (sic!) first year of college as MOOCs and online – possible even for free... They spend two years on campus, and then rather than spending the fourth year on campus, they go outside, get a job and become continuous learners for the rest of their lives (...) (Agarwal, 2015 after McClure, p. 426),

but warns at the same time of possible traps, as well, by concluding “What a great investment in the security needed for generational succession. Proceed with caution.” (p. 428)

Going through the whole book, there are some content-based and form-related conclusions to be drawn: higher education and its institutions face to a great extent, in spite of cultural, geographical, socio-political differences all over the world, the same problems, and, furthermore, *Higher Education Reform: Looking Back – Looking Forward*, being a collection of mainly theoretical studies, is not a book for a public looking for practical solutions or a series of best practices.

As regarding formal aspects, a proofreading or review process would have been of great help to avoid typing errors: “which explains the reasons for the *cintinous* changes of the for-profit sector.” (p. 306), “Third, we note an *ancreasing* use of the term ‘open’” (p. 337), misformulations, grammar issues: “what does their role *means* for the impact on the character of teaching, (...)” (p. 46), lack of accuracy: “It is not surprising that the Kosovo Accreditation (sic!) Agency (KAA) was one of the first countries in the region (...)” (p. 84), the use of colloquial language: “KAA also joined the European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education, but was recently kicked out (...)” (p. 91), or being incomprehensible: “The quality assurance issue of how much should be directed by the MOE as compared with external, nongovernmental agencies remains an important debate topic” (p. 152) – MOE staying probably for the Ministry of Education, just to mention a few of the shortcomings, and thus to reinforce the overall prestige of the publication.

REZENSION

ANNA GONDEK / JOANNA SZCZEK (Hrsg.) PHRASEOLOGIE UND PARÖMIOLOGIE DER (UN)HÖFLICHKEIT

ANNA GONDEK / JOANNA SZCZEK (eds.) PHRASEOLOGY AND PAROMIOLOGY OF (IM)POLITENESS

Andrea Hamburg

Abteilung für Internationale Handelsbeziehungen, Wirtschaftswissenschaftliche Fakultät, Universität von Oradea, Rumänien

ahamburg@uoradea.ro



Rezension zu:

Phraseologie und Parömiologie
der (Un)Höflichkeit

Anna Gondek / Joanna Szczęk
(Hrsg.)

Verlag Dr. Kovač, Hamburg 2019
Studia Phraseologica et
Paroemiologica, Bd. 1

ISBN: 978-3-339-11108-1 (Print)

ISBN 978-3-339-11109-

8 (eBook)

Die beim Dr. Kovač Verlag in der Schriftenreihe Studia Phraseologica et Paroemiologica erschienene *Phrasologie und Parömiologie der (Un)Höflichkeit* ist der Ertrag der Sektionsarbeiten der im September 2018 in Białystok, Polen gehaltenen internationalen Europhras-Tagung. Der 2019 in Hamburg herausgegebene Kollektivband – betreut von Anna Gondek und Joanna Szczęk – umfasst 5 Sektionen auf 398 Seiten und beschäftigt sich mit sowohl theoretischen als auch praktischen und didaktisierungspragmatischen Aspekten des behandelten Themas.

Die strenge wissenschaftlichkeit der Beschäftigung mit Ausdrücken (Phrasemen) und Sprichwörtern zu Höflichkeitsäußerungen wird in der ersten Studie der Sektion

Aktuelle Fragen der (Un)Höflichkeit durch den humorvollen, selbst- und volkskritischen Ansatz von Wojciech Źelaniec gelockert. In seinem Beitrag, *Einige Nutzen von Höflichkeitsfloskeln*, bietet er gesellschaftskritische Hoffnungen hegend einen kontrastiven (tschechisch, französisch, italienisch, amerikanisch, polnisch) linguistischen und zugleich kulturbezogenen Einblick in die gegenwärtige polnische Alltagskommunikation.

In der nächsten Studie wird der Wechselwirkung des gesellschaftlichen Phänomens Höflichkeit und seiner sprachlichen Äußerung nachgegangen. Die Autorin Natalia Ljubimova analysiert die redensartliche Abbildung der Pünktlichkeit, eines Konstituenten der Höflichkeit, von der Perspektive ihrer Beziehung zur Alltagswirklichkeit. Demgemäß werden Parallelen zu einem Uhrwerk im Glockenturm, zu Verkehrsmitteln, Vertretern bestimmter Berufe, Institutionen, Kultur- und ethnischer Kreise, zu Naturerscheinungen, Feiertagen usw. gezogen. Małgorzata Guławska-Gawkowska befasst sich in ihrem Beitrag (dem letzten in der Sektion) mit dem Phänomen der Bedeutungsbildung (oft einen übertragenen Sinn resultierend) von elliptischen Strukturen im Deutschen und Polnischen aus etymologischer, kulturgeschichtlicher und gesellschaftlicher Perspektive.

