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I. ARTICLES

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Personification in EFL learners' academic writing: A cognitive linguistic stance

Abstract. The paper offers a report of a small-scale corpus investigation into some advanced EFL learners' use of personification in academic writing within a higher education context (Mouloud Mammeri University). Its main objective is to shed light on the extent of the occurrence of this phenomenon in their writings. The question raised is whether the examination of their dissertations would reveal extensive use of personification. Conceptual Metaphor Theory constitutes the theoretical framework featuring in this research. Relying on the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) (Pragglejaz Group 2007), six master's dissertations are selected for examination, and a quantitative analysis of the identified metaphorically used words is conducted. The results of the study reveal an overwhelming manifestation of personification. These findings may constitute a small contribution to the field of education, as offering useful data to educational practitioners and researchers.

Keywords: personification, academic writing, EFL learners, higher education, cognitive linguistics.

1. INTRODUCTION

In cognitive linguistics, metaphor is defined as reasoning and talking about one conceptual domain in terms of the structure of another conceptual domain (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). It has been argued that speakers of English draw on concrete domains in order to comprehend abstract concepts because thinking about difficult abstract concepts is facilitated by concrete physical concepts (Kövecses 2002). There seems to be an accepted reason that leads people to build commonly source-target conceptual mappings in order to attain an understanding of abstract concepts. This reason rests upon the connection between people's frequent physical experiences and the metaphorical correspondences they make to structure the abstract concepts they try to understand (Gibbs 1996). Metaphori-

cal thought was described as normal and ubiquitous, leading to a spontaneous and unconscious act of metaphor use in ordinary everyday language (Lakoff & Johnson 1980).

Metaphor is pervasive in both educational and academic discourse. This phenomenon has attracted the attention of applied linguists because of its contribution to the understanding of human thought processes and communication (Cameron 2003; Cameron & Low 1999). Therefore, metaphor in EFL learners' writing needs to be researched. As Eubanks (2011: 13) argues, "If we want to think more carefully about who writers are, what writing is, and how writing affects our lives, we should pay attention to our figurative language and thought."

In higher education settings, such as Mouloud Mammeri University of Tizi-Ouzou, EFL learners are most of the time involved in a spontaneous and unconscious process of metaphor use in academic written productions. This unconscious act constitutes an outstanding reason that stimulates thinking about the frequencies of metaphor use in text. To date, there seems to be no study that has explored the production of metaphors, particularly personification, in EFL learners' written discourse at Mouloud Mammeri University. An attempt to conduct such an investigation within the specific context of academic discourse as a register used in higher education settings can be of interest to educators and researchers, and may enlighten their understanding of EFL learners' use of metaphorical expressions in academic text.

The main point behind the present research is to answer the question of whether or not personification metaphors are used in six-selected master's dissertations under study and to what extent. I suggest that a significant amount of metaphors is produced in the written discourse in question; and this goes in line with the rather obvious fact that metaphor appears frequently, as this is known for at least a quarter of a century, if not since Aristotle.

The objective of this paper is three-fold. First, it tries to show that personification importantly features students' writing. Second, it aims at revealing that the metaphorical lexical items (verbs) within personification are used at variable rates. Finally, it attempts to explain the reasons behind the overwhelming metaphoric use of verbs within personification metaphors in the corpus of the present study.

The present research is circumscribed within the scope of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), cognitive linguistics related work, and metaphor in educational contexts. Therefore, this paper begins with some background information about personification in Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) and Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP). It then provides a review of some pertinent studies about metaphor in educational and academic discourse. Next, it introduces the research methodology applied. Finally, the article discusses the results of the research, and draws some conclusions.

2. PERSONIFICATION IN CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR THEORY (CMT)

From a cognitive linguistics perspective, metaphors are primarily conceptual not linguistic. They are viewed as tools that facilitate communication through the understanding of abstract concepts in terms of concrete ones (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 34). The relationship between the two types of concepts is guaranteed by *conceptual mappings*, i.e., correspondences between a source and a target domain. CMT treats linguistic manifestations of metaphors in written discourse from a cognitive linguistic stance. That is, metaphors are first conceptual constructs existing in language users' minds, which are then given a more concrete form, as for example, metaphoric written words. Interest in the study of metaphor has emerged out of the necessity to apprehend its use and interpretation in order to contribute to an understanding of communication.

