Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes
(JLSP)

Edited by the *Research Group for Communication in Business and Foreign Languages (CCCALS)* within the *Research Centre for Competitiveness and Sustainable Development (CCCDD)* 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,
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 database*
- Ulrich's Periodicals Directory
- SCIPIO
- Google Scholar
- Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek
- WorldCat
- The Linguist List
- Advanced Science Index
- Scientific Indexing Services

Printed by **ID-IFR Resource Centre**, University of Oradea
Ec. **Valentin Covaci**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE ROMANIAN ECONOMIC FIELD AND BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT: A NECESSITY OR A FAD?

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 purpose of the present article is to analyse the influence of anglicisms in the Romanian economic field and business environment. English influence in Romanian, very pronounced in the current European languages, is accomplished both by taking massive lexical elements and by assigning meanings of English borrowings to Romanian words. The emergence of English words' borrowings in our country is due to the current socio-political conditions and widening of economic-financial relations with the Western world, the English words being used by specialists for communication and information in all fields, as well as speakers who tend to practice English as the international language of communication. Major transformations in the international social-economic organization imposed the development of modern disciplines: finance, statistics, management, marketing, business administration, whose languages are subordinated to the economic field. The research is intended to provide examples of English borrowings used in the economic language. English terms, specialized or not, especially in the form of a borrowing, penetrate directly in all economic subdomains, by virtue of an interference trend (manifested internationally) concerning terminologies and the relations of specialized vocabulary with the usual one. One way of English terms entering the Romanian language is the specialised texts. The article also points out terminology concerning conditions of delivery and international business transactions. The written or spoken media contributes greatly to the spread of anglicisms that inform the public on various issues and developments in the social, political, cultural and economic aspects, nationally and internationally, having an important role in English vocabulary' modernization by borrowing from English. The conclusion of the article is that with all the difficulties of adapting to the linguistic system of the Romanian language, the English borrowings continue to get massive and rapid in our current language, speeding the process of vocabulary enrichment, also resulting in major changes at other levels of the system.*

Keywords: economic language; communication; anglicisms; business environment; English influence

1. Preliminary considerations

Society, in its evolution, witnesses countless transformations historically, economically, politically and culturally that determine continuous linguistic changes, especially in the lexicon. These changes do not occur suddenly and radically, new forms of linguistic expressions coexist with the old ones for some time, thus ensuring the possibility of communication between generations.

Language, as a means of communication, evolves with society and the process is faster in terms of extending and intensifying relations between peoples and circulation of ideas - among other things, due to the development of the means of information's dissemination over time. In the historical evolution of a language (based on complex relationships between language and society), a series of words take on new meanings and connotations according to the reality of a certain epoch or disappear completely, being gradually replaced by other forms that define better the new concept.

During its evolution, Romanian language came into contact with different languages following the establishment of relations between Romanian and various other peoples and civilizations. Thus, Romanian language has assimilated a series of words from: Slavic, Greek, Turkish, Russian, French, Italian. "These borrowings have always raised issues regarding their adaptation to local linguistic structure, but most were modeled according to the phonetic and morphological system of the Romanian language" (Athu, 2011: 58).

In a globalized environment that contemporary economy is facing, international business, orientation to foreign markets and rational economic integration in the world economy is the core of the development process undertaken nationwide.

Society's cultural development and location of speakers in a particular field of activity led, in time, to the emergence of other types of languages in addition to the usual language. Each scientific field operates with specific notions, forming in this way, a specific language: the economic language, the language of mathematics, statistical language, etc. The emergence and formation of economic language is concomitant with the economic history of mankind. In fact, economic life is the material support of social life, its essence and action making possible the presence of other social systems. For this reason, people were concerned, both theoretically and practically, about economic life, making numerous assessments. Over time, the authors of economic ideas and theories were concerned not only about the empowerment of economics, but also the identity of economic terms, convinced that a good theory needs good communication.

English influence in Romanian is accomplished both by taking massive lexical elements and by assigning meanings of English borrowings to Romanian words. The emergence of English words borrowings in our country is due to the current socio-political conditions and widening of economic-financial relations with the Western world, the English words being used by specialists for communication and information in all fields (in which original terms are preferred), as well as speakers who tend to practice English as the international language of communication.

Major transformations in the international social-economic organization imposed the development of modern disciplines: finance, statistics, management, marketing, business administration etc., whose languages are subordinated to the economic field. Alligning the current Romanian economy to international economy systems explains the diversification and development of specializations in the field and determine the number of changes in economic language vocabulary, accomplished mostly by borrowing from English, but also by updating as a result of certain Romanian words's contact with English.

Wishing to facilitate communication between public authorities, media, and especially among professionals in the field, a certain standardization of economic language is reached. An important linguistic factor in this trend of languages' uniformity belonging to scientific style is owned by linguistic borrowings. Whether for two centuries the vast majority of Romanian language' neologisms were taken from French, in the second half of the last century, based on the intensification of cultural, technical, scientific, economic contacts, the influence of English is almost complete and actually leads, to an internationalization of vocabulary. English borrowings' phenomenon in economic language is due, primarily, to extending economic and financial relations with the Western world, English words being used for communication and information by specialists in all areas of economic activity. Post-December period is more eloquent in this regard. There is now an avalanche of terminology, explained, in socio-economic terms, by trying to recover the great differences between the Romanian economy and that of developed countries. "As a result, contact between languages gives rise to borrowings whose main direction is the movement from the language that progressed fastest in the given area to that whose members are forced or tempted, due to the importation of new scientific, technical findings, or economic practices to take the terms that designate the country of origin" (Constantinescu, 1996: 85). Therefore, it can be said that a functional style as the economic and commercial one tends to retrieve the English terms because of its extraordinary dynamism and the need to be in agreement with what happens in practice.

Whether the concept of specialized language has been spoken about in Romanian since the 60s, when functional styles were somewhat at a stage of formation and transformation, the integration of new terminology gives them a greater autonomy. Unlike France, where linguists still struggle against English borrowings in French, seen as "a cultural subjugation of France by the Anglo-Saxon world" (Prelipceanu, 2003: 10), Romanian researchers seem to be more lenient in this regard. But, given the European context and that changes are always reflected faithfully by vocabulary, Romanian linguists have little choice but to examine the phenomenon and try to propose the most suitable solutions.

There are voices that vehemently accuse the phenomenon called *anglomania*, but tracking the spread of the two phenomena: globalization (at socio-economic level) and anglicisation (at linguistical level), we find that these attempts to reject English borrowings are ineffective. The massive penetration in recent decades of anglicisms in European languages is a socio-cultural phenomenon that is growing due to the manifestation of a general tendency of speakers to use English in international communication. This trend manifests itself on levels of culture and in different fields. Social and political conditions and the expansion of economic and financial relations with the Western world require a continuing communication between professionals and their information, therefore we are witnessing massive penetration of Anglicisms in all fields. It is not only the modern bias to use as many English words as possible, but also the need to use original terms, accessible to connoisseurs in specialized languages.

The phenomena taking place in a particularly alert rhythm in the contemporary world are, on the one hand, technical-scientific revolution and, on the other economic processes. Scientific and technical development of the peoples causes an uneven language development in these areas. Against this general background, in the contact between languages, a considerable number of borrowings that call the results of science and technology is moving towards language that has progressed less in these areas.

Cristina-Maria Prelipceanu lists the causes that led, globally, to the influence of English, the first being the economic and social cause, given by the "the current economic importance of the United States and Great Britain" (Prelipceanu, 2003: 90). Other causes would be the new techniques and products that come from the United States, foreign capital that underpins multinational companies, fashion, snobbery and also a linguistic aspect, namely the "great capacity of English language, its brevity (juxtaposed composition, conversion)" (Prelipceanu, 2003: 91).

2. Examples of Anglicisms in the economic Romanian field and business environment

The influence of English, which is manifested most strongly to terminological level, also involves changes to the general vocabulary. Some English words enter the language of economics with the concept, such as: *outsourcing, joint venture, dealer, stakeholder, target market*, other double Romanian words (*billing - facturare, board - consiliu de conducere, overdraft - descoperire de cont, deadline - termen-limită, salesman - comerciant*). There is also the updating by English of older words (*utilități* through *utilities, a exceda* through *exceed, mentenanță* through *maintenance*), or, common words specialize semantically according to English patterns (*maturitate*-scadență*, poziție*-funcție*, nişă*-colț specializat).

English terms, specialized or not, especially in the form of a borrowing, penetrate directly in all economic subdomains, by virtue of an interference trend (manifested internationally) concerning terminologies and the relations of specialized vocabulary with the usual one. One way of English terms entering the Romanian language is the specialised texts. „The forms of borrowings are varied and inconsistent: some words and expressions are used directly without prior explanation, others are accompanied by Romanian equivalent or explanation”.(Stoichitoiu-Ichim, 2005: 34)

English influence on Romanian economic language is carried out mainly by borrowing strictly specialized English terms, which are usually monosemantic, but also by adopting polysemantic lexical units, which are taken from Romanian with one or more meanings, depending on the area of use and the communication needs, e.g *board, cookie, equity* were taken with one meaning (the specialised one), while *cross, break, pool*, *switch,* operate in Romanian with two meanings, one of which is older and the other is a recent borrowing (*pool* originally with the meaning *swimming pool* is used in economics to mean *fund, joint management*). Most monosemantic terms borrowed from English can expand their meaning in relation to local or lexical units or in contexts where their figurative value is speculated. Semantic changes facilitate penetration of borrowings and the migration of words, usage restrictions being considerably reduced.

Mimicking British models by calque participate with proper lexical borrowings to expand English influence on the Romanian language. In the current economic language there are three types of calque. Romanian words are broadening their meaning after English model as semantic calque: *a aplica* acquires the meaning "to seek a job / position, make a request" after the English term *to apply (for); atasament* borrows the recent meaning "annex" of the English *attachment*; *apreciere* "increase" after the English *appreciation*, sometimes resulting in semantic change and changes of grammar (*subsidiar* "auxiliary", adjective and *subsidiara* (rom.) "subsidiary", noun). Many English expressions are reproduced in Romanian in the form of phraseological calque, often encountered in economic texts or by translating the whole phraseology unit (*autosuficient* < engl. *self-sufficient*, *acțiune lichidă* < engl. *liquid share*, *companie scoică* < engl. *shell-company*, *piețe de capital* < engl. *capital-markets*, *rețea de distribuție* < engl. *distribution network*), or by translating one of the terms, the other being taken as such (*canal de retail* < eng. *retail channel*, *public target* < engl. *target public*, *background educațional* < engl. *educational background*).

Reorganizations at the lexical level of Romanian economic language is done by updating previous borrowings from other languages under the influence of English model (*mentenanță* < fr. *maintenance* through the anglicism with the same graphical form, pronounced [mənteinəns], *insolvență* < it.*insolvenza* through engl. *insolvency*), with possible changes often associated with semantic conversion, e.g: adjective *subsidiar* (<fr.*subsidiaire*) “auxiliar, secundar” becomes feminine noun - *subsidiara* (<engl.*subsidiary* "“filială, sucursală”), adjective *publicitar* (<fr. *publicitaire*) becomes a noun after engl. *publisher* as the English equivalent *editor.*

“The varying levels of anglicisms assimilation are subject to a number of factors such as: adjustment difficulties, limited use (only by specialists in case of terminologies), use of the term seniority”. (Stoichitoiu-Ichim, 2006: 73)

These, in turn, determine the division of anglicisms in: anglicisms fully assimilated (even in terms of perception of speakers about that term, i.e, the term no longer felt like a foreign element): *bişniță*, *trend*, *cliring*, *draft*; anglicisms (words / terms, phrases, abbreviations) that retain their shape in English (which have a high frequency in specialized languages, including the economic one: *subprime, overnight, forward, claw-back, private-equity*) and anglicisms (words / terms, phrases, abbreviations) partially adapted (whose share increases continuously: *start-up, core-business, branch, FIFO – first in first out*).

First, in DTE (*Dicționar de termeni economici român*, *englez*, *francez*, *spaniol)*, anglicisms recorded are given with one form, that of singular, without specifying their gender in Romanian. They are recorded as simple and composed nouns. Most are very recent terms in language and belonging to different branches of the economic sector (financial, banking, marketing, management etc.), for example: *benchmarking*, *blue chip*, *cashflow*, *hot money*, *hedgind*, *go-go-fund*, *goodwill*, *ex-right*, *netting*, *out-of-line*, *splitrun*, *tender*, etc. Besides, there are several words already present in other dictionaries, whose meanings are well known by the “average” public: *bonus*, *broker*, *brainstorming*, *cash*, *cash on delivery*, *dealer*, *dumping*, *duty-free*, *factoring*, *fixing*, *franchising*, *holding*, *hardware*, *input*, *insider*, *incoterms*, *lock-out*, *leasing*, *management*, *merchandising*, *marketing*, *output*, *outright*, *overdraft*, *offshore*, *standby*, *voucher* etc. One can see immediately that all these words do not have graphical or phonetic changes.

In NDU (*Noul dicționar universal al limbii române),* the situation of anglicisms belonging to economic language is slightly different. Nouns are given, where appropriate, with the plural form, already adapted to Romanian language system, unlike the aforementioned dictionary, where the English form is retained: *broker/brokeri*, *cater/catere*, *brand/branduri*, *discount/ discounturi*, *folder/foldere*, *hacker/hackeri*, *maus/mausuri*, *market/marketuri*, *marketizare/marketizări*, *pub/puburi*, *staf/stafuri*, *training/traininguri*, *voucher* etc. Two groups of nouns may, therefore, be established by gender: male (*masterand/masteranzi*, *broker/brokeri*) and neutral (*discount/discounturi*, *folder/foldere*), the most numerous, then adjectives used as nouns (*cash*).

Anglicisms frequently occurring in economic language are:

advertising, *blog*, *blogging*, *broker*, *brokeraj*, *brand*, *boom*, *business*, *business hi-tech*, *business unit manager*, *casual*, *catering*, *corporate*, *corporate-spa*, *call-center*, *cutting-edge*, *design*, *designer*, *dress code*, *display*, *euro*, *executive assistant*, *executive search*, *fair-play*, *flairtending*, *fashion adviser*, *feed-back*, *fresh*, *fund raising*, *gadget*, *glamour*, *green card*, *hi-tech*, *investment-banking*, *ice tea*, *in and out door*, *internet wireless*, *jeans*, *job*, *joint-venture*, *leasing*, *living*, *lounge*, *low cost*, *marketing*, *manager*, *management*, *middle* or *top management*, *offshore*, *outsourcing*, *pet*, *pop-glamour*, *private banking*, *pub*, *puzzle*, *recruiter*, *road-trip*, *roaming*, *shopping*, *showroom*, *soft-drinks*, *smart casual*, *squatting*, *squatter*, *stand-by*, *stick*, *task*, *team building*, *tuner*, *trainee*, *training*, *vintage*, *wealth-management*, *week-end*, *zapping*

Figure 1: Anglicism used frequently in Romanian economic language
Source: author

Economic language is a specialized language belonging to scientific style, it has its own characteristics (dynamism given by changes or acquisitions of new meanings), elements of jargon and slang, monosemantism (affected to some extent by semantic expansion of economic terms), is enriched by the large number of international economic terms coming mainly from English and open both to other specialized languages (interdisciplinary scientific vocabulary) and to the common language (determinology, trivialization and vulgarization), which underlies mutual transfer of terms.

"Economic field has multiple subdomains with corresponding languages: financial-banking, stock exchange and insurance, commerce, accounting, marketing, management".(Ciobanu, 2004: 43) There are economic terms (including anglicisms) which are used in several economic languages (*discount, fair trade*), and terms that are specific to certain languages: *IPO, consumer credit, offshore* (financial and banking terminology, stock and insurance); *goodwill, drawback* (commercial terminology); *receivables, LIFO* (accounting terminology); *brand awareness, pricing areas* (marketing terminology); *CEO, country manager, high-flyers* (management terminology).

In the context of social, economic and political situation (where the foreground is the global financial and economic crisis), economic terminology enjoys a high frequency in written and spoken press and an upward particular interest in the general public, which increases the chances of economic terms to enter the common language. Consequently, the role of dictionaries (specialized ones, in economics and general language) is decisive to ensure transparency of economic terms (including economic anglicisms) that non-specialist/ partially specialized speakers need. Types of defining the terms differ from dictionary to dictionary, but overall, "economic dictionaries provide scientific definition for specialists in economics and the general ones include language clarifying definitions of terms for ordinary readers". (Mihailovici-Balan, 2009: 103)

It is more problematic when transparency of economic anglicisms, whose necessity in economic language cannot be denied precisely because it adds to the univocity and precision of this kind of language, is blocked by not including them in the inventory of specialized dictionaries (*self-banking*) or of the general public (*cash and carry*). The collection of examples to support theoretical part of this study led to the conclusion that most Anglicisms present in contexts with economic character and Romanian economic language belong to financial-banking, stock and trade field. One thing is certain, namely that "the penetration of these terms in the Romanian economic and business language occurs rapidly, dictionaries remaining all the time behind in terms of their registration".(Gutu Romalo, 2005: 101)

One way to classify the terms listed above would be:

Table 1: Classification of Anglicisms

• The first category comprises Anglicisms that have no equivalent in Romanian or are very difficult to translate, e.g *blog, feedback, hobby, leasing, management, marketing, lounge, roaming, showroom, stick, vintage;*
• In the second category there are terms that have correspondents in Romanian, which, depending on the context and the speaker, are or not preferred to anglicisms: *business*/*afaceri*, *fair-play*/*corectitudine*, *shopping*/*cumpărături*, *glamour*/*eleganță*, *job*/*slujbă*, *fresh*/*un suc proaspăt*, *joint ventures*/*societăți mixte*, *broker*/*agent de bursă*, *brand*/*marcă*;
• Phrases forcibly formed, hybrid, for example: muzică *lounge*, marcă *low cost*, *brand* de lux, contract de *joint venture*, portofoliu de *branduri*, segmentul *ice tea*, piața de *softdrinks*.

Source: author

Grammatically speaking, many nouns are allowed with their form in English, plus the definite article in Romanian: *pub-uri*, *traininguri*, *glamour-ul*, *ice tea-ul*, although gender issues may arise.

Phonetic assimilation of economic anglicisms occurs at a faster rate than the graphic one. In use, there are numerous economic anglicisms pronounced as in English actually approximately as in English, resorting to those phonetic correspondences. The existence of multiple versions of utterance: etymological (where pronunciation is closer to the US than the UK), following the English alphabet or a combination of both methods, but also inaccurate indications about pronunciation in dictionaries delay phonetic adaptation of economic anglicisms.

Economic anglicisms penetrate so quickly the language of economists who "juggle" with their meanings and forms, so that dictionaries, be they specialized (economic), fail to include them in real-time. Adaptation of anglicisms as a whole is a fairly complex process, therefore we can not say that we can formulate definitive rules, and, what is even more uncertain, that the majority of Romanian speakers would be willing to comply with them. “A practical measure to prevent mistakes is the proper use of economic anglicisms by Romanian media, coupled with their explanation or presence of a local synonym near the respective anglicism”. (Trif, 2006: 68)

3. Terminology concerning conditions of delivery and international business transactions

Generally, the written or spoken media contributes greatly to the spread of anglicisms that inform the public on various issues and developments in the social, political, cultural and economic aspects, nationally and internationally, having an important role in English vocabulary’ modernization by borrowing from English. Nowadays, there is a strong tendency to extend the use of English words in everyday speech.

Transfer of goods from the seller to the buyer involve the methods of delivery, the insurance of goods delivered, the risks involved and the value of transport. Translated in Romanian as *International Commercial Terms*, the acronym INCOTERMS designates all main rules and practices governing such clauses needed in commercial transactions. Each clause, in turn, has a standard name and is registered in the international sale contract as an acronym. Abbreviations are used as such, without further explanations, the terminology in question being already accessible to the public:

“În județul Braşov, pentru luna decembrie 2014 exporturile (*FOB*) au însumat 185.036 mii de euro, iar importurile (*CIF*) au totalizat 184.413 mii de euro, au anunțat specialiştii Direcției Județene de Statistică Braşov. Stăm bine, la nivel național, la exporturi În luna decembrie 2014 s-a înregistrat un excedent comercial **FOB-CIF** de 623 mii de euro”.

Source: Adevarul.ro, 7 april 2015

The term *leasing* was first used in 1877 in the US. Specific operations of leasing were conducted for the first time since 1954 in United States of America. Since 1994, when the first leasing company was founded in our country, the term *leasing* has entered the vocabulary of economic language. Both in specialized literature and in other forms of communication to the public, it is preferred to use the term in its original form instead of its translation from Romanian - *arendare, concesionare, inchiriere:*

“Piața de *leasing* operațional a înregistrat, în 2013, o creştere uşoară de aproximativ 3,5% față de anul anterior, ajungând la aproape 43.000 de unități şi depăşind estimările făcute după rezultatele la 9 luni. Anul trecut, 11.500 de autovehicule noi au fost înmatriculate prin *leasing* operațional, reprezentând peste 17% din totalul înmatriculărilor de autoturisme şi autovehicule comerciale uşoare noi”.

Source: Adevarul.ro, 20 february 2014

Taken from American English, the term *know-how* designates unpatented or unpatentable inventions, innovations, outstanding professional skill, knowledge and outstanding processes:

“Brico Depot, parte a grupului Kingfisher, liderul absolut al pieței de bricolaj din Europa, aniversează un an de prezență pe piața din Romania; un an încununat de realizări veritabile, o viziune şi *know how* implementate cu succes la nivel local şi 14 depozite transformate în timp record”.

(Source: Adevarul.ro, 13 march 2015)

The term *lohn* consists of an international economic business carried out on the basis of a contract, between two companies in different countries, in which one manufactures in return of cash, items, custom models by the other company which retains the right to market that product under its own brand. In order to keep its terminological complexity it is recommended to use the word in its original form:

“Compania şi-a propus ca în următorii ani raportul între producția în regim *lohn* şi cea pentru marca proprie să ajungă la 60-40, în condițiile în care producția în regim *lohn* din România are concurență serioasă în țări ce au costuri mai mici cu forța de muncă”.

(Source: Adevarul.ro, 6 july 2015)

Another term widely used in foreign trade is *franchising*, an operation on the limits of exploitation of intellectual or industrial property rights. The use of the Anglo-Saxon terminology - *franchising, franchiser* and *franchisee* - alternates in specialised literature, published nationally, with appropriate translations -*franciza, francizor, francizat/beneficiar.*

“Orădenii care vor să afle cum ar putea să înceapă o afacere în sistem de *franciză*, au ocazia să se pună în temă, participând la conferința organizată de fundația Proton, în parteneriat cu Kyros Franchising”.

(Source: Adevarul.ro, 15 january 2014)

In terms of business negotiation - terminology and designation of instruments, means of payment and financing used in international economic affairs - terminology comprises largely words translated into Romanian, whose use is not recommended in original form, for semantic reasons. Here are some examples:

Table 2: English terms translated into Romanian

Collective bargaining	Negociere colectiva
Bill of credit	Acreditiv documentar
Bill of exchange	Cambie
Bill/draft	Trata
Black economy	Economie paralela
Branch	Sucursala
Brand awareness	Notorietatea marcii

Collective leadership	Conducere colectiva
Competitive advantage	Avantaj competitiv
Export/foreign trade	Comert exterior
Fair competition	Concurenta loiala
Invoice	Factura
Joint venture	Societate mixta
Letter of credit	Scrisoare de credit
Money order	Ordin de plata
Order of enforcement	Executare silita
Outsourcing	Externalizarea serviciilor
Promissory note	Bilet la ordin
Quality insurance	Asigurarea calitatii
ROI (retun on investment)	Rentabilitatea investitiilor
Statement of account	Extras de cont
Supply and demand	Cerere si oferta
Turnover	Cifra de afaceri
Value added tax (VAT)	Taxa pe valoarea adaugata (TVA)

Source: author

4. Conclusions

Although anglicisms both in economic and business field and also in the technical and computer science one, impose themselves very fast in language movement, being sometimes necessary and difficult to replace, one should try to control this process which often exceeds the boundaries of good use and functioning of the Romanian language.

There are two attitudes towards English borrowings. Conservatives, including both experts and the general public / non-specialists, believe that many words borrowed from English are unnecessary and can be replaced by equivalent Romanian terms. Most people use them because of linguistic snobbery, ignorance or lack of patriotism. For instance, we can note the situation of the French language where many anglicisms, especially in IT, are replaced with French terms (e.g *computer* with *ordinateur*), while in the Romanian language a lot of English terms are used, most of which did not undergo any process of adapting to our language system. The second category is represented by those who consider borrowing from English a natural phenomenon of enrichment of the lexical Romanian heritage, even if not all anglicisms are necessarily required. Anglicisms considered universally useful and welcome are those whose meaning cannot be translated by a single Romanian word.

Mostly, the issues of anglicisms adaptation present in all styles of Romanian language are applied to the economic field. But there are only specific elements of this language. Graphic adaptation of Anglicisms in the economic language requires a period of time, being conditioned by various factors. The two trends manifested in the graphic adaptation of economic Anglicisms are: keeping the original script (which is the prevailing trend) and calling a Romanian script often used with ironic effect. Hybridized graphics configurations are a sign that the economic terms are already in the process of adaptation, but reverse adaptation or forced Romanization of terms are not advisable. From the studied examples one can conclude that anglicisms in the economic field retain their original form and they are used by a small number of speakers, which reduces their chances of graphics adaptation.

Difficulties related to limits of traditional language to explain some economic phenomena, the difficult road of economic emergence and the strengthening of science facilitated the penetration of Anglo-Saxon origin - linguistic borrowings into local language. The Anglo-Saxon terminology's role in specialized languages is to facilitate communication, therefore it is not recommended to use so- called luxury anglicisms - Anglo-Saxon terms that double Romanian words without bringing further information. With all the difficulties of adapting to the linguistic system of the Romanian language, the English borrowings continue to get massive and rapid access into our current language, speeding the process of vocabulary enrichment, also resulting in major changes at other levels of the system.

References:

Athu, Cristina (2011), *Influenta limbii engleze asupra limbii romane actuale*, In limbajul economic si de afaceri, Bucuresti: Editura Universitara.

Ciobanu, Georgeta (2004), *Romanian Words of English Origin*, Timişoara: Editura Amphora.

Constantinescu, Ileana (1996), *Frangleza economică*, Bucureşti: Editura Economică.

Guțu Romalo, Valeria (2005), *Aspecte ale evoluției limbii române*, Bucureşti: Editura Humanitas Educațional.

Mihailovici-Balan, Angela (2009), *Notiuni de terminologie - despre viata cuvintelor*

sau cateva probleme de terminologie actuala, Bucuresti: Editura Oscar Print.
Prelipceanu, Cristina-Maria (2003), *Aspecte ale limbajului economic şi comercial (în limbile română şi engleză)*, Bucureşti : Arvin Press.
Stoichițoiu-Ichim, Adriana (2005), *Vocabularul limbii române actuale*, Bucureşti: Editura All.
Stoichițoiu-Ichim, Adriana (2006), *Aspecte ale influenței engleze în româna actuală*, Bucureşti : Editura Universității din Bucureşti.
Trif, Radu Nicolae (2006), *Influența limbii engleze asupra limbii române în terminologia informaticii*, Bucuresti: Editura Academia Romana.
DTE: *Dicționar de termeni economici român*, *englez*, *francez*, *spaniol*, (2008), coordonator Ruxandra Vasilescu, Iaşi: Polirom.
NDU: *Noul dicționar universal al limbii române*, ediția a 3-a, (2008), Bucureşti: Editura Litera.
http://adevarul.ro/locale/brasov/brasovul-locul-1-exporturi-regiunea-centru-locul-4-national 1_5523a0d0448e03c0fd4da7ae/index.html, 7 april 2015, accessed 23 july 2015
http://adevarul.ro/life-style/auto/evolutia-pietei-leasing-operational-2013-crestere-35-1_53065a15c7b855ff56859ee0/index.html, 20 february 2014, accessed 24 july 2015
http://adevarul.ro/economie/stiri-economice/brico-depot-aniverseaza-an-succes-piata-bricolaj-romania-cudeschiderea-sase-depozite-1_5502cf78448e03c0fd84d7, 13 march 2015, accessed 25 july 2015
http://adevarul.ro/locale/braila/braiconf-sa-fabrica-camasi-braileana-vestita-inca-vremea regimului-comunist-lanseaza-serviciu-online-unic-romania-1_559a3541, 6 july 2015, accessed 27 july 2015
http://adevarul.ro/locale/oradea/Intreprinzatorii-afla-totul-despre-avantajele-riscurile-afacerilor-franciza-1_50ad18ec7c42d5a6638ea237/index.html, 15 january 2014, accessed 23 july 2015.

EPONYMY BASED ON NAMES OF COMPANIES

Éva Kovács
Eszterházy Károly College, Department of English Studies, Eger, Hungary
evikov@ektf.hu

Abstract:
As is generally defined, eponymy, one of the word-formation processes refers to the derivation of a name of a city, country, era, institution, or other place or thing from that of a person such as *sandwich, wellington, mackintosh or cardigan*. Eponymy can be classified in several ways, some refer to foods (Pizza Margaritha), diseases (*Alzheimer disease*), places (*Washington*), scientific laws (*Archimedes's principle*) and sport terms (*Axel jump*), whereas others indicate trademarks, brand names (*aspirin*), prizes, awards (*Nobel Prize*), inventions (*Rubic's Cube*), ideologies (*Darwinism*), colleges, universities (*Stanford University*) and companies (*Ford*). The present paper discusses eponyms which denote companies based on the name of their founder(s) (e.g. *Porsche, Siemens, Gucci, Campari, Cadbury, McDonald's* and *Walt Disney*, etc.) by revealing what kind of a metonymic relationship is manifested in them. Cognitive linguists, such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980), Radden and Kövecses (1999) and Kövecses (2002) state that metonymy is essentially a conceptual phenomenon, in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same idealized cognitive model. In fact, metonymy is part of our everyday way of thinking, and is grounded in experience. Common metonymies include PRODUCER FOR PRODUCT (Pass me the *Shakespeare* on the top shelf.), PLACE FOR EVENT (*Iraq* nearly cost Tony Blair the premiership), PLACE FOR INSTITUTION (*Downing Street* refused comment.), PART FOR THE WHOLE (She's not just *a pretty face.),* WHOLE FOR THE PART (*England* beat *Australia* in the 2003 Rugby World Cup final.) and EFFECT FOR CAUSE (He has *a long face*.). Following the cognitive approach to metonyms, I tentatively suggest that the metonymy PRODUCER FOR THE PRODUCT can be observed in the case of car makes, products of famous fashion houses, cosmetics and drinks as is illustrated by examples like He's bought a *Ferrari.* I ate *a McDonald* or We watched *Walt Disney* all day*.* I also point out that the producer and the product belong to the idealized cognitive model of PRODUCTION, in which the vehicle is the company producing the product and the target is the product produced by it.

Keywords: eponymy; word-formation; company names; metonymy; cognitive linguistics

1. Introduction

The English language is notoriously fast in adapting to the changing world, and therefore it is constantly changing. New words come into English in many different ways: a majority of the words used in English today are borrowed from other languages; others are formed by various word formation processes, such as derivation, compounding, clipping, functional shift, back-formation and blending

(Jackson and Amwela 2007). Many of them are created newly as neologisms whereas some come from proper names. The process by which a proper name, such as a surname, becomes generalized as a word—noun, verb, adjective, adverb—is technically known as eponymy, and an eponym is a word or name derived from a proper noun. Eponymy is generally defined as the derivation of a name of a city, country, era, institution, or other place or thing from that of a person. The word "eponymy" comes from the Greek "epōnymía" meaning "surname or derived name."

Eponyms can be classified into different categories depending on what they denote: foods (Dobos torta, Gundel palacsinta, Pizza Mageritha, Napoleon Brandy, Sachertorte and Sandwich, etc.), diseases (Alzheimer disease, Parkinson's disease and Asperger syndrome, etc.), places (Washington D. C., Dallas, Baltimore, Houston (US), St. Andrews, St Davids and St. Albans (Great Britain), etc.), scientific laws (Archimedes's principle, Einstein's general theory of relativity and Newton's law of motion, etc.), sport terms (figure skating: Axel jump, Salchow jump, artistic gymnastics: Magyar spindle, Yurchenko (vault), Tsukahara (vault), etc.), trademarks and brand names (aspirin, escalator, thermos, walkman and xerox, etc.), prizes, awards and medals (Davis Cup, Nobel Prize, Pulitzer Prize, etc.), inventions (Biro, Bunsen burner, Diesel engine, Cardigan, Rubic's Cube, Wellington boot, etc.,), ideologies (Leninism, McCarthyism, Buddhism, Calvinism, Darwinism and Freudianism, etc.), colleges and universities (King's College London, Stanford University, Harvard University and Yale University, etc.) and companies (Ford, Armani, Cadbury, IKEA, and Macy's, etc.) The main source of the examples used in the analysis is Eponym – Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, [Online], Available: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eponym.

The primary aim of this paper is to explore the type of eponyms which refer to companies named after their founders, focussing on the metonymic relationship between the product and the producer in them.

2. Eponyms denoting companies

2.1. Car manufacturing companies named after their founders:

The names of a great majority of manufacturers of automobiles, motor vehicles, motor cycles, commercial vehicles, power equipment, airplanes and trains are derived from the name of their founder(s).

Name of the company	**Founder(s)**
Bentley Motors Limited	W. O. Bentley
Honda Motor Co., Ltd.	Soichiro Honda
Citroën	André-Gustave Citroën
Ford Motor Company	Henry Ford
Porsche AG	Ferdinand Porsche
Toyota Motor Corporation	Kiichiro Toyota
Ferrari S.p.A.	Enzo Ferrari
Automobili Lamborghini S.p.A.	Ferruccio Lamborghini"
Yamaha Corporation	Torakusu Yamaha
Suzuki Motor Corporation	Michio Suzuki
Rolls-Royce Holdings plc	Henry Royce and Charles Rolls
Groupe Renault	Louis Renault and his brothers

	Marcel and Fernand
The Boeing Company	William Edward Boeing
Harley-Davidson Inc.	William S. Harley and Arthur Davidson
Bombardier Inc	Joseph-Armand Bombardier
Buick	David Dunbar Buick
Chevrolet	Louis Chevrolet
Chrysler	Walter Percy Chrysler
Kawasaki Heavy Industries, Limited	Kawasaki Shōzō
Peugeot	Armand Peugeot

Interestingly enough, Mazda Motor Corporation is not named after its founder, but its name is derived from Ahura Mazda, a god of wisdom, intelligence and harmony of the earliest civilizations in West Asia (Persia). The company name of Audi is based on the Latin translation of the surname of the founder, August Horch. "Horch", meaning "listen" in German, becomes "audi" in Latin. The luxury-vehicle manufacturer Cadillac was named not after its founder but after French explorer Antoine Laumet de La Mothe, sieur de Cadillac, who founded Detroit in 1701.

2.2. Companies manufacturing automotive components, tools named after the founders

There are also some manufacturers of auto and truck parts, automotive components; power tools and accessories, hardware and home improvement products; communication systems, medical diagnostics equipment; and chainsaws the name of which is based on their founder.

Name of the company	**Founder**
Pirelli & C. SpA	Giovanni Battista Pirelli,
Black & Decker Corporation	S. Duncan Black and Alonzo G. Decker
Robert Bosch GmbH	Robert Bosch
Siemens AG	Werner von Siemens
Andreas Stihl AG & Company	Andreas Stihl

However, it is worth mentioning here that The Goodyear Tire & Rubber Company is not named after its founder but American Charles Goodyear, inventor of vulcanized rubber.

2.3. Fashion and style houses, luxury goods and jewellery companies named after their founders

The names of most fashion houses and luxury goods, accessories and jewellery companies are based on the name of the person who founded them. Examples are:

Name of the fashion house	**Founder**
Giorgio Armani S.p.A.	Giorgio Armani
Calvin Klein Inc.	Calvin Klein
Gucci	Guccio Gucci
Benetton Group S.p.A.	the Benetton family
Christian Dior S.A.	Christian Dior

Yves Saint Laurent YSL	Yves Saint Laurent and his partner, Pierre Bergé i
The Estée Lauder Companies Inc.	Estée Lauder and her husband Joseph Lauder
Gianni Versace S.p.A.	Gianni Versace
Givenchy	Hubert de Givenchy
Hugo Boss AG	Hugo Boss
Lacoste	René Lacoste
Levi Strauss & Co.	Levi Strauss
Swarovski AG	Daniel Swarovski
Chanel S.A.	Gabrielle Chanel.
Bulgari	Sotirios Bulgaris
Valentino SpA.	Valentino Garavani

The name of *Max Factor* comes from its founder's name Maksymilian Faktorowicz, was a Polish-Jewish businessman. *Adidas* was estableshed by Adolf Dassler, the name of the company is based on his nickname. (**Adi Das**sler).

2.4. Companies producing drinks and beverages named after their founders

Some eponyms are derived from the names of companies producing various kinds of drinks and beverages, spirits, whiskies, wines, beers and soft drinks which were named after their inventors. Consider the following examples:

Name of the company	**Founder**
Davide Campari-Milano S.p.A.,	Gaspare Campari
Guinness	Arthur Guinness
Bacardi Limited	Facundo Bacardí Massó
Heineken International	Gerard Adriaan Heineken
Johnnie Walker	John (Johnnie) Walker
Beck's Brewery	Lüder Rutenberg, Heinrich Beck and Thomas May
Jas Hennessy & Co.,	Richard Hennessy
Courvoisier	Emmanuel Courvoisier
Rémy Martin	Rémy Martin
Martini & Rossi	Alessandro Martini, Luigi Rossi, Teofilo Sola
Moët & Chandon	Claude Moët

Dom Pérignon is a brand of vintage Champagne produced by the Champagne house Moët & Chandon, and serves as that house's prestige champagne. It is named after Dom Pérignon, a Benedictine monk who was an important quality pioneer for Champagne wine but who (contrary to popular myths) did not discover the champagne method for making sparkling wines. (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dom_Perignon_(wine)

2.5. Companies producing food named after their founders

There are also some food and confectionary companies which bear the name of their founders, who were confectioners and small-time pastry makers or businessmen, as illustrated by:

Name of the company	Founder
Ferrero SpA	Pietro Ferrero
Nestlé S.A	Henri Nestlé
Barilla S.p.A	Pietro Barilla
Cadbury	John Cadbury
H.J. Heinz Company	Henry Heinz

Danone is a multinational food-products corporation founded in 1919 by Isaac Carasso. The brand was named Danone after Danon, the nickname of his son Daniel Carasso.