In den fünf Beiträgen der zweiten Sektion wird nach phraseologischen Formulierungen in verschiedenen Textsorten aus diversen Bereichen und Perioden gesucht. So geht Stephan Frech amtssprachlichen Formulierungen der Höflichkeit und Ehrerbietung in auf frühneuhochdeutsch verfassten Texten des Reformators Heinrich Bullinger nach.

Die zweite Studie der Sektion beschäftigt sich hingegen mit einer zeitgenössischen Textsorte, nämlich Mahnbriefen auf deutsch und polnisch. Die kontrastive Analyse 28 deutscher und 15 polnischer authentischer Mahnschreiben durch Joanna Woźniak ergibt wider Erwartungen, dass diese Briefe in letzterer Sprache eine unpersönlichere, trockenere und offiziellere Tonart anschlagen als im Deutschen.

Als Quelle für die nächste Untersuchung – Autor Renata Nadobnik – bieten sich Sprachführer für Deutsch und Polnisch vom 16. Jahrhundert an bis hin zur Gegenwart an, die die Körperpflege von Reisenden und die ihr entsprechenden sprachlichen Strukturen durch die Prisma der (Un)Höflichkeit thematisieren. Diese diachrone Perspektive ergibt selbstverständlich mit der Verbreitung der Körperpflege und deren Notwendigkeit in der Zeitspanne XIX.-XXI. Jahrhundert mehr „Treffer“. Das sprachliche Material zeichnet sich durch formale, folglich höfliche Äußerungen sowohl vonseiten der Dienstleistungsanbieter als auch der Kunden – auch wenn oft direkter ausgesprochen – aus.

Die pragmatische Manifestierung von (Un)Höflichkeit in Streitgesprächen in den gesprochenen bzw. schriftlichen Medien ist das Sujet von Justyna Duch-Adamczyks Beitrag. Dieser thematische Bereich lässt erwartungsgemäß „großen Spielraum für sprachliche (Un)Höflichkeit eröffnen“. (S. 101) Selbst wenn die Kommunikation dem öffentlichen Charakter des medialen Gesprächs entsprechend eher in Richtung Höflichkeit tendiert, mögen auch härtere Äußerungen auftreten. Es wird mit typischen Höflichkeits- bzw. Unhöflichkeitsformeln operiert. Zur ersten Kategorie gehören Gruß-, Entschuldigungs-, Dankes-, Gratulationsformeln, unter den Letzteren lassen sich Verärgerungs-, Fluch- oder Beschimpfungsformeln erkennen. Als Ergebnis ihrer Analyse stellt die Autorin fest, dass es im Rundfunk viel mehr der Höflichkeit dienende Formeln vorkommen,

während emotive Formeln als Unhöflichkeitsträger hauptsächlich in der geschriebenen Presse auftauchen.

Der letzte Beitrag der Sektion befasst sich mit der kontrastiven Darstellung von Höflichkeitsstandards - Standards für das interpersonale Benehmen – in deutschen und ukrainischen Sprichwörtern. Die Autorin Oksana Khrystenko geht in der Studie drei grundlegenden Fragen nach, und zwar: der Widerspiegelung von kulturspezifischen Verhaltensformen in deutschen/ukrainischen Parömien, Motivationstypen in diesen Sprichwörtern und stereotypen Vorstellungen über das Redeverhalten von beiden Geschlechtern. Der einbezogene Textkorpus umfasst 202 deutsche und 200 ukrainische, die Akten des (un)höflichen Redens (Schlüsselwörter: Rede, Wort, reden, schimpfen, fluchen) thematisierende Sprichwörter.

Die dritte Sektion *Phraseologie und Aggression in aktuellen Diskursen* umfasst drei Studien, die die Ausdrucksmöglichkeiten für Aggression durch Phraseme untersuchen. Urszula Topczewska analysiert in ihrem Beitrag wieweit manche Phraseologismen als aggressiv bewertet werden, da sie eine solche Konnotation tragen, oder sich für eine solche Anwendung besonders eignen. Dabei geht sie davon aus, dass Phraseologismen an sich keine Aggression beinhalten, ihre Interpretation sei kontextgebunden, von Illokution (Sprecherabsicht) und Perlokution (Reaktion des Gesprächspartners darauf) abhängig.