In Conceptual Metaphor Theory, *personification* is described as a process that "allows us to comprehend a wide variety of experiences with nonhuman entities in terms of human motivations, characteristics, and activities" (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 33). It is a type of conceptual metaphor that "involves understanding nonhuman entities, or things, in terms of human beings. It thus imputes human characteristics to things" (Kövecses 2002: 251). In other words, "this type [of metaphor] occurs when a nonhuman entity (referring to some discourse entity, such as a text) is the subject with a verb that requires a human agent" (Steen et al. 2010a: 108). This is illustrated in the example (1) hereafter.

(1) This chapter *discusses* participants' pragmatic competence.[1]

The word "discusses" is used metaphorically in Example (1) above. In fact, this verb requires an animate subject, but here, it co-occurs with the inanimate noun "chapter". This example is illustrative of what Low (1999: 231) calls the ESSAY IS A PERSON metaphor that exemplifies personification.[2] The metaphorical word "discusses" in Example (1) has been identified by means of the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP). A comparison of the contextual meaning of "discusses" and its basic meaning reveals that it is used metaphorically in Example (1) above (Belkhir 2020: 46).

The ability to interpret metaphors in written discourse requires first the capacity to identify them with consistency and accuracy. The act of identifying metaphors in written discourse means that metaphorically used expressions are searched for in usage. The term "usage" refers both to text and to talk,

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[1] See Hadj Mohand (2019: 45).
[2] Conceptual metaphors are transcribed in small capitals (see Lakoff 1993).

and is opposed to that of "grammar" (Steen 2007). It has been argued that metaphor identification is not a trouble-free task because of inconsistency in researchers' intuitions associated with a lack of accuracy in determining what counts as a metaphoric expression (Pragglejaz Group 2007). As a result, a group of ten cognitive linguists specialized in conceptual metaphor research, who called themselves the *Pragglejaz Group*, elaborated a method to facilitate the identification of metaphorically used words in natural discourse. They called this method the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP). Steen et al. (Steen, Dorst, Herrmann Berenike, Kaal, & Krennmayr 2010b: 768) describe MIP as an inductive tool that requires "moving from the available linguistic structures towards a set of reconstructed conceptual structures that constitute cross-domain mappings".

MIP is implemented in four steps. In the first step, the analyst ensures that the overall meaning of the discourse is understood. In the second step, s/he identifies the lexical units that s/he assumes to be metaphorical in the text in question. In the third step, s/he sets up their meaning in context; then, s/he searches for other basic concrete/bodily meanings in other contexts and decides whether the meaning in the text can be understood in terms of or in comparison with meaning which is more basic. If this is found to be right, the researcher marks the identified lexical units as being used metaphorically, in the fourth step. Later, a more elaborated form of MIP, referred to as the MIPVU[3], was introduced to deal with metaphors in news text and conversation as well as simile in academic discourse (Steen et al. 2010a). In the present paper, only the first version of MIP (2007) is applied to identify action verbs that exhibit personification.

Another pertinent dimension characterizing personification is metonymy, which implies "using one entity to refer to another that is related to it" (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 35). Metonymy also suggests "people take one well-understood or easily perceived aspect of something to represent or stand for the thing as a whole" (Gibbs 1994: 320). It should also be pointed to the fact that in such registers as academic discourse, "essay and (research) paper personification metaphor was closely bound to the metonymy of the essay standing for the person who wrote it" (Low 1999: 247).

Similar to metaphor, metonymy is of a conceptual nature (Kövecses 2002: 145). Barcelona (2003: 4) defines metonymy as "a conceptual projection whereby one experiential domain (the target) is partially understood as another experiential domain (the source) included *in the same common experiential domain*." He goes on to maintain that the basis of any metaphorical transfer is to originate

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[3] MIPVU stands for Metaphor Identification Procedure (Vrije Universitaet).

from a metonymic projection. According to Deignan (2005: 71), "metonymy now seems to be so closely intertwined with metaphor that it is a difficult and probably unnecessary exercise to try to disentangle the two in every analysis". This is to say that metaphor and metonymy are interconnected and thus function simultaneously within personification. Example (1) above represents the linguistic instantiation of the ESSAY IS A PERSON conceptual metaphor, which is directly related to the metonymy the ESSAY STANDS FOR A PERSON. Metaphor and metonymy, it should be remembered, are "interacting and not opposing forces" (Steen 2007: 102). Rundblad (2007: 251) argues that metonymic linguistic expressions "enable the author to remain absent in the text and encourage the reader to focus on the article, the investigation, and the results". In her view, metonymy, has received little attention in scientific discourse. This view is shared by Barcelona (2003: 4), who argues: "Metonymy has received much less attention from cognitive linguists, although it is probably even more basic to language and cognition".