2.6. Department stores, supermarkets, retailers, fast food restaurants named after their founders

The name of quite many department stores, supermarkets, retailers, fast food restaurants is also linked to the name of their founder(s), such as

Name of the company	Founder
Macy's	Rowland Hussey Macy
Marks and Spencer plc	Michael Marks and Thomas Spencer
Sainsbury's	John James Sainsbury
McDonald's Corporation	Richard and Maurice McDonald
Woolworths Group PLC	Frank Woolworth
Selfridges	Harry Gordon Selfridge.
Harrods	Charles Henry Harrod

C&A is an international Dutch chain of fashion retail clothing stores, founded by brothers Clemens and August Brenninkmeijer, and it is named after the initials of the founders' first names. *Tesco PLC* was founded in 1919 by Jack Cohen. The Tesco name first appeared in 1924, after Cohen purchased a shipment of tea from *T. E. Stockwell* and combined those initials with the first two letters of his surname. *Lidl Stiftung & Co. KG* was founded in the 1940s by a member of the Schwarz family. The name Lidl is the surname of a former business partner of Josef Schwarz's, Ludwig Lidl, a retired schoolteacher, and Josef's son Dieter Schwarz bought the rights to the name from him for 1,000 German Marks, as he could not use the name Schwarz Markt; *Schwarzmarkt* means "black market". *Aldi,* (the shortening of **Al**brecht **Di**scount), the discount supermarket chain founded by the brothers Theo Albrecht and Karl Albrecht got its name from the two letters of their surname.

2.7. Mass media, entertainment, film and television production companies named after their founders

Some American mass media, entertainment, film and television production companies also bear the names of their founders including:

Name of the company	Founder
The Walt Disney Company	Walt Disney and Roy O. Disney
Warner Bros. Entertainment Inc.	Warner brothers Harry, Albert, Sam and Jack
Hanna-Barbara Productions, Inc.	William Hanna and Joseph Barbara
Lucasfilm Ltd., LLC	George Lucas

2.8. Companies manufacturing various goods named after their founders

Companies manufacturing various goods such as furniture, consumer goods, toys, luggage, watches and pianos, etc. named after their founders frequently bear the name of their creators, as in:

Name of the company	**Founder**
Procter & Gamble Co.,	William Procter, James Gamble,
Fisher-Price	Herman Fisher, Irving Price, Margaret Evans Price, and Helen Schelle
Casio Computer Company, Limited	Kashio Tadao
Steinway & Sons	Heinrich Engelhard Steinway

Samsonite, a global luggage manufacturer and retailer, with products ranging from suitcases to backpacks and travel accessories was founded by Jesse Shwayder in 1919, who named one of his initial cases Samson, after the Biblical strongman, and began using the trademark *Samsonite* in 1941. *Casio* was established in April 1946 by Kashio Tadao, an engineer specializing in fabrication technology, the name of whom has been modified a little. *IKEA,* a multinational group of companies that designs and sells ready-to-assemble furniture (such as beds, chairs and desks), appliances, small motor vehicles and home accessories was founded by Ingvar Kamprad, the company's name is an acronym that consists of the initials of **I**ngvar **K**amprad, **E**lmtaryd (the farm where he grew up), and **A**gunnaryd (his hometown in Småland, south Sweden).

2.9. Technology, information technology companies named after their founders

Technology and information technology companies are also mostly be named after the person who established them such as: Hewlett-Packard Company after Bill Hewlett and Dave Packard or Koninklijke Philips N.V after Gerard Philips and his father Frederik.

2.10. Publishing companies named after their founders

The publishing company *Longman* was founded by Thomas Longman, *Merriam-Webster, Inc.* was established by Noah Webster, after whose death George and Charles Merriam continued the business.

2.11. Hotels, airlines named after their founders

Hotels and airlines are also sometimes named after their founders, such as Hilton Hotels & Resorts after Conrad Hilton, Marriott Corporation after one of its founders J. Willard Marriott. *Ryanair Ltd.* an Irish low-cost airline was created in 1985 by Christopher Ryan, Liam Lonergan and Irish businessman Tony Ryan (after whom the company is named).

3. Metonymic relationship between the company and its product

In literary or figurative language metonymy is mainly seen as a figure of speech consisting of the use of the name of one thing for that of another of which it is an attribute or with which it is associated (Merriam-Webster dictionary). In other words, metonymy operates on names of things, involves the substitution of the

name of one thing for that of another thing and assumes that the two things are somehow associated.
However, cognitive linguists, such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980), Radden and Kövecses (1999: 18) claim that metonymy is not just a matter of names of things, but essentially a conceptual phenomenon, which is part of our everyday way of thinking, and is grounded in experience. Lakoff and Johnson's example of the metonymy in *She's just a pretty face* illustrates the general conceptual nature of metonymy. We derive the basic information about a person from the person's face. The conceptual metonymy for it is THE FACE FOR THE PERSON, which is part of our everyday way of thinking about people.
As stated by Radden and Kövecses (1999: 19), metonymy is also a cognitive process, in which we mentally access one conceptual entity via another entity. In other words, two entities are associated so that one entity (face) stands for the other (person). As this example demonstrates, metonymy is referential in nature. As Langacker (1993: 30) put it, metonymy is a reference point phenomenon in which one conceptual entity, the reference-point, offers mental access to another conceptual entity, the desired target. Radden and Kövecses (1999:19) refer to the reference point as the vehicle and the desired target simply as the target. In the example of *She's just a pretty face*, the 'pretty face' serves as the vehicle for accessing the 'person' as the target.
Furthermore, Radden and Kövecses (1999: 20) point out that metonymy operates in an idealized cognitive model, which is meant to include not only people's encyclopaedic knowledge of a particular domain but also the cultural models they are part of. Thus, on the basis of the above mentioned three cognitive properties of metonymy, metonymy is defined by Radden and Kövecses (1999: 21) as follows:
Metonymy is a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same idealized cognitive model.
Some of the most frequently listed types of metonymies are provided by Evans (2007: 142-3) in the following classification:

PRODUCER FOR PRODUCT

I've just bought a new *Citroën.*
Pass me the *Shakespeare* on the top shelf.
She likes eating *Burger King*.

PLACE FOR EVENT

Iraq nearly cost Tony Blair the premiership.
American public opinion fears another *Vietnam.*
Let's hope that *Beijing* will be as successful an Olympics as *Athens.*

PLACE FOR INSTITUTION

Downing Street refused comment.
Paris and *Washington* are having a spat.
Europe has upped the stakes in the trade war with the United States.

PART FOR THE WHOLE

My *wheels* are parked out the back.
Lend me *a hand*.
She's not just *a pretty face.*

WHOLE FOR THE PART

England beat *Australia* in the 2003 Rugby World Cup final.
The European Union has just passed new human rights legislation.

My car has developed a mechanical fault.

EFFECT FOR CAUSE

He has *a long face*.

He has *a spring in his step* today.

Her face is beaming.

Metonymy is based on congruity, i.e. the vehicle and the target entity are closely related to each other in the same conceptual domain. The producer is closely related to the product, the place is closely related to the event, the place is closely related to the institution which is in that place, the whole is closely related to its parts, the parts are closely related to the whole and the effect is closely related to the cause which triggered it. In the case of metonymy there is always one idealized cognitive model (production, causation, action, etc.). Each can be interpreted in one single idealised cognitive model, in which one entity stands for another. (Kövecses 2002: 251).

We use eponyms frequently in our everyday life, in which we can observe a kind of metonymic relationship between the company that produced a certain product and the product itself. Such metonymic relationships can often be found in the case of car makes, products of famous fashion houses, cosmetics and drinks.

A good example of this is provided by the red carpet events of the Oscar Awards, or the Metropolitan Museum's charity Met Gala in New York, where pop stars, actresses and singers show off lavish evening dresses designed by famous fashion houses. The text under the photos clearly shows that the name of fashion house tends to stand for the dress designed by it (http://oscar.go.com/red-carpet, http://www.vogue.com/866286/best-dressed-2014-met-gala/):

Actress Emma Stone wearing *Elie Saab* as she attends the 87th Annual Academy Awards at Hollywood & Highland Center on February 22, 2015 in Hollywood, California.

Actress Jennifer Aniston in *Atelier Versace*.

Actress Chloe Grace Moretz wears *Miu Miu.*

Alexa Chung in *Nina Ricci.*

Diana Kruger in *Hugo Boss*.

Rihanna in *Stella McCarthy.*

Chloe Moretz in *Chanel.*

Marion Cotillard in *Christian Dior.*

Frank Ocean in *Givenchy.*

Ryan Reynolds in *Gucci.*

Rachel McAdams in *Ralph Lauren*, Victoria Beckham in *Victoria Beckham* and Anne Hathway in *Calvin Klein*.

Rihanna toting her new brown *Giorgio Armani.*

It will come as no surprise that she is wearing *Christian Dior*.

Consider some other examples of metonymic relationship between the producer and its product:

He's bought a *Porsche/Ferrari/Suzuki.*

I ate *a MacDonald/Burger King.*

Let's drink *a Johnny Walker/ a Beck's/a Heineken/ a Campari.*

Ferrero Rocher's are enjoyed around the world by millions of people.

I had the *Pirellis* but they wore quickly 25K miles.

He used to smell like *Hugo Boss* when I first met him.

He bought a brand new *Steinway.*

We watched *Walt Disney* all day yesterday.
Look it up in the *Webster-Merriam.*
This is a genuine *Swarowski.*

If we have a closer look at the above examples, we can say that one entity, the PRODUCER (e.g. Burger King) stands for another entity, the PRODUCT of the producer (e.g. one kind of sandwiches of Burger King). Furthermore, both the producer and the product belong to the idealized cognitive model of PRODUCTION, in which there can be several entities, the producer, the product, place of the production, etc. The vehicle is the company producing the product and the target is the product produced by it. A basic characteristic of metonymically related entities is that they are situated close to each other in the same conceptual domain. The producer and the product are close to each other as the product is produced by the producer. The vehicle provides mental access to the target as the two entities are in the same conceptual domain. In other words, metonymy is based on contiguity and they are closely related within the same conceptual domain. These entities form a complete whole, and are associated in our experience about the world as they usually emerge together. As they are closely related in our experience, they are used to substitute certain entities for other entities in the same idealized cognitive model (Kövecses: 2002: 149).

4. Conclusion

Eponymy, which refers to the derivation of a general name (a city, country, era, institution, or other place or thing) from that of a famous person, is one of the word formation processes in English. Eponyms have a lot of different types ranging from the ones denoting foods, diseases, scientific laws, sport terms, trademarks and brand names, through prizes, awards, inventions, ideologies, to colleges, universities and companies. Analysing the eponyms derived from the names of companies, I pointed out their metonymic nature. In the view of cognitive linguists, such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980), Radden and Kövecses (1999) and Kövecses (2002) metonymy is a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same idealized cognitive model. Accordingly, in my analysis I have tentatively suggested that many of the eponyms based on the names of companies can be interpreted in the PRDODUCTION idealized cognitive model, and there is a metonymic relationship between the name of the producer and the product, the former being the vehicle and the latter the intended target. Following cognitive linguists, I have also pointed out that metonymy is not just a matter of names of things, but essentially a conceptual phenomenon, which is part of our everyday way of thinking, and is grounded in experience.

References

Dom Pérignon (wine) – Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, [Online], Available: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dom_Perignon_(wine).

Eponym – Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, [Online], Available: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eponym.

Evans, V. (2007) *A Glossary of cognitive linguistics,* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press Ltd.

Jackson, H. and Amwela E. Z. (2007) *Words, Meaning and Vocabulary. An Introduction to modern English lexicology,* London: Continuum.
Kövecses, Z. (2002) A metafora. Gyakorlati bevezetés a kognitív metaforaelméletbe, Budapest: Typotex.
Lakoff, G. and Johnson, M. (1980) *Metaphors we live by,* Chicago: The university of Chicago Press.
Langacker, R.W. (1993) Reference-point constructions, *Cognitive linguistics,* No. 4, *pp* 1-38.
Met Gala-2014 The Best Dresssed Celebrities – Vogue, [Online], Available: http://www.vogue.com/866286/best-dressed-2014-met-gala/.
Metonym/Defintion of metonymy by Merriam-Webster, [Online], Available: http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/metonymy.
Oscar Red Carpet Photos 2015, [Online], Available: http://oscar.go.com/red-carpet.
Radden, G. and Kövecses Z. (1999) ”Towards a theory of metonymy”, in Panther, K.U. and Radden, G. (eds.) *Metonymy in Language and Thought,* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp 17-59.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF COMPLEXITY, ACCURACY AND FLUENCY TO LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Anthony Rausch
Hirosaki University (Faculty of Education), Hirosaki, Japan
asrausch@hirosaki-u.ac.jp

Abstract: *This paper will outline an instructional approach that proposes a Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency (CAF) paradigm as a means of providing learners with the CAF-based communication consciousness and CAF-oriented manipulative skills that are increasingly important in language use in Language for Specific Purposes. Given the complex combinations of communicative tasks, communicative formats and communicative circumstances that accompany the wide-ranging and various contexts of contemporary professional communication, communicative competence demands a combinative consciousness and informed application of Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency as a communication paradigm. Viewed as a combination of its three components, a CAF paradigm constitutes a fundamental 'information, language and communication' triad that can guide professional language use in any communicative circumstance. Viewed as a communicative skill set, the CAF triad implies the capability to adjust specific elements and aspects of information, language and communication as needed for a communicative task, whether in oral or print communication and regardless of task category. Adjusting complexity in this context refers to both content and language complexity. Adjusting accuracy refers to the conventions that dictate appropriate or acceptable language in a given context. Finally, adjusting fluency refers to a sense of communicative fluency, that which yields either smooth and persuasive language as in a native-speaker normative view or explicit and clearly explanatory language as necessary in some communicative encounters. The need to manipulate these three components depends on circumstance variables such as objective, available time, audience characteristics and the degree of detail desired. This paper will outline this combinative CAF notion as background to a materials development project being undertaken in a Japanese university, introducing the specifics of an Extended Reading Aloud format that involves learners in managing the content and language complexity, manipulating various language registers while focusing on accuracy, and proceduralizing communicative fluency in different communicative genres. While empirical testing of the interactions of Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency in a testing paradigm have yielded contentious and contradictory outcomes, the qualitative research findings presented in this paper contribute to an instructional application of CAF, a view that maximizes the potential of CAF in educational and communicative contexts. Although undertaken in a Japanese university English educational setting, the generalizations underlying the instructional materials are applicable to most ESL/EFL and LSP/ESP educational settings.*

Keywords: complexity, accuracy, fluency, communication, instruction, materials

1. Introduction

The linguistic aims within the broad scope of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) are generally centered on the specifics of the language of the profession, primarily the specialized vocabulary and patterned phrases as dictated by the specific purposes inherent in the communication of that profession. Thus, in the past, LSP education has focused on semantic content together with the language patterns as used in such disciplinary-specific tasks. However, given the complex combinations of communicative circumstances, communicative tasks, and communicative formats that accompany the many and varied contexts of contemporary professional communication, particularly between cultures and increasingly across areas of speciality as undertaken by speakers from various language backgrounds as well as with non-specialists, there is need for another viewpoint, one that prioritizes a capability to communicate disciplinary content as a function of overall communicative competence. The reality of the various communicative needs that can emerge in professional language use between cultural, discourse and knowledge communities means that a combinative notion of Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency (CAF) can make a significant contribution to LSP in use and therefore constitutes an important element in LSP education. Introduction of a CAF paradigm as instructional content in an educational curriculum related to LSP will prepare learners to be flexible as they approach different rhetorical contexts, text formats and communication demands. CAF as a skill set implies the capability to adjust the three elements—complexity, accuracy and fluency—as needed for a communicative task, whether in oral or print communication, and regardless of the specific objectives and circumstances of the task, whether declarative, summary, or persuasive, and constrained by such factors as time (as in a speaking task) or space (as in written communication), or background knowledge on the part of participants. Ultimately, any instructional consideration of CAF in LSP implies an informed approach incorporated into materials development, herein through a project focusing on *Extended Reading Aloud* undertaken in a Japanese university setting.

2. Literature Review: LSP versus CAF

2.1 *Language in use and instructional approaches*

Although the context of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) or English for Specific Purposes (ESP) implies that the focus should be, by definition, on language in a particular specialty, the contents herein focus rather on an instructional approach oriented toward language in use, one that provides understanding of CAF as a communicative paradigm and experience in adjusting CAF in actual communication, all with the aim of professional communication competence in the target language. The modern professional communication context implies communication both within a professional community itself, using specific terminology and phrasing, as well as with non-specialists, where a broader communicative competence is necessary. Gatehouse (2001) outlined these distinctions on the basis of an ability to use the jargon of the discipline, an ability to operate organizationally within the discipline, and an ability to use the language informally when necessary. Doyle (2013) countered such separation by pointing out that all language use can be considered LSP in one sense or another, either narrowly, as in language use for specific disciplines, professions or communicative work situations, or more broadly, as in cases where language is used informally, a specific cultural, ethnographic, pragmatic, and socio-dialectal use of language. In either conceptualization, it is clear that LSP instruction must broaden its scope and address communicative competence.

In terms of an appropriate and effective LSP/ESP instructional approach, one aspect often overlooked is the reality of the needs of the message recipient. Indeed, Strevens (1988) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) outlined the characteristics of ESP in its focus on the language of a speciality, the discipline it serves, and, with specific reference to instruction, its use toward meeting the needs of the specialist as language learner and user. Lacking in such a 'language and learner-centered' approach is recognition that communicative use of language implies effective communication with a target audience as an endpoint, often across a range of communicative formats. It is in this aspect that our instruction is less about ensuring that our students can master the fundamentals of some profession-specific code of communication than ensuring that they master an understanding of overall effective communication skills and have practice in using these skills such that their communication is effective. As Pace (2011) thus asserts, teaching a foreign language for specific purposes must reflect a use-based instructional approach. In terms of materials development, Bowles (2012) reminds us that a key challenge to the pedagogy and praxis of LSP lies in the reality that LSP practitioners must resolve issues of transitioning LSP-related analytical insights into instructable materials for the widest potential community of learners such that they can realize the widest range of successful communication. The objective of this research is to organize and test an approach that will prepare learners to adjust the CAF of their language to meet varying objectives and circumstances within a professional context.

2.2 CAF as an information and communication management system

Most research applications of Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency have been directed toward second language acquisition or performance testing (*cf.* Special Issue: Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency (CAF) in Second Language Acquistion Research, *Applied Linguistics* 30(4), 2009 or Housen, Kuiken & Vedder, 2012), where the three components are considered either separately, as competing factors that compromise performance (Limited Capacity Model: Skehan, 2001; Skehan & Foster, 1999), or in combination, as cognitively integrated factors (Cognition Hypothesis: Robinson, 2001). While much of this acquisition/performance testing-oriented research has been organized with a focus on task characteristics and measurement criteria, more recent research has considered CAF in terms of longitudinal development (Vercellotti, 2015) or premised CAF as within a dynamic systems theory framework (Larson-Freeman, 2012; Yang & Sun, 2015). However, when viewed specifically both in combination (as opposed to separately) and as an instructional paradigm (as opposed to in performance testing), Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency (CAF) constitutes a fundamental information, language and communication triad that can be taught, and thus learned, so as to guide language use in any communicative circumstance. These three qualities of language in use—informational content, syntactic structure, and communicative action—demand varying degrees of management and manipulation in actual language performance and interaction, and all three draw on the preparation—topical, linguistic, and communicative—and the capacity—linguistic, but also pragmatically communicative—of the speaker.

Fundamentally, complexity refers to the formal or semantic-functional properties of the language elements, but when considered in terms of language use in disciplinary-specific purposes, complexity also includes propositional complexity, as outlined by Bulte & Housen (2012), which identifies implications about the complexity of content as managed by the speaker. Accuracy refers to correctness, in its clearest sense, the extent to which a performance deviates from a prescriptive norm (Pallotti, 2009). However, problematic in terms of accuracy are considerations related to determination of what constitutes an 'error,' most notably in the communicative impacts of local errors versus global errors, as well as varying expectations and assessments of comprehensibilty, appropriateness and acceptablity (Housen, Kuiken & Vedder, 2012). Finally, fluency is most often viewed in terms of global language proficiency, usually measured against the standard of a native speaker and assessed in terms of speed fluency, breakdown fluency, and repair fluency (Skehan, 2009). However, here as well, conceptual expansion must be considered with regard both to use norms in various socio-cultural discourse communities on the one hand and the reality that 'communicative fluency' may in fact, counter usual considerations of fluency as proficiency, as 'communicative fluency' may imply slower and more enunciated speaking with repetition and rephrasing to ensure clarity of the utterance by the speaker and comprehension by the listener.

Given the interaction of the triadic components of CAF in terms of realizing effective communication, the instructional approach to be described herein views CAF as an information and communication management system. As such, complexity reflects manipulation of content complexity and management of the accordant language complexity, accuracy is a reflection of general language ability and the capability to adjust highly specific and professional language to situational demands regarding comprehensibility and acceptability on the part of the communication recipient, and fluency reflects adjustment of communication behaviour in response to situational factors such as time constraints, specific objectives, and participant characteristics. As a simple example of the reality and extent of information management and message manipulation in communication, one can imagine scenarios such as discussion of highly technical content (nuclear power) either among knowledgeable and like-minded experts or with relatively uninformed antagonists. These differing contexts would require either a high level of content complexity or, conversely, low level of content complexity, with the level of linguistic complexity dependent on this content level, and with either a high level of objective fluency (i.e. speed, breakdown and repair fluency but a low level of communicative fluency among the experts) versus a high level of communicative fluency (emphasizing clarity but with lower levels of objective fluency for the uninformed). Likewise, the same combination of factors can be identified for simple conversational content (weekend plans), depending on the level of content complexity (background factors and specificity, for example) and group communicative norms and situational expectations (simply reporting on plans versus attempting to persuade a friend to accompany you).

3. The instructional approach: *Extended Reading Aloud*

The basis of the instructional approach for the research reported on herein is *'Extended Reading Aloud,'* the use of repeated vocalized readings accompanying traditional vocabulary and grammar study as input, which is followed by activation of this content and language input as output, but adjusted for various objectives and under various situational constraints. The positive effects of reading aloud have been shown (Stroh, 2012; Yokouchi, 2015), with task repetition, constituting the 'extended' component of *Extended Reading Aloud,* yielding task proceduralization (de Jong & Perfetti, 2011; Date, 2015). The 'content' of the instructional materials includes six personal/individual themes and six academic/professional themes. These themes are presented as input through two successive 'Extended (Repeated) Read Aloud' tasks that are organized as either 'presentation' genres (academic presentations, interview formats, symposium formats, etc.) or 'conversation' genres of a varying number of participants and with varying aspects of agreement versus disagreement and summarization, description, persuasion and opinion. This is the combinative aspect of CAF through *Extended Reading Aloud.* The topic indicates content, with content and language complexity a function of the objective in either a presentation genre or a conversation genre. Focused study addresses vocabulary acquisition, solidification and expansion together with syntactic accuracy. Repetitive reading aloud implies performance proceduralization, providing for fluency in a particular genre. Undertaking the same content in different communicative genres calls for adjustments in the complexity of content and subsequently the language used, as the 'language' of, for example, a presentation genre versus a conversation genre varies significantly despite the similarity of the content.

As an example of the variation between genres in the readings, consider the following two passages about 'responsibility for protection of the environment,' noticing the variations in form that are possible and the reductions between the 'original official' form and the 'student retelling' (Rausch, 2015):

Passage 1

Local Resident Representative: *Protection of the environment is ultimately the responsibility of ordinary individuals acting as responsible citizens and consumers. But we also have to understand that protecting the environment is more than just reducing energy and material consumption. More important is recognition that we have to force government and business to fulfill their roles and do their parts as well. Government is supposed to make laws that protect the environment for the good of all citizens, but we have seen that government doesn't always respond to citizen demands. And although one would think that* *protecting the environment would be 'good business,' the truth is that we cannot trust the private sector to do what is right in terms of environmental protection – businesses prioritize profits. We must force business to do what is right for the environment through consumer pressure. In the end, it is only through clear citizen demands to government and consumer action toward business that the environment will be protected. (160 words)*

Passage 2

Student reporting on what the Local Resident Representative said: *The Local Resident Representative said that citizens are responsible for protecting the environment, and that we do this through forcing government and the private sector to take proper action to do so. Laws are necessary, so we have to ensure that the government makes those laws, and businesses cannot be trusted in this regard. Ultimately, we have to demand that government fulfills it role, and, through our consumer power, force businesses to protect the environment along with making profits.*
(79 words)

Together with traditional language learning activities that focus on intensive language study for sake of accuracy, this constitutes the 'input' stage of the instructional process, but with the *Extended Reading Aloud* repetition as a fundamental aspect of this input. The 'output' stage, with a focus on realistic language production, involves having learners activate the 'input' through language production with various objectives and under various conditions. The objectives might include 'reporting-summarizing,' 'reaching agreement-expressing disagreement,' 'explanation of details-justification of action,' or simply reporting on one's own ideas, each with differing format, time, target listener, and other situational variables. In this manner, the learner is forced to adjust complexity (content, but also linguistic), ensure accuracy (to the degree possible depending on learner level), and approach fluency (whether objective or communicative).

4. Research findings

As the objective of the present research is less to clarify the interactions between the three CAF components in a performance testing paradigm than to develop a curriculum and instructional materials that will provide for consciousness of CAF and skills in manipulating CAF under various task conditions, the qualitative assessments herein differ from the quantitative parameters used in most research approaches, which have largely yielded contested and competing claims (Housen, Kuiken & Vedder, 2012; Tonkyn, 2012). As such, student task responses, taken both in spoken form and in written form (with time constraints used as fluency impact factors), were assessed both with general measures of complexity, accuracy and fluency and with assessments of competence. For assessment of complexity, along with overall length and linguistic complexity assessment, the primary measure is the degree to which the student-produced content matches or extends the original content of the textbook in terms of both content and language (propositional complexity and linguistic complexity). Regarding accuracy, assessment considers both deviations from the textbook language, as well as errors: local-insignificant (grammatical: no impact), local-significant (grammatical: some impact on meaning or comprehension), global-insignificant (impact on overall meaning: not significant) or global-significant (impact on overall meaning: compromises overall meaning). As for fluency, a variety of measures are used, including completion and completeness within the time constraint, use of discourse features introduced in the textbook, and subjective 'quality' assessments by classmates (Rausch, 2014). A final assessment point is self-assessment and protocol statements by the 'speaker,' where Likert-based responses regarding satisfaction and self-assessment of the complexity, accuracy and fluency along with recall about the factors influencing the language production are considered against these external assessments. While questions regarding the reliability and interpretability of self-assessment remain (Saito, n.d.), learners have been found to be generally correct in their self-perception of their language performance (Bei, 2012). Taken together, this overall assessment approach captures CAF consciousness, CAF manipulation capability and CAF communicative quality on the basis of the instructional approach.

Based on tasks that require students to 'make a presentation (written form) on a textbook topic,' previous findings relevant to the present research revealed three CAF 'performance' groups, described in the first two groups by their focus on 'language complexity,' in which learners used language for content as presented in the text, and 'content complexity,' reflecting the generation and inclusion of original content in learner produced language (Rausch, 2014). Protocol responses by the former group (language complexity) revealed this focus on 'language complexity,' as students sought to mirror the content and language of the text, a consciousness of producing a highly accurate performance within the time constraint. Indications by the latter group (content complexity) revealed attempts to expand on the textbook content by complementing it with additional content. Hence, the focus in the first group was the input content and language presented accurately, whereas the focus in the second group was additional content equating added complexity undertaken with less regard to compromises in language accuracy, with both groups deemed fluent in terms of effectively completing the task under the situational constraints. The third group was a limited performance group, both in terms of complexity, whether content or language and textbook based or original, and fluency; this third group clearly needed more time to complete the communicative task, with some question as to the quality of the performance that could be attained even with more time allowed.

Similarly, in the present research, language complexity versus content complexity reflected either an adherence to content (and language) as presented in the textbook versus attempts to incorporate additional content (and language) added to the text content, but again within the fluency considerations of the task measured as a function of time constraints (i.e. completing a task competently within a set amount of time). The primary research methodology in the present research consisted of an instructor evaluation of student 'content performances' over several 'from-memory content presentation' tasks together with student self-assessments of their own 'task competence.' On the basis of assignment to higher level or lower level classes based on university entrance exam scores, students were categorized as high expectation (N=31) or low expectation (N=35). The research consisted of three fairly similar timed tasks, one of 12 minutes, one of eight minutes and one of five minutes, in which students were instructed to report on a theme that had been studied in the *'Extended Reading Aloud'* textbook. For the high expectation group in the 12-minute task, instructor evaluation of content found that, similar to the previous research findings, approximately 35% of students responded with 'high textbook content and high language accuracy.' Slightly more (40%) responded to the task with 'high original content and moderate language accuracy'. Finally, 25% yielded a poor performance, characterized by completion of the task, but with poor content (reflecting neither text content nor original content) and poor overall language accuracy. While problematic CAF factors influencing task competence were reported to be minimal for the 'high textbook content and high language accuracy' group, lack of content knowledge, rather than lack of language capability, was reported as problematic by the 'high original content and moderate language accuracy' group, with lack of time the problematic factor for the low performance group. Differing from this three-group characterization for the 12-minute task, responses to the five-minute task revealed a more basic division, revealing a high textbook content complexity and high language accuracy group (60%) versus a low content complexity and low accuracy group (40%), meaning that, while limited time is a detrimental factor for most, more pointedly, those that mirrored a complex text can manage under time constraints on the one hand, but those prioritizing additional content gave up and opted for the text as guide as well on the other.

Turning to the student self-assessment measure, for the high expectation group, based on a five-point Likert scale self assessment, 26 out of 31 students assessed their overall task competence as low (self-assessed as 3, 2, 1), countered by just 5 out of 31 who viewed their overall performance as competent (self-assessed as 4, 5). However, when assessing aspects of competence in specific terms of complexity, accuracy or fluency, ten of these 26 self-assessed 'low competence' students saw their complexity competence as high and ten saw their fluency competence as high, with overlap in approximately half of these high competence responses (with the remaining ten not rating themselves high on any CAF component). On the other hand, for the low expectation group, 18 out of 32 students assessed themselves as low in overall competence against 14 who viewed their performance as high (three non responses). The results regarding specific components of complexity, accuracy and fluency for the low expectation group were, however, more mixed, with a random six students citing high competence for complexity and accuracy and eight for fluency; the remainder did not indicate any high CAF component.

This stage of the research indicates that, with manageable time circumstances, one-third of learners will respond to a task based primarily on the content they have studied, managing complexity, accuracy and fluency on this basis and completing the task adequately. An additional one-third will seek to expand on the content complexity, risking the language quality of the original content due to limitations in accuracy but being able to work within the fluency constraint (i.e. complete the task) in order to add their views or additional information relevant to the task theme. Finally, one-third of the learners could complete the task minimally, but with questionable content complexity and language accuracy (limited or incomplete content and significant local and global errors). However, under more constrained communication conditions (limited time), attempts to include original content are largely abandoned, as that otherwise could opted for more manageable content and language, with some unable to adapt to the time constraints. Furthermore, learners tended to view their overall performances somewhat negatively (although this might be a Japanese trait), even as they were able to separate out assessments of specific CAF elements within this overall assessment, as indicated by the positive competence self assessments to complexity and fluency. This should be indicative of consciousness of the separate elements of CAF, awareness of the differing nature of the elements, and potential for more specific instruction toward greater manipulation of the CAF elements on the part of learners.

5. Conclusion

This paper outlined the basis for an instructional approach to Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) prioritizing introduction and manipulation of Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency (CAF) as a means of providing learners with the wide-ranging communication skills useful in LSP. Given the complex combinations of communicative circumstances, tasks, and formats that accompany various contexts of professional communication, communicative competence in LSP demands an extensive and combinative notion of CAF. An understanding of CAF and experience manipulating the components of CAF implies the capability to adjust the three elements as needed for a communicative task across task genres and situational constraints. In the present research, communicative intentions and CAF skills resulted in performances that either sought content complexity through reliance on a fixed text or expansion of content complexity by virtue of inclusion of additional information, with each being realized within fluency constraints but with lower language accuracy in the latter. As the research findings indicate, under a CAF paradigm, some students made a conscious decision to focus on the text content and language so as to be accurate and fluent, whereas other students accepted concessions to lower accuracy in the form of local errors in order to expand the content complexity while keeping to specific fluency constraints. The fact that students reported varying competencies regarding complexity competence and fluency competence within a low overall performance competency assessment indicates that they are aware of the three separate elements of a CAF paradigm.

While the trajectory of language learning tends to progress from simpler vocabulary and forms to more complex, particularly when transitioning from general language learning to LSP/ESP, it is important to keep in mind, and to ensure that LSP/ESP learners have in mind, the fact that under different communicative circumstances, adjustments in complexity of both content and language are necessary. In the present research, learners seemed to be aware that they could control the Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency components of communication, even within a performance judged to be of low overall quality. Yet attempts to manipulate those components proved more elusive, as learners seemed to abandon attempts at simplifying original content under stricter time constraints, instead opting for reliance on learned input in prescribed language. The instructional materials introduced used an *Extended Reading Aloud* approach based on different genre treatments of similar content as a means for learners to ‘experience’ changes in CAF, with an ‘output’ component undertaken under diverse situational variables (differing time constraints) that provided them the opportunity to practice control and manipulation of CAF in their own language production. The results of the qualitative research oriented toward better instruction indicate the potential to develop consciousness of the specific CAF elements and awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses in manipulating those elements. This indicates the potential for more informed and focused instruction and practice on using Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency as a means of improving communicative performance under diverse communicative circumstances. While undertaken in a Japanese university setting with undergraduate students, the approaches presented logically extend to most LSP/ESP educational settings.

References

Bei, G. X. (2012). “Effects of Immediate Repetition in L2 Speaking Tasks: A Focused Study”, *English Language Teaching*, Vol. 6(1), pp. 11-19.

Bowles, H. (2012). “Analyzing language for specific purposes”, *Modern Language Journal,* Vol. 96, pp. 43-58.

Bulte, B. & Housen, A. (2012). “Defining and Operationalizing L2 Complexity”, in Housen, A., Kuiken, F. & Vedder, I (eds) *Dimensions of L2 Performance and Proficiency: Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency in SLA*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Date, M. (2015). “Does Form Instruction During Task Repetition Facillitate Proceduralization and Accuracy of Linguistic Knowledge?”, *Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*, Vol. 26, pp. 189-204.

De Jong, N. & Perfetti, C. A. (2011). “Fluency Training in the ESL Classroom: An Experimental Study of Fluency Development and Proceduralization”, *Language Learning*, Vol. 61, pp. 533-568.

Doyle, M. S. (2013). “Continuing Theoretical Cartography in the Language for Specific Purposes Era,” in Sanchez-Lopez, L. (ed.) *Scholarship and Teaching on Languages for Specific Purposes*, UAB Digital Collections.

Dudley-Evans, T. & St. John, M. (1998). *Developments in ESP: A multi-disciplinary approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gatehouse, K. (2001). “Key Issues in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Curriculum Development”, *The Internet TESL Journal.*

Housen, A., Kuiken, F. & Vedder, I. (2012). “*Dimensions of L2 Performance and Proficiency: Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency in SLA*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Housen, A., Kuiken, F. & Vedder, I. (2012). “Complexity, accuracy and fluency: Definitions, measurement and research,” in Housen, A., Kuiken, F. & Vedder, I (eds) *Dimensions of L2 Performance and Proficiency: Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency in SLA*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Larson-Freeman, D. (2012). “Complex, dynamic systems: A new transdisciplinary theme for applied linguistics?”, *Language Teaching,* Vol. 45, pp. 202-214*.*

Pace, M. (2011). “The Teaching of Foreign Languages for Specific Purposes: The Way Forward, *International Conference “ICT for Language Learning,” pp. 1-4.*

Pallotti, G. (2009). “CAF: Defining, Refining and Differentiating Constructs”, *Applied Linguistics,* Vol. 30(4), pp. 590-601.

Rausch, A. (2014). “Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency: A New Paradigm for Language Education and Cross-Cultural Communication”, *The North American Conference on Education 2014 Official Conference Proceedings,* pp. 17-30*.*

Rausch, A. (2015). *Communication Upgrade: Extended Reading Aloud.* Tokyo, Japan: DTP Publishing.

Robinson, P. (2001). “Task Complexity, Task Difficulty, and Task Production: Exploring Interactions in a Componential Framework”, *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 22(1), pp. 27-57.

Saito, Y. (n.d.). “The Use of Self-assessment in Second Language Assessment,” www.tc.columbia.edu/academic/tesol/WJFiles/pdf/Saito_Forum.pdf. Accessed October, 2015.

Skehan, P. (2001). “Tasks and language performance assessment”, in Bygate, M. Skehan, P. & Swain, M. (eds.) *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Langauge Learning, Teaching and Testing,* Harlow: Pearson Education.

Skehan, P. (2009). “Modelling Second Language Performance: Integrating Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency, and Lexis”, *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 30(4), pp. 510-532.

Skehan, P. & Foster, P. (1999). “The Influence of Task Structure and Processing Conditions on Narrative Retellings”, *Language Learning,* Vol. 49(1), pp. 93-100.

Strevens. P. (1988). ESP after twenty-years: A re-appraisal. In Tickoo, M. (ed.) *ESP: State of the Art*, Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Center.

Stroh, E. N. (2012). “The Effect of Repeated Reading Aloud on the Speaking Fluency of Russian Language Learners”, *All Theses and Dissertations*. Paper 3325.