Krystian Suchorabs Studie ist wieder kontrastiv angelegt, sie geht nämlich der Manifestation von Aggression in deutschen und polnischen Phrasemen nach, um aus dieser Analyse die Schlussfolgerung zu ziehen:

Aufgrund des analysierten Korpus kann man feststellen, dass der Bereich der aggressionsausdrückenden Phraseologismen im Deutschen und im Polnischen in vielen Fällen asymmetrisch ist. (S. 157)

Sujet des nächsten Beitrags (Autor: Mariusz Jakosz) ist der Ausdruck verbaler Aggression durch Phraseologismen im aktuellen deutschen Flüchtlingsdiskurs anhand von Internetkommentaren in führenden deutschen Tages- und Wochenzeitungen (Die Welt, Die Zeit, FAZ, Süddeutsche Zeitung) im Zeitraum 2015-2018.

Die zehn Studien der Sektion IV präsentieren Fallstudien zu ausgewählten Aspekten der (Un)Höflichkeit in der Phraseologie und Parömiologie. Wie deutsche und polnische Phraseologismen die geistige Behinderung von Menschen darstellen, erfahren wir aus dem Beitrag Katarzyna Siewert-Kowalkowskas und Hanna Stypas. Obwohl die meisten von ihnen keine vulgären Formulierungen enthalten, gehören sie zum Register der Unhöflichkeit, da sie ironisch und beleidigend wirken.

Mit (un)höflichen Formen des Tadels befasst sich Anna Gondek, indem sie einen Korpus von deutschen Phrasemen analysiert. Dabei kommt sie zur Schlussfolgerung, dass „das Negative viel häufiger ihren Niederschlag in der Phraseologie findet“ (S. 204) als positive Äußerungen.

In den einleitenden theoretischen Überlegungen zur (Un)Höflichkeit stellt Przemysław Staniewski in seinem Beitrag fest: „Unhöfliche bzw. aggressive sprachliche Handlungen können alle Sprachebenen betreffen“ (S. 208) und vor

allem manifestieren sie sich in der Lexikologie, Semantik und Pragmatik. Auf den Seiten der Studie geht er den aus dem Wahrnehmungswortschatz stammenden zwei semantischen Elementen *kalt/Kälte* nach und untersucht sie im konkreten und übertragenen Sinn sowohl als lexikalische – wörtlich genannte – als auch konzeptuelle – nur angedeutete - Komponente der jeweiligen Phraseologismen.

Kulturspezifische Strategien und Äußerungsformen der Ablehnung im Deutschen und Polnischen werden in der Studie Joanna Szczęks in Betracht gezogen. Die Autorin ist daran interessiert, wieweit Ablehnung in beiden Sprachen mit Hilfe von Phraseologismen ausgedrückt wird und ob diese Phraseme dem höflichen/unhöflichen Bereich zugeordnet werden können. Dabei betont sie in Anlehnung an andere Forscher den großen kulturgebundenen Unterschied in der Haltung beider Nationen dem Neinsagen gegenüber: „In Bezug auf Deutsche gibt Bonacchi (2013: 214) an, (...) dass Deutsche keine Probleme damit hätten, direkt Nein/nein zu sagen. (S. 223) (...) Neinsagen ist mit den Normen des polnischen Höflichkeitsmodells nicht kongruent (...)“ (S. 225). Dieser kulturelle Unterschied findet seine Widerspiegelung auch auf sprachlicher Ebene, so verfügen Deutsche über weit mehr Phraseologismen zum expliziten Ausdruck der Ablehnung. Schlussfolgernd meint sie: „(...) dass sowohl deutsche als auch polnische Phraseologismen zum Ausdruck des Neinsagens im geringen Maße höflich sind.“ (S. 232)

Dominika Janus analysiert in der nächsten kontrastiv angelegten Studie in den Sprechakt des Kondolierens einbezogene Phraseologismen in der deutschen bzw. polnischen Sprache.

Marcelina Kałasznik geht hingegen Einwortphraseologismen nach, die der abwertenden Äußerung über Personen dienen. Diese das Aussehen oder Charakterzüge von Menschen veranschaulichenden Phraseme werden aus lexikographischer und semantischer Perspektive unter die Lupe gezogen.