Tonkyn, A. (2012). “Measuring and perceiving changes in oral complexity, accuracy and fluency: Examing instructed learners’ short-term gains,” in Housen, A., Kuiken, F. & Vedder, I (eds) *Dimensions of L2 Performance and Proficiency: Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency in SLA*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Vercellotti, M. L. (2015). “The Development of Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency in Second Language Performance: A Longitudinal Study”, *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 36(5), pp. 1-23.

Yang, W. & Sun, Y. ().“Dynamic Development of Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency in Multilingual Learners’ L1, L2 and L3 Writing”, *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* Vol. 5(2), pp. 298-308.

Yokouchi, Y. (2015). “The Effects of a Reading Aloud Activity on Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency”, *Tohoku English Education Association Annual Bulletin*, Vol. 35, pp 35-45.

HOW ADVERTISING SHAPES OUR MINDS: PRAGMATIC AND COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

Olena Olenyuk
The department of English philology, faculty of foreign languages, Ivan Franko National University of L'viv, L'viv, Ukraine
lenaolenyuk1@gmail.com

Abstract: *The immense role of advertising in modern world can hardly be limited only to persuading the addressee to buy a certain product. Its functions extend far beyond informing, influencing or stimulating and reach the level of cognition and conceptualization. The fact is advertising manipulates language to achieve its ends, and the strategies at its disposal are manifold. Moreover, it creates the substitute reality, which interferes with the recipient's world view, thus realizing its manipulative potential. Manipulation as a specific form of hidden psychological persuasion involves two participants (a manipulator and a manipulated) and is aimed at psychological categories of anchors, targets, and social stereotypes. When extrapolated to the realm of cognitive linguistics, the above mentioned notions correspond to those of the frame of the addresser, the frame of the addressee and the basic concepts of advertising discourse. The purpose of this article is to view advertising discourse in terms of both pragmatics and cognitive linguistics in order to study the nature of manipulation exerted in it, to reveal the involved strategies, to single out the key concepts, which serve as the constituents of the world view, being simultaneously its reflectors and its moulders. In order to fulfil the objectives the wide range of linguistic methods has been employed. The methods of communicative approach in linguistics have been applied to single out the constituents of advertising as a complex speech macroact with the persuasive microact being the only obligatory one. The findings of linguistic psychology substantiate the manipulative nature of advertising. The functional analysis serves as the basis for revealing its communicative strategies. The application of the tools of cognitive linguistics enables the detection of six key concepts of advertising discourse and their conceptual markers.The modern American magazine advertising discourse within the period from 2009 to 2014 has been selected as the material for the research, with 2000 samples of advertising discourse being analyzed. The main conclusion to be drawn is that advertising contributes to moulding the addressee's world view, thus affecting the way the recipient perceives the reality and shaping his/her values.To put it another way, advertising discourse causes shifts in human cognition and imposes on its recipients new ideals, standards and moral principles.*

Keywords: advertising discourse; manipulation; world view; concept; conceptual markers.

1. Defining Advertising Discourse

The concept of advertising combines the process of its creation, the means of its transmission and the final product. In view of the fact that the analysis of advertising is impossible without considering extralinguistic factors such as market research, identifying the target audience, the choice of distribution channel, selection of unique selling points, it should be studied from the perspective of the discourse analysis and qualified as "discourse" since it is discourse that provides the description of language units in two dimensions, which can be brought to textual and contextual (van Dijk, 1988: 25). Cook put it as follows: "although the focus of discourse analysis is on language, it is not concerned with the language alone. It also examines the context of communication: who is communicating with whom and why; in what kind of society and situation; through what medium; how different types and acts of communication evolved, and their relationship to each other" (Cook, 2005: 1-2). Thus, discourse enables the combination of the communicative situation that involves the minds of the participants, and the text that is created in the process of communication.

The interpretations of discourse are manifold and vary in different linguistic schools. However, it is generally acknowledged that discourse is anthropocentric; dynamic; verbally fixed as a text; combines the process and result; is a product of social interaction and cannot be separated from the context.

The aforementioned characteristics are also typical of advertising discourse (henceforward AD). Hence, the outcome of the advertisement creation is represented in a form of a verbal text due to the interaction with the social life and response to its slightest alternations, reflecting thus the world view of a certain social community. In our study, AD is defined as a cognitively structured, verbalized as a text, product of a social activity of a person with clearly noticeable persuasive potential.

2. Integral Features of AD

Despite the plethora of definitions of AD, the fact regarding its intentional and persuasive nature remains axiomatic. However, the character of the impact is quite ambiguous, ranging from explicit informative influence to manipulative persuasion.

2.1. Persuasion in AD

One of the primary tasks of advertising, along with providing information, is persuading. Although the concept of persuasion is versatile and, virtually, all language use can be regarded as persuasive, we will limit it to the linguistic activities that imply changing or adjusting the opinion of an audience.

As viewed in terms of communication, advertising is a complex speech macroact, structured by a number of smaller microacts with a certain illocutionary force, i.e. possessing particular intention. However, all of them act as subordinates in regard to a persuasive microact, which is the only obligatory one. Hence, the advertising macroact is of indirect nature, since its main illocutionary force is disguised by the minor intentions. The minor intentions are expressed explicitly, the major goal, which aims at changing the recipient's behaviour by means of persuasion, is hidden.

"Individuals are persuaded when they have been induced to abandon one set of behaviours and to adopt another" (Miller, 2002: 6). Therefore, persuasive communication is any message that is intended "to shape, reinforce, or change the responses of others" (Miller 2002). AD modifies those responses, appealing to the reason and emotions of the recipient.

.
2.2. Manipulation in AD

In order to manipulate the individual's behaviour, a number of psychological mechanisms are involved; stereotypes, targets and anchors being among them.

Stereotypes are simplified, standardized images, reflections of the real world phenomena that serve as reference points in the process of conducting a positive or negative evaluation. They can be identified, described, analyzed, but the individuals themselves cannot detect the influence of stereotypes on their behaviour or attitude, inasmuch the conscious control is rarely applied in the sphere of emotions. It was Freud (Freud, 1949) who claimed the effectiveness of the influence exerted in the realm of unconsciousness. Following his theory, emotions and instincts are most problematically controlled, consequently, much easier and more effectively influenced. That is due to this fact that manipulation appeals to the stereotypes. The AD employs the stereotypes rooted in the minds of the audience and evokes them to be associated with the advertised object. By way of illustration, the most frequently used stereotype in AD is the one about everything new being better, enhanced, of higher quality. Verbally, it is expressed through the recurrent use of the adjective *new. New flawless finish sponge-on cream make-up* [Marie Claire, January, 2013]. *Get to know the new BlackBerry Storm 2 smartphone* [Esquire, January, 2010]. *New even better eyes dark circles corrector visibly lightens the entire eye area* [Elle, October, 2012]. A new product possesses positive evaluation, but what truly makes it different from the "old" one is rarely indicated in the message. Therefore, stereotypes act as stimuli in the realm of the subconscious, and the programmed reaction can be gained by employing them.

Targets are personal characteristics of an individual, their needs, desires, weaknesses, and affecting those, the initiator channels the addressee into necessary solution. The manipulator seeks for the strings, which, when pulled, lead to the expected outcome. Among those, one can mention unsatisfied needs, habits, traits of character, wishes, i.e. everything that operates subconsciously and is triggered automatically.

Anchors can be defined as fixed images in the mind, which, while being addressed, evoke the necessary experience, refer to existing beliefs, values, attitudes, accepted norms. One may find a visual symbol, a sound, even a smell performing the function of an anchor. Pictures of babies, family environment, a person of authority, healthy smile may serve as the examples of an anchor. Linguistic units, in particular those with pronounced positive connotation, are equally effective anchors, e.g. *great, delicious, stylish, pure, light, protection, smooth, soft, radiant, love, high standards, perfect, best friend, sweet, sun, fresh, natural, beautiful, high quality, healthy, clear, harmony, stunning, care, effortless, prestige, confidence, nourishment* etc. The role of anchors lies in stimulating the desired behaviour of a recipient or modifying the existing sets. In order to persuade an addressee, it is sufficient to suggest the targeted opinion the moment they are captivated by positive emotions, caused by the previous use of anchors.

The fact that AD aims at influencing the unconscious and is not subject to control by the receiver, provides the implications for categorizing it as a type of manipulative discourse. Manipulation takes place when the recipient is unaware of certain elements of the message, which brings the sender into the advantageous position. Its hidden nature is *sine qua non* of manipulation. Hence, there is the reason to assume that manipulation is the inherent feature of AD and it is implemented by thoroughly planned strategies (concealed from an average recipient), for the clear purpose of bringing profit to an advertiser at the expense of a consumer.

3. Advertising as Strategically-Planned Communication

Exerting influence is “the fundamental basis of any communicative situation” (Haslett, 1987) and basic analysis of linguistic aspects of persuasion is related to the study of communicative strategies of a speaker and all language resources at their disposal that determine the achievement of communicative goal. These communicative strategies contribute to the organization of discourse that aims at implementing the pragmatic impact on the recipient.

3.1. Understanding the Concept of “Strategy”

Recently, there has been an increase of interest in the term “strategy” (van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983; Haverkate, 1984; Hasslet, 1987; Sanders, 1987), which has led to the emergence of a number of its interpretations. Following van Dijk and Kintsch, we assume that linguistic phenomena of strategic nature which are not algorithmic can be distinguished in terms of the principle of intentionality (van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983). Thus, we differentiate between the thinking strategies, the strategies of comprehension (interpretation) of the text, or cognitive, and communicative strategies. Thinking strategies are not intentional. Cognitive strategies aim at processing information and provide learning, storing and retrieving information from memory. Communicative strategies are purposeful communicative events, aimed at achieving particular communicative goals, and in terms of advertising communication meant to exert effective persuasion.

3.2. Communicative Strategies in AD

Classifications of strategies vary depending on the type of discourse, the situation, needs, goals and intentions of a speaker, which creates the foundation for numerous categorizations. For that very reason, the number of communication strategies as well as the number of speech genres (which can be compared to communicative strategies) is countless.

Our suggestion is that communicative strategies in AD should be classified according to the goals, pursued in advertising communication. The main objectives of AD are: to draw attention to the product; to single out the advertised product among the products of a similar function; to impose the need for the product on the consumer; to sell the product; to adjust the existing and create new values and ideals. Therefore, we identify the following strategies in AD: the strategy of drawing attention to the advertised object; the positioning strategy; the strategy of creating needs, and the strategy of stimulating actions.

A number of tactics, which in their indissoluble unity are all subject to manipulative macrostrategy, aiming at moulding the recipient’s world view, enables the realization of each strategy. Due to the manipulative macrostrategy the individual’s axiological system is transformed, the process of reappraisal of moral values is conducted, the stereotyped patterns of behaviour are implanted, a new type of individual – easily manageable and subjected to external influence – is cultivated. The world view is formed in the mind of each individual, and on being shaped determines and guides their activities. Accordingly, the adjustment of the world view offers an opportunity for programming the desired behaviour of the recipient. This procedure includes a number of complex cognitive processes. The language here acts as the integral, though not the only possible means of cognition. That is cognitive linguistics, with its fundamental assertion that a language serves as an indispensable tool for cognition in close cooperation with its communicative, psychological and cultural factors, that enables holistic approach to the study of AD. Hence, as suggested by Langacker, "for a full and explicit description of interaction and discourse, a cognitive perspective is necessary (though not sufficient). A detailed characterization of the conceptual structures being built and manipulated is as fundamental and indispensable to discourse study as it is to grammatical investigation" (Langacker, 2002: 185).

Therefore, in order to thoroughly examine manipulative potential of advertising, in view of not only representation, where it is reduced only to pragmatic assumptions and leaves such issues as interpretation and valuation unaccounted, we refer to the tools of cognitive linguistics.

4. AD Through the Lens of Cognitive Linguistics

The studies of anchors and targets patterns reveal principally their psychological peculiarities, the analysis of stereotypes provides us with the cultural and sociological background, and the research on the participants of advertising communication presents pragmatic characteristics. To unify the abovementioned findings and suggest the holistic representation of AD, we extrapolate the notions to the realm of cognitive linguistics and analyze them using the conceptual framework of the science. Accordingly, stereotypes, anchors and targets, as condensed imprints of the objects of reality are reflected in concepts as the fragments of the world view.

4.1. The World View Reflected in AD

The notion of the world view is a part of the cognitive paradigm in linguistics. It is created by an individual in the process of their cognitive and mental activity. This is a secondary objective reflection of the world that is fixed and embodied in a kind of tangible form - namely, language. This is a kind of mental map that guides a person's deeds and actions among the things and events of real life. This is the arranged set of knowledge about reality that is formed in social, group, or individual consciousness. Therefore, the world view is the reflection of the reality designed to simplify and schematize it. According to Pratkanis and Aronson, an average addressee is a "cognitive miser" (Pratkanis and Aronson, 2008: 38), a person who spends minimum of efforts in the process of acquiring and processing information. Thus, a ready-made product of a universal world view, which provides the foundation for further actions and deeds, is created for an average recipient. That means that the media monopolize the process of shaping the world view and "largely determine what we think, how we feel and what we do about our social and political environment" (Stein, 2005: xii).

Consequently, AD, as an integral element of modern mass media continuum is not a reflection of reality, on the contrary, it is one of the key sources of its construction, and, accordingly, of the shaping the existing world view of a recipient. The world view can be reconstructed and described in terms of concepts that serve as its structural elements.

4.2. Concepts as Constituents of the World View in AD

The nature and definition of a concept has been the subject of much debate (Jackendoff, 1994; Langacker, 2002; Wierzbicka, 1992; Karasik, 2002). This is due to the fact that the studies of the mind, the language and their correlation have adopted fairly opposing approaches, with cognitive, psychological and cultural being among them. This research is based on Karasik's vision of concepts as basic oppositions that structure the world view. Following his integrated approach, which combines cognitive, psychological and cultural linguistic paradigms, we define a concept as a complex, multi-dimensional, multi-constituent mental construction, which is reflected in the collective consciousness, is associated with a specific sphere of reality and is expressed in various linguistic forms. Thus, psycholinguistic approach to the concept enables the separation of its affective side, so the axiological constituent is singled out. Perceptive and cognitive sides of the concept are highlighted from the standpoint of cognitive linguistics, which presents its figurative constituent. Linguistic representation of the concepts leads to the notional constituent. Therefore, the concepts are analyzed in terms of their notional, figurative and axiological constituents.

The careful analysis of the selected material has enabled the detection of frequently activated concepts of AD and their conceptual markers, which reflect basic needs, wishes, hopes and aspiration of a recipient. The following procedure has been applied. Firstly, the dictionary definitions (ODE, LDOCE, MEDAL, CCAD) served as the basis for conceptual markers at the notional level. Secondly, the modes of perception (auditory, visual, gustatory, olfactory, and tactile) provided the foundation for identifying conceptual markers of the figurative layer. Thirdly, the axiological constituent was presented through the evaluation based on three types of evaluative meanings, namely, sensory, sublimated, and rational. Consequently, each concept has been organized by a variety of its conceptual markers, which reveal the internal structure of the concept. Six key concepts of AD have been singled out on the basis of their quantitative representation. The results are presented in the following tables.

Table 1: CONCEPT SUCCESS (67 %)

	Notional layer	**Figurative layer**	**Axiological layer**
Conceptual markers		visual perception	holistic positive
	succeeding	wealth	
	one that succeeds	high position	
	fame	fame	
	wealth	having a partner	
	high position		

The most frequently recurrent concept in the AD under study is that of SUCCESS, which accounts for 67 %, correspondingly 1340 cases of actualization. Its reification is verbal as well as visual. *Hold your head proud, and raise your fun flag high. And claim what you deserve. Claim your Mazda 3* [Cosmopolitan, May, 2010]. *Combining rock-solid stability and the winning momentum it takes to drive economic growth, our teams partner with you to achieve your goals every day. Barclays* [The Week, May 21, 2011].*Toshiba laptops let you take the world by* *storm – and your life beyond limits.* [Men's Journal, April, 2010]. *Rolex. A crown for every achievement* [The Week, June 19, 2010]. *Every small dog thinks he can rule the world. Introducing natural food that gives him the power to do it. Nutro®* [Good Housekeeping, September, 2010]. The conceptual markers that organize the structure of the concept are presented in Table 1. Their duplication indicates their key role in the structure of the concept and minds of the recipients. Thus, as it is implied in AD, being successful means being prosperous, famous and powerful, being able to achieve whatever planned. No moral values, spiritual accomplishments or interpersonal relationship are considered. However, the concept is granted positive evaluation.

Table 2: BEAUTY (14, 7 %)

	Notional layer	**Figurative layer**		**Axiological layer**
		visual perception	tactile perception	
Conceptual markers	smth that pleases the sight	shine	smoothness	holistic positive
	smth that pleases other senses	colour	softness	
	smth that delights the mind	youth	firmness	
	a quality that gives you pleasure	smth noticeable	moisturising	
			naturalness	
			lightness	
			freshness	
			durability	

Table 2 demonstrates the variety of conceptual markers of the concept BEAUTY, which is the second according to the number of representations in AD (294 cases). *Introducing the newest trend in beauty: Olay total effects tone correcting CC cream. Fight 7 signs of aging with a beautiful and instantly flawless-looking skin tone* [Cosmopolitan, December, 2012]. *Double the brightening intensity. Boost radiance + Target dark spots. Jurlique. Nature + Science = Beauty* [Marie Claire, June, 2013]. *Colorsensational® lipcolor. Our exclusive formula with nourishing honey nectar dramatically hydrates beyond perfection. Pinks have never been prettier, more luscious* [Ladies' Home Journal, April, 2011]. The figurative layer proves beauty to be a set of independent qualities rather than an integral phenomenon. Beauty is associated with features perceived visually or felt by touch; nothing is mentioned about pleasing the intellect or soul. The evaluation the concept receives in the discourse is positive.

Table 3: SAVE (7, 4 %)

	Notional layer	**Figurative layer**	**Axiological layer**
Conceptual markers	saving money		
	saving time		
	saving other resources		

As shown in Table 3, the concept SAVE is expressed only in the notional layer, which suggests its traditionally established depiction in the collective consciousness. *Save money. Live better. Walmart* [Family Circle, November, 2010]. *Feel fabulous for less. More for your money. Bic* [Cosmopolitan, May, 2010]. *You spent weeks looking for that little black dress. Fortunately, it only takes 15 minutes to see how much you could save with GEICO* [Ladies' home Journal, April, 2011]. No additional attributes are attached to the structure of the concept. The lack of evaluation shows support for the idea that worldwide economy has become an a priori fact, requiring no assessment.

Table 4: FAMILY (4, 1 %)

	Notional layer	**Figurative layer**				**Axiological layer**
		visual	gustatory	tactile	olfactory	
Conceptual markers	parents and children	family structure	home-made food	safety	home aroma	delicious
	children		family meals	family fun		strong
	relatives					memorable
	household					mom-approved

Table 4 illustrates the wide variety of conceptual markers forming the enhanced and broadened notion of family enriched by supplementary characteristics. *We're bakers*. *But we're parents*, *too*. *That's why we bake our wholesome bread the way we do*… [Family Circle, February, 2011]. *Sometimes building a home doesn't require building anything at all*. *Start building your home's character with stylish and affordable décor* [Family Circle, March, 2010]. *Coca-Cola. Open happiness*™. *Make family night fun* [Good Housekeeping, October, 2011]. *Having a real family dinner isn't impossible*. *You just need a little help*. "*With our busy schedules*, *the only way we can share dinner as a family is if everyone pitches in*… *Stouffer's* [Family Circle, February, 2011]. Thus, the associations brought include: certain family structure (typically, a mother and a child, as based on the analysis of the data); delicious food and smells, feeling happy and protected. No problems, responsibilities or duties are represented. Evaluation is unconventional, based on sensory and rational assessment.

Table 5: HEALTH (4 %)

	Notional layer	**Figurative layer**			**Axiological layer**
		gustatory	visual	tactile	
	general body condition	natural ingredients	diet	strength	
	being sound in mind	healthy food			eco-friendly
	freedom from disease or pain	nutrition			

The constituents of the concept HEALTH are shown in Table 5. As it can be seen, the concept is expanded in the figurative and axiological layer, with additional markers being ascribed to it. Consequently, being healthy implies consuming natural nutritious food, simultaneously bewaring of excess weight; being strong and close to nature. *Get informed. Learn about the benefits of being physically active. Get empowered. Make proper choices to create a healthier lifestyle.* [Good Housekeeping, September, 2010]. *Introducing Benifiber® Stick Packs. A natural fiber that helps your body stay healthy, in four rich flavors that you can take with you anywhere.* [Marie Claire, June, 2009]. *I drink milk. Its naturally nutrient rich like no other beverage. Besides calcium, milk is packed with protein and B vitamins to help build strong families.* [Family Circle, March, 2010].

Table 6: DANGER (2, 8 %)

	Notional layer	**Figurative layer**			**Axiological layer**
		tactile perception	visual perception	olfactory perception	
Conceptual markers	damage	heat	ageing	odour	effective (protection)
	the possibility of suffering harm or danger	dirt			heavy (protection)
	a cause of danger	sun			professional (protection)

Table 6 presents the least numerously activated concept, which nevertheless reflects a number of threats for the recipients, heat, dirt, sun, and odour being among them. Thus, the addressee is informed of the potential risks and is urged to seek for heavy, effective and professional protection. *The Lysol® No-Touch™ Hand Soap System helps to stop the spread of bacteria around your home. It automatically senses hands and dispenses the right amount of soul to kill 99,9% of bacteria.* [Ladies' Home Journal, April, 2011]. *Now defend against photo-ageing: the # 1 cause of wrinkles.* [Family Circle, November, 2010]. *It's not what you smell, it's what you don't. Our breakthrough fragrance system eliminates all unpleasant odor, turning hair removal into scent-sational experience. Sally Hansen.* [Cosmopolitan, May, 2010].

5. Conclusion

This paper has sought to show how AD and the world view, which it reflects, as well as shapes, are correlated. The integrative pragmatic, discourse-analysis and cognitive approach has served as the theoretical framework for the research. It has been demonstrated that AD is a strategic process aimed at persuading the addressee. The study provides the evidence that AD is a type of manipulative discourse since it possesses the following features: it is one-way communication (from the sender to the recipient), its main goal (modification of aims, aspirations, desires, attitudes, tastes of the recipient) is hidden, the recipient is unable to exert the reverse coercion and may only either submit to the suggested communicative strategy or ignore it. Implying concrete and unconcealed from the recipient goals, AD is predetermined by a number of communication strategies, whose ultimate goal is the correction of the recipient's world view, respectively, they are subject to manipulative macrostrategy. Manipulation is exerted at the level of cognition.

Our findings suggest that, by adding supplementary attributes to the structure of key concepts, the addresser can modify the concepts as the constituents of the world view, hence the world view itself, in the minds of the receivers. By employing certain linguistic markers, the corresponding conceptual markers are explicated, which leads to evocation of the concept. The procedure can similarly be conducted in the reverse order. Consequently, AD serves as one of the tools for interpretation of the reality and constructing the ready-made patterns of its objects.

We advocate further research of manipulative potential of AD based on the analysis of such cognitive structures as frames and metaphors.

References

1. Cook, G. (2005) *The Discourse of Advertising*, London; New York: Taylor & Francis e-Library.
2. Freud, S. (1949) *The Ego and the Id*. London: The Hogarth Press Ltd.
3. Haslett, B. B. (1987) *Communication, Strategic Action in Context*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
4. Haverkate, H. (1984) *Speech Acts, Speakers, and Hearers: Reference and Referential Strategies in Spanish*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
5. Jackendoff, R. (1994) *Patterns in the Mind: Language and Human Nature*. New York: BasicBooks.
6. Karasik, V. (2002) *Языковой круг: личность, концепты, дискурс*. Волгоград: Перемена.
7. Langacker, R. W. (2002) *Concept, Image and Symbol: The Cognitive Basis of Grammar.* Berlin; New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
8. Miller, G. R. (2002) "On being Persuaded: Some Basic Distinctions", in Dillard, J. P. and Pfau, M. (ed.) *The Persuasion Handbook: Developments in Theory and Practice:* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
9. Pratkanis, A. R., and Aronson, A. (2008) *Wiek propagandy: używanie i nadużywanie perswazji na co dzień*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
10. Sanders, R. E. (1987) *Cognitive Foundations of Calculated Speech: Controlling Understandings in Conversation and Persuasion.* New York: SUNY Press.
11. Stein, R. (2005) *Media Power: Who Is Shaping Your Picture of the World?* New York: iUniverse.
12. van Dijk, T. A. (1988) *News as Discourse.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
13. van Dijk, T. A., and Kintsch, W. (1983) *Strategies of Discourse Comprehension.* New York: Academia Press.
14. Wierzbicka, A. (1992) *Semantics, Culture, and Cognition: Universal Human Concepts in Culture-Specific Configurations*. New York: Oxford University Press.

NEW TRENDS IN 21ST CENTURY CIVIC ENGAGEMENT AND SPANISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: TECHNOLOGY, TRANSLATION, AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

Diana Ruggiero[1], Sean Hill[2]
[1]*Foreign Languages and Literatures, Assistant Professor, The University of Memphis, Memphis, TN, USA*
[2]*Spanish, Instructor, Mid Michigan Community College, Harrison, MI, USA*
dmrggero@memphis.edu
srhill@midmich.edu

Abstract:*This paper presents a qualitative case study of a virtual service learning project that connected high school students in rural Michigan with communities and a non-profit developmental organization in Honduras. First, students created individual research presentations over Honduran history, current events, economics, and poverty. Second, students were introduced to the concept of service learning, the educational philosophy of Paulo Freire, and Muhammed Yunus's micro-credit economic process through readings in the target language. Third, using collaborative and Internet-based technology such as Google Docs, students were able to successfully engage in a meaningful service learning opportunity to translate training documents for a micro-loan organization despite the lack of an accessible, locally based Spanish speaking community. Finally, students reflected on their experience with the service learning project. Additionally, the authors discuss the connection between the student translation project to ACTFL's World-Readiness Standards for Language Learning and the formation of a 21st century skill set. While proximity and access to such physical communities remains an obstacle for many foreign language instructors seeking to integrate civic engagement, this case study presents one possible solution that pushes the boundaries of the very concepts of community and service learning.*

Keywords: Foreign Languages; Civic Engagement; Service Learning; Technology; Collaboration; Translation; Social Justice

1. Introduction

Engaging students in meaningful work in the target language while incorporating communities outside of the physical boundaries of the school constitutes the basis for service learning and civic engagement for foreign language classes. Students apply what they have learned in a classroom setting to a service learning project that makes use of their particular knowledge base. In the process, students also provide much needed assistanceto the community. Implied in this model, however, is the presence of a substantial community in the target language. Though many teachers do have the fortune of incorporating the demographic areas of their immediate surroundings, whether rural or urban, there are others who are unable to do so as a result of proximity or accessibility to local communities in the target language. In such cases, the ability to provide meaningful service learning opportunities for students is limited. As the following illustrates, one potential solution to this problem lies in the use of technology to extend the concept of community beyond the geo-physical to the virtual.

This case study describes an example of a service learning project in which Spanish students at a small, rural high school in Michigan translated training materials designed to help promote micro-loans in Honduras. Inspired by the educational philosophy of Paulo Freire (1970), this project involved the use of Internet-based collaborative tools such as Google Docs to translate educational material on microfinance (Spanish to English) and produced an informative PowerPoint for use by English-speaking volunteers assisting Spanish-speaking micro-lending applicants in Honduras. This project was done in conjunction with the non-profit development organization Global Brigades. Through this project, students applied and grew in their language skills, provided a necessary tool to train volunteers, applied important 21st century skills, encountered the concept of microfinance, and discussed the philosophy of Paulo Freire. In addition, the students explored thematic concepts involving the history, economy, and poverty of the people of Honduras and provided a tool to the community to help them grow an entrepreneurial skill set in the process. Though indirectly, the service provided by these students was no less significant and no less meaningful for having been facilitated by Internet-based technology. To illustrate this point, the following brieflydiscusses the project as it relates to service learning in foreign languages and the *World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages* established by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) from The National Standards Collaborative Board(2015).

2. Service Learning in Foreign Languages

Community service learning (CSL) works to bridge the gap between the college or university and the community. It emerges from a broader philosophical discussion concerning the nature and greater societal value of academic scholarship and institutions of higher learning at the turn of the twenty-first century (Hellebrandt& Jorge 2013, p. 205). Within foreign language (FL) departments, CSL roles historically included student voyages into the community (see Jorge 2003; Lear 2012). In more recent years, however, the types of service learning have diversified to include unmediated service learning projects, expansive collaboration models, and international service learning projects (see Jorge 2003). These diversifying trends allow students the ability to immerse themselves in the target language without taking practicum courses or studying abroad (Lear 2012). As a result, students and teachers are increasingly veering from traditional methods of foreign language learning and are becoming more interested in applying their language skills in a more immediate capacity.

As service learning becomes a viable alternative to traditional models of language learning, the academic literature on CSLand foreign languages becomes more readily available. The scholarship to date focuses on a range of topics from curriculum development (e.g., Barreneche 2011; Caldwell 2007; Doyle 2010; Hellebrandt&Varona 1999; Hellebrandt, Arries&Varona 2003; Lear 2012; Nelson & Scott 2008; Plann 2002; Ruggiero 2015a & b; Sánchez-López 2013), community partnerships (e.g., Lear & Abbott 2009; Lear 2013; Jorge, 2003), and the relative impact of CSL on FL students, programs, and local communities (e.g., Abbott & Lear 2010; Elorriaga 2007; Hellebrandt 2006; Lear & Abbott 2009; Medina &

Gordon 2014; Pelletieri 2011; Wurr&Hellebrandt 2007), to overviews of trends in the development of CSL in FL programs (e.g., Barreneche& Ramos-Flores 2013; Lear 2012), and critical assessments of the challenges and limitations of CSL in FL curricula (e.g., Abbott & Lear 2010; Lear & Abbott 2009; Zapata 2011). In addition, both languages for specific purposes(LSP) and CSL have many previously published curriculum guides and lessons plans that function as models for other professors and students attempting to either integrate, keep up with, or further developCSL and LSP in the FL curricula (e.g., Abbott 2010; Doyle 2010; Doyle, Fryer& Cere 2011; Hellebrandt&Varona 1999; Wurr&Hellebrandt 2007).

The extant research supports the benefits of integrating CSL in FL programs. As a pedagogical method, CSL allows professors to combine research, teaching, and service in ways that keep students engaged and motivated (Hellebrandt 2006). CSL is also shown to be effective in aiding linguistic and cultural acquisition (Beebe &DeCosta 1993; Bloom 2008; Hale 1999; Weldon &Trautmann 2003; Zapata 2011). Furthermore, the few studies examining student development of CSL support the notion that CSL may be helpful in advancing student intercultural sensitivity (Bloom 2008; Westrick 2004). Beyond academic achievement, the above studies collectively highlight the fact that students gain invaluable professional and practical language experience while local communities benefit from the assistance and services provided as a result of CSL partnerships. Lastly, CSL allows FL teachers to satisfy the “community” goal area advocated by the ACTFLin its World-Readiness Standards (Abbott & Lear 2010; Lear 2012). This is significant in that the ACTFL standards, which include communication, culture, comparisons, connections, and communities (often referred to as the 5 Cs), are often difficult for FL educators to fully meet as a result of the seeming inaccessibility of local communities in the target language (Lear 2012). As shown below, CSL, in combination with twenty-first century technology, makes feasible the communities standard for educators and programs wherever they may be located.

3. Considering the Third, Fourth and Fifth Cs of the World-Readiness Standards

The ACTFL's world-readiness standards include five major curricular areas known as the five Cs. These five Cs guide the curricular and communicative aims of the profession. Courses that involve service learning components can fully incorporate the five Cs (Lear & Abbott 2009). The first and second components deal with communication and culture, whereas the third, fourth, and fifth deal with connections, comparisons, and communities, respectively. This section will demonstrate how students were able to meet the expectations of the last three Cs while improving their communicative and cultural competencies.

To begin, the third C connects the use of the target language to different disciplines and to information and perspectives available through the target language and the cultures that speak said language (The National Standards Collaborative Board 2015). With the third C, the diversification of courses through the integration ofLSP and CSL components, along with the use of modern technologies, make possible multidisciplinary projects. Effectively, it is an across the curriculum approach with one small exception: the a priori assumption that all knowledge comes from English sources is dismantled. The main goal of this project was tointerpret a PowerPoint presentation from Spanish into English. However, the project facilitated the interconnectionof multiple disciplines such as Honduran history, politics, economics, and geography through the study of Spanish.Each student had a different area to research and present to their classmates: pre-Colombian history; colonial history; current events and the ousting of the Honduran president; the basis of the Honduran economy; and the question of poverty. One student commented on how little she understood absolute poverty prior to the research presentation. Her comprehension of Spanish led her to understand topics ranging from current events to economics and poverty. Likewise, students learned about the organizational structure and purpose behind credit unions, as well as the educational philosophyof Paulo Freire in Spanish. Afterwards, supplemental readings were given in English in order to correctly identify the terminology used in micro-credit and in the organization of credit unions. Thus, the nature of this project incorporated the third C of the World-Readiness Standards effortlessly.

The fourth C concerns comparisons. Specifically, students will better understand the nature of the target language and culture through comparison with their own language and culture (The National Standards Collaborative Board2015). Experts see subject mattersdifferently as compared to novices, and occasionally students offer concrete glimpses of their novice viewpoint regarding the learning of language and culture. Yearly, Spanish instructors across the United States teach lessons regarding family vocabulary with an explanation of how several generations often live in the same household. After an exhaustive look into the absolute poverty encountered in Honduras and the reasons behind a micro-credit service learning project, a student exclaimed how it made perfect sense for many family members to live together. This student was able to make a very concrete comparison between poverty, access to credit, and the likelihood of securing a mortgage between the United States and Honduras to discover a valid and perfectly plausible reason for young adults to live at home with their parents. Hence, this student compared traditional family values between her culture and another and was able to understand how economic factors can influence cultural differences.

Likewise, students made comparisons between English and Spanish structure and vocabulary. Each student translated a few slides from the Global Brigades PowerPoint and brought these to a writers' workshop. There had been previous discussion regarding the use of similar vocabulary and structure throughout the translation; however, each student was responsible for his or her own section. In the tabling process, the class reviewed the presentation as a whole and argued about the syntax or wording used. The teacher reserved interjectionsfor when a translation was clearly misrepresenting the original work. This allowed the students to have ownership over the product. Therefore, the students were required to question others' work as well as defend their own investment of time and resources. Although much of the students' arguments occurred in English, the conversations demonstrated critical thinking about the translations. They discussed the contextualized vocabulary of unfamiliar words and concepts, which nouns were being modified by which adjectives, and exactly what the preterite subjunctive was expressing. In retrospect, watching these third through fifth year high school Spanish students cogently and feverishly discuss comparisons of grammar, vocabulary, and syntax with intensity and purpose amazed the instructor.

Lastly, the fifth C looks to move students' language use and learning outside the physical and temporal boundaries of the classroom. Students are to use the target language in the community and use the language for their own enrichment well into the future (The National Standards Collaborative Board 2015). The result is that a greater number of students are becoming much more interested in applying the language in an immediate capacity. Therefore, while many Spanish instructors are able to provide needed services for the local Hispanic community, others find themselves isolated from a community by physical or economic barriers. For many teachers, especially those that do not teach Spanish, this can be difficult and frustrating. Ter Horst & Pearce (2010,p. 367) agreed:

> An additional impediment to integrating service learning into language instruction is that such projects are not easily applicable to languages other than Spanish, for which local communities often do not exist, or to nonurban areas in which there may not even be a sizeable Spanish-speaking community.

For this reason, they followed Overfield's (1997) suggestion that the "definition of community be extended to include not just local communities but also the global community of speakers of the target language, now accessible through modern technology, such as the Internet and satellite television" (Ter Horst & Pearce 2010, pp.367-368).

The instructor had previously experienced the same frustrations in attempting to engage students in Hispanic communities in rural Michigan. Although many regions of Michigan have a sizeable Hispanic population, the distances from the instructor's school to these communities presented a very real boundary to students at the high school. Therefore, the instructor sought out an international partnership with a community in Latin America to engage students in a service learning project. The students worked with one of the Global Microfinance Brigades based in Honduras that had previouslyprovided college students alternative spring break service trips. Through an exchange of electronic communication, the instructor was able to find a need that his students were able to fulfill—translating a training presentation into English for college students. Though separated by thousands of miles, students successfully interacted with collaborators in Honduras by use of a virtual environment to help create opportunities for social justice.

In summary, this section described how students were able to access andincorporate ACTFL's last three Cs while increasing their communicative and cultural competencies. For example, students connected the study of Spanish with history, current events, economics, pedagogy, and sociology. Likewise, students were able to make comparisons between English and Spanish as well as compare cultural traditions between Honduras and the United States. Finally, students were able to bring their use of Spanish into a community that transcended the physical boundaries of the high school and national borders. Yet despite these trends, accessibility to local communities remains a perceived challenge for foreign language scholars and educators seeking to create service learning opportunities. This project seeks to build on the existing research on the benefits of community service learning in foreign languages by emphasizing the role of Internet-based collaborative technologies in expanding the notions of community and service learning beyond geo-physical spaces and limitations. One way in which to do so is to recognize and capitalize on the value of the unique 21st century skill set that millennialstudents and future generations will possess upon entering the classroom.

4. 21st Century Skills and Google Docs

The 21st century skills movement looks to build a certain skill set within students that is different from that of 20 years ago (Rosenfeld 2007). Maurizio and Wilson (2004,p. 28) spoke to the importance of this issue, stating that, "Our nation's well-being throughout this century will be determined by how well we prepare our students today." For example, the ability for students to communicate and collaborate with others in a problem-based format with tools they will use as college students and adults is a crucial skill. They need to be able to communicate well in both English and mathematics. In addition, cross-cultural knowledge and foreign language are deemed essential skills, as is the ability to work effortlessly with technology. Foreign language educators are in a position to grow the students' required skill sets in a way that few other educators can. The project described in this case study helped students to collaborate efforts over two continents using current tools—a perfect example of practicing a 21st century skill set.

As previously mentioned, 21st century skills involve collaboration, communication, and technology. In regard to technology, this is particularly useful in providing a platform for collaboration online. Students can typically work independently on a computer, but sharing information simultaneously has traditionally been more difficult. Simply placing students on a computer is not enough to help teach 21st century skills. There are, however, online applications and websites that will facilitate this for students. Google's many applications allow students the opportunity to incorporate 21st century technology while actively collaborating together over tremendous physical distances. The main application used in this project was Google Docs and its use has become indispensable.

Google Docs provides an opportunity for students to collaborate simultaneously on a single document from any computer in the world with an Internet connection. A document, however, is not simply a written page; it includes word processing, presentation, and spreadsheet software. Therefore, any student that is familiar with the Microsoft Office software will recognize Google's versions of the software suite and will quickly be able to adapt to the new format. In districts with difficult financial circumstances, the Google software is free to use. However, if a school does have the Microsoft Office package, the Google Docs will download into Microsoft. Likewise, students can upload a PowerPoint or Word document into Google Docs. Unfortunately, formatting changes may occur in the process.

The power of Google Docs for enhancing collaboration derives from how any document in this format can be edited by as many people as desired from any computer with Internet access from anywhere in the world. In the project described below, Google Docs was used by students in two continents. In essence, students worked on the presentation document both simultaneously and separately from computers in the United States and Chile, and the final product was sent to Honduras.

Collaboration in Google Docs is highly accessible as it requires minimal training and effort. One creates a document and then shares access with other users. The creator can assign different limits of access, from the ability to view the document to complete editing rights. For this project, the instructor uploaded the

PowerPoint presentation sent from Global Brigades into the presentation software on Google Docs. Then, the instructor invited students to collaborate by sharing the file; students had access to edit and translate a prescribed number of slides. In case a student erroneously began working on a slide that another student was translating, they were denied access because only one slide was able to be edited by one person simultaneously. This helped to ensure that every student completed their own work. While the students in the United States worked side by side on the computers, they could have access to Google chat and videoconferencing with the student in Chile. This would allow students to discuss the issue of word choice so that the translationwas consistent across the presentation. Using the Google Docs platform, students were able to collaborate in various ways, at different times, and in different places. In addition, the instructor was able to verify when each student had accessed and edited the document by tracking changes.

In conclusion, Google Docs presents an online platform that enhances the facility of collaboration among students across place and time. Students are able to utilize presentation, word processing, and spreadsheet software while the editing rights granted to them are managed by the instructor. While the presentation software was the only Google Docs application used in this project, the possibilities for collaboration are numerous. In this manner, students were able to incorporate 21st century skills into a service learning project as they grew in their ability to communicate in Spanish.

5. The Honduras Project: Successes, Surprises, and Future Considerations

This section will begin with an outline of the general layout of the online service learning project. This is followed by a discussion of the problems encountered in the execution of the task. Then, there is consideration given to a few surprises as experienced by the instructor and students. Lastly, there is a consideration of how this type of work can be continued and made accessible to lower-level students in the hopes of providing a service learning opportunity utilizing 21st century skills.

To begin with, the instructor made contact with Global Brigades and other microfinance corporations in the United States that have branches in Latin America. The organization agreed to work with high school students and related a need: a translation of a PowerPoint presentation from Spanish into English. This organization routinely serves as a provider of micro-credit service learning or alternative spring break trips to college students from the United States. They found that many of the students that travelled to Honduras did not understand Spanish at a level conducive to the micro-credit training. The students involved in this project would be helping to translate the presentation into English so that the college students would have a better grasp of the concept of the formation of a community bank and how to fill out the required paperwork. Global Brigades electronically mailed the document to the instructor and the instructor partitioned it into workable sections for the students' different ability levels.

Before allowing the students to get to work, the instructor wanted to provide them with an introduction into the importance of the work in which they were about to engage. The instructor assigned students individual presentations of the topics previously discussed, as well as readings on Paulo Freire's (1970) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed,* MuhammedYunus, the concept of micro-credit

(Yunus&Jolis 2003) and service learning. The instructor found that students approached the translation project purposefully once they possessed a working knowledge of these issues. It is important to note that one of the students involved in the project was spending the last few weeks of a study abroad experience in Chile and many attempts were made to incorporate her into the project.

Students experienced firsthand the difficulties involved in translation in spite of translating the document into their first language. They learned how to utilize dictionaries and to read translations based on context. Likewise, they were able to make use of and distinguish between poor and adequate online translation sites. In addition, both the students and the instructor quickly realized that there was a gap in knowledge and vocabulary relating to the accounting and organizational terminology in both Spanish and English. This was beneficial because the instructor was able to demonstrate that he simply did not know everything. Effectively, the teacher became another student involved in the translation project. The idea of the teacher as a fellow student is analogous to how Freire embedded himself with and befriended illiterate Brazilian *campesinos* as he taught them to read (Ozmon 2012). However, the instructor was a more experienced student and was able to model effective strategies to deal with the knowledge gaps. This was beneficial because the students were able to see the teacher as a learner as well.

After the translations were completed, students tabled the final document through a writers' workshop. Students edited each slide and argued over word usage and even what the original Spanish document meant. Students quickly realized the care needed when looking up words in dictionaries. Some of the translations the students had chosendid not relate to economics or banking. This served as a great review for the students on all points related to grammar and word usage and provided a real world application of language to the specific career of translation. Finally, the group reached a consensus that the product was high quality and verified the formatting of the downloaded Google Doc into Microsoft PowerPoint. The file was returned to the Global Microfinance Brigades via email and was to be used shortly thereafter in Honduras. Students reflected over their work in an individual writing assignment and had to discuss their reflections as a group. Next, they had to write out critical reflections to questions the instructor had prepared. Approximately two weeks after they had completed their project, Global Brigades asked the students to comment on the “Honduras Project” in English. Since some time had passed, they had had time to really think about what they had experienced. Some student reflections are included in Appendix 1.

There were a few problems that caused frustration for the class. To begin with, 21st century skills come complete with 21st century problems in regard to technology. At the high school level, a number of websites are blocked as per district regulations. For example, the district superintendent had to give explicit instruction for the technology department to allow the instructor’s group permission to access Gmail and Google Docs. In addition, broadband speed at the high school was slow and many times the program would crash before student translations were saved. Likewise, the difference in time zones proved to be difficult to coordinate well with the student living in Chile and lack of instant communication hindered her ability to participate. Lastly, there had been plans to have a Skype interview between the class and people in the Honduran communities that had prospered through the micro-credit program. This did not transpire, unfortunately, as the students participating in this project graduated shortly before Skype was approved for use in the high school. Although there were problems with technological capabilities at the school, it was important to model the use 21st century collaborative technology to better prepare students for life post high school.

Fortunately, there were a few positive surprises that helped offset the pitfalls that the class experienced. For example, the instructor learned that many students were interested in a LSPcourse, Spanish for Business. Therefore, course options may be offered that better reflect student interests. If an entire course is not feasible, teachers may still capture and retain student attention by incorporating business aspects into the general Spanish class. In addition, some students expressed interest in pursuing service-oriented occupations and signaled that participation in this project helped reinforce their career choice. Further, one student citedthis experience with a college admissions officerwho coincidently was also involved in an international micro-finance project. Yet another student experienced collateral success by publishing an articleregarding the project in the school and county newspapers as part of a journalism class. Lastly, the Global Brigades website featured the high school's efforts to incorporate service learning with micro-loans, which helped to bring positive press to the school district. Therefore, the “Honduras Project” was beneficial not only to the volunteers of Global Brigades and the Honduran community it served, but to the instructor, the students, and the school district as well.

Looking toward the future, it will be difficult to recreate exactly the same project given the specificity of the project and partners involved. Therefore, consideration must be given to a sustainable service learning project that incorporates many of the same themes with 21st century skills. In addition, the instructor would like to make accessible a similar project to more students. In a small, rural school it is difficult to fill upper level classes with a sufficient number of students to accommodate district minimum class sizes. Therefore, a similar project that is within reach of a first or second year student would benefit not only a community, but that individual student as well. Kiva is another micro-lending organization that solicits volunteer translators and crowdsources petitions for loans frommultiple countries. Typically, those requests are in Spanish and in order to meet a wider audience, they must be translated into English. Many of these requests could be translated by a second-year student, though first-year studentscould alsopotentially handle simple language tasks with guidance.

Lastly, translation is not the only service that foreign language students can perform with a virtual community. Nor do virtual service learning opportunities necessarily have to be limited to microfinance projects. There are innumerable ways in which foreign language educators can incorporate collaborative Internet-based technologies in the facilitation of virtual service learning projects with community and institutional partners around the globe. It remains to the individual instructors, administrators, and community organizations to seek out partnerships such as the one described in this case study and address the needs of local communities. In this way, one’s geo-physical location does not necessarily need to be a limitation in providing meaningful service learning opportunities for students in foreign language classrooms.

6. Conclusion

This paper provided a case study of an online service learning project that exposed students from a small, rural high school in Michigan to the conditions of poverty in Honduras. While incorporating the last three Cs of the World-Readiness Standards, students also incorporated 21st century skills into an exercise in translation. In the process, it introduced them to Muhammed Yunus and a possible solution to some of the problems of poverty: micro-credit. In addition, students learned a different viewpoint in education, the philosophy of Paulo Freire, and found meaning in their work while they learned to understand the economic factors working against the poor. Lastly, the instructor considered the successes and pitfalls and looked ahead to opening a similar opportunity to a greater number of students. Truly, even high school students can be instruments for social change in solidarity with people in language communities far beyond the physical confines of the school building and local community. Virtual service learning projects create prospects for instructors that lack proximity to a community and allow students the opportunity to use languages for specific purposes.

References

Abbott, A 2010,*Comunidades: Másallá del aula*,Pearson/Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, N.J.

Abbott, A&Lear, D 2010,'The Connections Goal Area in Spanish Community Service-Learning: Possibilities and Limitations', *Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 43, no. 2, pp. 231-245.

Barreneche, GI 2011,'Language Learners as Teachers: Integrating Service-Learning and the Advanced Language Course', *Hispania*, vol. 94, no. 1, pp. 103-120.

Barreneche, GI & Ramos-Flores, H 2013,'Integrated or isolated experiences? Considering the role of service-learning in the Spanish language curriculum', *Hispania*, vol. 96, no. 2, pp. 215-228.

Beebe, RM &DeCosta, EM 1993,'Teaching Beyond the University: The Santa Clara University East Side Project: Community Service and the Spanish Classroom', *Hispania*, vol. 76, no. 4, pp. 884-891.

Bloom, M2008,'From the Classroom to the Community: Building Cultural Awareness in First Semester Spanish', *Language, Culture, and Language Curriculum,* vol. 21, no.2, pp. 103-119.

Caldwell, W 2007,'Taking Spanish Outside the Box: A Model for Integrating Spanish Service Learning into Foreign Language Study', *Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 40, no. 3, pp. 464-471.

Doyle, MS 2010,'A Responsive, Integrative Spanish Curriculum at UNC Charlotte',*Hispania,*vol. 93, no. 1, pp. 80-84.

Doyle, MS, Fryer, TB & Cere, R 2011,*Éxito comercial: Prácticas administrativas y contextos culturales*, Heinle, Boston, M.A.

Elorriaga, M 2007,'College Students as Tutors: Learning from the Latino Community of Adams County', *Hispania*, vol. 90, no. 3, pp. 533-542.

Freire, P 1970,*Pedagogy of the oppressed,*trans. M Ramos,Herder and Herder, New York, N.Y.

Hale, A 1999 'Service-Learning and Spanish: A Missing Link', in *Construyendopuentes (Building Bridges): Concepts and models for service-*

*learning in Spanish,*eds J Hellebrandt& T.Varona, American Association for Higher Education, Washington, D.C., pp. 9-31.
Hellebrandt, J 2006,'Spanish Service-Learning Research from 1999-2003: Effects on Faculty, Department, Community and Discipline',*Hispania,*vol. 89, no. 4, pp. 919-926.
Hellebrandt, J, Arries, J &Varona L (eds) 2003,*Juntos, community partnerships in Spanish and Portuguese*, Thomas/Heinle, Boston, M.A.
Hellebrandt, J &Jorge, E 2013,'The Scholarship of Community Engagement: Advancing Partnerships in Spanish and Portuguese', *Hispania*, vol. 96, no. 2, pp. 203-214.
Hellebrandt, J &Varona, L (eds) 1999,*Construyendopuentes (Building Bridges): Concepts and models for service-learning in Spanish*,American Association for Higher Education,Washington, D.C.
Jorge, E 2003,'Outcomes for Community Partners in an Unmediated Service-Learning Program',*Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 28-38.
Lear, D 2012,'Languages for Specific Purposes Curriculum Creation and Implementation in the Service to the U.S. Community',*The Modern Language Journal,*vol. 96, no.s1,pp. 158-172.
Lear, D 2013,'Sustained Engagement with a Single Community Partner', *Hispania*, vol. 96, no. 2, pp. 238-251.
Lear, D & Abbott, A 2009,'Aligning Expectations for Mutually Beneficial Community Service-learning: The Case of Spanish Language Proficiency, Cultural Knowledge, and Professional Skills',*Hispania*, vol. 92, no.2, pp. 312-323.
Maurizio, A & Wilson, J 2004,'Policymakers and 21st Century Skills',*T.H.E. Journal*, vol. 32, no. 1,pp. 28-30.
Medina, A & Gordon, L 2014,'Service Learning, Phonemic Perception, and Learner Motivation: A Quantitative Study', *Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 47, no. 2, pp. 357-371.
Nelson, AL & Scott, J 2008,'Applied Spanish in the University Curriculum: A Successful Model for Community-Based Service-Learning', *Hispania*, vol. 91, no. 2, pp. 446-460.
Overfield, D 1997,'From the Margins to the Mainstream: Foreign Language Education and Community-Based Learning',*Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 30, no. 4, pp. 485-491.
Ozmon, HA 2012,*Philosophical foundations of education*, 9thedn,Pearson,Upper Saddle River, N.J.
Pelletieri, J 2011,'Measuring Language-Related Outcomes of Community-Based Learning in Intermediate Spanish Courses', *Hispania*, vol. 94, no. 2, pp. 285-302.
Plann, SJ 2002,'Latinos and Literacy: An Upper-Division Spanish Course with Service-Learning, *Hispania*, vol. 85, no. 2, pp. 330-338.
Rosenfeld, E 2007,'More on 21st Century Skills',*Teacher Librarian*, vol. 35, no. 2, p. 6.
Ruggiero, D 2015a,'Bridging the Community and Institution Gap: A Sample Course with Civic Engagement and Language for Specific Purposes Combined', *Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes*, no. 2, pp. 35-48.
Ruggiero, D 2015b,'Graduate Courses in Languages for Specific Purposes: Needs, Challenges, and Models', *Global Business Languages*, vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 55-69.

Sánchez-López, L 2013,'Service-Learning Course Design for Languages for Specific Purposes Programs', *Hispania*, vol. 96, no. 2, pp. 383-396.
Ter Horst, EE & Pearce, JM 2010,'Foreign Languages and Sustainability: Addressing the Connections, Communities, and Comparisons Standards in Higher Education',*Foreign Language Annals*, vol. 43,no. 3, pp. 365-383.
The National Standards Collaborative Board 2015,*World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages,* 4th edn,Author, Alexandria, V.A.
Westrick, J. 2004,'The Influence of Service-Learning on Intercultural Sensitivity: A Quantitative Study', *Journal of Research in International Education*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 277-299.
Wurr, AJ &Hellebrandt, J 2007,*Learning the Language of Global Citizenship: Service-Learning in Applied Linguistics*, Anker Pub, Bolton, M.A.
Yunus, M &Jolis, A 2003,*Banker to the poor: micro-lending and the battle against world poverty,*PublicAffairs, New York, N.Y.
Zapata,G 2011,'The Effects of Community Service Learning Projects on L2 Learner's Cultural Understanding',*Hispania*, vol. 94, no. 1, pp. 86-102.

Appendix 1: Student Comments

"Translating for the students who went to Honduras was a major project for me. Knowing that what I was doing was going to help the people of Honduras made me feel like I had a purpose. It was an amazing feeling, and one that I have never before had the pleasure of knowing. This sense of purpose combined with the learning of Spanish and how to translate documents only made the project that much better. I hope that I can have a hand in many more to come."

"As our teacher, Sr. Hill is focused on more than just strict facts about the world of Spanish. He wants us to use what we learn in the classroom to reach out to the world around us. This project is revealing in that we aren't just here to get credit for school. We are able to use our abilities in everyday life, even though we are located in a minimal-culture society. It is great to know that my desire to learn Spanish is not going to be deferred by this "mono-lingual" area. I can continue learning through real-world projects and in the future, travel into the Americas and have previous experience and knowledge through these projects."

"This was a great opportunity for me. I was nervous at first to do the translating but once you get the hang of it you can determine what makes the most sense. I am so happy to be a part of this and to be able to help in need. I have always wanted to do something like this where people could benefit from it and it's nice to know that something so little will help so many people. Learning Spanish has been very beneficial and could be even more. I hope to do more projects similar to this or completely different that will help the well-being of people around the world."

"Helping translate for the Honduras project was an amazing experience. It gave me an idea of what I could possibly do in the future and a chance to help people. It was also a wonderful opportunity to learn more words in Spanish, as well as English, and open my awareness to the conditions in Honduras."

"Translating for the project to help out Honduras was great. It helped me out by teaching me about Spanish and about banking. I know my part in it was small but in the big picture it will help out countless numbers of people. If I had the chance, I would do that type of project again."

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS ON EASTERN AND CENTRAL EUROPEAN STUDENTS' INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY. RESEARCH CONDUCTED IN ROMANIA, HUNGARY AND SLOVENIA

Hamburg Andrea
Department of International Business, Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea, Oradea, Romania
ahamburg@uoradea.ro

Abstract:*The following study is meant to be an extension of and completion to a former research paper entitled "The Role of Foreign Language Teachers in Developing Students' Intercultural Communication Skills" concluding that students of the University of Oradea, Romania, generally lack intercultural sensitivity and it falls to a great extent to foreign language teachers to change this state of affairs. When the former study came up with proposals for methods of enhancing students' cultural awareness (see simulation games on cultural differences like Barnga, BaFá BaFá, Randömia Balloon Factory and others), the present study focuses on an international comparison, though limited to only three academic institutions in three countries, regarding Eastern and Central European students' intercultural sensitivity. The initial idea was to see to what extent students of the University of Oradea, Romania, studying Economics, Medicine and Law dispose of intercultural skills. For this reason a Likert-type scale questionnaire was applied to more than 200 students of the above mentioned faculties. The survey was extended in the second round in Oradea, Romania, also to the Faculty of Environmental Protection and that of Electrical Engineering and Information Technology, respectively to an international level asking students of the University of Debrecen, Hungary and the University of Maribor, Slovenia, the same questions. Although we are aware of the limitations of present study, - only three institutions included in the research, having in Debrecen and Maribor less respondents than in Oradea and only from some fields of study, Slovenian students not getting a Slovenian version of the questionnaire, which may have influenced their level of understanding issues, responses not always being consistent - its results have still an informative value. They confirm the author's initial hypothesis that in spite of the extended international relations and travel opportunities Romanian students are not really aware of cultural diversity and its overwhelming impact upon people's behaviour, reactions and way of thinking. As to our surprise there are no better results with the other two nations either, specific measures are to be taken in this respect including not only valuable contribution of foreign language teachers - as proposed in the former study - but also curriculum change by incorporating some form of intercultural training, too.*

Keywords*:* intercultural communication competence; cultural differences; intercultural encounters; simulation games; curriculum change; intercultural training

1. Introduction

Since E.T. Hall, Hofstede (1991), Gesteland (1997) and others and due to their research and pragmatic work we know nowadays that cultural differences existing among nations cannot be neglected. Effective communication i.e. conveying a message as it was really meant by the sender depends to an equal measure both on linguistic and on intercultural competence. That includes not only knowledge about different cultural profiles and traits but the skills to handle them appropriately for the physical - referring to location -, social - referring to events-related expectations - and interpersonal context - pointing to one's expectations about people's behaviour depending on the relationship between them (see Lustig and Koester, 2010).

The current study is meant to be an extension of and completion to a former research paper entitled "The Role of Foreign Language Teachers in Developing Students' Intercultural Communication Skills" (Hamburg, A., 2014) concluding that students of the University of Oradea, Romania, generally lack intercultural sensitivity and it falls to a great extent to foreign language teachers to change this state of affairs. To take the over 200 students of Economics, Medicine and Law - 70-80 people from each field of study responding to a questionnaire - representative for the about 16,000 students of the above mentioned university, might seem too bold and unscientific, but we have serious reasons to suppose that the rest of the students, having even less experience of an internationalized medium than their mates studying subjects included in the former research, would not present better results regarding intercultural competence either. To confirm this supposition, for the present study we have applied the same questionnaire also to other two faculties of the University of Oradea, with help of teacher colleagues. The reason to choose the Faculty of Environmental Protection and that of Electrical Engineering and Information Technology lies in the fact that besides the Faculty of Economic Sciences and the Faculty of Medicine these two host the most incoming Erasmus students. Thus students studying there are most likely to have some international experience. The results of the extended survey in Romania will be presented in subchapter 2.1.

When the former study came up with proposals for methods of enhancing students' cultural awareness (see simulation games on cultural differences like Barnga, BaFá BaFá, Randömia Balloon Factory and others), the present study focuses on an international comparison however limited to only three academic institutions in three countries regarding Eastern and Central European students' intercultural sensitivity. Being conscious of the limitations of the following research and the dimensions of the subject proposed, we consider the results and conclusions of present study only of illustrative and in no way of absolute value.

The other two institutions included in the research, the University of Debrecen, Hungary and the University of Maribor, Slovenia, were chosen partially due to the bilateral relations of the Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea - the author's institution of affiliation - to them. The other reason is to be found in the supposition that in an academic centre with so many international students as in Debrecen for instance, the results of the questionnaire should be different in a positive way.

2. Research Methodology

Both in Debrecen and Maribor students of the same three faculties (Faculty of Economic Sciences, Medicine and Law) as in Oradea were supposed to complete the questionnaire formerly applied to their Romanian colleagues. We reproduce below the questionnaire our research results of 2014 were based on distributed to 77 Economics, 88 Law, respectively 75 Medicine students of the University of Oradea, Romania, having foreign language classes in English, German and French.

Questionnaire

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

1. There is a single condition so that people from different nations can communicate efficiently with each other and this is the knowledge of a common language.

2. Knowing the culture of a nation doesn’t only mean knowing its history, art, literature and so on, but its set of beliefs, symbols, convictions, too.

3. People not having a personal/individual opinion of things and the world in general are indifferent, indolent and dispose of a limited intellectual capacity.

4. Not being punctual at meetings shows lack of education and indifference to one’s partner.

5. In business life everywhere in the world primary goal is to develop good relationship with one’s business partner.

Answer these 2 supplementary questions, please!

1. Have you ever spent more than 3 weeks in a foreign country? If yes, on what occasion?

2. Do you have personal contacts to foreign students (e.g. Erasmus students) at the faculty you are studying at or to foreigners in general in your private life? If yes, how often do you meet each other or how intense is your contact to them?

The first two statements intend to reveal awareness of cultural differences in general, while items three to five refer to specific cultural profiles. They were formulated by intention in such a way to reflect different views upon the world to avoid false positive or false negative answers induced by identification with one or another cultural profile. That’s why we considered in case of items one, three, four and five total disagreement with the content of the statement (indicating values of 1 or 2), while with issue number two agreement with respective content (values of 4 or 5) to be a sign of intercultural sensitivity. The other way round, values at the opposite end of the scale were proofs of unawareness of different cultural patterns. 3 being situated in the middle of the scale given to survey participants, persons indicating this value presented accordingly a moderate level of intercultural sensitivity.

2.1. Level of Intercultural Awareness with Students of the University of Oradea, Romania

Resorting to the results of the research paper published in 2014 one may conclude that Romanian students show irrespective of their field of study and surroundings a quite low level of intercultural awareness. The first question revealed awareness of cultural differences with merely about 12% of Economics, 8% of Law and only 7% of Medicine students. The second issue resulting in a surprisingly high level of intercultural sensitivity with all the three segments analysed might be attributed to a possible misunderstanding or misreading. With the last three items, students' reactions returned to a great extent to the levels of awareness registered in case of the first question, however showing quite an increase with question number 3.
The answer to the questions why for 26% of Economics students, 28% of Law, respectively 25% of Medicine students is quite normal not to have a personal opinion on things and why further 33% of Economics, 25% of Law and 35% of Medicine students show a relative understanding in this respect may be found in Romanian people's cultural profile. The fact that they adapt to a relatively great extent to collectivistic values is not as much a sign of intercultural sensitivity but much more cultural identification on their part. This seems to be confirmed by the results of the last two issues. There were signs of sensitivity or relative awareness with 18% respectively 14% of Economics, 11% respectively 13% of Law and 12% respectively 17% of Medicine students in case of question number 4 and the results concerning the last issue are quite similar.
The extended survey conducted in 2015 at the University of Oradea confirmed once more our supposition regarding Romanian students' awareness of cultural differences: students studying at the Faculty of Environmental Protection presented similarly low values of intercultural sensitivity as their colleagues at the faculties analysed in 2014. 10% of the 79 responding students proved to be sensitive to cultural matters according to their answer given to item number 1, this value is 28% with item number 3, 20% respectively 5% with the last two items. Regarding the second issue the same inconsistence or misunderstanding is to be observed in their case as with other students, too, as 59,5% of the respondents agreed to a great extent with the statement of the questionnaire revealing thus a quite high level of awareness of cultural differences. There is not much difference in the values obtained with engineering students: according to the answers given to item number 1 only 10% of the 60 respondents proved to be culturally sensitive, this value is 33,3% with issue number 3 and merely 20%, respectively 10% in case of the last two items. As 63% of the respondents presented high values of cultural awareness according to their reactions to issue number 2, it is almost sure they had misinterpreted or misread this item, too.
To offer a synthetic and visual overview of the results regarding Romanian students' intercultural competence (in the segment supposed to be compared at international level) we created the following chart.

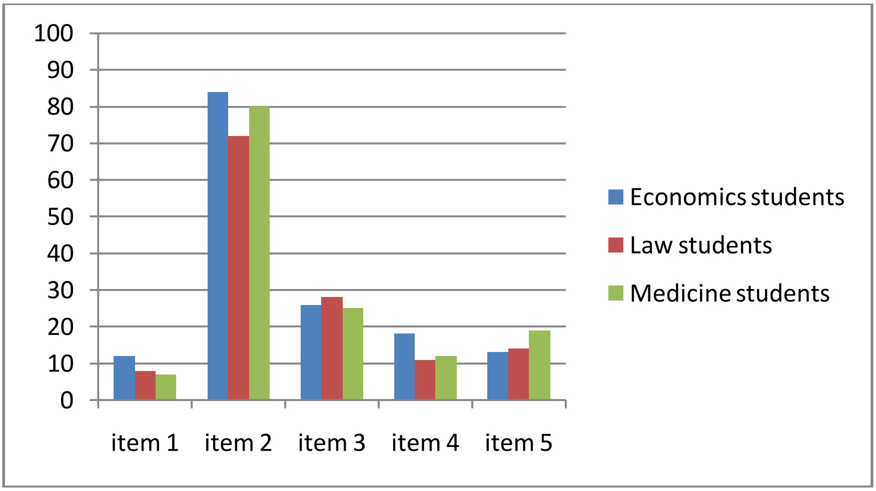


Figure 1: Ratio of the awareness of cultural differences with Economics, Law and Medicine students of the University of Oradea, Romania (data given in percents)
Source: own creation

Most surprising are the results in case of Medicine students where in spite of the possibly frequent encounters with international students no increase in Romanian students' intercultural awareness can be registered. This confirms once more our initial hypothesis of 2014, that in foreign language class it is not enough to teach/learn the respective language as real life encounters in a globalised world require from participants not just linguistic, but at least to an equal extent, intercultural competence as well. Furthermore, that unconscious experiencing of cultural differences is insufficient; the issue of their existence and importance must be raised in a conscious way.

2.2. Level of Intercultural Awareness with Students of the University of Debrecen, Hungary

The 88 Hungarian Law students taking part in the survey present in overall quite the same levels of intercultural sensitivity as their Romanian colleagues except for issues number 3 and 5 where their ratio of awareness of cultural differences was even lower than with Romanian students studying Law. The findings in case of item 3 i.e. Romanian Law students being more tolerant of people not expressing personal opinions could be the result of their cultural profile tending towards collectivistic values more than that of Hungarian people. The concrete figures to the 5 items are as follows. About 9% of the responding Law students presented signs of cultural sensitivity and further 19% some concern about it with issue number 1, while 70% seemed not to be aware of cultural differences. The values indicated for item number 2 - 67% culturally sensitive, 25% presenting moderate values and only 8% with no knowledge about cultural issues - are in strong dissonance with the former ones. A possible misreading of the assertion or the halo effect could be responsible for it. Item number 3 and 4 present with 13% respectively 11% similar levels of awareness of cultural diversity sinking with issue number 5 to merely 3.5%. A great part of responding Hungarian Law students - 56-56% with item number 3 and 4 and 78.5% with the last item - proves to be culturally insensitive, while according to the scores given to the last three assertions 31%, 33% respectively 18% can be situated at medium levels of sensitivity. Based on the answers of the target group it can be generally stated that people with no experience abroad and no international encounters show a very low degree of cultural sensitivity, however almost 23% of the responding students being of the category mentioned before could still bring up some awareness of cultural diversity.

Economics students in Debrecen - 80 respondents - have surprisingly disproved our initial supposition as, in spite of the many international students studying at the faculty, they present in case of each item lower levels of cultural awareness than their Romanian counterparts. The values are 9%, 77.5% - the same possible misunderstanding may have intervened as in the cases before -, 15%, 7.5% and 0% versus the Romanian 12%, 84%, 26%, 18% respectively 14%. Their moderate values: 25% versus the Romanian 18% with item number 1, 20% with item number 2, 24% compared to the Romanian 33%, 27.5% versus the Romanian 14% and 12.5% compared to the Romanian 16% with the last three issues do not change much on the negative balance either. Except for item number 2 the level of unawareness of cultural diversity exceeds 60% with each issue culminating with the last item at 87.5%.

Through the prism of this there is no wonder that 25% of the responding students having had the experience of international encounters still presented low degrees of intercultural sensitivity, fact that reinforces once more the idea that intercultural matters have to be brought into the classroom on a conscious level.

Unfortunately we have no data regarding the Faculty of Medicine in Debrecen as we could not get their agreement to conduct the research with students studying there.

Based on the results obtained at the collaborating two faculties it seems that Hungarian students are even more ethnocentric than their Romanian counterparts. The following chart can give a synthetic overview upon our findings.

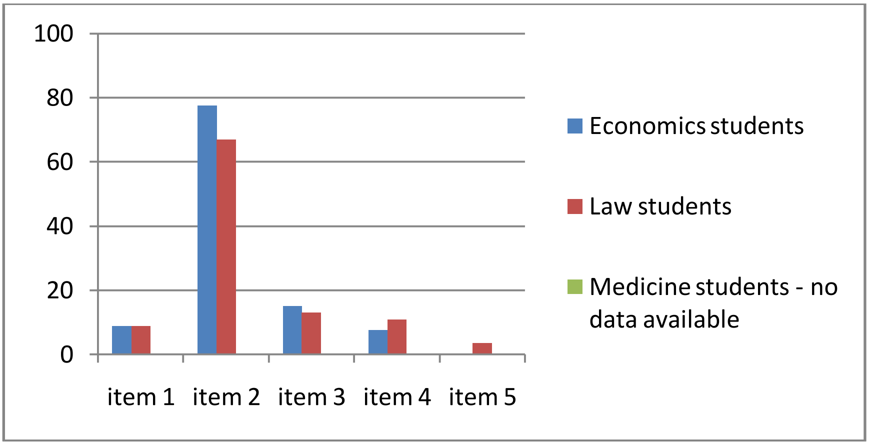


Figure 2: Ratio of the awareness of cultural differences with Economics and Law students of the University of Debrecen, Hungary (data given in percents)
Source: own creation

2.3. Level of Intercultural Awareness with Students of the University of Maribor, Slovenia

Unfortunately, data obtained from Maribor do not allow a complete comparison of the analysed segment either, as we only could apply the questionnaire at the Faculty of Economic Sciences. The 88 Slovenian Economics students participating in the survey presented in general higher values of intercultural sensitivity than Hungarian ones and quite similar rates to their Romanian colleagues. It is interesting however that their moderate values revealed at the five items are considerably higher than those observed in the case of Romanian Economics students. As a support of these statements let's see the concrete results to the issues of the survey. With only 4.5% of the respondents showing signs of cultural awareness, Slovenian students presented regarding item number 1 the lowest rate in the international comparison. 62.5% seemed to be completely unaware of cultural differences, while 33% of the subjects presented moderate values of intercultural sensitivity versus the Romanian rate of merely 18%. The potential misreading or misunderstanding in case of item number 2 experienced with the other participants of the survey have strongly influenced the Slovenian results, too. Thus the following distribution of rates is observable: 78% of the respondents indicated values of high, further 14% values of moderate awareness and 8% showed little understanding of cultural diversity. Inconsistence in handling the issues of the questionnaire is also valid for Slovenian students as their intercultural sensitivity shows a downward tendency from 23%, according to item number 3, to merely 19%, respectively 11% with the last two issues. The same decreasing trend is observable in the case of their moderate values from 37% with the third item to 27% with the last two statements. However, these values are still higher than Romanian ones – 33% (item number 3), 14%, respectively 13% (items 4 and 5). In parallel we notice a considerable increase in their level of intercultural insensitiveness. When in the case of item number 3 only 40% reacted as if not being aware of the existence of cultural differences, this value is 54% with item number 4 and 62% with the last issue. The following chart offers a synthetic overview upon our findings.

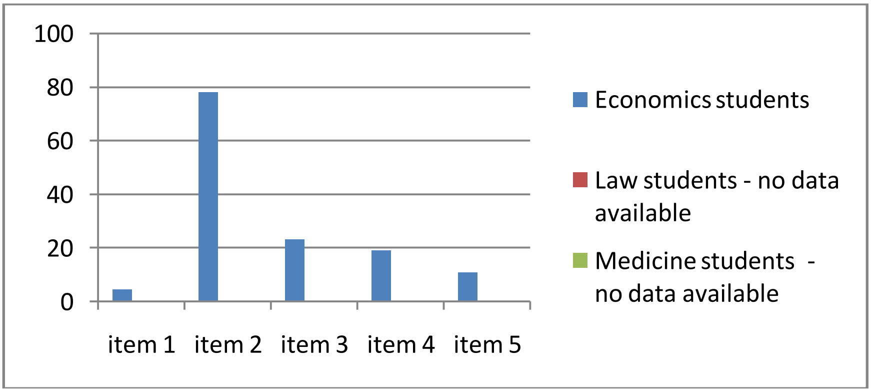


Figure 3: Ratio of the awareness of cultural differences with Economics students of the University of Maribor, Slovenia (data given in percents)
Source: own creation

An international synthetic comparison of the values analysed in our survey is outlined in the figure below.

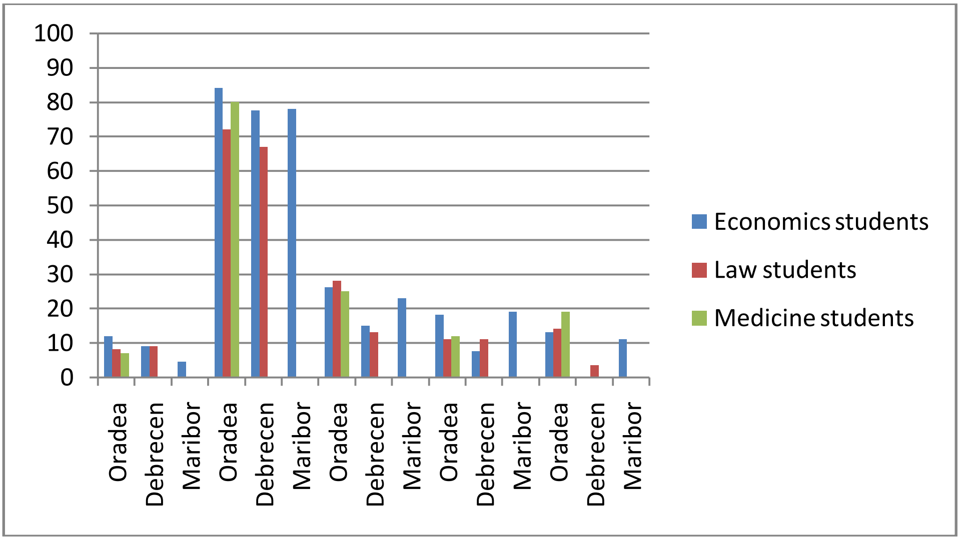


Figure 4: Levels of intercultural sensitivity among Economics, Law and Medicine students of the Universities of Oradea, Debrecen and Maribor included in the research (data given in percents)
Source: own creation

3. Conclusions and Perspectives

So far a kind of statistical overview upon present situation. The questions are what could be done to achieve positive changes in youth's intercultural competence and whose task is to do it? When dealing with intercultural issues developing skills necessary for effective intercultural interaction and adequate attitudes towards otherness often come too short opposite to knowledge about cultural differences, as in these areas outcomes are only in a medium to long term observable and much more difficult to achieve. Intercultural games can be of great help in this respect as they not only create awareness of cultural issues, but at the same time develop and train the skills of accepting, including, tolerating, collaborating, so necessary not only when experiencing intercultural encounters but in homogenous groups and domestic affairs, too. Besides those mentioned in previous research work - Barnga, Randömia Balloon Factory, BaFá BaFá, Ecotonos etc. - there are a lot of others with a broad applicability like, for instance, Yan-koloba, or Free time (see H. Spencer-Oatey and P. Franklin, 2009) as they develop everyday skills needed to an equal extent in private and school life, respectively in workplace situations.