Der nächste Beitrag, gezeichnet von Magdalena Lisiecka-Czop, thematisiert semantische und kommunikativ-pragmatische Aspekte von phraseologischen Wunschformeln. Dabei wird festgestellt, dass die kommunikativ-pragmatische Verwendung allzu oft der semantischen Manifestation (der Intention des Sprechers) konträr sei (z.B. „Hals- und Beinbruch!“). Die Autorin weist im Abschluss ihrer Studie auf die sprachkompetenzgebundene Bedeutung dieser Formeln hin und eröffnet auf diese Weise schon didaktische Perspektiven:

Die Höflichkeitskompetenz, zu der zweifelsohne auch der Umgang mit Wunsch- und anderen Routineformeln gehört, ist also eine der wichtigeren kommunikativen Schlüsselkompetenzen, daher sollten solche Formeln in glottodidaktischen und lexikographischen Konzepten (insbesondere in Lernerwörterbüchern) nicht siefmütterlich behandelt werden, (...) (S. 280)

Höfliche Unhöflichkeit: euphemistische Phraseologismen zum Ausdruck von unhöflichem Benehmen im Deutschen und im Russischen (Autor: Ljubov Nefedova) beschäftigt sich mit kulturabhängigen euphemistischen Phrasemen in beiden im Titel erwähnten Sprachen und mit kulturspezifischen Phraseologismen im Deutschen zur Bezeichnung unangemessenen Verhaltens.

Hrisztalina Hrisztova-Gothardt versucht in ihrer Studie Erklärung dafür zu finden, warum sich Witze und Humor gelegentlich in Akte der Unhöflichkeit verwandeln können. Ausgangspunkt dazu bilden die Ergebnisse des zwischen 2008 und 2009

geführten Projekts HumAn (Humor und Antisprichwörter), in dem die Antwortgebenden den Humorwert von modifizierten Sprichwörtern punkten sollten. Manche dieser Sprüche wurden sogar als derb und peinlich empfunden.

Im Mittelpunkt Reinhold Utris' Interesse befinden sich in der letzten Studie der Sektion österreichische Phraseologismen der (Un)Höflichkeit, die sich lexikalisch und phonetisch von den bundesdeutschen Varianten unterscheiden.

Wie schon angedeutet, enthält der Kollektivband auch einen praktisch angelegten Teil; die fünf Beiträge der letzten Sektion untersuchen nämlich Didaktisierungsmöglichkeiten für unterschiedliche Aspekte des behandelten Sujets – (Un)Höflichkeit.

Ofeliya Mustafayeva analysiert Routineformeln zum Ausdruck von Höflichkeit und ihre Vermittlung im Fremdsprachenunterricht, indem sie die gängigsten DaF-Lehrwerke unter die Lupe zieht. Darunter befinden sich die monolingualen Werke *Tangram Deutsch als Fremdsprache*, *Pluspunkt Deutsch* und *Schritte Plus Neu*. Dieses Letztere didaktisiert unter ihnen die meisten Höflichkeitsformen, aber auch hier kommen Ess-, Trink- und Entgegnungsformeln zu kurz. Als ein weiteres Defizit betrachtet die Autorin, dass diese Deutschkurse Höflichkeitsformeln nur festigen und verwenden, nicht aber in erster Linie erkennen und kontextgebunden verstehen lassen.

Ob und wie die Kenntnis von Sprichwörtern die Sprach- und Kulturkompetenz des Individuums steigern, erfährt man aus Barbara Maj-Malinowskas Studie *(Un)Höflichkeit in der Parömiologie – der Einsatz von gut bekannten Sprichwörtern in der Höflichkeitslehre im akademischen Bereich in Polen*. Die Autorin ist daran interessiert, wieweit die heutige polnische Jugend Sprichwörter zum Thema Höflichkeit noch überhaupt kennt und ob sie sie verwendet. Für die Ermittlung dieser Problematik wird 2018 eine Umfrage unter 68 Studenten im III. Jahrgang einer technischen Universität durchgeführt. Als Fazit lässt sich feststellen, zwar kennen und verwenden Jugendliche Sprichwörter nur beschränkt, ihre Verbindung zu Aspekten der heutigen Realität können sie schon erkennen, so würden sie sich in die Höflichkeitslehre im akademischen Bereich einsetzen lassen.

Die Autorinnen des nächsten Beitrags gehen der Problematik der Behandlung von Phraseologismen in der Hochschulbildung nach und bieten Didaktisierungsvarianten zu ihnen an. Die verschiedenen Themenbereichen angehörigen Phraseologismen eröffnen weiterführende Diskussionen zu geschichtlichen, kulturspezifischen, kulturhistorischen u. a. Aspekten.