Another measure would be introducing into the curricula, at least at academic level, a discipline dealing with intercultural issues. Should it be called intercultural training, intercultural skills development or whatever, its task should be to make changes at cognitive, attitudinal and competence level regarding cultural differences among people in the world. Thus, in the future it should not be the self-

imposed task of merely foreign language teachers to train their students' intercultural competence as they might themselves lack the right knowledge about cultural matters, the adequate attitude or necessary skills for dealing with them. Of course they could and should play an important role in developing and reinforcing students' intercultural skills at least regarding the cultural and linguistic domain they are activating in, but it should not be only their responsibility to assure students' future professional success on the "international playground".
As students of all the three nations included in the research presented lack of consistence in dealing with the five items of the questionnaire, indicating much higher values of cultural sensitivity with one item and much lower ones with others, it would be interesting to analyse the background of this phenomenon. Thus conducting semi- or unstructured interviews at least with part of the respondents - mainly with those giving inconsistent answers - would be a further step in increasing validity of the results obtained. Last but not least, in a future research there is also space for improving the questionnaire by reformulating some statements in order to avoid potential misunderstandings as in the case of item number two.

4. Acknowledgements
In this way we would like to thank all colleagues, international and study office workers, students at the faculties included in this research for having contributed to the creation of the present study with information, by distributing the questionnaire among their students and, respectively, by completing it.

References

Gesteland, R. (1997) *Cross-Cultural Business Behavior*, Handelshojkolens Forlag, Copenhagen, available:
http://www.zmk.unifreiburg.de/ss2000/texts/gesteland(e).htm,
[14 Apr 2010]
Hamburg, A. (2014) "The Role of Foreign Language Teachers in Developing Students' Intercultural Communication Skills", Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes, nr. 1., University Publishing House, Oradea, pp. 77-85,
http://jlsp.steconomiceuoradea.ro/ archives/001/jlsp-i1-7.pdf, [9 Oct 2015]
Hofstede, G. (1991) *Cultures and Organizations. Software of the mind,* London: McGraw Hill.
Lustig, M. W., Koester, J. (2010) *Intercultural Competence, Interpersonal Communication across Cultures*, Pearson Education Inc., Boston.
Spencer-Oatey H., Franklin P. ((2009), *Intercultural Interaction. A Multidisciplinary Approach to Intercultural Communication*, Palgrave, Macmillan.
http://www.thiagi.com/freebies-and-goodies.html [20 Oct 2015]
http://yan-koloba.com/ [20 Oct 2015]

PREPARING STUDENTS FOR BUSINESS LANGUAGE EXAMINATION WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS

Mária Czellér, Klára Nagy-Bodnár
Institute of Business Communication and Professional Language Studies, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Debrecen, Hungary
czeller.maria@econ.unideb.hu
bodnar.klara@econ.unideb.hu

Abstract: *Today public awareness of technical language knowledge and the social demand for related language skills are on the rise, and the Hungarian labour market requires an increasingly competent command of foreign languages from professionals involved in business and economics; compliance with these growing demands is reflected in the nature and structure of teaching foreign languages in the Hungarian higher education institutions Due to the high degree of institutional autonomy each Hungarian university has the right to work out its own language teaching policy and adopt it in its training programme. This paper will show that foreign language study at Hungarian universities can be devoted either to general language or language for specific purposes. These criteria can differ according to the field of study,*
Given that obtaining a language exam certificate is a pre-requisite of graduation, the role of academic education in providing students with the required knowledge base and successfully preparing them for language exams has become more important. The structure and content of modern business language exams reflect the need to meet the demands of the labour market. There has been a definite shift from grammar-oriented, translation-based tasks towards a more communicative approach which involves testing reading comprehension, writing skills and performance in situational role plays. However, while students generally cope well with understanding written business texts, many of them frequently fail in oral communication. Consequently, the question arises of whether it is possible to bridge the obvious gap between reading and speaking skills.
This paper aims to give a possible example of how a descriptive text can be adapted to prepare students for the situational role play tasks in business language exams at the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Debrecen.

Keywords: business, economics, languages, skills, exams

1. Introduction

1.1. Labour market demand and Hungarian objective

Employees in Europe's multilingual labour market need more than a simple command of foreign languages in a general sense, they also need, according to the goals of their language usage, a complex combination of competences comprising the knowledge of general and technical language enriched with intercultural and communication skills and competences (Kurtán and Silye, 2006). It is generally acknowledged that nowadays job seekers who know the foreign

technical language of their professional area have a considerable advantage in getting a job compared to candidates who have only a general knowledge of the relevant foreign language. (Hajdu, 2008.)
Considering the above, language teaching in the Hungarian higher education has a two-fold objective: on the one hand it aims to provide students with the goal-oriented technical language skills required to meet the needs of the labour market, and, on the other, to prepare them for the language exam necessary for graduation (Czellér and Hajdu, 2014).

1.2. Institutional background

In Hungary it is up to individual universities to decide whether they regard it as important and effective to include language teaching in their study programmes, and it is the institutions' right and responsibility to determine the number and aim of foreign language courses. For this reason, the range of language training programmes at Hungarian universities varies considerably. Although universities have an autonomy to decide on their own language programme, the degree requirements towards foreign languages are determined at a national level (Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006). Due to these requirements, graduates cannot receive their degree without a successful completion of a foreign language examination certified by an accredited institution. According to the field of study, the required focus can be general language or language for specific purposes.
The University of Debrecen integrates foreign language teaching into the degree programmes, and its main mission is to prepare students for the relevant state language examination as well as for the requirements of the international labour market.

2. Business language exams at the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Debrecen

Nowadays, apart from general language exams, there are numerous technical language exams connected to specific areas which measure professional language skills, and this is also the case with our professional field, the language of business and economics.

2.1. Priorities and exam systems

In teaching foreign languages at the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration of the University of Debrecen it is a priority to broaden the students' existing command of foreign languages with technical vocabulary and knowledge and to develop the language skills and competencies they will definitely need in their everyday working life. Furthermore, it is also in the interest of the institute to help students pass the business language exam, which is a prerequisite for acquiring a degree.
At the University of Debrecen's Faculty of Economics there are three different accredited business language exam systems (BGF, KITEX, and Zöld Út) for which we prepare our students. These three business language exams cover most of the professional areas our students major in. (The Faculty offers the following B.A. majors: Business Management, Trade and Marketing, International Business, Finance and Accounting, and Tourism and Catering, all of which require a certificate in a business language examination for graduation.)

2.2. The content of business language exams

It is our experience that although accredited general language exams in Hungary may differ in terms of their contents, they all aim to measure complex skills and knowledge. The same tendency applies to business language exam systems, too, so just as with general language exams, all the four basic language skills – listening, speaking, writing and reading – are also measured thoroughly in these exams.

A further common objective of business language exams is to require that students be familiar with language use in business contexts and the world of economics, emphasizing business communication in professional life and work activities and featuring the kind of lifelike written and oral tasks that the given profession requires.

As far as the written exams are concerned, students are supposed to solve reading tasks and do creative writing, the latter consisting of formal letter writing or translating authentic business texts

Taking everything into consideration, we can conclude that all the business language exam systems represent technical language use in an authentic manner. They attach great importance to professional background knowledge and professional language use, and at the same time they adequately measure language skills. (G. Havril, 2005.)

Our students tend to choose the language exam closest in content to their professional area; however, their choice is also influenced by the types of business language preparatory courses offered at our faculty.

It would be false to assume that any particular language exam is easier to pass than the others, since there are several factors leading to success or failure, the examination of which is beyond the scope of our study at present.

Nevertheless, the considerable role business language examinations play in fostering business language culture cannot be denied.

2.3. The Foreign Language Skills

Employers' demands for a highly qualified workforce with excellent communication skills and a decent command of one or more foreign languages has increased dramatically throughout Europe, and particularly in Hungary.

The structure and content of modern business language exams reflect the need to meet the demands of the labour market. While grammar-oriented, translation-based tasks dominated language exams in the past, nowadays much more emphasis has been placed on measuring communicative efficiency in business language examinations. Although proper grammar must not be neglected, comprehensive reading, creative writing and performance in situational role plays have tended to become the primary methods of testing language proficiency.

The shift in priorities has been made necessary by the very nature of the technical language of different professional fields – and in particular that of the business world - i.e. they differ from general, everyday language not only in terms of their specific vocabulary, but also because they tend to develop and change much faster in line with an ever-changing economic environment.

In addition, technical languages prefer direct communicative functions; as a result, certain genres (business letters, negotiations, presentations) receive more attention. (Balázs, 2008)

All the above must be taken into consideration by language teachers when teaching foreign business languages so that their students can successfully face the challenges they will meet, both in the language examination and throughout the course of their integration into working life.

The performance results of different language skills have also been observed to show significant differences both among our students and graduate specialists.

The indicators of the receptive skills of foreign language users are considerably better than those of the productive skills. To read and understand written business texts is the easiest of all tasks for the language learner. This is a natural phenomenon, because language learners can take their time to process the text at their own pace; there is no time pressure, and they can often return to the more difficult, less comprehensible parts without being required to produce immediate responses. In addition, the professional expertise they have acquired in their mother tongue and their knowledge of words of foreign origin already in use in Hungarian can considerably help them understand the message of the text.

Listening comprehension – still a receptive skill – is a somewhat greater challenge and depends to a great extent on the nature of the situation. If it is a live conversation, understanding a partner at B2 level is usually successful –facilitated by the possibility of asking for repetition and by face-to-face contact –, but if the text is a sound recording and the learner is supposed to listen to the text twice and answer questions based on the text on a worksheet (which is the usual procedure in a business language examination), the majority of students often fail.

In our experience, creative writing, i.e. writing letters and essays, which are already productive skills, lag just slightly behind reading comprehension at both B1+ and B2 levels.

Mention must be made of an unexpected phenomenon, however**.** While students and graduate specialists at an intermediate level of a foreign language can cope quite well when understanding (mainly written) business texts, and regularly use the knowledge they gain from reading such texts in a foreign language through the course of their studies or work (they might even publish in the given foreign language), they seem reluctant to get involved in oral communication.

It is a well-known fact that the active vocabulary of language learners is considerably smaller than their passive vocabulary and these learners may have difficulty utilising their vocabulary - either passive or active - in a spontaneous oral interaction.

Making a telephone call may prove especially difficult, because you cannot use non-verbal signals to help convey or understand the message.

2.4. The Result of a Survey

The above conclusions have been confirmed by research, including a comprehensive, representative research study carried out with the students of Budapest Business School by Ágnes Loch and Ágnes Dévény.

In 2005 they asked their students to fill in a detailed questionnaire about their language learning preferences, and their needs and expectations relating to efficient language learning. Five years later, in 2010, the same survey was repeated.

The students had to specify the kind of language skills they felt especially insecure about, and which of these they would prefer to develop in the course of their language classes at university.

Both surveys showed that speaking was considered by far the most difficult component of foreign language performance, while reading comprehension scored relatively well, representing the most easily manageable skill.
The responses students gave in the survey clearly indicated that speaking skills needed to be developed most during their studies (80% in 2005, 87% in 2010) (Loch-Dévény, 2011).
A further example is the research carried out by Katalin Varga Kiss in 2008. She looked at the technical foreign language usage of employees in financial and banking institutions.
Some of the questions in the survey aimed at examining people's business language skills and their needs and expectations. The results of the survey once again proved that much more emphasis must be placed on developing oral communication skills to make it easier for those in the survey to be comfortable when dealing with professional situations in a foreign language (Varga Kiss, 2008).
In view of these findings, it is obvious that there is a considerable difference between the reading comprehension and the oral communication skills of language learners and users. The question arises whether it is possible to bridge this obvious gap between reading and speaking skills during the preparatory courses for business language examinations and if so, how it should be done, since there is only a narrow time frame available.
While business language exam preparation course books provide adequate amounts of high quality materials to practice reading and writing skills, they tend to lack the situational role-play models needed for the acquisition of such communicative skills, as a set of instructions alone cannot guarantee success in acting out a variety of situations in class.
With the obvious and measurable improvement in reading skills, students are liable to assume a similar and simultaneous progress in their oral performance and fluency. This false assumption can only lead to frustration and impatience on the part of these learners. Therefore the teacher's task is to consciously apply the students' willingness to learn to focus attention to the oral aspects of language acquisition as well.

3. Descriptive Business Texts for Developing Speaking Skills

3.1. A sound solution

A possible solution lies in the analytical processing of written texts by the language instructor, as illustrated below.
This method enables us to efficiently use descriptive texts originally meant to test reading comprehension for developing speaking skills at the same time.
Apart from printed course books, however, increased emphasis should be placed on using up-to-date online resources, because, by their nature, economic phenomena change continuously, and we have to keep pace with them, and it is easier to upgrade vocabulary that is tailored to describe topical issues from the Internet rather than from course books written a couple of years ago.

3.2. The method

In this part of the article we attempt to give a detailed description of the application of this approach in 7 steps, using an authentic passage for illustration.

3.2.1. Step 1: Synthetic reading, traditional reading comprehension task

This approach is also referred to as "global comprehension", "listening for main ideas" etc.

Students are asked to read the given text – a segment of which can be seen below (Figure 1.) as an illustration - on their own, for a given period of time and solve traditional tasks designed to test reading comprehension (true-false statements, short answers to questions relating to the content of the text).

French telecom firms Orange and Bouygues in merger talks

French telecoms operators Orange and Bouygues have confirmed that they are in talks over a possible merger.

In separate statements, Orange said that the talks were "preliminary" while Bouygues said that "no decisions have been taken".

If the deal did go ahead it would reduce the number of French telecoms operators to three from four. The combined group would have a near-50% share of the French mobile and fixed telecoms market.

As a result, any deal is likely to be scrutinised by both domestic and European competition authorities.

French Economy Minister Emmanuel Macron opposed a previous bid by European telecoms group Altice to buy Bouygues, saying in June it risked creating a French operator that was "too big to fail".

But he has since said that he is not opposed in principle to further deals in the sector.

French newspaper reports have suggested that the deal could be worth €10bn (£7.3bn) in a combination of cash and shares.

In its statement, Bouygues said there was "no guarantee that there will be an outcome to these preliminary discussions".

Bouygues said it had signed a confidentiality agreement with Orange as "it is interested in opportunities that would enable it to bolster its long-term presence in the telecoms sector".

Orange said that the talks were not "limited by any particular calendar" and said there was "no commitment to any particular outcome".

Figure 1:Text

Source: http://www.bbc.com/news/business-33249048

3.2.2. Step 2: Highlight certain lexical items by underlining, then list them separately

In the majority of language classes – if the solutions of Step 1 are correct – the task can be considered well done, since students have clearly understood the general message of the text, so you can move on to try another similar task, giving the students further possibilities to improve their reading comprehension.

This time, however, our aim is to examine the passage in detail and to exploit its potential for developing oral skills.

First the students are supposed to underline the expressions and phrases they find useful, or the ones they are not familiar with. Then they read out their own lists

and compare them with other students' lists. They will probably produce very similar lists.
Subsequently, the teacher hands out a previously prepared new version of the passage (shown in Figure 2.) together with a separate list of the underlined phrases.

French telecom firms Orange and Bouygues in merger talks French telecoms operators Orange and Bouygues have confirmed that they are in talks over a possible merger. In separate statements, Orange said that the talks were "preliminary" while Bouygues said that "no decisions have been taken". If the deal did go ahead it would reduce the number of French telecoms operators to three from four. The combined group would have a near-50% share of the French mobile and fixed telecoms market. As a result, any deal is likely to be scrutinised by both domestic and European competition authorities. French Economy Minister Emmanuel Macron opposed a previous bid by European telecoms group Altice to buy Bouygues, saying in June it risked creating a French operator that was "too big to fail". But he has since said that he is not opposed in principle to further deals in the sector. French newspaper reports have suggested that the deal could be worth €10bn (£7.3bn) in a combination of cash and shares. In its statement, Bouygues said there was "no guarantee that there will be an outcome to these preliminary discussions". Bouygues said it had signed a confidentiality agreement with Orange as "it is interested in opportunities that would enable it to bolster its long-term presence in the telecoms sector". Orange said that the talks were not "limited by any particular calendar" and said there was "no commitment to any particular outcome".
telecoms operators; have confirmed; they are in talks over; a possible merger; statement; the talks were preliminary; no decisions have been taken; reduce; a near-50% share of; competition authorities; Economy Minister; opposed a previous bid; in principle; newspaper reports have suggested; in a combination of cash and shares; outcome; signed a confidentiality agreement with; commitment; outcome

Figure 2: Handout

3.2.3.Step 3: Identify the meaning (monolingual)

As a next step, students get a further list. This time the list contains synonyms (Figure 3.) or short explanations of the previously enlisted expressions and the task is to find the matching pairs.
By this time the learners have already encountered the expressions several times, which makes it easier for them to memorise them and use them as part of their active vocabulary.

1)	have said that something is true	have confirmed
2)	theoretically	in principle
3)	make something smaller or less	reduce

4)	negotiate	…
5)	an official organization that has the power to make decisions about competition	…

Figure 3: List of synonyms

3.2.4. Step 4: Drill the new expressions

It should be stressed at this point that it is essential to drill the new lexical items aloud, which will also help students learn the correct pronunciation.

3.2.4. Step 5: Ask questions

In our experience, when performing situational role plays, students tend to have difficulty in forming grammatically correct questions. However, asking questions cannot be avoided in the course of a conversation. For this reason this skill has to be practised as much as possible.

The questions can be yes-or-no questions first, then students should ask questions about the underlined parts of the sentences (Figure 4). Remember to check the correct intonation too, when students put their questions.

> French telecoms operators Orange and Bouygues have confirmed <u>that they are in talks over a possible merger.</u> *What have French telecoms operators confirmed?*

Figure 4: Making questions

3.2.4. Step 6: Collect general linking words, drill them

After practicing the technical vocabulary seen above, move on to collecting and practicing general linking words, expressions, and components of conversational strategies (Figure 5.) that can be used flexibly in any situation or conversation.

> actually; let me add; what's more; furthermore; let me emphasise, the point is; may I add that; I agree with you, etc.

Figure 5: Vocabulary practice

3.2.4. Step 7:Guided dialogues in pairs

A wide variety of conversational tasks (Figure 6.) can be given to students based on the given topic, the word list and the previously practiced questions and answers. The dialogues in which they are supposed to follow different instructions should be planned in pairs and then acted out in class, and always followed by the teacher's assessment.

> a) give a time limit (e.g. 2 minutes)
> b) use a certain number of expressions (a minimum of 10 expressions)
> c) use echo-questions
> d) use telephone conversations with requests for repetition

Figure 6: Conversational tasks

4. Conclusion

Although this approach is undoubtedly time-consuming and requires a great deal of input and preparation from the teacher, it is well worth the effort as it can contribute to successful language examinations and at the same time increase our students' confidence in oral performance.

References

Balázs, B. (2008) A szaknyelv sajátosságai*,* [online] Available:
www.lsi.hu/sites/default/.../
szaknyelv_sajatossagai

Czellér, M., Hajdu, Z. (2014) “Incorporating Blended Learning in Teaching English for Specific Purposes”, *Economica*, Szolnok, pp. 158-164.

Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006) *Motivation, language attitudes and globalisation: A Hungarian perspective.* Clevedon.

Hajdu, Zita (2008) *Foreign Language Requirements of Employers in the North Great Plain Region of Hungary,* PhD. dissertation, Debrecen.

G. Havril, Á. (2005) “On the business language exams”, *Porta Lingua*, Debrecen, pp.305-313.

Kurtán, Zs., Silye, M. (2006) *Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes in the Hungarian Higher Education*, [online] Available: www.nefmi.gov.hu

Loch, Á., Dévény, Á. (2011) “Változás és állandóság egy hallgatói igényfelmérés tükrében”, *Porta Lingua*, Debrecen, pp. 369-383.

Medgyes, P., &Miklósy.K. (2000).The language situation in Hungary. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 1* (2),

Vargáné Kiss, K. (2008) “Pénzintézeti dolgozók szakmai nyelvhasználatának vizsgálata”, *Porta Lingua*, Debrecen, pp. 341-348.

ANGLAIS DES SCIENCES, VARIETE D'ANGLAIS DE SPECIALITE : REFLEXIONS SUR LA FORMATION DES ENSEIGNANTS EN FRANCE

Claire Chaplier
LAIRDIL, Université Paul Sabatier, Toulouse, France
claire.chaplier@orange.fr

Abstract

We offer a reflection starting from field observation: the practice of teaching scientific English in a French scientific university (University Paul Sabatier-UPS-Toulouse) because it is our research and teaching domain. Let us not forget that English has become the universal language of science because of American globalization. At UPS, English teachers essentially design their courses of scientific English from constraints, training and experience. These difficulties are reinforced by the low recognition of their courses. These findings are part of the broader issue of LANSAD (Languages for Other Specialized Disciplines). Yet these teachers have been trained in the traditional areas of English (literature, civilization, language). Consequently the issue of training in this context arises. Because it is essential to be legitimate, credible and hence recognized in this domain. The problem lies in the very low number of masters in LANSAD and LSP/ASP. This is due to a few number of research work in the domain. We believe that recognition goes through research which must be credible by meeting certain external validity criteria and even more so in our scientific context. It is therefore necessary to undertake an epistemological approach of the LSP/ASP in their uses, by integrating the specialty that is missing in LSP studies (Van der Yeught, 2014) and the didactic dimension because LSP is a research and teaching subject, aiming at the competence in the specialty and not in their sole function of production of specialized knowledge. Because we believe that LSP can contribute to the professionalization of university courses (Van der Yeught, 2014). We would like to make our contribution to the epistemology of LSP/ASP with our research work in English for science that also covers teacher training in LANSAD in scientific university contexts. We set some milestones, beginning with the description of science in its relation to the English language-culture through an interdisciplinary approach: the history of science, sociology of science, philosophy of science. Finally, we offer food for thought on teacher training in LANSAD.

Keywords: scientific English; LSP; teacher training; didactics; epistemology

1. Introduction

Nous proposons une réflexion issue d'un constat sur le terrain : la pratique de l'enseignement de l'anglais scientifique, variété d'anglais de spécialité (ASP), dans un contexte universitaire scientifique français (l'université Paul Sabatier -UPS- à Toulouse) car c'est notre domaine de recherche et d'enseignement. Ce domaine d'enseignement des langues pour des spécialistes d'autres disciplines se nomme le LANSAD et s'est imposé depuis la réforme licence-master-doctorat en France. Dans le cas de l'UPS, les enseignants d'anglais conçoivent essentiellement les cours d'anglais scientifique, qui sont d'autant plus essentiels que l'anglais s'est imposé comme la langue universelle des sciences, à partir des contraintes et ont peu de reconnaissance pour leur enseignement. Ceci est dû à une problématique plus vaste qui relève du secteur LANSAD. Or, ces enseignants ont été formés dans les domaines traditionnels de l'anglais (littérature, civilisation, linguistique). La question de leur formation dans ce cadre se pose alors. Car il en va de la crédibilité et légitimité des cours d'anglais en sciences. En effet, on constate qu'il existe peu de formations d'enseignants en LANSAD et langues de spécialité (LSP), notamment l'anglais scientifique. Ce qui s'explique par le faible nombre de travaux de recherche en ASP par rapport à l'ensemble de la recherche dans les études anglophones et quand ils sont menés, ils n'envisagent pas toutes les dimensions de la LSP, à savoir la langue et la spécialité. Il est donc nécessaire d'entreprendre une démarche épistémologique des LSP en général et plus particulièrement dans le cas de l'anglais scientifique. Car nous pensons que les LSP peuvent contribuer à la professionnalisation des formations universitaires (Van der Yeught, 2014). Nous envisageons d'intégrer des apports issus de notre recherche en anglais des sciences dans la réflexion sur la formation des enseignants d'anglais dans les universités scientifiques. Nous posons quelques jalons concernant deux aspects (cf. Fourez) de l'anglais des sciences: en donnant un cadre qui intègre la dimension didactique, aspect externe et, en commençant par la description de la science dans sa relation à la langue (notamment l'anglais) par une approche interdisciplinaire (histoire des sciences, sociologie des sciences, philosophie des sciences), aspect interne. Enfin, nous proposons des pistes de réflexion pour cette formation.

2. LANSAD et Anglais de Spécialité

Traditionnellement, dans l'université française, les études anglophones distinguent l'enseignement aux spécialistes de cette langue et celui destiné aux 'non-spécialistes', le secteur LANSAD. « Selon les institutions et les publics, ce secteur revêt des réalités différentes, il est délimité à la fois par la nature des composantes ou des établissements (unités de formation et de recherche scientifiques, médicales, juridiques, etc., écoles d'ingénieurs, instituts universitaires de technologie, etc.) et celle des publics » (Mémet & Petit, 2001 : 8). Il se caractérise donc par son hétérogénéité. Le secteur LANSAD s'est retrouvé avec une forte demande de cours d'anglais dans des formations de non spécialistes de l'anglais et de nombreux postes ont été créés dans les universités pour faire face à cette demande.

Lorsque l'on évoque le secteur LANSAD, viennent ensuite les langues de spécialité (LSP) et notamment l'anglais de spécialité (ASP) ainsi que la didactique qui permet de réfléchir à l'enseignement et à l'apprentissage. Les LSP ont vu le jour suite à « des bouleversements socio-économiques puissants » (Van der Yeught, 2012 : 18) qui conduisent de nombreuses personnes à rejoindre une communauté spécialisée. En 2011, la Société des anglicistes de l'enseignement supérieur (SAES) a avalisé les définitions de la LSP et ASP en vue d'instaurer une unité:

LSP : « Une langue de spécialité est l'expression d'un domaine spécialisé dans une langue ».

ASP : « Une variété spécialisée de l'anglais (souvent appelé « langue de spécialité » par commodité) est l'expression d'un domaine spécialisé dans cette langue. En tant que discipline, l'anglais de spécialité est la branche de l'anglistique qui étudie ces objets et qui développe la réflexion didactique propre à son enseignement et son apprentissage ».
Ces définitions constituent une première étape dans la recherche sur les LSP.

3. L'Enseignement de l'Anglais Scientifique

L'anglais est essentiel dans le domaine scientifique que cela soit dans les sciences formelles (mathématiques) qu'expérimentales (chimie, physique, médecine). Car la communication internationale se fait en anglais tant à l'oral qu'à l'écrit par les publications (Truchot, 2008 : 120), ce qui implique que les scientifiques doivent comprendre l'anglais et produire dans cette langue. D'où l'importance de l'acquisition de l'anglais dans toutes les disciplines scientifiques.
Nous partirons d'une réflexion issue d'un constat sur le terrain : la pratique de l'enseignement de l'anglais scientifique à l'université scientifique, l'UPS. Les enseignants d'anglais conçoivent essentiellement les cours d'anglais scientifique à partir de contraintes ainsi que de leur formation et expérience. Ces difficultés sont renforcées par la faible reconnaissance de leur enseignement.

3.1. Les Contraintes

L'enseignement de l'anglais à l'université y compris dans les universités scientifiques comprend un nombre minimal de contraintes par rapport au lycée (absence de programme). Ces contraintes sont essentiellement institutionnelles: le statut des enseignants (enseignant-chercheur, 192h de cours ; enseignant, 384h), l'arrêté des examens, le volume horaire réduit (ex. UPS : 48h/ année L ; 24h/année M). S'ajoutent à ces contraintes d'autres qui relèvent du contexte : le niveau hétérogène de compétences en langue des étudiants et la quasi-absence de formation des enseignants d'anglais en LANSAD (anglais scientifique). Il est à noter qu'il n'y a pas de cadrage institutionnel pour les langues dans l'enseignement supérieur français excepté la nécessité de valider « l'aptitude à maîtriser au moins une langue vivante étrangère » (arrêté du 25 avril 2002 relatif au diplôme national de master) au niveau Master, sans préciser ce que signifie la « maîtrise » d'une langue étrangère, ni le sens « d'aptitude à maîtriser ». Il n'y a pas non plus de réel cadrage pour les LSP et pour l'anglais scientifique.
Mais ces contraintes, minimales en nombre ainsi que le contexte de travail pèsent sur les dires et les pratiques des enseignants. Et surtout l'absence de contraintes forte en termes d'instructions laisse une grande liberté aux enseignants qui pèse alternativement de façon positive mais aussi négative sur leur identité professionnelle et sur la manière dont elle se traduit dans leur pratique.

3.2. Les Pratiques

Les cours d'anglais scientifique sont élaborés en général par des enseignants qui ont rarement eu une expérience dans le milieu scientifique (industries, laboratoires, formation). De plus, peu d'enseignants- chercheurs qui pourraient apporter leur contribution par la recherche y interviennent. Cet enseignement se résume très souvent à du lexique/grammaire ou dans le meilleurs des cas à de la terminologie et ce pour plusieurs raisons. Ces enseignants ne sont pas formés à la spécialité mais à la langue. Or, il n'existe pas de synergie entre les deux et les collaborations avec les collègues scientifiques sont longues, coûteuses et problématiques (cf. statuts et individus). La plupart du temps, ils se sont formés sur le tas. Leur démarche d'enseignement relève généralement de la tradition anglo-saxonne (English for Specific Purposes - ESP). Or, elle n'est pas centrée sur l'objet, mais sur la pratique et, vise à répondre aux besoins des étudiants (Van der Yeught, 2012). Cependant, les enseignants organisent leur enseignement en fonction d'un certain nombre d'idées, plus ou moins explicites, qu'ils entretiennent à propos du savoir lui-même. Ils ont une « épistémologie pratique » (Sensevy, 2007), c'est une théorie de la connaissance qui naît de la pratique et qui la contraint.

3.3. Absence de Reconnaissance

En plus de la situation paradoxale des contraintes institutionnelles, le travail des enseignants d'anglais dans ce contexte (UPS) est peu reconnu par :

- leurs pairs : une image dévalorisée de l'enseignant en LANSAD est véhiculée vis-à-vis des autres enseignants en études anglophones. Gibaud (2008) signale qu'il existe une démotivation pour les enseignements en LANSAD : un manque de reconnaissance et de moyens attribués par l'institution aux formations LANSAD.
- leurs collègues de sciences : il n'y a pas de reconnaissance intellectuelle et même parfois il y a une demande instrumentale de la formation langagière. En effet, les scientifiques ont des critères de scientificité autres que ceux dans nos domaines qui sembleraient plus rigoureux.

On constate que l'enseignement de l'anglais scientifique est constitué de contraintes et de 'savoirs' incomplets, il est également peu reconnu, ce qui empêche l'opérationnalité des cours d'anglais scientifique. Ces constats s'inscrivent dans la problématique plus large du LANSAD. S'il est difficile voire impossible de supprimer les contraintes, on peut agir sur les 'savoirs' en anglais scientifique par la recherche et on peut penser qu'une forme de reconnaissance sera exprimée par la suite.

4. Problématique LANSAD et LSP/ADS

Il existe donc deux problèmes en LANSAD qui sont épistémologique et structurel :

1/ l'absence d'un corps de connaissances transmissible (enseignement) qui sont constituées des LSP car la professionnalisation des formations est devenue une mission prioritaire des universités, et pour le LANSAD, les LSP peuvent y contribuer (Van der Yeught, 2014). Or, les formations universitaires n'intègrent pas réellement cette visée du moins pour les langues,

2/ l'absence de formation des enseignants (Van der Yeught, 2014).

Ces enseignants ne sont donc pratiquement jamais préparés à enseigner dans ce secteur, ils créent eux-mêmes leurs savoirs. L'enseignement des LSP générales ou spécifiques (ex. anglais des sciences) est peu fréquent à part dans deux masters : à l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Cachan et à l'université du Havre. Et s'il n'y a pas de formation, c'est parce qu'il n'y a pas assez de recherche dans ce domaine. Or, la recherche est essentielle : 1/ pour déterminer l'objet de recherche qui passe par la description et par une réflexion en termes de système didactique

qui est incontournable. Car toute formation exige une transposition didactique et une référence aux savoirs, 2/ pour un établissement car c'est sur elle que la politique des langues doit s'appuyer (Rivens Mompean, 2013 : 34). D'autre part, l'absence de formation en LSP peut avoir un impact sur l'identité professionnelle des enseignants et sur la représentation qu'ils ont de leur métier, ainsi que sur la représentation que les étudiants et responsables/enseignants de sciences ont des cours d'anglais scientifique. Il en va de la légitimité, crédibilité et reconnaissance de cet enseignement. Le second aspect vient de la recherche en LSP/ASP. Même si de nombreuses études ont été menées sur les caractéristiques « transversales » (e.g. discours, style) des LSP, les études « verticales », portant sur l'objet même des LSP – l'intersection entre la langue et la spécialité– restent rares (Van der Yeught, 2014). Un réel déficit épistémologique en LSP existe (Van der Yeught, 2012) et comme l'indique Petit (2002), la réalité épistémologique de l'ASP comme discipline des études anglophones n'est pas bien circonscrite.
Et s'il n'y a pas de recherche, c'est parce que les enseignants-chercheurs sont très peu nombreux dans ce secteur. En effet, le problème en LANSAD vient du statut des enseignants qui y interviennent. Certains enseignants-chercheurs font leur service en LANSAD parmi lesquels les didacticiens qui vont se distinguer des linguistes ou des littéraires, et les vacataires extérieurs, natifs, lecteurs, enseignants du secondaire. Se pose alors un problème concernant le second type de personnel qui ne fait pas de recherche dans le domaine et pour les premiers, ils sont peu nombreux et parfois même une image dévalorisée de leur recherche est véhiculée. La recherche en ASP est nécessaire pour faire évoluer l'enseignement dans le même domaine (tout comme la recherche ne peut évoluer que si elle est nourrie de ses pratiques d'enseignement). En conséquence, le secteur LANSAD doit se renforcer avec l'intégration d'enseignants-chercheurs dont c'est la mission dans le même champ professionnel et cognitif.

5. Nécessité d'une Démarche Épistémologique

Nous pensons que la reconnaissance passe par la recherche mais cette recherche doit être crédible en satisfaisant à certains critères externes de validité (concepts, méthodes, objectifs, administration de la preuve) et ce d'autant plus dans notre contexte scientifique. La recherche quantitative n'est pas menée avec rigueur, il n'y a pas d'objectifs de terrain en terme d'amélioration (ergonomique). Du côté de la recherche qualitative, celle-ci éprouve des difficultés épistémologiques.
Une réflexion sur la question de l'ASP est nécessaire et certains l'ont débutée :

- soit au sein de leur laboratoire. Par exemple, le Laboratoire inter-universitaire de recherche en didactique LANSAD (LAIRDIL) de l'université de Toulouse s'intéresse à l'épistémologie du LANSAD dans une approche pluridisciplinaire au sein de l'un des axes; le Groupe de recherche multilingue en traduction spécialisée (GREMUTS) de l'université de Grenoble traite des cultures de spécialité dans l'un de ses axes.
- soit au niveau national, le Groupe d'Étude et de Recherche en Anglais de Spécialité (GERAS) a entrepris de nombreux travaux dans les quatre axes de recherche – linguistique, culturel, didactique et technologique. Le groupe didactique ASP du GERAS s'est intéressé à la relation didactique et ASP.

Toutes ces entreprises ont plus ou moins pour but de « s'approprier le spécialisé au lieu de l'ignorer » comme le préconise (Van der Yeught, 2014) ; dans LSP, il y a langue mais aussi spécialité.
D'autre part, on se rend compte que les LSP n'entrent pas dans le cadre de l'organisation positiviste des disciplines (Comte, 1907) car elles fonctionnent sur le mode des connaissances interdisciplinaires (Magnet, 1999). En effet, nous sommes encore à l'université dans une structure verticale qui ne permet pas de souplesse dans le système de transmission des connaissances et qui « aboutit à une hiérarchie des valeurs pour la structuration des connaissances » avec à la base les mathématiques et autres sciences dures. Lahire (2012 : 322) souligne « les effets négatifs de l'enfermement disciplinaire, de l'hyperspécialisation et d'une forme étriquée de professionnalisme académique ». Une image claire du monde manque. Il y a donc une nécessité épistémologique d'envisager d'autres approches que celles de la langue pour déterminer les différentes variétés d'ASP.
D'où la nécessité de poursuivre ce travail et de forger une épistémologie des LSP/ASP dans leur usage, par l'intégration de la spécialité qui n'a pas été intégrée, semble-t-il, dans l'étude des LSP (Van der Yeught, 2014) et aussi par l'intégration de la dimension didactique car la LSP est un objet de recherche et d'enseignement, visant la compétence dans la spécialité et non dans leur seule fonction de production d'un savoir de spécialité (la langue pour la langue).

6. Reconstruction Épistémologique de l'Anglais des Sciences

Actuellement, il n'existe pas d'objet 'anglais des sciences' qui soit produit par les chercheurs et donc le 'savoir enseigné' à l'UPS ne repose sur aucun fondement épistémologique, il appartient au savoir personnel de chaque enseignant. Le but est de reconstruire le domaine de tâche (langue + science) qui aboutit à une reconstruction conceptuelle adaptée au domaine de la LSP vue dans ses usages (intégration de la dimension didactique). Nous visons à contribuer à la fondation didactique d'une épistémologie d'une LSP, l'anglais des sciences. Le but est dans un premier temps d'initier une réflexion épistémologique qui permet de construire un méta-concept qui deviendra un concept opératoire avec la mise en place de dispositifs d'enseignement et d'apprentissage fondés sur l'« anglais des sciences ».

6.1. Objet

L'anglais des sciences est distinct de l'anglais scientifique qui vise plutôt l'étude des discours scientifiques en gommant les conditions culturelles et historiques de leur production (Fourez, 1996) pour les rendre universaux (Stengers, 1987). D'ailleurs, Fourez (1996) souligne que l'effort scientifique est sans cesse parcouru par des projets historiques et une dimension culturelle. Ce n'est ni la juxtaposition de l'anglais et de la science, ni sa somme, mais un concept combinant et articulant la dimension culturelle, linguistique et didactique de l'anglais des sciences (Morin & Le Moigne, 1999).

6.2. Objectif

Nous avons entrepris de déterminer une approche globale se rapportant à l'objet à multiples facettes en jeu, l'anglais des sciences qui comprend: 1) un contenu scientifique 2) exprimé dans une langue-culture étrangère 3) qui doit être approprié pour l'étudiant. Nous visons à réintégrer la « pensée scientifique » à l'aspect pragmatique de la langue des sciences pour former des enseignants d'anglais en anglais des sciences.

6.3. Méthode

- Définir le 'savoir savant' et le 'savoir à enseigner' dans une approche interdisciplinaire – histoire, philosophie et sociologie des sciences.
- Établir le rapport entre langue d'origine et langue cible dans une approche contrastive.
- Et, in fine, construire des stratégies didactiques et pédagogiques prenant en compte ce travail de construction. Les savoirs ne peuvent être appropriés que s'ils s'inscrivent dans une démarche permettant à l'apprenant de construire son propre savoir, c'est-à-dire didactique. Les savoirs en anglais des sciences seront produits par des communautés de chercheurs, avec une réflexion sur l'histoire et l'épistémologie des disciplines enseignées.

Les fonctions transversales de l'anglais scientifique ayant été largement étudiées, nous nous fondons sur la spécialité (science) afin de comprendre le type de connaissances qui est exploré et nous prenons en compte les approches inter- et pluri-disciplinaires qui permettent de poser la question du contenu (Rabatel, 2013). Ainsi nous abordons des questions au sujet de la dimension « verticale » (diachronique) de l'anglais des sciences. Car pour comprendre le présent et aller vers l'avenir il faut se pencher sur le passé et pour comprendre une description scientifique, il faut avoir une culture scientifique (Fourez, 1996 : 161). Comprendre un mot revient donc à savoir ce qu'il représente, ce à quoi il se réfère.
Afin de donner un cadre théorique minimal, nous empruntons des théories à la didactique des disciplines (mathématiques) - la transposition didactique (TD, Chevallard, 1985) et la théorie de l'anthropologie didactique (TAD, Chevallard, 1992) – qui permettent de penser ensemble les questions disciplinaire (le savoir lié à la science) et didactique qui constituent deux difficultés majeures, deux dimensions épistémologiques. La dimension didactique est pensée avec le disciplinaire dès le début du processus de reconstruction. Parce que les questions qu'il s'agit de poser n'appartiennent pas seulement au champ de l'objet 'anglais des sciences' mais relèvent aussi de ses conditions sociales d'existence à savoir la visée professionnelle du diplôme. La théorie de la TD donne un cadre et permet de distinguer divers savoirs : les savoirs savants produits, par exemple, par les linguistes, les scientifiques, les savoirs à enseigner qui sont définis par le système universitaire et le savoir enseigné par le professeur. Comme l'anglais des sciences vise à être enseigné, il doit être vu comme une construction sociale réalisée par de nombreuses personnes au sein des institutions (politiques, linguistes) qui déterminent les enjeux de l'enseignement et choisissent les 'savoirs à enseigner' (ce qui doit être enseigné et sous quelles formes). Ce groupe de personnes délimite, redéfinit et réorganise les savoirs dans un contexte historique, social ou culturel donné qui permet ou non certains choix. Nous nous centrons sur la partie 'savoir savant' sans ignorer les autres savoirs pour élaborer l'anglais des sciences (transposition externe) qui ne peut exister comme connaissance isolée et qui fait partie d'un système. Pour que le 'savoir anglais des sciences' soit opérationnel à

l’université, il faut suivre deux directions : 1) l’épistémologie de ces savoirs, 2) celle de leur didactique.
Nous pensons que la situation dans la pratique c’est-à-dire dans l’enseignement de l’anglais dans les formations scientifiques de l’université s’améliorera quand nous aurons précisé par un travail théorique les contenus de l’anglais des sciences en interaction avec le système didactique (enseignant-apprenant-savoir). Ceci revient à traiter de la question cruciale de la référence dans un travail en cours. En effet, la question de déterminer ce que les savoirs en langues vivantes étrangères (LVE) renferment n’a jamais été posée en tant que problème dans l’enseignement des LVE, ce qui explique que la référence n’ait pas fait l’objet d’une recherche dans cette discipline. La LVE est un savoir multiréférentiel (Accardi, 2000) et qui plus est l’anglais des sciences, car une langue ne se fonde pas uniquement sur des ‘savoirs savants’ comme en mathématiques.

7. Pistes de Réflexion sur la Formation

La formation en LANSAD incluant l’anglais des sciences concerne les enseignants d’anglais mais aussi ceux de sciences (enseignement par modules) de l’université. Elle vise à donner au formateur une bonne maîtrise du savoir-savant et une réflexion épistémologique sur la discipline, sans quoi la transposition ne résulterait pas de choix conscients mais du hasard. Il est essentiel de considérer le fondement scientifique des savoirs enseignés pour que l'activité de l'enseignant soit légitime et que l’apprenant adhère aux enseignements. La formation doit inclure outre une dimension langagière :

- Une dimension épistémologique : lorsque l’enseignant a mieux compris comment se construisent les savoirs, il donnera à son cours une dimension nouvelle (Fourez, 2003: 13). La connaissance des conceptions épistémologiques du monde des sciences est importante pour saisir la discipline même.
- Une dimension didactique : comme le souligne Reuter (2007), « on ne voit pas bien comment les didactiques pourraient ne pas constituer une référence majeure dans la conception de la formation des enseignants ». L'acte d'enseigner revient à modifier les conceptions (épistémologiques) pour accroître les performances; à aider l'apprenant à passer d’une représentation A (subjective et approximative) à une représentation B (plus objective et plus rigoureuse) (Theurer, 1993).
- Une dimension inter/pluri-disciplinaire sur la science: c’est une démarche qui s’intéresse à la dimension « humaine » de la construction des connaissances scientifiques, qui s’interroge sur les influences que peuvent exercer le contexte historique, le contexte socioculturel, la personnalité du chercheur, etc., sur l’activité scientifique elle-même ; préoccupations qui relèvent globalement de l’histoire des sciences, de la sociologie des sciences (Verhaeghe *et alii*, 2004). Car au-delà de la terminologie, il n’y a que des discours scientifiques qui sont le fait de praticiens et qui sont donc étroitement dépendants du milieu et de l’époque dans lesquels ils se développent. On prend donc en considération le régime de production des savoirs connu depuis plus de trente ans selon les travaux d’histoire sociale et culturelle des sciences (Pestre, 1995). En effet, pour bien comprendre le rapport entre sciences et langues (avec un intérêt pour l’anglais), il est

nécessaire de réfléchir au rapport entre les pratiques de la science et les pratiques de la langue (Levy-Leblond, 1996).

On peut également envisager que les enseignants formés à la langue poursuivent une formation scientifique en master par exemple dans une spécialité de leur choix ou bien là où la demande de la communauté professionnelle dans une spécialité nécessite des connaissances expertes.

Toutes les grandes lignes du projet d'élaboration du concept d'anglais des sciences seront intégrées dans le master DIDALAP (Master DIDactique des Langues Etrangères utilisées dans les Activités Professionnelles) qui ouvrira en septembre 2016 à l'Université de Toulouse. Ce master vise à former à l'enseignement des langues utilisées dans les activités professionnelles notamment dans l'enseignement supérieur et dans notre cas les différents publics de l'université scientifique comme :

- Enseigner l'anglais dans le secteur LANSAD-sciences, notamment l'anglais des sciences pour les enseignants d'anglais et/ou de sciences. Ainsi les enseignants-chercheurs scientifiques approfondiront leurs connaissances linguistiques en suivant un module de ce master car langue et science sont indissociables, le langage (différent de la langue) étant la jonction. Cet enseignement fera aussi partie de la formation des étudiants. Ils auront non seulement l'occasion d'améliorer leur connaissance de la langue, mais aussi la possibilité de penser à des concepts fondamentaux avec un regard différent de celui de sa spécialité, et la possibilité de parcourir l'histoire de leur propre discipline (Celotti & Musacchio, 2004).
- Intégrer l'anglais à l'enseignement d'une spécialité comme la biologie, la physique, la chimie etc. : mettre en place des dispositifs d'Enseignement d'une Matière Intégré à une Langue Etrangère (EMILE) opérationnels à l'université avec un réel fondement épistémologique et didactique au lieu de l'argument couramment avancé de la globalisation américaine.

Ces grandes lignes pourront également figurer, de manière plus transversale, dans l'unité d'enseignement (UE) d'histoire et de philosophie des sciences de l'UPS qui sera mise en place en troisième année de Licence du prochain quinquennal et qui s'intégrera dans l'UE citoyenneté de l'Université. Notre but en tant que linguiste est de collaborer avec les enseignants-chercheurs de sciences afin de réintroduire l'élément la langue / langage dans la science/ savoir par une approche interdisciplinaire (histoire, philosophie et sociologie des sciences) sans se poser comme expert de ces domaines. Un travail de collaboration avec des didacticiens des sciences, des historiens et philosophes des sciences ainsi que des chercheurs en sciences des différentes universités de Toulouse, est déjà en cours dans l'UE d'ouverture transversale en histoire et philosophie des sciences en première année de Licence. Ce type d'UE est une manière de faire prendre conscience à chacun de la dimension humaine de la science qui associerait la dimension langage/langue à la science/savoir en collaboration avec les linguistes. Car la mission de l'université et donc la nôtre est de donner une formation globale alliant science et langue, non pas destinée seulement aux futures élites scientifiques, mais à tout individu de la société, ou plutôt il s'agit de construire par la science et la langue le futur citoyen d'une société du savoir comme le recommande l'Unesco dans son rapport *Vers les sociétés du savoir* (2005).

8. Conclusion

L'élaboration d'une formation en LANSAD comprenant l'anglais des sciences ne peut être que bénéfique pour la communauté scientifique universitaire et aussi internationale. La réflexion sur des pistes pour la formation qui incluent l'enseignement de l'anglais des sciences, de sciences en anglais (EMILE) et de l'histoire et de philosophie des sciences mettant l'accent sur la langue/langage peut aussi porter sur une approche de l'enseignement des sciences à la manière de Nicolas (2012) qui conclut dans sa thèse : « et si l'enseignement de la physique était considéré comme l'enseignement d'une langue aux élèves ? » (388). En effet, Nicolas s'intéresse au langage et fait de l'enseignement des sciences l'enseignement d'une grammaire et d'énoncés. Il nous semble alors intéressant de prolonger cette réflexion, d'étudier plus particulièrement la didactique des langues, la philosophie du langage de Wittgenstein, et pourquoi ne pas tenter de construire une formation qui prendrait comme architecture ce postulat ? Et donc d'y réfléchir dans une véritable interdisciplinarité de départements d'enseignement et de laboratoires de recherche.

Bibliographie

Accardi, J. (2000) *La référence en didactique des LVE : le cas de l'espagnol*, Thèse de doctorat, Aix-Marseille 1.

Celotti, M.-T. et Musacchio, N. (2004) « Un regard diachronique en didactique des langues de spécialité », *Études de Linguistique Appliquée,* No.135, pp 263-270.

Chevallard, Y. (1985) *La transposition didactique*, Grenoble: La Pensée Sauvage.

Chevallard, Y. (1992) « Concepts fondamentaux de la didactique : perspectives apportées par une approche anthropologique » *Recherches en Didactique des Mathématiques,* Vol. 12, No. 1, pp 73-112.

Comte, A. (1907) *Cours de philosophie positive* Paris: Éditions Schleicher Frères.

Fourez, G. (1996) *La construction des sciences, les logiques des inventions scientifiques,* Bruxelles: De Boeck Université.

Fourez, G. (2003), *Apprivoiser l'épistémologie*, Bruxelles: De Boeck Université.

Gibaud (2008) « En... quête de motivation institutionnelle en LANSAD », *Les langues modernes,* Vol. 3, pp 60-65.

Joshua, A. (1996), « Le concept de transposition didactique n'est-il propre qu'aux mathématiques ? », in C. Raisky & M. Caillot (Eds.), *Au-delà des didactiques, le didactique*, Bruxelles: De Boeck, pp 61-73.

Lahire, B. (2012), *Monde Pluriel*, Paris : Seuil.

Lebeaume, J., Martinand, J.-L et Reuter, Y. (2007), « Contenus, didactiques, disciplines, formation », *Recherche et formation*, No. 55, pp 107-117.

Lévy-Leblond, J.-M. (1996), « La langue tire la science », in *Sciences et Langues en Europe*, Paris : EHESS, pp 235-245.

Magnet, A. (1999), « Réseaux de cohérence et de cohésion dans la pratique de l'anglais scientifique », *ASp*, Vol. 23-26, pp 85-98.

Martinand, J.-L. (1986), *Connaître et transformer la matière*, Berne: P. Lang.

Martinand, J.-L. (1993), « Organisation et mise en œuvre des contenus d'enseignement », in J. Colomb (Ed.) *Recherches en didactiques : contribution à la formation des maîtres*, Paris: INRP, pp 135-147.

Mémet, M. et Petit, M. (dir.), (2001), *L'Anglais de Spécialité en France : Mélanges en l'honneur de Michel Perrin,* Bordeaux 2 : GERAS Éditeur, Université Victor Segalen.
Morin, E et Le Moigne, J.-L. (1999), *L'Intelligence de la complexité*, Paris: L'Harmattan.
Nicolas H. (2012), *Analyses de pratiques d'enseignement de savoirs de la physique stabilisés (l'énergie) et controversés (le changement climatique*), Thèse, Université Toulouse le Mirail - Toulouse II.
Petit, M. (2002), « Éditorial », *ASp,* Vol. 35-36*,* pp 1-3.
Pestre, D. (1995), « Pour une histoire sociale et culturelle des sciences. Nouvelles définitions, nouveaux objets, nouvelles pratiques », *Histoire et Sociologie des Sciences,* No. 3, pp 487-522.
Rabatel, A. (2013), « L'engagement du chercheur, entre 'éthique d'objectivité' et 'éthique de subjectivité' », *Argumentation et Analyse de Discours*, No. 10, Disponible : http://aad.revues.org/1526.
Rivens Mompean, A. (2013), *Les Centres de Ressources en Langues : vers la modélisation du dispositif d'apprentissage,* Villeneuve d'Ascq: Presses Universitaires du Septentrion.
SAES. (2011), « Évolution et enjeux des formations et de la recherche dans le secteur LANSAD ».
Sensevy, G. (2007), "Des catégories pour décrire et comprendre l'action didactique », in Sensevy, G. and Mercier, A *Agir ensemble : l'action didactique conjointe du professeur et des élèves* (pp 13-49), Ed Paideia: Presse Universitaires de Rennes.
Stengers, I. (éd.) (1987), *D'une science à l'autre. Des concepts nomades*, Paris : Seuil.
Therer, J. (1993), « Nouveaux concepts en didactique des sciences », *Bulletin de la Société Géographique de Liège* Vol. 1, No. 28, Disponible : http://popups.ulg.ac.be/0770-7576/index.php?id=3426.
Truchot, C. (2008), *Europe : l'enjeu linguistique*. Paris : La documentation française.
UNESCO. (2005), *Vers les sociétés du savoir*, Éditions UNESCO, Disponible: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001419/141907f.pdf.
Van der Yeught, M. (2012), *L'anglais de la bourse et de la finance : description et recherche,* Paris: Ophrys.
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.
J-C., Verhaeghe, J. L. Wolfs, X. Simon et D. Compère. (2004), *Pratiquer l'épistémologie*, Bruxelles: De Boeck Supérieur.

PROFILIERUNG DER PRAGMATISCHEN KOMPETENZ FREMDSPRACHENSTUDIERENDER

Biljana Ivanovska[1], Marija Kusevska[2], Nina Daskalovska[3], Liljana Mitkovska[4]
[1,2,3] Philologische Fakultät, Lehrstuhl für deutsche Sprache und Literatur, Universität "Goce Delčev", Štip, R. Mazedonien
[4] Applied Foreign Languages, FON University, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia
biljana.ivanovska@ugd.edu.mk
marija.kusevska@ugd.edu.mk
nina.daskalovska@ugd.edu.mk
liljana55@yahoo.com

Abstract: *Das Ziel dieser Studie ist es, die Komponenten zu analysieren, die die Fremdsprachenstudierenden beherrschen müssen, um die Fähigkeit der pragmatischen Kompetenz zu entwickeln. Dieser Beitrag stellt eine Beschreibung der ersten Phase unseres laufenden Forschungsprojekts an der Universität Goce Delčev zu Štip in der Republik Mazedonien dar, in der die Entwicklung von pragmatischen Fähigkeiten der Fremdsprachenstudierenden vorgestellt und erforscht wird. Darüber hinaus besprechen wir die Instrumente, die wir für die Sammlung der Daten verwendet haben, ebenso wie die Analyseverfahren. Schließlich geben wir einen Űberblick über die weitere Forschungsarbeit.*

Stichwörter: pragmatische Kompetenz, Discourse Completion Test (DCT), explizite Anweisung, Rollenspiele, Sprechakte

1. Einführung

Im Prozess des Fremdsprachenlernens sind die Kommunikation und die pragmatische Kompetenz sehr eng miteinander verbunden. Für die Kommunikation in der Fremd- oder Zweitsprache müssen die Lernenden in der Lage sein, in der Sprache und Kultur, die neu für sie sind, erfolgreich zu handeln und zu kommunizieren. Ohne die Grundprinzipien der Kommunikation[1] in der Zielsprache zu kennen, kann eine kritische Quelle von Missverständnissen und interkulturellen Fehldeutungen entstehen.

Die Entwicklung der pragmatischen Kompetenz ist besonders schwierig, wenn die fremde Sprache in einer Umgebung gelernt wird, wo die Fremdsprache nicht als Mittel zur täglichen Kommunikation dient, und die Lernenden keinen kompletten Input haben, der es ihnen ermöglicht, die Kenntnise der pragmatischen Kompetenz in der jeweiligen Gesellschaft anzuwenden. Daraus ergibt sich, dass die Sprachanweisung von grosser Bedeutung ist. Allerdings besteht ein Mangel an gültigen Vorgaben für die kommunikativen Kompetenzen der mazedonischen Englisch- und Deutschlernenden. Im Sprachunterricht herrscht Mangel an Lehrplänen mit Schwerpunkt auf den kommunikativen Kompetenzen, und es gibt einen grossen Bedarf an effektiven Methoden zur Verstärkung der Kommunikationsfähigkeiten. Das Ziel dieses Projektes ist es, diese Lücke zu schließen.

---

[1] Der kooperative Grundsatz, das Höflichkeitsprinzip u.a.

Motiviert durch diese Anregungen, haben die Autorinnen dieses Beitrags das Projekt ”Die Rolle der expliziten Anweisung in der Entwicklung pragmatischer Kompetenz im Englischen und im Deutschen als Fremdsprache” (“*The role of explicit instruction in developing pragmatic competence in learning English and German as a foreign language”)* initiiert. Es wird an der ”Goce Delčev” Universität zu Štip, in der Republik Mazedonien durchgeführt. Insbesondere konzentriert sich das Projekt auf die folgenden Schwerpunkte:

- Realisierung der Sprechakte: beantragen, sich entschuldigen und beschweren in der Interimsprache der Englisch- und Deutschlernenden;
- Vergleich der Sprechaktrealisation in der Zielsprache und in der Interimsprache der Lernenden;
- Definition der Anlässe, die zum pragmatischen Failure bei Fremdsprachenlernenden führen;
- Die Rolle der expliziten Anweisung in der Entwicklung pragmatischer Kompetenz der Fremdsprachenlernenden;

In diesem Beitrag werden wir zunächst die an die Lernenden gestellten pragmatischen Anforderungen diskutieren, d.h. was die Lernenden wissen müssen, um pragmatisch zuständig zu werden. Dann besprechen wir die Instrumente, die zur Messung der pragmatischen Fähigkeit der Lernenden dienen. Schließlich weisen wir auf die nächste Phase unserer Forschungsarbeit hin.

2. Die pragmatische Komponente in Lernersprachen (Interlanguage-Pragmatik)

Wir stellen diesem Teil des Beitrags die umfassende Definition von Crystal voran, wonach die Pragmatik "das Studium der Sprache aus der Sicht der Nutzer ist", und "insbesondere von den Entscheidungen abhängt, welche die Nutzer treffen, den Zwängen, denen sie in der Sprache der sozialen Interaktion begegnen und den Auswirkungen der Sprache auf die anderen Teilnehmer im Akt der Kommunikation". (Crystal 2008: 379)

Diese Definition rückt den sozialen Kontext des Diskurses in den Vordergrund (z.B.: Power/Autorität und Höflichkeit, den Einsatz von Metaphern und Ironie, usw.). Sie konzentriert sich auf den Benutzer und die von ihm beabsichtigte bzw. gemeinte Bedeutung innerhalb des kommunikativen Akts. Bei der Festlegung der pragmatischen Kompetenz halten wir vor allem die Unterscheidung von Leech (1983) zwischen Soziopragmatik und pragmalinguistischem Wissen für nützlich.

Soziopragmatisches Wissen bezieht sich auf die ",spezifischen',,lokalen' Bedingungen des Sprachgebrauchs, (...) "denn es ist klar, dass der kooperative Grundsatz und das Höflichkeitsprinzip in verschiedenen Kulturen oder Sprachgemeinschaften, in verschiedenen sozialen Situationen, in verschiedenen sozialen Schichten usw. unterschiedlich wirken." (Leech 1983: 10). Daher ist es wichtig, dass die Lernenden diese Prinzipien kennen und verstehen und damit erlangen sie die Fähigkeit, eine sprachlich-kulturelle Identität aufzubauen, sich selbständig Wissen anzueignen und die eigene Innenwelt zu reflektieren. Insbesondere werden darunter[2] das Erfassen des Kontexts, die Erkennung und

[2] *Darunter* bezieht sich auf das soziopragmatische Wissen.

Produktion von illokutionärer Bedeutung, die Verteilung von Höflichkeitsstrategien, die Sprecher-Hörer-Beziehung, die Formalität der Situation, die soziale Werte und kulturellen Űberzeugungen etc. verstanden.

Auf der anderen Seite bezieht sich pragmalinguistisches Wissen auf die besonderen sprachlichen Ressourcen, die durch eine bestimmte Sprache vermittelt werden, um spezifische Illokutionen zu fördern.

Zusammengefasst beinhaltet pragmatische Kompetenz die Kenntnisse des sozial angemessenen Sprachgebrauchs[3] in Bezug auf die soziopragmatischen Variablen.

Da die soziopragmatischen und pragmalinguistischen Regeln nicht offensichtlich sind, geschieht es im Vollzug der Kommunikation oft, dass die Lernenden nicht verstehen können oder sogar missverstehen, was Muttersprachler sagen. Noch schwieriger ist es für die Fremdsprachenlernenden, die erforderlichen Ausdrücke in einem bestimmten Kontext zu verwenden, um die Erwartungen der Muttersprachler zu erfüllen.

Sind die Lerner nicht in der Lage, sich an die Grundprinzipien der Zielsprache[4] und die kulturellen Normen der Fremdsprache zu halten, kann daraus ein pragmatischer Misserfolg resultieren.

Aus den obigen Gründen stellt sich die Frage, welche Fähigkeiten die Lernenden erwerben sollen, um soziopragmatisch und pragmalinguistisch zuständig zu werden. Die meisten Studien, die wir beigezogen haben, konzentrieren sich auf die Sprechakte (Röver 2005; Liu 2004; Beebe et.al. 1990; Blum-Kulka 1982; Kasper 1989; Olshtain& Weinbach 1993; Trosborg 1995 etc.). Andere Studien haben Routinen und Implikatur untersucht; die Fähigkeit, Funktionen wie Höflichkeit zu beschreiben; die Fähigkeit, Diskurs-Funktionen auszuführen sowie die Fähigkeit, das kulturelle Wissen zu nutzen.

Die meisten Untersuchungen zu Sprechakten wurden auf einen bestimmten Sprechakt, seine Verwirklichung und die Variationen der Strategien, die von den Teilnehmern verfolgt wurden, fokussiert. Unter ihnen gilt das international gross angelegte Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989) als wegweisend und besonders einflussreich.

3. Bewertung der Sprechakte in der Fremdsprache im Hinblick auf die Pragmatik

Die früheren Arbeiten zur Bewertung der Sprechakte erschienen in den 1980er-Jahren, als es Bemühungen gab, mehr empirische Informationen über die Schlüsselsprechakte wie Entschuldigung, Aufforderung, Komplimente und Beschwerden (Fraser et al. 1980 in Cohen 2004) zu erhalten. Die Daten wurden

[3] Heterogenität gehört zum Wesen des Gebrauchs natürlicher Sprache und die Differenzen im Sprachgebrauch führen allerdings nur dann zu sozialen Differenzierungen, wenn sie als solche identifiziert und interpretiert werden.

[4] Der Fremdsprachenunterricht muss die Entwicklung der Studierenden ermöglichen; der Grundsatz ist in Verbindung mit den komplexen und umfassenden Entwicklung fremdsprachlichen Könnens; eine Verbindung von Kenntnissaneignung und Könnensentwicklung herzustellen; Selbstständigkeit der Studierenden zu entwickeln; kommunikative Könnensziele und Sprachbewusstheit zu erreichen; Kenntnisse und Fähigkeiten bewusst einzuschätzen.

durch eine DCT[5] gesammelt, und das Ziel der Untersuchungen war es, die sprachübergreifenden und sprachspezifischen Normen der Sprechakte und das Verhalten der Gesprächspartner zu etablieren, um die L2-Entwicklung besser zu verstehen. Die ersten Beiträge wurden von Cohen & Olshtain (1981), Blum-Kulka (1982), Blum-Kulka, House und Kasper (1989) u.a. geleistet. Ihre Instrumente enthalten Anweisungen für geschlossene, geführte oder offene Antworten; die Aufforderungen wurden auf das Sprechaktverständnis oder auf die Produktion ausgerichtet.

Neuere Forschungsarbeiten zur Bewertung der Sprechaktfähigkeit haben eine Menge von Instrumenten zur Untersuchung von Sprechakten hervorgebracht.

Die bemerkenswerteste Arbeit wurde an der Universität in Hawai durchgeführt, die nachstehende sechs Aufgaben vorsah: written discourse completion task/ schriftliche Diskurs- und Fertigstellungaufgabe, multiple-choicediscourse completion test/ Multiple Choice Diskurs-Fertigstellungstest, oral discourse completion task/ mündlicher Diskurs-Fertigstellungstest, discourse role-play task/ Diskurs-Rollenspiel-Aufgabe, discourse self-assessment task/ Diskurs-Selbstbewertungsaufgabe und role-play self-assessment task/ Rollenspiel-Selbsteinschätzungsaufgabe.

Die Aufgaben wurden im Hinblick auf die Leistung des Sprechers, die soziale Distanz zwischen Sprecher und Hörer und den Grad von Erfüllungsbedingungen durch den Sprechakt konzipiert und variiert.

Wir möchten zudem auf Rövers Arbeit hinweisen (2005, 2006), die drei Aspekte der ESL[6] pragmalinguistischen Kompetenz beschreibt: die Anerkennung der Situationsroutineformeln, das Verständnis der Implikatur und die Kenntnis der Sprechakt-Strategien. McNamara & Röver (2006: 60) halten fest: "Röver versucht, ein Balance zwischen der Funktionalität und der breiten Abdeckung des Inhalts zu erreichen, um eine Unterrepräsentation zu vermeiden: Sein Test könnte über einen Standard-Web-Browser durchgeführt werden, er dauerte etwa eine Stunde, und die beiden Routinen und Implikatur-Abschnitte waren selbst-Scoring".

4. Methodologie und Prozedur

In unserem Forschungsvorhaben und in den Untersuchungen der pragmatischen Kompetenz der mazedonischen Englisch- und Deutschlernenden, konzentrieren wir uns auf die drei Sprechakte: Aufforderung, Entschuldigung und Beschwerden. Wir sind derzeit im Prozess der Erfassung von Daten für die Beurteilung der pragmatischen Kompetenz bei den Lernenden und stellen in diesem Beitrag die Instrumente, die wir zu diesem Zweck angewendet haben, vor. Die Sprechakte wurden nach den folgenden Fragen analysiert:

1. Sind sich die Studierendenden soziopragmatischer Variablen bewusst und ändern sie ihre Antworten je nach Gesprächspartner?

2. Benutzen sie die gleichen Strategien und formelhaften Ausdrücke wie MS[7]?

3. Sind sich die Studierendender kulturellen Unterschiede zwischen den beiden Sprachen bewusst?

---

[5] DCT – discourse completion test (Diskurs-Ergänzungstest)

[6] Englisch als Zweitsprache

[7] MS-Muttersprachler

4. Erzeugen sie den entsprechenden Sprachumfang?

Die Teilnehmer des Projekts waren 139 Studierende der englischen und 59 Studierende der deutschen Sprache in ihrem zweiten und dritten Studienjahr, im Alter zwischen 19 und 24 Jahren. Der gesamte Prozess ist in drei Phasen abgelaufen:

1. Die Studenten wurden zunächst aufgefordert, ein Informationsblatt auszufüllen und eine Einverständniserklärung zu unterschreiben. Das Informationsblatt enthält Angaben über Alter, Geschlecht, Studienjahr, Muttersprache, Beherrschung weiterer Fremdsprachen~~,~~ und die Dauer des Aufenthalts in einem englisch- oder deustchsprachigen Land (sofern stattgefunden). Die Einverständniserklärung sicherte ihnen zu, dass Testantworten vertraulich behandelt und ausschliesslich für Forschungszwecke verwendet würden, dass ihre Ergebnisse keine Auswirkung auf ihre Noten haben, und ihre Namen nicht veröffentlichtwürden. Nach Ausfüllen des Informationsblattes wurden die Studierenden gebeten, den Schnelleinstufungstestbetreffend Beherrschung der englischen und deutschen Sprache zu absolvieren, um den Grad ihrer Sprachkenntnisse zu bestimmen. Der Test sollte im Rahmen einer 45-minütigen Unterrichtszeit abgeschlossen werden.
2. In der zweiten Phase des Projekts wurden die Studierenden aufgefordert, einen Diskurs-Ergänzungstest (DCT) auszufüllen, der aus 18 Aufgaben, 6 Aufgaben für jeweils einen Sprechakt, besteht.
3. In der dritten Phase wurden die Studierenden gebeten, ein Rollenspiel durchzuführen, unmittelbar gefolgt von einem retrospektiven Interview. Wir werden die DCT, die Rollenspiele und das retrospektive Interviewim nächsten Abschnitt ausführlicher beschreiben.

Die Ergebnisse des Schnelleinstufungstests (English/German placement test) waren folgende: Englischstudierende:C2 - 9, C1 - 36, B2 - 52 B1 - 35 und A2 – 7; Deutschstudierende:C2-7, C1-5, B2-29, B1-11 und A2-7.Für die Zwecke dieser Studie werden wir weiterhin mit den Niveaustufen B2 und C1 arbeiten. Alle Studierenden, die den DCT abgeschlossen haben, haben auch das Rollenspiel durchgeführt. In Tabelle 1 ist die Anzahl der DCT-Antworten und der Rollenspiele für jede Stufe dargestellt. Im Anschluss an die Rollenspiele haben wir von den Studierenden wir 37 retrospektive Interviews erhalten.

Tabelle 1. Anzahl von DCT-Antworten und Rollenspiele: B2 und C1 Niveaustufe

	Apologies/ Entschuldigung	Requests/ Aufforderung	Complaints/ Beschwerden	Total/ Total
B2				
DCT responses/ DCT-Antworten (49 students)	277 154	275 156	265 145	817 455
Role plays/ Rollenspiele (49 students)	31 11	41 8	45 3	117 22

C1				
DCT responses-DCT-Antworten (31 students)	185 17	185 18	186 18	556 53
Role plays/ Rollenspiele (31 students)	21 /	27 /	21 /	69 /

5. Forschungsinstrumente für die Sprechaktbewertung

In diesem Teil unseres Beitrags diskutieren wir die Instrumente, die wir für die Bewertung der pragmatischen Kompetenz der Fremdsprachenstudierenden verwendet haben. Wir beziehen uns auf 1) die Gestaltung der Prüfungsinstrumente, die wir in diesem Projekt eingesetzt haben, 2) die Kontextparameter, d.h. die Einstellungen, in denen die Sprechakte erfolgten und 3) die Bedeutung der Interpretation.

1) Die Instrumente

Es wurden vorwiegend Bewertungsinstrumente verwendet, die bereits für den Einsatz in der Forschung konzipiert sind (Bachman 1990; Boxer & Cohen 2004; Gass & Mackey 2011; Hudson, Brown, & Detmer 1995; Liu 2004; Röver 2005 etc.). Wir wurden von Rövers (2005: 39) Erklärung geführt, dass diese“praktisch sein”müssen und “ihre Ergebnisse vertretbare Schlüsse auf die pragmatischen Kenntnisse der Studierenden ermöglichen" sollen. Drei Arten von Instrumenten wurden benutzt: Discourse Completion Test (DCT), offene Rollenspiele, das retrospektive Interview.

Diskurs-Ergänzungstest (DCT)

DCTs stehen zwar in der Kritik, gleichzeitigsind sie aberdasmeistverwendete Instrument zur Messung pragmatischer Kompetenz derFremdsprachenstudierenden. DCTs sind attraktiv, weil sie "etwas wie in der realen Welt eine bestimmte Leistung des Sprechakts evozieren und weil sie immer noch, trotz der Notwendigkeit einer Bewertung etwas praktisch sind - zumindest können sie für eine große Anzahl von Testteilnehmern zur gleichen Zeit verwendet werden" (McNamara 2006: 65). Obwohl immer wieder behauptet wird, dass DCTs nicht der Realität entsprechen undProbanden die Sprache in DCT-Antworten nicht auf die selbe Weise nutzen würden wie in der realen Kommunikation, gibt es bestimmte Aspekte, die mit diesem Instrument bewertet werden können. McNamara (2006: 67) weist darauf hin, dass "obwohl DCTs das Wissen messen können aberkein direktes Vorhersagen der realen Leistungsfähigkeit ermöglichen", (...) "sie als Bewertungspotenzial für die Performance" gedacht werden können, "weil das Wissen wohl eine notwendige Voraussetzung für die Leistung ist...”

Der DCT, den wir für die Bewertung der pragmatischen Kompetenz unserer Fremdsprachenstudierenden verwendet haben, besteht aus drei Teilen, und bezieht sich auf drei verschiedene Sprechakte: Aufforderung, Entschuldigung und Beschwerde. Für die Konstruktion des Sprechakts der *Aufforderung*, verweisen wir auf die Beiträge und Untersuchungen von Blum-Kulka& Olshtain (1984), Economidou-Kogetsidis & Woodfield (2012), Olshtain & Cohen (1990), Engel (1991, 2004), Wunderlich (1979) und Searle (1971). Für die *Entschuldigung*weisen wir auf die Arbeiten von Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984), Ogiermann (2009), Trosborg (1995), Engel (1991, 2004), Wunderlich (1979) und Searle (1971) hin.Für *Beschwerden,*machen wir auf die Untersuchungen von Trosborg (1995) aufmerksam. Sämtliche Situationen beinhalten eine Art von Konflikt oder sozialer Schwierigkeit(mittlere oder hohe Tat /mittlere oder hohe Bedrohung für den Sprecher (S) oder den Hörer (H)), und es wäre eine detaillierte Analyseerforderlich, um die gewünschten Ziele zu erreichen.

Der DCT besteht aus 18 Situationen, 6 für jede Sprechhandlung. Jede Situation gibt einen unterschiedlichen Grad der Autorität, sozialen Distanz und des Grades der Auferlegungvor. Hinter jeder Aufgabe befndet sich ein leeres Feld, in dasder Studierende seine Antwort schreibt. Zur Veranschaulichung folgendes Beispiel:

"Sie leihen ein Buch aus der Bibliothek aus, und beim Lesen haben Sie einige Kommentare gemacht, die Sie vergessen haben zu löschen. Der Bibliothekar bemerkt die Kommentare und beschwert sich über sie. Als Antwort sagen Sie:..."

Der DCT wurde mit 15 Studierenden pilotiert. Der Hauptzweck dieser Phase war es herauszufinden, ob die Studierenden die Situationen als angemessen und aus dem Leben gegriffen empfanden; ob sie die Anweisungen für ausreichend klar hielten, um ihre Sprechakte zu formulieren; ob sie sich durch die Vorgaben genügend angeregt fühlten, entsprechende Sprechakte zu produzieren.Basierend auf dem Studierenden-Feedback, wurden die Belegebearbeitet, bevor der Test für eine grössere Anzahl von Studierenden eingesetzt wurde. Die Bemerkungen der Studierenden zeigten, dass einige Situationen weiterer Erläuterungen der Beziehung zwischen Sprecher und Hörer betreffend Dauer der Freundschaft, persönliche Nähe, Kontakthäufigkeit usf. bedurften. So ging beispielsweise aus der Situation *Heimfahrt* nicht hervor, ob die Beteiligtenvorgängig bereits kommuniziert hatten, und wie eng ihre Beziehung war. Es gab zwei Situationen, die viele Studierende nicht verstanden hatten, und die neu formuliert werden mussten (*Semesterarbeit*, *Anzahlung*). Auchstellten sich einige Probleme mit dem Vokabular, sodasszusätzliche Erklärungen in die Anweisungenaufgenommen wurden (Delle im Kotflügel, Anzahlung, Gepäckausgabe, Gepäckträger).

Offenes Rollenspiel

Die Aufgabe “Das offene Rollenspiel” umfasst 9 Rollenspiele (Szenarien), drei für jeden der untersuchten Sprechakte. Die Studierenden wurden in Paare von gleichem Leistungsniveau eingeteilt. Jeder Studierende erhielt eine genaue Beschreibung der Situation und die Beschreibung seiner Rolle.