Die nächste Studie untersucht die Beschreibung von Phraseologismen in verschiedenen mono- und bilingualen Lernerwörterbüchern und ihre Rolle in der Steigerung der phraseologischen Kompetenz von polnischen Deutschlernenden angesichts der Höflichkeit. In Anlehnung an Peter Kühn schlägt die Autorin Joanna Konieczna-Serafin das „phraseologische Dreischritt-Modell“ – Erkennen und Verstehen von Phrasemen in einem Text, Erkennen von Kontexten, in denen solche gebraucht werden und eigene Verwendung von Phrasemen in ähnlichen Kontexten – für den Einsatz von Phraseologismen in den Fremdsprachenunterricht vor. Dabei macht sie auf die meistens mangelhafte pragmatische Behandlung von Phraseologismen in den Wörterbüchern aufmerksam:

Es wäre wünschenswert, dass die Wörterbücher mehr pragmatische Angaben dem Deutschlernenden anbieten, z.B. (...) diachronische Markierungen, die den Benutzer darüber

informieren, ob der gegebene Ausdruck gebräuchlich ist, sowie diastratische Markierungen, welche die Stilschicht eines Ausdrucks beschreiben. (S. 375)

Zur Abrundung des didaktisch orientierten Teils des Werkes nehmen sich Małgorzata Płomińska und Marzena Będkowska-Obłak eine qualitative und quantitative Analyse der DaF-Lehrwerke angesichts der Verwendung von Wunschformeln für die Vermittlung der Höflichkeitskompetenz vor. Anlass dafür bietet eine Umfrage unter polnischen Germanistikstudenten mit B2-Deutschkenntnissen mit Hinsicht auf den Gebrauch von Wunschformeln und deren Resultat. Da Wunschformeln laut Untersuchungen in den einbezogenen Lehrwerken nur schwach repräsentiert sind, didaktisch gesehen in ihnen nur die rezeptiven, nicht aber reproduktiven und vor allem produktiven Fähigkeiten der Studierenden bedient werden und interkulturelle Aspekte zu kurz kommen,

(...) kann insgesamt festgehalten werden, dass den untersuchten LW kein bewusstes phraseodidaktisches Konzept zugrunde liegt.

Das sprachliche Angebot von WF kann aufgrund seiner mangelhaften didaktisch-methodischen Aufbereitung zur Entwicklung der Höflichkeitskompetenz und somit der kommunikativen Kompetenz nur unzureichend beitragen (...) (S. 392) -

schlussfolgern die Autorinnen.

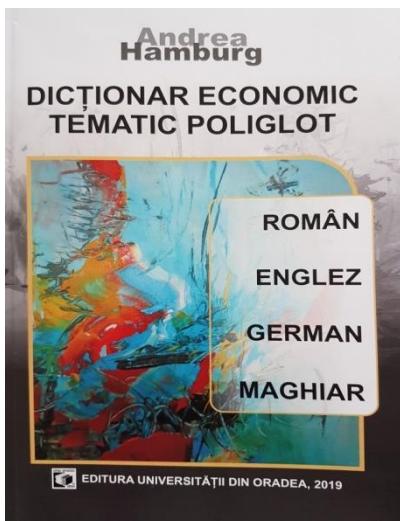
Trotz einiger Mängel, wie z.B. fehlerhafter Formulierungen (S. 221), des Übersehens der richtigen deutschen Wortfolge in der Übersetzung polnischer Zitate (S. 225), unklarer bzw. schwerverständlicher (S. 231, 312, 385), lückenhafter Formulierungen (S. 231, 333f, 350 [Fußnote], 390), Tippfehler (S. 356, 375f), des Wegbleibens der Übersetzung ins Deutsche von anderssprachigen Einträgen in manchen kontrastiv angelegten Beiträgen, weist der Kollektivband unbestreitbare Qualitäten, wie die Berücksichtigung der Praxis und Pragmatik, die Aktualität des Forschungssujets, den Einbezug der Interkulturalität usw., auf.

BOOK REVIEW

SEVEN ECONOMIC FIELDS IN FOUR LANGUAGES

Ioana Claudia Horea

*Department of International Business, Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea, Oradea, Romania
ihorea@uoradea.ro*



Reviewed work:

Multilingual Economic Thematic Dictionary.
Romanian-English-German-Hungarian

ISBN 978-606-10-2071-3

Original title:

Dicționar economic tematic poliglot.
Român-Englez-German-Maghiar

Author: Andrea Hamburg

Published by: University of Oradea
Publishing House, Oradea, 2019

A recent (December 2019) release of University of Oradea Publishing House, Oradea, the 443 page Romanian-English-German-Hungarian dictionary, presents terms classified thematically on seven economic domains. The writer of this work is Hamburg Andrea, lecturer within the Department of International Business at the Faculty of Economic Sciences of the University or Oradea, Romania. Hamburg Andrea is a reputed researcher in the field of languages for specific purposes and business as well as intercultural communication, the author of several books and dictionaries of speciality published by various publishing houses in the country or abroad.

With respect to the expertise Andrea Hamburg has achieved in dictionary authorship, we can note that the researcher wrote, among several other works as a single author, a dictionary of lexical elements in the field of tourism, covering three languages, *Dreisprachiges Wörterbuch für Tourismus (Trilingual Dictionary for Tourism, German - Romanian - Hungarian)*, published in 2016 by the Traugott Bautz Publishing House in Nordhausen, Germany, and another dictionary on terminology in tourism, in 2015, with the University of Oradea Publishing House (*Small dictionary of tourism, Romanian - German, German - Romanian*). Her first

approach to the endeavour of dictionary penning was as early as the year 2004, when she coordinated and co-authored an extensive work comprising business vocabulary in five languages, namely the *Dictionary of Business - English, German, French, Italian, Hungarian*.

Andrea Hamburg's constant didactic preoccupation as an academic, teaching German and related disciplines at the Faculty of Economic Sciences University of Oradea, materialised in several course books published with ISBN, i.e. courses of German language (five works between 2002 and 2011), courses of German for Business (2 works in 2014), and speciality books such as *Deutsche Grammatik mal anders – 100 Übungen mit Spaß* (2003), *Wirtschaftliche Wortfamilien* (2004) and *Interkulturelle Kommunikation. Deutschkurs für das Magisterstudium* (2010). Her doctoral thesis, defended in 2006 at the University Lucian Blaga, in Sibiu, entitled *Zwischen Verriss und Bestsellertum. Die Rezeption von Johannes Mario Simmel* was published by Peter Lang Publishing House, in Frankfurt am Main, in 2012. Among the many studies that shape Andrea Hamburg's research work published in various journals, fifteen articles are in journals indexed in international databases.

With Hungarian as a mother tongue and Romanian as the language of her education, a university graduate of a double philological specialization of German and English, Andrea Hamburg has gained vast experience in the area of languages for economic fields, teaching German language for business at academic level for over twenty years, and correspondently undertaking research in the field of German for business and economy. The expertise such gained, added to that favourable background backed up by natural features of a really organised and hard working person, were combined to put together this new extensive work, covering seven fields and producing a four-lingual compendium of terms, an extraordinary endeavour, undoubtedly.

The dictionary under review, entitled *Multilingual Economic Thematic Dictionary. Romanian-English-German-Hungarian dictionary*, is structured into four parts, according to the language of introducing the terms, in each part having a different language as the first. Thus, this four major sections actually represent four distinct dictionaries, each comprising a little over 100 pages. The first section is entitled "Dicționar român-englez-german-maghiar" (translating as "Romanian - English - German - Hungarian Dictionary"), and it introduces Romanian terms. Next comes the part called "English-German-Romanian-Hungarian Dictionary", which deals with English words. Then we find the German notions in the part "Wörterbuch Deutsch-Englisch-Rumänisch-Ungarisch" (meaning "German - English - Romanian - Hungarian Dictionary"), to eventually be presented with Hungarian terms, in the last section of the four, named "Magyar-angol-német-román szótár" (i.e. "Hungarian - English - German - Romanian Dictionary"). There is a *Foreword* by the authoress at the beginning (in all four languages, half a page each) and there is also a page of *References* at the end of the book.

Each of the four parts of the dictionary are further divided into seven subtitles, representing the categories, the economic areas of the presented words, lexical elements, notions or concept. These categories are the same seven in all four sections, differing, of course, the order of the languages in which they are

presented, in concord with the entry language of the each part. The seven subtitles, in which each of the four parts is divided, reveal specific areas of economy, comprising the specific terminology introduced there, and are as follows:

- Banking
- (Type of) business, plant management, labour market
- Accounting and finance
- Dealmaking and business communication
- Stock exchange
- Market, marketing and sales
- Customs

As mentioned in the foreword, there are over 2000 notions per language and one notion can come up more than once, as, belonging to more domains, it will feature in all of the respective categories and will, thus, appear several times.