Im Vergleich zum DCT sind Rollenspiele realen Sprechsituationen ähnlicher. Sie ermöglichen eine Beteiligung beider Gesprächspartner. Wie im wirklichen Gespräch gibt es "eine geteilte Verantwortung unter den Gesprächspartnern für die Erstellung von sequentieller Kohärenz, Identität, Sinn und Ereignissen" (McNamara & Röver 2006: 46). Der Kontext, in den sie eingebettet sind, ist umfassender: Die Situation wird näher beschrieben, es gibt zwei Gesprächspartner, und ihre Rollen sind genauer festgelegt. Die Unterhaltung verläuft natürlich, wie in der realen Kommunikation. Es gibt auch ein Moment der Überraschung: Obwohl ein Großteil der Konversationvorhersehbar ist, ist der Hörer nicht sicher, welche Strategien, formelhaften Ausdrücke und anderen sprachlichen Mittel der Sprecher verwenden wird. Der Hörer kann von der Haltung des Sprechers überrascht werden und muss seine Antwortenauf dessen unerwartetesBetragen abstimmen.

Daneben existieren auch die Möglichkeit der Sprachplanung, der Bitte um Klärung, des Gesprächsmanagements usw. Siebewirken die Annäherung des Gesprächsan eine Unterhaltung im wirklichen Leben. Dennoch lässt sich der Kontext nicht etablieren, wie in der realen Situation. Es geht dabei um weniger: Das Gesicht des Sprechers bzw. Hörers ist nicht wirklich bedroht; der Sprecher kann mutiger sein und mehr als im wirklichen Leben riskieren.Natürlich ergeben sich auch einige Nachteile. Rollenspiele sind nicht einfach zu organisieren und zu verwalten. Es ist anspruchsvoll, den Überblick über eine große Anzahl von Studierenden zu behalten und sie in Paare von gleichem Kompetenzniveau zu gliedern. Rollenspiele sind zeitaufwändig, und es ist manchmal schwierig, die Gespräche zu transkribieren. Im Allgemeinen finden die Studierenden diese Aufgabe interessant, und es macht ihnen Spaß sie durchzuführen. Bei einigen Studierenden können sie allerdings Stress bewirken.Die in den Rollenspielen enthaltenen Aufgaben umfassen folgende Themen: *Entschuldigungen* ‚das Buch des Professors' (Entschuldigung bei einer Person in Autoritätsposition), ‚Gepäckausgabe' (Entschuldigung bei einem Fremden) und ‚einen Termin absagen' (Entschuldigung bei einem Freund); *Aufforderungen* ‚Projektarbeit' (Aufforderung an eine Person in der Autoritätsposition),‚Fahrt nach Hause' (Aufforderung an einen Fremden) und ‚Bemerkungen' (Aufforderung an einem Freund) *Beschwerden* Beanstandung(Klage bei einer Person in der Autoritätsposition), 'laute Party' (Beschwerde bei einem Fremden) und 'zustehendes Geld' (Beschwerde bei einem Freund). Die Anzahl der auf Niveau B2 und C1durchgeführten Rollenspieleist inTabelle 1 angegeben.

2) Kontextparameter

Der DCT besteht aus 18 Aufgaben, 6 für jeden Sprechakt. Die Aufgaben variieren im Hinblick auf Leistung, soziale Distanz und den Grad der Auferlegung (Hudson, Brown, & Detmer 1995).

Die relative Leistung (L) ist der Grad, mit dem der Sprecher seinen Willen auf einen Hörer höheren Rangs innerhalb einer Organisation, der beruflichen Hierarchie, oder der Notwendigkeitdes Hörers überträgt, um eine bestimmte Aufgabe oder Arbeit zu erledigen. Soziale Distanz (D) ist der Vertrautheitsgradbzw. der Grad der Solidarität, die die Gesprächspartner untereinander haben. Das absolute Ranking der Auferlegung (R) bezieht sich auf das Vermögendes Hörers, die Handlung oder denGrad der Tatbegehung durchzuführen. Tabelle 2. zeigt die Verteilung der Variablen der Leistung, der sozialen Distanz und des Grades der Auferlegung über die DCT-Aufgaben.

Tabelle 2. Autorität, soziale Distanz, Grad der Auferlegung in den DCTs und Rollenspiel-Aufgaben

Situation	Kontextbezogener Einsatz	Autorität	Soziale Distanz	Grad der Auferlegung
Entschuldigung				
1.	Buch aus der Bücherei	+	+	mittel
2.	Buch des Professors	+	+	hoch

3.	Gepäckausgabe	-	+	mittel
4.	Einkaufstasche	-	+	mittel/hoch/tief
5.	Termin vereinabren	-	-	hoch/tief/mittel
6.	Seminararbeit	-	-	hoch
Aufforderung				
1.	Projekt	+	+	mittel
2.	Einladung,einen Vortrag zu halten	+	+	hoch
3.	Heimfahrt	-	+	medium
4.	Feuer	-	+	mittel
5.	Notizen	-	-	mittel
6.	Anzahlung	-	-	hoch
Beschwerden				
1.	falsche Bemerkung	+	-	hoch
2.	falsches Medikament	+	+	hoch
3.	laute Party	-	+	mittel
4.	disziplinierttin einer Reihe stehen	-	+	mittel
5.	Abholen mit Verspätung	-	-	Mittel
6.	Delle	-	-	hoch

Einige der Variablen waren schwer zu bestimmen, weil wir keinen vollständigen Kontext etablieren konnten und in Bezug auf das Rollenspiel auch nicht wußten, wie die andere Person reagieren würde. Es war besonders schwierig, über den Grad der Auferlegung zu entscheiden. Beispielsweise mochten manche Studierende die Situation Terminvereinbarung als hohe, andere sie wiederum als niedrige Auswirkung der Tatbegehung betrachten.

Die Auferlegung hängt von diversen Faktoren ab, z.B.: vom Plan, oder von der Absicht des Hörers, von der momentanen Stimmung des Sprechers, von den äusseren Umständen usw.

Die Wahrnehmung der Auferlegung kann auch kulturell motiviert sein. Was in einer Kultur als hohe Auswirkung der Tatbegehung angesehen wird, kann in einer anderen Kultur als geringe Auswirkung eingestuft werden. Die Wahrnehmung der Auferlegung bzw.der Auswirkung ist abhängig von der Persönlichkeit der Gesprächspartner. Einige Sprecher können das Einkaufstasche-Szenario als hohes Vergehen bewerten, weil sie eshauptsächlich für ihre Schuld halten; anderen kann es als minderschwere/geringe Auswirkung der Tat gelten, weil sie sich nicht schuldig fühlen.

Bei der Analyse der Antworten der Gesprächspartner, müssen wir auch den Eindruck der Bedrohung von Sprecher und Hörer berücksichtigen, der nicht immer eindeutig festzumachen ist. Die Heimfahrtssituation beispielsweise kann vom betreffenden Paar als geringe Bedrohung wahrgenommen werden, wenn es tatsächlich nach Hause fährt. Hat das Paar allerdings nicht vor, nach Hause zu gehen, könnte es die Aufforderung als grosse Bedrohung empfinden. Aus dem letzteren Fall könnte auch eine hohe Bedrohung für den Sprecher resultieren, weil er als Eindringling angesehen und seine Aufforderung abgelehnt werden könnte.

Aufgrund dieser Faktoren vermögen einige der Szenarien keine planbaren erforderlichen Sprechakte anzuregen. Dies war der Fall bei der Szene mit der Einkaufstasche, zu der einige Studierende erklärt hatten, dass sie nichts sagen, sondernlediglich die Tasche nehmen und in ihren Schoß legen würden, da sie schließlich keine Schuld treffe.

3) Rückblickendes Interview

Zur Methode des rückblickenden Interviews merkt Cohen (2004: 320) an, dass es "auch einen gewissen Wert in mündlichen Berichten” haben kann, “als Ergänzung zu anderen Formen der Angaben - als Mittel zur Triangulation". Es ermöglicht eine nachträgliche Diskussion mit den Studierenden darüber, "was die Befragten tatsächlich in jeder Situation wahrgenommen haben (z.B. was sie über die relative Rolle und den Status der Gesprächspartner wahrgenommen haben) und wie ihre Wahrnehmung ihre Antworten beeinflusst haben, was sie eigentlich sagen wollten gegenüber dem, was sie tatsächlich gesagt haben, wie sie ihre Antworten geplant haben, und ob sie überhaupt an die soziale Veranstaltung gedacht haben, während sie die Aufgaben durchführten" (Cohen 2004: 321). Die von den Befragten gewonnenen Informationen stellen eine wertvolle Unterstützung für die Analyse dar. Die retrospektiven Interviews wurden unmittelbar nachdem Rollenspiel durchgeführt, unter Berücksichtigung folgender Kriterien:

-Validierung, wie die künstliche bzw. vorgegebene Anlage die Fremdsprachenleistung der Studierenden beeinflusst(Klassenzimmer; keine natürliche Umgebung; die Tatsache, dass die Rollenspiele aufgezeichnet werden);

-Ermittlung des Bewusstseins der Studierenden für die sozialen Faktoren und die zu bewältigende Kommunikationsaufgabe.(Inwieweitsind sich die Studierenden der Normen der Interaktion in Bezug auf Leistung, soziale Distanz und Grad der Auferlegunginnerhalb eines bestimmten Kontexts bewusst); und

-Ermittlung des Bewusstseins der Studierenden für die von der Fremdsprache auferlegten kulturellenBedingungen.(Inwieweit verfügen die Studierenden über Kenntnisseder englischen bzw. deutschenKultur, was positive/ negative Höflichkeit, Direktheit / Indirektheit anbelangt).

Gemäss ihren Antworten, fanden die Studierenden die in den Rollenspielen konstruierten Situationen mit solchen des realen Alltagsvergleichbar. Allerdingshielten sie es für schwieriger, die Aufgabe zu lösen als die DCTs, da sieden Druck verspürten, etwas sagen zu müssen,ohne im Voraus überlegen zu können, wie sie es sagen würden. Gelegentlichhatten sie mit Worten und gegen Nervosität zu kämpfen.

Sämtliche Studierende haben erwähnt, dass sie sich bei der Vorbereitung,vor allem auf dieSchwerpunkte Verständnis der Situationen und Rolle der Gesprächspartner konzentriert hätten. Sie seien sich der sozialen Variablen bzgl. Autorität, sozialer Distanz und Grad der Auferlegung bewusst gewesen, und hätten ihre Rede entsprechend angepasst. Die Studierenden kamen zum Schluss,dass ihre Wahrnehmung der Rollen kulturell beeinflusst gewesen sei. Auf die Bedeutung von Persönlichkeitsmerkmalen, die in der Kommunikation zum

Tragen kommen, wurde ebenfalls hingewiesen. Einige der Befragten waren vorsichtiger, einige häufiger zurückhaltenderals andere.

Die Benutzung der sprachlichen Ausdrücke erwies sich nicht als geplant.Sie erfolgte eher spontan und intuitiv, wobei einige Studierende angaben, dass sieim wirklichen Leben anderssprechen würden. Während der Rollenspiele waren sie sich stets bewusst, dass die Gespräche inszeniert waren und sie sichim Gespräch mit einem Kollegen in der Rolle “einer ‘imaginären’ Person” befanden. Folglich,konnte das erreichte Ergebnis, anders ausfallen als es im realen Leben der Fall gewesen wäre.

Die Studierendenhatten erwartet, dass sie sichin echten Situationen gleich verhalten würden wie in fingierten, stellten dann aber fest,dass ihre Gesprächeanders verlaufen wären, wenn sie mit einer Englisch bzw. Deutschsprechenden Person in Kommunikation getreten wären. Sie gaben zu Protokoll, sie würden sich in realen Verhältnissenvermehrt entschuldigen, tieferweiterführende Erklärungen abgeben und eine formellere Sprache verwenden. Mit ihrer Aussage, sie würden sich in ihren Antworten “höflicher” ausdrücken, meinten die Studierenden “formeller”.Insgesamt bezeichneten die mazedonischen Studierenden die englischen und deutschen Muttersprachler als formeller und höflicher. Gleichzeitig hielten sie fest, dass die Tatsache allein, dass sie mit einem Fremden sprächen, die Situation formeller machte. Die Studierenden äusserten, sie würden auch deshalb versuchen,höflicher zu sein, damit sie bei ihrem englisch- oder deutschsprachigen gegenüber nicht den Eindruck erweckten, unfreundlich zu sein oder das Gespräch vermeidenzu wollen.

Die Probanden machten geltend, ihre Antworten auf Mazedonisch würden kürzer ausfallen, und weniger Ausdrücke der Entschuldigung und des Danks enthalten. Weiter führten sie an, in ihrer Muttersprachewürden sie ”weniger höflich”, bzw. direktersein,und ihre Reaktionen wären emotionaler. Das Gespräch gestaltete sich umgangssprachlich, und sie würden mehr Solidarität und Verbundenheit mit den Gesprächspartnern bezeugen. Demzufolge würden sie auch unterschiedliche Formen der Adressierung verwenden, je nachdem ob sie mit einem Mazedonier oder mit einer englisch-bzw. deutschsprachigen Person ein Gespräch führten. In Mazedonien würden die Studierenden häufiger und aggressiver aneinandergeraten. Nach ihrer Wahrnehmung sind mazedonische Muttersprachler weniger formell,sowie direkter, und der Abstand zwischen den Gesprächspartnern ist kleiner, auch wennes sich um Fremde handelt oder wenn es Unterschiede in der Autorität gibt. Einige der Befragten wiesen darauf hin, dass sie zwar wüssten, wie die Menschen in Mazedonien kommunizieren, sich aber über die Reaktionen und Gefühle der Engländer bzw. Deutschen nicht im Klaren seien, was sie im Umgang mit ihnen verunsicherte.

6. Fazit und Perspektive

In diesem Beitrag wurden die Instrumente, die wir zur Datenerhebung für die Analyse der pragmatischen Fähigkeiten der mazedonischen Englisch- und Deutschstudierenden verwendet haben, diskutiert und erläutert: der DCT, das Rollenspiel und das retrospektive Interview. Insbesondere wurde auf die kontextbezogenen Parameter der Kommunikation, Autorität, soziale Distanz und Grad der Auferlegung, eingegangen. Die Wahl der DCTs und Rollenspielszenarien wurde durch die unterschiedlichen Potenziale der beiden Werkzeuge motiviert. Mit dem DCT wird den Studierenden genügend Zeit gegeben, die vorgegebenen Situationen zu erforschen; sie können die Rollen der Gesprächspartner und deren Intention analysieren. So wird Licht darauf geworfen, wie manerfolgreich eine Fremdsprache erlernen kann. Rollenspiele nähern sich authentischen Gesprächen an, weil sich ihn ihnen Sprache wie im richtigen Leben entfaltet, und sieden produktiven Fähigkeiten der Studierenden entgegenkommen. Die Kommentare der Beteiligten im Rahmen des retrospektiven Interviews stellten sich als hilfreich heraus, um ihr Verhalten vor dem Hintergrund des vorhandenen Sprachverständnisses zu ergründen.

Die DCTs und Rollenspielszenarien evozierten Aufforderungen, Entschuldigungen und Beschwerden. Diese Sprechaktekommen sehr häufig vor und sind in der täglichen Kommunikation von großer Bedeutung. In der nächstenProjektphase sollendie Codierung der erwähnten Sprechakte und die Analyse der Leistung der Studierenden erläutert werden. Das Codierungsschema wird auf der Grundlage der bisherigen Sprechaktforschungbasiert werden. Insbesondere werden wir uns auf die Analyse der Umsetzung der Hauptsprechakte konzentrieren: Aufforderung, Entschuldigung oder Beschwerden und deren interne Modifikation (Minderung oder Verschlechterung)~~,~~ sowie deren unterstützende Bedeutungswandeln (externe Modifikation). Diedurchgeführten Sprechakte werdenim Hinblick auf (1) die Fähigkeit der richtigen Sprechakte; (2) die Typizität von Ausdrücken ...; (3) die Angemessenheit der Menge des Sprechens und der sonstigen beeinträchtigenden Angaben; (4) den Grad der Formalität; (5) die Direktheit; und (6) die Höflichkeit (Hudson & Kim 1996)verwendet und untersucht.

•

•

7. Bibliografie

Bachman, L. (1990). Fundamental considerations in language testing. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Beebe, L. M., Takahashi, T. and Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). “Pragmatic Transfer in ESL Refusals.” In R. Scarcella, E. Anderson and S. D. Krashen (Eds.). *On the Development of Communicative Competence in a Second Language*. New York: Newbury House, pp. 55-73.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1982). “Learning to Say What You Mean in a Second Language: A Stydy of Speech Act Performance of Learners of Hebrew as a Second Language.” *Applied Linguistics* 3: 29-59.

Blum-Kulka, S. and Olshtain, E. (1984). “Requests and Apologies: A Cross-cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP).” *Applied Linguistics, Vol. 5, No. 3*, 196-213.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J. and Kasper, G. (1989). *Cross-cultural Pragmatics: Requests and Apologies.* Norwood: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Boxer, D. and Cohen, A. D. (2004). *Studying Speaking to Inform Second Language Learning.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Cohen, A. D. (2004). “Assessing Speech Acts in a Second Language.” In D. Boxer and A. D. Cohen, *Studying Speaking to Inform Second Language Learning* (Eds.). Clevedon/Buffalo/Toronto: Multilingual Matters Ltd, pp. 302-327.

Cohen, D. A. and Olshtain, E. (1981). “Developing a Measure of Sociocultural Competence: The Case of Apology.” *Language Learning* 31 (1): 113-134.

Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. 6th edition.* Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. and Woodfield, H. (2012). *Interlanguage Request Modification.* Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Co.Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2013). “Strategies, Modification and Perspective in Native Speakers' Requests: A Comparison of WDCT and Naturally Occuring Requests.” *Journal of Pragmatics* 53: 21-38.
Engel, U. (1991): Deutsche Grammatik. 2., verbesserte Auflage. Heidelberg: JuliusGroos-Verlag.
Engel, U. (2004): Deutsche Grammatik. Neubearbeitung. München: Iudicium Verlag.
Gass, S. and Mackey, A. (2011). *Data Elicitation for Second and Foreign Language Research.* New York/London: Routledge.
Hudson, T. and Kim, Y. (1996). *Pilot Instruments for Assessing Cross-cultural Pragmatics of Nonnative Learners of Korean.* Honolulu, Hawai'i: University of Havai'i.
Hudson, T., Brown, J. D. and Detmer, E. (1995). *Developing Prototypic Measures of Cross-cultural Pragmatics.* Honolulu, Hawai'i: University of Hawai'i Press.
Hudson, T., Detmer, E. and Brown, J. D. 1992. *A Framework for Testing Crosscultural Pragmatics.* Honolulu, HI: Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center, University of Hawai’i at Manoa.
Kasper, G. (1989). “Variation in Interlanguage Speech Act Realization.” In S. Gas, D. P. Madden and L. Selinker (Eds.). *Variation in Second Language Acquisition: Discourse and Pragmatics*. Clevedon and Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters, pp. 37-58.
Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics.* London: Longman.
Liu, J. (2004). “Measuring Interlanguage Pragmatic Knowledge of Chinese EFL Learners.” PhD dissertation. City University of Hong Kong.
McNamara, T. F. and Roever, C. (2006). *Language Testing: The Social Dimension.* Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.
Ogiermann, E. (2009). *On Apologising in Negative and Positive Politeness Cultures.* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
Olshtain, E. and Cohen, A. D. (1990). “The Learning of Complex Speech Act Behaviour.” *TESL Canada Journal/ Revue TESL du Canada* 7 (2): 45-65.
Olshtain, E. and Weinbach, L. (1993). “Interlanguage Features of the Speech Act of Complaining.” In G. Kasper and S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.). *Interlanguage Pragmatics.* New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 108-122.
Röver, C. (2005). *Testing ESL Pragmatics: Development and Validation of a Web-based Assessment Battery.* Frankfurt am Main, DEU: Peter Lang AG.
Searle, J. R. (1971): Sprechakte. Ein sprachphilosophisches Essay. Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp.
Taguchi, N. (2011). “Rater Variation in the Assessment of Speech Acts.” *Pragmatics* 21 (3): 453-471.
Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage Pragmatics: Requests, Complaints, and Apologies.* Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co.
Trosborg, A. (2010). *Pragmatics Across Languages and Cultures.* Berlin, New York: Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. KG.
Wunderlich, D. (1979): Was ist das für ein Sprechakt? In: Günther Grewendorf. (Hg.) 275-324.

PHONETISCHE EXPERIMENTELLE ANALYSE VON PHONEMEN DER GERMANISCHEN UND SLAWISCHEN SPRACHEN

Oleksandr Rudkivskyy
Fakultät für Übersetzer, Lehrstuhl für Deutsche Philologie und Übersetzung, Nationale Linguistische Universität Kyjiv, Kyjiv, Ukraine
waltorna@ukr.net

Abstract: The article is devoted to the problem of comparative analysis of vowel and consonant realization in contemporary German, English, Dutch, Ukrainian, Russian and Polish. This study also discusses the difference between comparative and contrastive methods, the procedure of the phonetic experiment, the tasks and hypotheses for comparative auditory and instrumental analysis of distinctive features of vowels and consonants of Germanic and Slavic languages. The organization of sampling and requirements for statistical data processing is described in the practical part of this study. In general, the realizations of 2313 German, English, Dutch, Ukrainian, Russian and Polish vowel and consonant phonemes are described separately in strong and weak positions. It is approved that Germanic consonants possess correlation of opposition both "density/ weakness" and "voiceless/ voiced", while Slavic consonants are opposed only as "voiceless/ voiced". The compulsory opposition "voiceless/ voiced" constitute stop consonants is observed in all studied languages although resonant, approximant, glottal and pharyngeal phonemes do not show it. The required devoicing of voiced consonants at the end of the word is characteristic only for German, Dutch and Russian consonants. Ukrainian and Polish consonants are marked with an optionality of this phonetic phenomenon, but in English it does not exist. The position of neutralization of the distinguishing feature "vocal cords activity" is the word end for German, Dutch, Russian and Polish consonants. A partial progressive assimilation of voiceless consonants is typical for German, English, Dutch, Russian, Polish, but in Ukrainian and Russian it is absent. The regressive assimilation of voiceless consonants is mandatory for Russian and Polish. For Ukrainian it is optional and positionally predetermined, and in Germanic languages it is not observed. A partial lenization of voiceless consonants in front of voiced consonants is peculiar to German, Russian and Polish. The most common change phenomenon is on the juncture of morphemes and phonetic words. In addition, the modification of Slavic consonants is often motivated by different morphological factors.

Keywords: *distinctive feature, allophone, auditory and instrumental analysis, significance test, modification.*

1. Einleitung

Die Entwicklung der vergleichenden Sprachwissenschaft im Allgemeinen und der vergleichenden Phonetik und der Phonologie von den germanischen und slavischen Sprachen im Einzelnen wird einerseits insbesondere durch die Belebung der Sprachforschung gekennzeichnet, was direkt mit der Rückkehr zur

Vergleichsmethode zusammenhängt, die von den Germanisten W.D. Arakin, W.G. Gak, M.M. Gukhman, W.M. Zhyrmunskij, S.D. Katsnelson, E.A. Makajew, M.I. Steblin-Kamjenskij, B.A. Uspenskij, W.N. Jartsewa ausgearbeitet wurde. Andererseits, viele Aspekte der Geschichte der deutschen, englischen und niederländischen Gegenwartssprachen wurden von T.O. Browtschenko, R.W. Wasko, L.A. Dolgopolowa, M.W. Gamzjuk, B.A.Iljisch, O.B. Kornevska, T.W. Korolowa, S.O. Mironow, O.I. Moskalskaja, A.I. Smyrnytskyy, L.M. Jagupowa et al. entwickelt. Außerdem haben zu der Erforschung der vergleichenden Lexikologie, Semantik und der strukturellen Typologie von den germanischen und slavischen Sprachen Sh.R. Basyrow, W.D. Kaliusčenko, I.W. Korunets, M.P. Kotscherhan, K.I. Misin, O.O. Taranenko, S.I. Terekhowa, B.A. Uspenskyy und V.N. Jartsewa etc. einen fruchtbaren Beitrag geleistet. Unter anderem, B.M. Sadorozhnyy und W.W. Levytskyy waren unter den ersten von ukrainischen Wissenschaftlern, die eine gründliche historische Phonetik und Lautsymbolik der germanischen Sprachen erforscht haben. Umso wichtiger sind für die Entwicklung der vergleichenden Phonetik und der Phonologie die Arbeiten der ukrainischen Linguisten (M.P. Kotscherhan, W.I. Kuschneryk, W.W. Lutschyk, A.K. Mojsijenko, I.M. Netschytajlo, O.I. Steriopolo) und von ausländischen Wissenschaftlern (R.I. Awanesow, W.P. Berkow, L.W. Bondarko, E. Wiede, U. Hirshfeld, S. Nossok, O. Semerenyi, K. Reinke, E. Stock), die in der letzten Zeit immer mehr an Bedeutung gewonnen haben.

Ungeachtet der zahlreichen Arbeiten, die der Erforschung des Unterschiedlichen/ Spezifischen und des Gleichen/ Typischen gewidmet sind, fehlt bis jetzt eine präzise Erläuterung von solchen verallgemeinernden Parametern der vergleichenden Phonologie wie die strukturell-typologischen Eigenschaften der phonologischen Systeme von konkreten gegenwärtigen Sprachen, unter anderem des Deutschen, Englischen, Niederländischen, Ukrainischen, Russischen und des Polnischen. Deshalb besteht die Notwendigkeit, in der vorgeschlagenen Studie dieses Problem zu betrachten. Laut W.D. Arakin und M.P. Kotscherhan werden unter dem Typischen die Merkmale der verglichenen Sprachen verstanden, die für sie gemeinsam sind und typologische Eigenschaften von phonologischen Sprachsystemen aufweisen. Die Auseinandersetzung mit dem Spezifischen in den phonologischen Systemen der Sprachen sieht die Analyse der Ursachen, Bedingungen und der Realisation von Unterschieden der Spracheinheiten in der strukturellen und funktionalen Sicht vor. Also die Aktualität des vorhandenen Problems wird durch die Orientierung der Erforschung auf die neuesten Studien der vergleichenden Phonologie gekennzeichnet. Dazu gehört die Skizzierung der funktionellen und der strukturellen Aspekte der Sprach(- und Sprech)einheiten in den germanischen und slawischen Sprachen, eine gründliche Ausarbeitung der Fragen, die mit dem Erscheinen des Typischen für alle zu vergleichenden Sprachen und des National-Spezifischen im Realisieren ihres Phonembestandes verbunden sind. Dies benötigt eine allseitige Untersuchung von Besonderheiten des Funktionierens vom Phonemsystem in den gegenwärtigen deutschen, englischen und niederländischen Sprachen sowie die Feststellung der allomorpen und isomorpen Charakterisitiken von phonologischen Systemen der untersuchten germanischen Sprachen im Vergleich zum Ukrainischen, Russischen und Polnischen. Auf diesem Grund wäre die Prognostizierung einer möglichen Entwicklung in der Zukunft von phonologischen Systemen der gegenüberzustellenden Sprachen möglich. Außerdem ist die Phonetik des

Ukrainischen und des Polnischen im Internationalen Phonetischen Alphabet (IPhA) nicht dargestellt, was auch von der Aktualität des gewählten Themas zeugt.
Andererseits ermöglicht der aktuelle Stand der phonetisch-phonologischen Forschung eine genaue Feststellung der phonologischen Konstanten von nah- und weitverwandten Sprachen unter Berücksichtigung des Isomorphismus der Funktionsweise ihrer Spracheinheiten (Benkenstein, 2006; Reinke, 2008; Sternemann, 1983). In den letzten Jahrzehnten wird ein steigendes Interesse an phonematischen Systemen der germanischen Sprachen beobachtet, unter anderem ist die Analyse der syntagmatischen und paradigmatischen Beziehungen im System der altgermanischen Konsonanten vorgenommen, einen Überblick über die wichtigsten Meilensteine von Phonemen der niederländischen Sprache verschaffen Booij G.E., Boonen H.K. und Harmes I., die typologischen Indikatoren der Phonemsysteme des Deutschen und des Ukrainischen untersuchten Staffeldt S., Pompino-Marschall B. und Steriopolo O., die phonolgischen Phenomena des Englischen wurden von Gut U., und Roach P. festgelegt, mit dem Polnischen befasste sich diesbezüglich Gussmann E. In wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten der Generativisten wurde am Beispiel des Englischen und des Deutschen der innere Mechanismus des Sprachsystems analysiert und das Regelsystem des Beschreibungsmodells skizziert. Diese Entwicklungen stellten einen Versuch dar, die Regeln zur Erzeugung von einem grundlegenden Beschreibungssystem zu bestimmen und somit den Weg zur Findung der phonologischen Beziehungen innerhalb der modifizierten generativen Phonologie zu ebnen. Moderne phonologische Forschung ist durch die Lösung von theoretischen und praktischen Problemen in Bezug auf die optimale Theorie gekennzeichnet (Kager, 1999; Rhoades, 1995; McCarthy, 2008). Doch das Problem der typologischen und komparativen (konfrontativen) phonologischen Analyse der germanischen und slawischen Sprachen, das Problem der vergleichenden Beschreibung von generativen Modellen der phonologischen Einheiten hat bisher keine einheitliche systematische Reflexion in der modernen Germanistik gefunden (Veith, 1972).
Die allgemein sprachlichen Prinzipien der vergleichenden Phonologie – vergleichende Lehre von Funktionen der bedeutungsunterscheidenden Merkmalen, Optimalitätstheorie (Kager, 1999: 89) sowie die Prinzipien der Sprachökonomie (Meinhold / Stock, 1982) sind mit den Konzepten eng verwandt, die als Grundlage für das Verständnis der vorgeschlagenen Forschungsrichtung – der vergleichenden Phonologie – dienen.
Die Realisierung eines unterscheidenden Merkmals bewirkt nicht nur das phonologische System einer Sprache, sondern auch die Artikulationsbasis. Daher wäre es wichtig in der Sprechaktivität nicht nur das zu differenzieren, was durch universelle Eigenschaften eines unterscheidenden Merkmals geprägt wird, sondern auch das, was für eine bestimmte Sprache spezifisch ist. Das Zusammenspiel auf der segmentalen Ebene wird durch das Verhältnis der zusammenwirkenden phonetischen Systeme geprägt. In Bezug auf die objektiven Merkmale der phonetischen Struktur der oben genannten Sprachen müssen außer der Zusammensetzung der Phoneme in diesen Sprachen und Realisierungsdetails in der Rede auch das Inventar der distinktiven Merkmale in den Sprachen im Allgemeinen und in einzelnen Phonemen in Betracht gezogen werden. Eine gleiche Anzahl von Vokalen bzw. Konsonanten in den beiden Sprachen sieht die Übereinstimmung der Anzahl der verwendeten differenziellen Merkmale und der Gleichheit der Konsonanten nach der phonetischen Sicht gar

nicht vor. In den Fällen, wenn die Anzahl der Konsonanten der Muttersprache die Anzahl der Konsonanten in der Fremdsprache weit übersteigt, sind in den beiden Sprachgruppen spezifische distinktive Merkmale und einzigartige Kombination möglich, ganz zu schweigen von den signifikanten akustisch-artikulatorischen Unterschieden von ähnlichen Lauten, verschiedenen Mustern der Veränderung von Phonemen und ungleichen Distributionseinschränkungen. Eben daher sollen die Muttersprachler von anderen Sprachen sowohl ihre Gewohnheiten der Artikulation beim Aussprechen von Lauten ändern, die Analogien in ihrer Muttersprache haben, als auch sind sie oft gezwungen, neue distinktive Merkmale, das neue System der Oppositionen zu beherrschen, d.h. neue Artikulationskomplexe zu erwerben und sie nach Gehör zu erkennen, außerdem müssen sie sich auch andere Verteilungsregeln einprägen.
Die vergleichende Methode wird in den Kreisen der Germanisten weit diskutiert und in den letzten Jahrzehnten in wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten verfeinert (Steinberg, 2008; Trawkina, 2010). Verschiedene Sprachzustände im Werdegang haben einen fruchtbaren Boden für die Etablierung dieser Methode bereitet. Die komparative Methode beruht im Unterschied von der vergleichenden Methode auf der Synchronie, richtet sich nach der Festlegung des Unterschiedlichen, das einer einzelnen Sprache eigen ist, denn das Gemeinsame ist angrenzend mit dem Spezifischen im Forschungsablauf, es ist seine Kehrseite und kann daher eine Ersetzung durch das Eigene hervorrufen. Nur eine präzise Definition von Kontrasten und Unterschieden zwischen verschiedenen Sprachen kann und sollte das eigentliche Ziel der vergleichenden Studie sein. Die Geschichtlichkeit der vergleichenden Methode ist nur durch die Anerkennung von historischen sprachlichen Gegebenheiten begrenzt.
Die komparative Methode ist im Unterschied zur vergleichenden Analyse grundsätzlich pragmatisch, sie ist nach bestimmten Anwendungszielen orientiert, wobei der theoretische Aspekt der Auseinandersetzung mit dieser Problematik nicht zu kurz kommen soll. Wohl berechtigt sind die Annahmen A.A. Reformatskijs, die die vergleichende Methode als eine solche definieren, die die Idiomatizität der Sprachen, die Systemhaftigkeit in Bezug auf jede Ebene der Sprachstruktur und die Sprache im Allgemeinen bestimmt. Jedoch kann ein Vergleich nicht auf einzelnen isolierten "Unterschieden" von abgegrenzten Faktoren basieren, sondern sollte von den systemhaften Gegenüberstellungen der Kategorien vom Eigenen und dem Fremden ausgehen. Der Gelehrte unterstreicht, dass die Vergleichsbasis gar nicht in der Suche nach imaginären Gemeinsamkeiten des Eigenen und des Fremden besteht, sondern im Gegenteil, in der Bestimmung des Unterschiedlichen, was den Vergleich der Mutter- und der Fremdsprache durchdringt. Schließlich legt die komparative Methode die Gegenüberstellung des Eigenen mit dem Fremden nicht im Allgemeinen fest, sondern nur in einem bilateralen Vergleich des Systems der Mutter- und der Fremdsprache.
Die Erforschung von universellen phonologischen Strukturen auf der Grundlage der konfrontativen Linguistik ist eine der vielversprechendsten Tendenzen in der modernen Linguistik. Dabei ist die Gegenüberstellung der effektivste Weg zur Beurteilung des Spezifischen am phonologischen System einer Fremdsprache, was von entscheidender Bedeutung für die Linguistik ist, weil es hilft, die Hindernisse bei der Aneignung der "fremden" Aussprache, das Phänomen der Interferenz beim Erlernen von Fremdsprachen überwinden. Es sollte hinzugefügt

werden, die Sprache sei eine Formation, die sowohl einem einzelnen Individum, als auch der Gemeinschaft als Ganzes gehört, deshalb vermittelt die Isolierung von phonologischen Universalien ein Verständnis der Selbst-Identifikation der sprachlichen Identität innerhalb einer bestimmten Sprachgemeinschaft.
In unserer Studie wird die Untersuchung der Funktionsweise von Vokal- und Konsonantenphonemen im gegenwärtigen Deutschen, Britisch Englischen, Niederländischen, Ukrainischen, Russischen und Polnischen anhand der vorbereiteten Rede von Politikern und der Spontansprache (Interviews des beurteilenden Charakters) durchgeführt.

2. Aufgaben eines phonetischen Experiments

Der experimentelle Teil der Studie zielt darauf ab, folgende grundlegende **Aufgaben** anzugehen:
a) die Realisationen der typischen und der national spezifischen bedeutungsunterscheidenden Merkmalen im vorbereiteten und im Spontansprechen zu skizzieren;
b) festzustellen, ob die Phoneme des gegenwärtigen Deutschen, Britisch Englischen, Niederländischen, Ukrainischen, Russischen und Polnischen einen gleichen / unterschiedlichen Umfang der Modifikationen aufweisen;
c) das Erscheinen der bedeutungsunterscheidenden Merkmale von Vokalen und Konsonanten der zu analysierenden Sprachen gegenüberzustellen, den Grad ihres Variierens in jeder genannten Sprache zu vergleichen.

3. Hypothesen

Hinsichtlich der Abweichungen im **Vokalbereich** der zu untersuchenden Sprachen wird überprüft, ob nur germanische akzentuierte Vokale ihre Qualität und Quantität bewahren und ob lange und kurze Vokale nur in den germanischen Sprachen voneinander unterschieden werden. Wir vermuten, dass in den germanischen Sprachen die Vokale der vorderen Reihe überwiegen, in den slawischen die der hinteren Reihe und dass Diphthonge nur in den germanischen Sprachen realisiert werden. Außerdem wird angenommen, dass in den slawischen Sprachen keine gespannten Vokale realisiert werden und der Schwa-Laut [ə] in den slawischen Sprachen öfter als in den germanischen vorkommt. Es soll auch geprüft werden, ob der Vokalneueinsatz für die slawischen Sprachen fremd ist und ob die nasale Artikulation nur für polnische Vokale typisch ist. Schließlich ist es fraglich, ob die Vokale der mittleren Zungenhebung in beiden Sprachgruppen erhöht werden.
Für den **Konsonantenbereich** wird angenommen, dass die Artikulationsstelle mehr stabil als der Modus ist und dass die glottale Artikulation der Konsonanten in den germanischen Sprachen der pharyngalen Artikulation in den slawischen Sprachen entspricht. Es soll analysiert werden, ob die Fortis- und Leniskonsonanten nur in den germanischen Sprachen dementsprechend gespannt und ungespannt realisiert werden und ob der velare nasale Konsonant /ŋ/ nur in den germanischen Sprachen existiert. Wir nehmen an, dass der germanische Lateral /l/ vor Vokalen der vorderen Reihe nur teilweise palatalisiert wird und dass nur die slawischen Konsonanten vor Vokalen erweicht ausgesprochen werden. Es sei zu überprüfen, ob in den slawischen Sprachen die Konsonanten mit geringer

Geräuschhaftigkeit umgesetzt werden und ob stimmlose Plosive ohne Aspiration realisiert werden. Zweifelhaft bleibt noch, ob in den slawischen Sprachen die palato-alveolare Artikulation fehlt und ob die alveolare Realisation [r] des Phonems /r/ nur den slawischen Sprachen eigen ist. Angenommen überwiegt in den slawischen Sprachen die regressive Assimilation nach der Stimmhaftigkeit und es gibt keine Modifikationserscheinungen in der Endsilbe <en> in den slawischen Sprachen.
Es sei hervorgehoben, dass eine kontrastive Analyse von Phonemen der germanischen und slawischen Sprachen nach einem klaren Verfahren abläuft, dessen Hauptkomponenten eine Hör- und Instrumentalanalyse sind.