It is as well explained that not only direct translation is dealt with by the dictionary: Synonymy and homonymy are also tackled, as words with similar meaning are provided, in some cases, and different senses of the same word, more or less related, are presented, as well.

Further guidance is given here with respect to the way of presenting the entries and also regarding the symbols used: We find that German nouns are didactically introduced, with the ending for Genitive singular and then that for Nominative plural, and the gender is specified. A dash (-) used instead of these signifies that the noun lacks the particular ending or form for plural. Symbols Sg., Pl. stand for singularia respectively pluralia tantum.

Within a subsection (a category representing a business field) the notions are introduced alphabetically, marked by the presence of the letters, as a kind of a next level titling. These are seen while browsing and indeed render an easier detection of the location of the word looked up, but do not appear in the table of contents, as it is not customarily to do so with dictionaries, most likely for aesthetic reasons. Quite intriguing, sometimes the letters are grouped in pairs while other times they stand alone, presumably according to the length of the content, i.e. the number of words that are entered for the given letter / pair of consecutive letters, respectively of the space taken up. Still, there might be other reasons, as if some groups of two letters are dedicated 3-4 pages (A,B - pp.15-18), we can find even 2 entire groups on the same page, and a third beginning (L,M then N,O and P, p.28). The letter grouping does not follow a pattern along the dictionary; it varies between the fields of the same language section and from one section to another.

For each entry in one particular language of the four, the translations in the other three languages come underneath, one new line each, in the order presented in the name of the section (that certain sequence of the languages), and the abbreviations used at the beginning of the lines that present the translated notions are self-evident: *ro.*, *en.*, *de.*, *hu.*

It is noted that regardless of the language used as a starting point, the manner of approach is similar: the terms are entered not only with the direct translations in the other three languages, one under the other, but also accompanied by derived expressions and concepts formed with that initial word as a base. These compound

notions are also introduced and translated, under the main word, appearing either with a small indentation or aligned similarly, depending on the degree of connection with the base word. The latter may either be present itself in the expression or is replaced by a the specific sign ' ~ '. For instance, checking the Romanian word "bancă" (in translation 'bank'), on page 15, we will find more than 30 notions built with this term listed and translated on the next 2-3 pages. It holds true for the other languages, with "bank" being introduced in the English part on page 123, the German "Bank" coming on page 228 and the Hungarian "bank" on page 339, and each having their connected concepts presented in the 2-3 pages that follow them.

Checking the occurrence of a word along the same section (one language as introductory) it is noted that the word appears in various contexts, for distinct reasons, with different implications.

For example, the term "money" is present in the section corresponding to the English language entries in almost thirty instances.

First, 'money' is entered and translated as such within the topic of *Banking* and ten structures immediately follow here (on pp. 134-135), which are formed with this word as a base. These are: 'to borrow ~', 'to change ~', 'deposit ~', 'metal ~', 'metal ~ circulation', 'paper ~', 'paper ~ circulation', 'to pay ~', 'to transfer ~' and 'to withdraw ~'. Next, three more construction are presented: 'money exchange', 'money supply' and 'money transfer' (on p.135).

Then, on page 166, 'money' is entered again, within the field of *Accounting and finance* this time, and there are here other five accounts for it: 'circulation of ~', 'excess of ~', 'to invest ~', 'money supply' (again) and 'money value'.

Besides these somehow direct occurrences for the two aforementioned domains, the term 'money' features along the entire section, to form numerous notions with other base words ('amount', 'invest', 'save', 'circulation', 'market' or 'supply'), such as exemplified by the following list:

- 'to deposit an ~ of money in a bank', for the base word 'amount' - p. 122
- 'to invest money' - pp. 132, 205
- 'to save (money)' - p. 136
- 'circulation of money' - p. 198
- 'money ~', for the base word 'market' - p.207
- 'money', with the figurative sense of 'payment means' - p. 211
- 'money supply' and 'to control ~' - p. 211

The same word but checked in its Romanian correspondent - 'bani' - and in the corresponding, Romanian, section - the first part of the four-lingual dictionary -, is found to occur much less, with seven concepts identified on pp.17-18, and only other three occurrences on pp. 26, 54, 98. This is explained by the specificities of the two languages analyzed in comparison here, Romanian and English.

In some circumstances, Romanian language seems to be more conceptual (or synthetic), i.e. not making use of all lexical elements found in English but having the full meaning rendered by one word. Such is the case with 'a economisi' ('to save'), where the addition of the word 'bani' ('money') would be felt as rather superfluous and hence this term is not present in this context. The difference is partially due to the fact that the Romanian verb, 'a economisi', comes here in its

direct, first sense, while the English verb 'to save' has a distinct first meaning in the standard language acceptation. Without the given context of business and finances, 'to save' supposes to rescue from a dangerous situation. Thus, in English, the specification of the context by using the term 'money' after 'save' is not redundant.

Another situation that accounts for the lower number of occurrences of the term 'bani' is the fact that it is not this term but a different one that is more often employed in the Romanian language for the construction of certain expressions. This category can be exemplified by the following structures, where terms such as 'monedă' and 'monetar' are used instead of 'bani':

- 'circulația monedei' ('circulation of money'), p. 55, or
- 'masă monetară' ('money supply'), p. 59.

The German section first shows the word 'Geld' ('money') on its first page of lexical entries (p. 226), completing a structure, as it follows the verb 'anlegen' ('to invest'). The second occurrence is in the concept of 'Buchgeld' ('deposit money'), p. 231. The main presentation of the term and of several connected structures come on pages 233-234, with no less than twenty five notions listed. Individual notions - compounds with the term - are then to be found: 'Spargelder' ('savings'), on p. 242, or 'Arbeitslosengeld' ('unemployment benefit'), on p. 246, to meet again the entry of the basic term and ten of its most significant related structures, for the other major topic, on p. 271.

Another topic brings, on p. 283, the term 'Geldwechsel~' before the base word 'Geschäft' (to render the meaning of 'foreign exchange transaction'), while another field introduces, on p. 310, terms such as:

- 'Geldanlage' ('capital investment'),
- 'Geld festlegen' ('to invest money'),
- 'Geldkrise' ('monetary crisis'),
- 'Geldmenge' ('money supply') - with the related notion 'die ~ kontrollieren' ('to control money supply') -,
- 'Geldumlauf' ('circulation of money') or
- 'Geldverkehr' ('money transactions').

On p. 317, 'Geld~' formed with the base word 'Markt' (the structure meaning 'money market') comes to end a truly rich series, of around fifty instances of the term's presence.

The specificity of the German language is clearly seen in the examples above, with numerous concepts formed by merging the composing words.

Even more numerous are the occurrences, along the last section, of the Hungarian term 'pénz' ('money') and its corresponding structures: twenty six times in the original form and about the same amount in derivations. The first introduction alone brings about twenty four notions on pages 351-352. Then, another compound appears very soon, p. 354, 'takarékpénztár' ('savings bank'), and three more notions on p. 369: 'pénzügyi ~', with the base word 'osztály' (together signifying 'finance department'), 'pénzbeli források' ('financial resources') and 'pénzforrásokkal rendelkezik' ('to dispose of financial resources'). The second main domain for the term presents fifteen derived concepts on p. 385, while on page 394 there are four more expressions, formed, this time, from the compound 'készpénzfizetés' ('cash payment'). On p. 405, there are the structures 'készpénzes

~, preceding the base 'ügylet' ('cash business') and 'készpénzfizetéses ~', with the base 'üzlet' ('cash transactions'). Some other concepts derived from the same compound, 'készpénz', ('cash'), are next presented, three on p. 422 and another one on p. 426. On p. 429, five notions occur:

- 'pénzforgalom' ('circulation of money'),
- 'pénztárblokk' ('receipt'),
- 'pénzt fektet be' ('to invest money'),
- 'pénztömeg' 'money supply' - and also the related 'ellenőrzés alatt tartja a ~etto' ('control money supply') - and
- 'pénzügyi válság' ('monetary crisis').

Once more the plain term 'pénz ~' is found on p. 430 for the base entry 'piac' ('market') ('money market') and the last entry of this unquestionably extensive category, p. 436, is that of the compound 'készpénz~' for the base 'tőke' ('capital'), meaning 'cash capital'.

It is noted here too, as for the German language in the previous section, that a particularity of the Hungarian language is clearly distinguishable from the analysis: a similar propensity for compound words formed by merging, leading to long lexical elements.

This detailed presentation makes it obvious that the four parts follow a similar structure and the entries are intentionally mirrored and shown in parallel, as much as the particularities of each language allow.

Clearly and cleverly designed, easy to follow and use, the four language dictionary brings notions of interest from seven broad fields, covering most areas of economy and providing a means of thorough information regarding lexical structures, available to all people interested. As the authoress of this complex work points out in the foreword, she rightfully 'would like to see this dictionary as a useful tool for specialists and non-specialists, as well.' (p. 9)