4. Aufgaben für die Höranalyse

Die **Höranalyse der Konsonanten** der gegenüberzustellenden Sprachen sieht die Lösung der Fragen vor, ob der Spannungsgrad der Konsonanten in germanischen Sprachen gleich ist und ob der Palatalisierungsgrad in den slawischen Sprachen übereinstimmt. Es soll festgestellt werden, was die Bedingungen der Fortisierung von Leniskonsonanten / Lenisierung von Fortislauten sind und welches der differenzierenden Merkmale (Ort oder Modus) für welche Phonemgruppen mehr stabil / variativ ist. Zu prüfen sind die Voraussetzungen für die Realisation der Behauchung und des Vokalneueinsatzes und die Faktoren der Spirantisierung / Velarisierung von Konsonanten.
Zum Aufgabenbereich der **Höranalyse von Vokalen** gehören die Fragen, die die Vokaldauer in den germanischen Sprachen als ein prosodisches / segmentales Merkmal betreffen. Außerdem soll skizziert werden, inwieweit sich der Grad der Öffnung / Gespanntheit / der qualitativen Reduktion von slawischen Vokalen unterscheidet und nach welchem differenzierenden Merkmal (Zungenhebung, -stellung, Lippenbeteiligung) die Vokale am meisten modifiziert werden. Fraglich ist, ob die Reduktion der akzentuierten Vokale und unter welchen Bedingungen stattfindet und ob die Vokale des vollen Typs (nach Sčerba) in den unbetonten Wörtern erscheinen. Es soll festgestellt werden, welche positionellen Faktoren (vor- oder nachbetonte Stellung) die Modifikationen bedingen und welches Phonem / welche Phonemgruppe der zu vergleichenden Sprachen den meisten Modifikationen unterliegt. Zu prüfen ist auch, welches Phonem / welche Phonemgruppe der zu analysierenden Sprachen den höchsten Stabilitätsgrad erweist und welche kombinatorischen Bedingungen das Erscheinen der Variation bzw. Stabilität begünstigen. Schließlich sei es zu klären, ob die Entstehung von neuen Phonemen oder Phonemgruppen beobachtet wird.
Die Auswertung erfolgte nach folgendem System. Da für die germanischen Sprachen der Unterschied von Inhaltswörtern und Formwörtern von großer Wichtigkeit ist, wurden in die Auswertung hauptsächlich Inhaltswörter einbezogen (Nossok, 2008: 143), da sie für die Gedankenäußerung unabdingbar sind. Abkürzungen wurden zur Analyse nicht herangezogen. Die Vokale der einfachen Wörter wurden in solchen drei Stellungen wie unter dem Wortgruppenakzent, unter der rhythmischen Betonung und als nichtakzentuiert betrachtet. Die Konsonanten der Simplizia wurden in der betonten und unbetonten Position analysiert. In den Zusammensetzungen wurde für die Vokale und Konsonanten die Stelle der Hauptbetonung, der Nebenbetonung und die unbetonte Position relevant.

Zur Höranalyse wurden erfahrene Phonetiker, Hochschullehrer und Studenten von Universitäten im Ausland und in der Ukraine herangezogen. Die Höranalyse des segmentalen Bestandes der gegenüberzustellenden Sprachen sieht die Benutzung der IPA-Transkription sowie eines Systems von diakritischen Zeichen vor, was eine schriftliche Wiedergabe von allen Schattierungen der orthothonischen Varianten von Vokalen und Konsonanten gewährleistet. Im Folgenden sind die Muster der phonetischen Transkription von Hörtexten der Interviews mit Muttersprachlern des Deutschen, Britisch Englischen, Niederländischen, Ukrainischen, Russischen und Polnischen angegeben.
Zum besseren Verständnis der Transkriptionszeichen soll zuerst die Diakritika erklärt werden:

ᵆ – Vokalisierung
ᵆ – partielle Diphthongierung
ː – Vokallänge
̥ – Entstimmlichung
̃ – Nasalierung
(t) – Elision
ˀ – Vokalneueinsatz
ʲ – Palatalisierung
̯ – unsilbischer Vokal
‿ – die Bindung zur rhythmischen Gruppe
‿ – Affrikata
↗ – steigende Melodie
↘ – fallende Melodie
| – kurze Pause
|| – abschließende Pause
L- – Anfang des Anstiegs der Lautheit
-L – Ende des Anstiegs der Lautheit
-l – Anfang des Abfalls der Lautheit
l- – Ende des Abfalls der Lautheit
T- – Anfang der Beschleunigung des Redetempos
-T – Ende der Beschleunigung
t- – Anfang der Verlangsamung des Redetempos
-t – Ende der Verlangsamung
__**K**__ – kontrastive Betonung (d.h. wenn etwas verglichen wird)
_**E**_ – emotionelle Betonung
ˈ – rhythmische Betonung
ˈˈ – Satzbetonung
(Lachen) − extralinguistische Faktoren

Es sei bemerkt, dass die Transkription der Höraufnahmen grafisch in vier Zeilen erfolgte. Die erste Zeile stellt die orthografische Version dar, in der zweiten Zeile werden die Lautsegmente transkribiert, die dritte gibt solche Parameter wie das Sprechtempo, Lautstärke und die Tonführung wieder, in der vierten Zeile sind die kontrastiven bzw. emotionellen Akzente sowie solche extralingualen Merkmale wie das Lachen angeführt. Weiterhin sind einige festgestellte phonetische Erscheinungen angegeben. Also, im Deutschen wird unter anderem der Ausfall von Lautsegmenten beobachtet, z.B. „nich**t** nur" – [nɪç**(t)** ˈnuːɐ]:

weil‿ich‿aber mit‿Sprache nicht‿nur‿im‿therapeutischen Bereich‿arbeiten‿wollte, sondern …
vaɛ̯l ˀɪç ˀabɐ mɪt ˈʃpʁ̥aːxə nɪç(t) ˈnuːᵆ ˀɪm teʁapɔœ̯tɪʃən bəʁaɛ̯ç ˈaʁbaɛ̯tn̩ vɔltə zɔndɐn
↑L- ↑ -L ↑
__**K**__

Das Englische ist durch die progressive Assimilation nach der Stimmhaftigkeit gekennzeichnet, z.B. „ha**s** **t**o" – [hə**z** **d̥**ə]:

It‿has‿to‿be‿two‿things: pizza‿and‿chocolate. Yes. I‿know, I'd‿with, ahm, I'd‿with … croissants.
ɪt həz d̥ə bi tuː 'θɪŋz | piːtsə ən ''t͡ʃɒklət ‖ ''jes ‖ aɪ 'nəʊ | a̯ɪd 'wɪð ‖ 'ɑːm ‖ a̯ɪd 'wɪð ‖ kɹwæ'sɔ̃ ‖
T- -T ↗ ↘ ↘ ↘l-t- ↗ ↗ -t-l ↗ ↘

Im Niederländischen wird durch die regressive Assimilation nach der Stimmhaftigkeit festgestellt, z.B. „al**s** normaal“ – [ɑl**z** nɔɾˈmaːl]:

als‿nor<u>maal</u>, wat‿goed‿van‿pas‿kwam omdat‿ze‿vaak over‿de‿schutting‿gluurde …
ɑlz nɔɾˈ<u>maːl</u> | wɑt χut vɑn ˈpɑs kwam ɔmdɑt tsə ˈfak ovər də ˈsχʏtɪŋ ˈχlyᵆdə |
↗L-T- -T-L↘
E

Das Ukrainische ist dadurch charakterisiert, dass die unbetonten vorgestellten Vokale den betonten angeglichen werden, z.B. „м**е**не“ – [m**ɛᶦ**'nɛ]:

Ось, а‿дальше – додому. Ой, моя‿творча‿кар'єра, Ви‿якби‿побачили, як‿мене‿інколи …
'ɔsʲ | a dalʲʂ̡ɛ dɔ'dɔmu ‖ 'ɔj mɔja tvɔrt͡ʂ̡a kar'jɛra ‖ vɨ jakbɨ pɔ'bat͡ʂ̡ɨlɨ | jak mɛᶦnɛ inkɔlɨ
↗ ↘ ↘ ↗
(Lachen)

Im Russischen werden die unbetonten Vokale stark reduziert, z.B. „р**е**бенк**о**м“ – [rʲ**i**ˈbʲenk**ʌ**m]:

и, по‿их‿мнению, он‿был‿<u>сам</u>ым чудесным‿ребенком на‿свете.
ˈi pʌ ix ˈmnʲenʲiju | on bɨl ˈsamɨm t͡ɕuˈdʲesnɨm rʲiˈbʲenkʌm na ˈsvʲete ‖
↗ ↘ |
E
E

Das Polnische zeichnet sich dadurch, dass die Zischlaute partiell regressiv stimmhaft assimiliert werden, z.B. „czym**ś** dziwnym“ – [t͡ʂɨm**ʑ̊** ˈd͡ʑivnɨm]:

Byli‿ostatnimi‿ludźmi, których‿można‿by‿posądzić o‿udział w‿czymś‿dziwnym …
bɨlʲi ɔstatˈɲimʲi lud͡ʑmi | kturɨx mɔʐ̡na bɨ poˈsɔ̃d͡ʑit͡ʂ o ˈud͡ʑaw | w t͡ʂɨmʑ̊ ˈd͡ʑivnɨm |
↗ ↗ ↗

Es soll ergänzt werden, dass in slawischen Sprachen die Konsonanten vor den Vokalen der vorderen Reihe sowie vor dem Sonor [j] erweicht werden.

5. Untersuchungskorpus

Zum Forschungsmaterial wurde das von Schauspielern und Schriftstellern gelesene Hörbuch “Harry Potter” auf deutsch, englisch, niederländisch, ukrainisch, russisch und polnisch gewählt. Der Untersuchungskorpus enthält 2313 Realisationen von Vokal- und Konsonantenphonemen in der starken und der schwachen Position: 395 für Deutsch, Englisch – 327, Niederländisch – 373, Ukrainisch – 370, Russisch – 454 und Polnisch – 394. Das vorbereitete Sprechen diente als Ausgangspunkt, als Etalon der Phonemrealisation für den Vergleich mit den Phonemrealisationen in der Spontanrede sowie für die Beschreibung der phonetischen Parameter der Vokale und der Konsonanten. Als Spontanrede dienten die Interviews mit Muttersprachlern, den Vertretern der politischen und kulturellen Elite aus Großbritannien, den Niederlanden, der Ukraine, Polen und Russland, die vom Internet heruntergeladen wurden. Die Aufnahmen mit deutschen Muttersprachlern wurden im Aufnahmestudio der Martin-Luther-Universität Halle/Saale in Deutschland gemacht. Ihre sozialen Charakteristiken sind in der Tabelle 1 unten angegeben.

Tabelle 1. **Soziale Charakteristik der deutschen Sprecher**

Sprecher (Initialen)	**Alter, Geburtsort**	**Bildung**	**Sozialer Status**	**Wohnort**	**Fremdsprachen-kenntnisse**
M.H.	26, Leipzig, Sachsen	Universität	Student, das 2. Studienjahr	Halle/Saale, Sachsen-Anhalt	Englisch, Spanisch
M.A.	20, Halle/Saale, Sachsen-Anhalt	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch
M.Sch.	24, Freiburg im Breisgau, Baden-Württemberg	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch
B.P.	28, Berlin-Pankow	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch
S.W.	22, Chemnitz, Sachsen	- // -	Studentin, das 2. Studienjahr	- // -	Englisch
M.G.	19, Bad Düben, Sachsen	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch, Französisch
A.L.	20, Schwedt, Brandenburg	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch
L.Sch.	21, Dessau, Sachsen-Anhalt	- // -	Student, das 2. Studienjahr	- // -	Englisch
A.Sch.	19, Gabitz, Sachsen-Anhalt	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch
M.F.	20, Halle/Saale, Sachsen-Anhalt	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch
M.P.	24, Leipzig, Sachsen	- // -	- // -	- // -	Englisch, Russisch
U.W.	20, Würzburg, Bayern	- // -	Studentin, das 2. Studienjahr	- // -	Englisch

Die Aufnahmen mit englischen, niederländischen, ukrainischen, russischen und polnischen Muttersprachlern wurden von Internetquellen heruntergeladen, geschnitten und analysiert. Die Angaben dazu sind in der Tab. 2 unten zu finden.

Tabelle 2. **Angaben zu Sprechern aus Großbritannien, den Niederlanden, der Ukraine, Russland und Polen**

Nr.	Name des Sprechers	Land	Radio- bzw. TV-Sendung	Datum der Übertragung	Lauf zeit / Min.	Quelle
1.1	Mila Kunis	Great Britain	BBC Radio 1 UK, Scott Mills´ Show	04.03.2013	6	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z4Ezruu1oeQ
1.2	Britney Spears	-//-	BBC Radio 1 UK	17.10.2013	5	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RARyYQ1cqD4
1.3	Dave Grol	-//-	-//-	17.10.2013	7	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AMDqWTnACHA
1.4	David Cameron	-//-	-//-, „Good morning, Britain“ mit Susanna Raid	17.03.2015	2	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=89hFdU0K9NU
1.5	Betti Codona	-//-	BBC Radio 1 UK	03.02.2014	8	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pwLq1X7bDAQ
1.6	Kany West	-//-	-//-	01.10.2013	11	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DR_yTQ0SYVA
2.1	Fidan Ekiz	die Niederlande	NPO Radio 1 (Öffentlicher Rundfunk der Niederlande)	10.03.2015	5	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YhI9R1de3nI
2.2	Joris Lujendijk	-//-	-//-	16.02.2015	10	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NBNNZoE2Au0
2.3	Wiljam de Brujn	-//-	-//-	25.02.2015	3	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NBNNZoE2Au0
2.4	Maxim Hartman	-//-	-//-	23.03.2015	12	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NBNNZoE2Au0
2.5	Jakob Konstam	-//-	-//-	23.12.2014	13	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wmWDdHkLVHw
2.6	Astrid de Jong	-//-	Radiosendung "NACHTZU	17.04.2015	12	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0JKA3PQhkuA

			STER", Nr. 241			
3.1	Andrij Kusmenko	die Ukraine	Ukrainischer Radio "Kultura"	04.12.2014	16	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5b6P1Suf3PU
3.2	Anna Tscheberentschyk	-//-	-//-	26.09.2014	15	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6lHo0Zyu2TI
3.3	Natalka Karpa	-//-	Radio "Melodija"	22.09.2011	11	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gTQkNSP7O5Q
3.4	Olena Bilokon´	-//-	Ukrainischer Radio "Kultura"	01.04.2013	16	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EpCZ1FtipvY
3.5	Wassyl´ Kobyljuch	-//-	-//-	24.02.2010	15	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7j2nezOnT_U&spfreload=1
3.6	Iryna Farion	-//-	-//-	05.11.2014	11	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sSLSlHVeI5k
4.1	Michail Gorshenjow	Russische Föderation	Radio "Senit"	11.04.2011	32	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HMR1Dmn42-Q
4.2	Igor Rastjerjajew	-//-	-//-	16.10.2013	23	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xhWaMeASgdo
4.3	Aleksandr Wassiljew	-//-	-//-	12.12.2014	16	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GhD5RXnme9A
4.4	Gleb Samojlof & The MatriXX	-//-	-//-	14.06.2013	13	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U83miVz7uVU
4.5	Aleksandr Bon	-//-	Radio "Baltika"	17.04.2015	19	http://www.youtube.com/channel/UC91pb
4.6	Aleksandr Gagarin, Band "Sansara"	-//-	-//-	09.04.2015	13	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sTJCzH2c-ao
5.1	Dorota Rabczewska	Polen	TV-Sendung "Wochenende mit einem Stern" mit Wojtek Jagielski	19.01.2015	12	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0w1d31nUZhM
5.2	Krzystof Hołowczyc	-//-	-//-	29.01.2015	21	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I-AvBnHp8ys

5.3	Michał Figurski	-//-	-//-	28.01.2015	12	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TqDFCWB90uA
5.4	Leszek Kaźmierczak	-//-	-//-	03.02.2015	7	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HMR1Dmn42-Q
5.5	Michał Żurawski	-//-	-//-	27.01.2015	23	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xhWaMeASgdo
5.6	Natalia Kukulska	-//-	-//-	27.01.2015	5	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GhD5RXnme9A

Die Rede der Interview-Sprecher ist durch einige Abweichungen von der orthoepischen Norm gekennzeichnet, was sich in der Zunahme an modifizierten Allophonen der Vokale und Konsonanten widerspiegelt. Die melodische Kontur von einigen Sprechern ist etwas regional gefärbt, das beeinflusst aber kaum die Realisierung von Vokal- und Konsonantphonemen. Es soll ergänzt werden, dass es sich nicht um öffentliche Reden handelt, sondern um natürliche Gespräche mit einer niedrigen Stufe der Artikulationsspannung, Gesprächsvarianten, d.h., Interviews können als Spontanrede angesehen werden, wo die Vokale und Konsonanten der analysierten Sprachen modifiziert sind. Die Spontanäußerungen als die Frage-Antworten können als das Ineinandergreifen der gehobenen Formstufe des Vortrags und der Diskussion (IIa) mit der lässigen Gesprächsstufe (IIb) charakterisiert werden, d.h. die Standardaussprache grenzt an der Alltagssprache, eine leichte regionale Färbung der Melodik ist dabei vorhanden (Meinhold G., Stock, 1982: 63).

6. Aufgaben für die Instrumentalanalyse

Die Instrumentalanalyse der **Konsonanten** der zu untersuchenden Sprachen sieht die Erforschung folgender Parameter vor:
• Charakter des Erscheinens von der Grundfrequenz F_0 bei den stimmhaften und lenisierten Konsonanten;
• Konsonantenstärke im Spektrum;
• Zusammenspiel mit Vokalen (Palatalisation).
Die akustische Analyse der **Vokale** besteht im Studium folgender Charakteristiken:
• Die Formantenfrequenzen F_1 und F_2 im Ausgangspunkt;
• Die Formanten F_1 und F_2 im quasistationären Bereich;
• Die Größen der Übergänge von Formanten, d.h. des Unterschieds zwischen den Frequenzen am Anfangspunkt und dem quasistationären Bereich der Formanten;
• Die Richtung des Übergangs – Zunahme oder Abfall der Formantenfrequenz vom Anfangspunkt des Vokals zu seinem quasistationären Bereich;
• Die Vokaldauer vom Anfangspunkt bis zum Endbereich der Formanten F_1 und F_2.
Die Instrumentalanalyse ermöglicht die Erhaltung einer objektiven Information über die Realisierung der Vokale und Konsonanten im vorbereiteten und spontanen Sprechen. Die Oszillogramme sichern die Erforschung der Dauer von Lauten der zu vergleichenden Sprachen sowie der visuellen Grenzen von markierten Lautsegmenten gemäß der allgemein anerkannten Methodik der phonetischen Analyse.

Die Analyse der Klangparameter von Vokal- und Konsonantenphonemen wird mit Hilfe der Sonagramme durchgeführt, die eine der effektiven modernen Methoden der Instrumentalphonetik sind. Wie bekannt gewährleisten die Sonagramme eine deutliche akustische Darstellung der untersuchten Segmente, durch die Visualisierung der Lautfolgen kann man einzelne Fragmente mehrmals abhören und daher z.B. die Geräuschcharakteristiken von Konsonanten messen. Die Datenverarbeitung der Sonagramme wird mit Berücksichtigung der in der einschlägigen Literatur beschriebenen Methoden und Empfehlungen organisiert und interpretiert (Machelett, 1996).

7. Statistische Auswertung

Die statistische Bearbeitung der Experimentdaten beruht auf der aufeinanderfolgenden Erfüllung solcher Handlungen wie die Aussonderung der Stichproben aus der Gesamtmenge der Daten, die die Parameter der Vokale bzw. der Konsonanten unter verschiedensten positionell-kombinatorischen Bedingungen kennzeichnen und die Überprüfung der Normalverteilung in den Stichproben mit Hilfe des Kriteriums χ^2. Bei der quantitativen Überprüfung der Modifikationserscheinungen von Vokalen und Konsonanten wurden die Stichproben in Bezug auf ihre Mittelwerte laut der angenommenen phonetisch-experimetellen Methode ausgewertet (Nossok, 2008: 145). Die Berechnung des Kriteriums $\chi2$ wurde nach der Formel von Brandt-Snedekor durchgeführt, die folgende Form hat:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{N^2}{n_1 n_2}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k}\frac{f_{1i}^2}{z_i} - \frac{n_1^2}{N}\right)$$

wo $\mathbf{f_{1i}}$ die absolute Häufigkeit des untersuchten Allophons der Sprecher 1–9 ist;
$\mathbf{n_1}$, $\mathbf{n_2}$ – die Summe der absoluten Häufigkeiten in den beiden Verteilungen;
N – die allgemeine absolute Häufigkeit der beiden Verteilungen (= $n_1 + n_2$);
$\mathbf{z_i}$– die absolute Häufigkeit von allen Varianten eines Phonems pro Sprecher.
Die erhaltene Zahl χ^2 wird mit der kritisch theoretischen mit wahrscheinlichen Fehler p = 0,05, $\chi2$ = 5,99 verglichen, die der einschlägigen Literatur zu entnehmen ist [54, c. 243]. Dann wird geschlussfolgert, ob eine normale Verteilung vorliegt. Ein p-Wert von weniger als 0,05 sichert eine Normalverteilung. Durch den Signifikanztest ergab sich folgendes Bild:
p > 0,05 – nicht signifikanter Unterschied
p ≤ 0,05 – signifikanter Unterschied
p ≤ 0,01 – hoch signifikanter Unterschied
p ≤ 0,001 – höchst signifikanter Unterschied
Wenn der berechnete Wert χ^2 weniger als der kritische ist, so besteht zwischen den Varianten eines untersuchten Phonems eine gravierende Ähnlichkeit und die Verteilung dieser Variante in der Rede von Sprechern ist homogen. Als Beispiel werden in der Tab. 3 die Resultate der Berechnung von der Normalverteilung des entstimmlichten Allophons [z̥] vom deutschen Phonem /s/ bei den neun Sprechern angeführt.

Tabelle 3. **Ergebnisse des Vergleichs von der Frequenz des entstimmlichten Allophons [z̥] vom deutschen Phonem /s/**

Nr. von Sprechern	f_1 von [z̥]	f_2 von /s/	Summe $z=f_1+f_2$	$N^2 / (n_1 * n_2)$	f^2_1 / z	n^2_1 / N	$k - (n^2_1 / N)$	χ^2
1	86	179	265		27,91			
2	91	270	361		22,94			
3	89	211	300		26,40			
4	74	187	261		20,98			
5	88	251	339		22,84			
6	94	215	309	5,16	28,60	198,91	3,74	4,39
7	75	234	309		18,20			
8	78	270	348		17,48			
9	82	307	389		17,29			
Insgesamt:	n_1 =	n_2 =	N =		Summe von k =			
	757,00	2124,00	2881,00		202,64			

Dementsprechend ist der erhaltene Wert χ^2 weniger als der kritische (= 5), deshalb kann mit der relativen Glaubwürdigkeit von 95 % angenommen werden, dass die Verteilung der partiell lenisierten Variante [z̥] des deutschen Fortiskonsonanten /s/ in der Rede von neun Sprechern normal und homogen ist.

8. Schlussfolgerung

Also, anhand des Obenbeschriebenen können folgende Schlussfolgerungen gezogen werden:

− das Untersuchungsmaterial stellt die statistischen Forderungen in Bezug auf seinen Umfang zufrieden; die Sprecher stellen eine homogene Gruppe dar, ihre Sprechweise entspricht allen notwendigen Parametern und ist auf der segmentalen Ebene frei von den regionalen Färbung;

− die gewählten phonetisch-experimentellen Methoden geben die Möglichkeit, mit Hilfe der freigestellten Software Praat die Realisation von Vokal- und Konsonantenphonemen akustisch zu bearbeiten;

− die Höranalyse kann durch die Meinungsunterschiede der phonetischen Experten bei der Einschätzung von Schattierungen der Allophone verkompliziert werden, was durch die individuellen Besonderheiten der auditiven Wahrnehmung verursacht wird;

− die kombinatorisch-positionelle Variation der Vokale und Konsonanten des gegenwärtigen Deutschen, Britisch Englischen, Niederländischen, Ukrainischen, Russischen und Polnischen, die Verstärkung bzw. Abschwächung der spektralen Energiefrequenzen kommt dank der Formantenübergänge von F_0, F_1, F_2 an Sonagrammen klar und deutlich zum Ausdruck;

− die statistische Verarbeitung der Daten beruht auf der konsequenten Erfüllung solcher Schritte wie Aussonderung der Stichproben aus dem gesamten Forschungsmaterial, Signifikanztest und Überprüfung der Normalverteilung mit Hilfe des Kriteriums χ^2, was eine objektive Einschätzung bei der Hör- und Instrumentalanalyse sicherstellt.

9. Ausblick

Die vorherigen Ergebnisse dieser Studie sind jedoch nicht zu verallgemeinern, da für eine gründliche und erschöpfende Untersuchung ein umfangreicheres Korpus von Lautsegmenten vorhanden sein sollte, die in unterschiedlichen kommunikativen Situationen, u.a. im Spontansprechen vorkommen. Die durchgeführte Analyse deckt wohl die phonetischen Besonderheiten der Vokale und Konsonanten im vorbereiteten Sprechen auf, die unter verschiedenen kombinatorisch-positionellen Bedingungen gebraucht wurden. Bemerkenswert ist, dass die Realisierung von analysierten Lautsegmenten nah der orthoepischen Norm der entsprechenden verglichenen Sprache ist.

Eine Aussicht für die künftige konfrontative Erforschung der Phonemsysteme von nahverwandten Sprachen könnte die Feststellung der sprachspezifischen Prioritäten bezüglich der qualitativen Reduktion der Vokale und der sekundären Modifikation der Konsonanten bilden. Bei der Bestimmung des Variabilitätsgrades von bedeutungsunterscheidenden Merkmalen sollte eine Analyse des Erscheinens eines jeden Merkmals in allen Untergruppen des Phonemsystems der germanischen und slawischen Sprachen vorgenommen werden. Ein grundlegendes Studium von positionellen und kombinatorischen Modifikationen könnte die universellen Prozesse der sprachlichen Dynamik aufdecken.

Zusammenfassend muss man erwähnen, dass die Realisierung von bedeutungsunterscheidenden Merkmalen in der Spontanrede in den untersuchten Sprachen ein außergewöhnliches Interesse nicht nur für die Wissenschaftler darstellt, sondern auch für all diejenigen, die diese Sprachen beherrschen wollen. Es trägt auch zu einem besseren Verständnis der Sprache bei und erfordert dadurch eine eingehende wissenschaftliche Untersuchung.

10. Literaturverzeichnis

Benkenstein R. (2006) „Vergleich objektiver Verfahren zur Untersuchung der Nasalität im Deutschen“, *Hallesche Schriften zur Sprechwissenschaft und Phonetik*, Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Booij G.E. (1995) *The Phonology of Dutch*, Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Boonen U.K., Harmes I. (2013) *Niederländische Sprechwissenschaft. Eine Einführung*, Tübingen: Narr Verlag.

Gussmann E. (2007) *Phonology of Polish*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gut U. (2009) *Introduction to English Phonetics and Phonology*, Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Kager R. (1999) *Optimality theory,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McCarthy John J. (2008) *Doing Optimality Theory. Applying Theory to Data*, London: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Meinhold G., Stock E. (1982) *Phonologie der deutschen Gegenwartssprache*, Leipzig.

Nossok S. (2008) Kontrastive phonologische und phonetische Analyse Weißrussisch – Deutsch und Analyse interferenzbedingter Ausspracheabweichungen, *Hallesche Schriften zur Sprechwissenschaft und Phonetik. Band 19,* Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Pompino-Marschall B., Steriopolo O. (2011) Das ukrainische Lautsystem aus der Sicht der modernen komparativen Phonetik, *Germanistik in der Ukraine,* Jahrheft 6´2011, Kyjiw : Verlagszentrum der KNLU, S. 12–22.

Reinke K. (2008) Zur Wirkung phonetischer Mittel in sachlich intendierter Sprechweise bei Deutsch sprechenden Russen, *Hallesche Schriften zur Sprechwissenschaft und Phonetik*, Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Rhoades K.A. (1995) *The Typology of Rounding Harmony: An Optimality Theoretic Approach*, Los Angeles: The University of California.

Roach P. (2009) *English Phonetics and Phonology: A Practical Course*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Staffeldt S. (2010) *Einführung in die Phonetik, Phonologie und Phonemik des Deutschen: Ein Leitfaden für den akademischen Unterricht*, Tübingen: Stauffenburg Verlag.

Steinberg J. (2008) Geflüsterte Plosive Eine akustische Untersuchung zum Stimmhaftigkeitskontrast bei Plosiven im Deutschen, *Hallesche Schriften zur Sprechwissenschaft und Phonetik*, Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Sternemann R. (1983) Einführung in die konfrontative Linguistik, Leipzig : VEB Verlag Enzyklopädie.

Trawkina E. (2010) Sprechwissenschaftliche Untersuchungen zur Wirkung vorgelesener Prosa (Hörbuch), *Hallesche Schriften zur Sprechwissenschaft und Phonetik*, Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Veith W. H. (1972) *Intersystemare Phonologie. Exemplarisch an diastralisch-diatopischen Differenzierungen im Deutschen. Mit zahlreichen Abbildungen im Text und 40 Karten*, Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

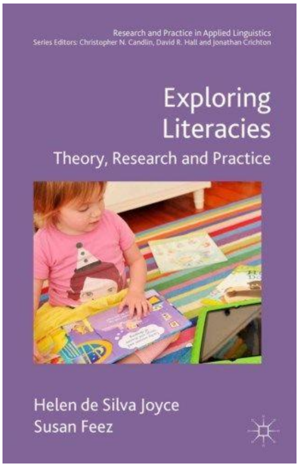
Internetquellen

Machelett K. (1996) Das Lesen von Sonagrammen, http://www.phonetik.uni-muenchen.de/Lehre/Skripten/SGL/SGLHome.html [09.11.2014]

BOOK REVIEW

HELEN DE SILVA JOYCE AND SUSAN FEEZ *EXPLORING LITERACIES*

Ioana Claudia Horea[1], Cristian Dorin Horea[2]
[1]*Department of International Business, Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Oradea, Oradea, Romania*
[2]*Department of Physics, Faculty of Sciences, University of Oradea, Oradea, Romania*
ihorea@uoradea.ro
chorea@uoradea.ro



Reviewed work:

Exploring Literacies
Theory, Research and Practice

Helen de Silva Joyce
University of New England, Australia
and
Susan Feez
University of New England, Australia

Palgrave Macmillan, 2016
Series: Research and practice in applied linguistics

ISBN 978–0–230–54539–7 hardback
ISBN 978–0–230–54540–3 paperback

A recent (October 2015) release of Palgrave Macmillan, under the series Research and Practice in Applied Linguistics, the book *Exploring Literacies. Theory, Research and Practice*, is written by two renowned academics from the University of New England, Australia, and leading researchers in Applied Linguistics: Helen de Silva Joyce and Susan Feez.

Helen de Silva Joyce is a coordinator, author or co-author of several books in the field, such as: *Language at Work: Analysing Language Use in Work, Education, Medical and Museum Contexts*, *Focus on grammar*, *Words and Pictures: A Multimodal Approach to Picture Books*, *Interpreting the Visual*, *Language in Uniform: Language Analysis and Training for Defence and Policing Purposes*, while Susan Feez has authored or co-authored works as: *Text Based Syllabus Design*, *Media Literacy, Montessori and Early Childhood*, *Grammar and Meaning*, *Using Functional Grammar: An Explorer's Guide, Montessori: The Australian Story*, *Early childhood education in Australia: Maybanke's legacy in the 21st century.* After other common endeavours for previous books, namely *Creative Writing Skills: Literary and media text types, Developing writing skills, Text Based Language Literacy*

Education: Programming and Methodology, the two authors have now assumed a new and laborious undertaking of thoroughly 'exploring' literacy's practice and education, debating on examples and putting forward models both from school and adult learning contexts, providing historical background and up to date state of art in research methodologies.

Exploring Literacies is not a book for anyone. It is addresses to informed readers, literacy educators or researchers. It is a complex work, a thorough study, with an elaborate structure. One of the motivations for the authors' approach is the idea of a crisis existent in the domain:

> Everyone who believes there is a literacy crisis can give an example of the crisis in action: young people glued to their various electronic devices using text language instead of *correct* language; the young woman at the local store who can't add up the prices on a few groceries, young employees who can't follow written instructions and schools that fail to teach grammar or that teach a grammar parents don't recognize. (p.3)

Exploring Literacies consists of three main parts. After a preamble of conceptual delimitations, the reader is introduced to the evolution and types of literacies met along life, to be in the end presented with explicit models of literacy research.

The first part comprises two chapters introductory to the concept and its acceptations in time, containing definitions, classifications and historical models.
Chapter 1 explains terminology, defines notions and brings elaborate descriptions, and details educational approaches. It presents a vast state of art as well as own opinions on the four views of literacy: as learned practice, as coding and skills practice, as individual practice and as sociocultural practice.
The second chapter deals with historical and geographical aspects and overviews literacy across disciplines particularly focusing on and using the frameworks of the Systemic Functional Linguistics model.

> This model is not based on rules but is used to explain how language varies in response to changing social contexts, and to describe whole texts in terms of function and meaning, including how the language of a text is used to talk about the world and our experiences in the world, how it is used to develop interpersonal relationships and how it is used to bind the various features of language into whole cohesive texts that make sense in the social contexts. (p.19)

To exemplify how literacy specific to disciplines is discussed, we can note, for instance, that academic discourse is analysed with respect to features such as technicality, abstraction and evaluation.

The second part - chapters 3 to 5 - presents literacy development from childhood to adulthood, and as lifelong learning.
Chapter three reviews the early years literacy development and shows how participation in school and the literacy entailed by school context are influenced by the discourse and practices of the home. It is also in this chapter that we are presented with an overview of opinions about language and literacy development,

such as behavioural, cognitive, social and biological views. The authors argue that such conceptual frameworks underlie any valuable research:

> The researcher's task is to make principled choices from the array of possibilities along several dimensions, including theoretical frameworks, data collection procedures and analytical tools. This is necessary so that the design of any particular study is unified conceptually and remains dynamic enough to account for the many variables of any situation in which language is being used and learned. It is also necessary so that a study produces results that provide insights for practice and which have the potential to be generalised to other teaching and learning contexts. In other words, researchers in the field of language and literacy need a conceptual framework through which to view possible theoretical and analytical orientations. (p.95)

Literacy at school is covered in the fourth chapter, where notions as 'teacher *bricoleur'* or 'genre based pedagogy' are explained, curriculum design is debated, domains with their corresponding types of learning and dimensions of contexts are correlated, and categories for organising literacy resources are summarised. Discussing this classification of resources, the authors explain how research work and studies are generally produced – and incidentally show how the very book under review was designed:

> The four resources model is a *generic* framework researchers can use to navigate in a principled way the expanding literature and recurring debates that continually push out the boundaries of the literacy terrain. The whole of this vast and rocky terrain is beyond the reach of any one individual, study or publication, and so literacy teachers, literacy researchers, and authors of books such as this one, can only ever be *bricoleurs*, creating their work from the elements that are within their reach. One means of unifying these elements in principled ways, often used in tandem with the four resources model, is to focus attention on the contexts in which *specific* types of literacy use are situated. (p.136)

It is also shown that the 'crucial shift' – from initial literacy skills to the skills necessary for learning the curriculum content – is made possible by qualified educators with a sound knowledge of teaching methods and of how, what and when to teach.

The fifth chapter outlines adult literacy contexts: further education, community, workplace or literacy for specific purposes. It presents dimensions of competency assessment at this level, in literacy, numeracy or problem solving, sheds light on the mode continuum technique and illustrates the use of intertextuality and literacy events, talks about special language features of diverse disciplines and about academic language, shows aspects of the disadvantaged categories and discusses concerns of the plurilingual world.

The third and final part – chapters 6 and 7 - puts forward a well grounded research methodology and depicts instances of actual research in the field of literacy, performed in various contexts.

The Methodological map provided in the sixth chapter is a useful and, in our opinion, quite ample tool for researchers, from where one can select the method

most suitable for each type of research: qualitative, quantitative, action research, case studies an so on.
The final chapter is based on exemplifications of research projects on literacy in different contexts, with direct assertions of the researchers. While this approach is innovative and much welcomed ensuring readers' effective encounter with the actual facts explained by the very people who applied these methods, one can argue that there are some cases of less relevant studies or rather briefly presented by the researcher (as for instance the 'Classroom interaction in a Danish history classroom'). Still, it is exactly this diversity of selection and the unaltered preservation of authenticity that gives the book a genuinely encyclopaedic dimension. This adds value to the well written previous theoretical chapters, providing credibility of arguments and uniqueness of an exhaustive approach.

Helen de Silva Joyce's expertise in spoken language and intertextuality in social and work contexts transpire from the pages of *Exploring Literacies*, her main research areas proving a solid base for a deep understanding and an accurate interpretation of facts. Susan Feez's specialization in language and literacy as well as in Montessori education ensured a widened and at the same time individual-centred perspective, which proves effective in analysis of phenomena.
Abounding with explicit and eloquent exemplifications, the book proves readability, due to the authors' keen attention catching technique of writing, to the utter clarity of the discourse and the straightforwardness proven by visual aids. The sharp, trained eye of the experimented researchers constantly indicates the right directions of exploration and the most valid methodological approaches for each, keeping discussions on track and maintaining a flawless focus throughout the complex enterprise.
Composite and yet unitary, the book *Exploring Literacies* is no less than a masterpiece in the field of education and research on literacy, complex and still orderly, apprehensible though highly professional, extensive and nevertheless consistent.