3. STUDIES INTO METAPHOR IN EDUCATIONAL AND ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

Discourse studies have demonstrated the important part played by metaphor in structuring thought and language (see Littlemore, Krennmayr, J. Turner & S. Turner 2014; Musolff & Zinken 2009; Cameron 1999; Gibbs 1999; Steen 1999). The ubiquitous nature of metaphors in spoken and written educational and academic discourse is an observed fact that has been vastly researched (see Semino 2008; Cameron 2003; Cameron & Low 1999), as this issue gained significant importance in the field of education. Textbooks, for instance, are filled with countless metaphorical expressions, so often, unnoticed by students (Goatly 2007: 1).

The importance of metaphor in foreign language teaching and learning has been explored to a significant extent. For example, metaphor has been researched in academic discourse with respect to book reviews (Low 2008b). An analysis of reviews revealed authors' regularity in metaphor use for positioning purposes. However, Low (2008a) stresses the need to consider how metaphor is used at discourse level, and to determine what learners are required to do with metaphors. In addition, he acknowledges the difficulty of testing for 'metaphoric competence' in a foreign language.

A number of studies considered metaphor as a phenomenon that plays an important role in academic language (see Semino 2008; Giles 2008; Goschler 2007; Cameron 2003; Charteris-Black & Musolff 2003; Charteris-Black 2000;

Darian 2000; Low 1999; Pulaczewska 1999). In this paper, academic discourse is understood as being the spoken or written form of language produced in accordance with standards set within academic frameworks including higher education contexts. Low (1999: 231) calls these standards "norms of the academic community". Understood in such terms, academic writing can be said to be represented by such instances of language production as advanced EFL learners' master's dissertations. It is worth noting in passing that academic discourse has been found to be characterised by the highest amount of metaphorically-used words (Steen et al. 2010a: 781).

With reference to personification, most metaphorical uses in news discourse are of the personification type. This is to give the impression of objectivity in communicating information by concealing human responsibility for decisions and actions (Krennmayr 2017: 169). This view is shared by Steen (2007: 103) who claims that linguistic expressions of personification, in news texts, as for example, "The White House says" can be employed to avoid assigning responsibility while "This essay argues", in academic texts, can be used to avoid the use of the personal pronouns *I* and *we*.

In academic educational discourse, *personification* is most importantly used in two sections: the introduction and conclusion of an essay or paper (Low 1999: 231). A brief overview of previous research into personification in educational contexts is relevant to the present research. Low (1999) examines how a number of assessors reacted to personification in university assignments. He reaches the conclusion that the majority of the teachers in the study reacted negatively to the expression *This essay thinks* or *believes* produced by a student, but marked *This essay argues* or *takes the view* as acceptable.

Moreover, Charteris-Black (2000) investigated the teaching of lexis to ESP learners in relation to theoretical work on metaphor. His findings reveal the use of animate metaphors to refer to economy and economic organisations. Along the same lines, Darian (2000) dealt with the use of figurative language in teaching science. In his view, an important role is played by personification and animation in science texts. As a result, these phenomena are pertinent to pedagogy. Finally, Cameron (2003: 246) dealt with animating metaphors of which personification is a subset. She conducted research into the use of verb metaphors in discourse, as for example "minerals *come out of* rocks." She found that: "The educational discourse data of different types showed widespread use of verb animating metaphors applied to processes and relational correspondences in a concept domain." She furthermore concludes, "Animating metaphors seem to help make formalized abstract concepts and explanatory theories more accessible through the activation of actions and relations in more concrete and familiar vehicle domains."

4. METHODOLOGY OF DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

In this section, I first describe the corpus on which the research was conducted, along with a sample of text, which includes metaphorically used words indicating personification. Then, I present the method used in collecting the tokens of metaphorical linguistic expressions. Finally, I report on the quantification method adopted in the analysis of the findings.

The account of metaphors in students' academic writing was based on a corpus of 144,901 words. To build up the discourse sample, metaphorical linguistic expressions displaying personification were collected from master's dissertations produced by six major students in 2018, 2019, and 2021 at the Department of English, Mouloud Mammeri University in Tizi-Ouzou, Algeria.[4] The choice of these six dissertations was prompted by the fact that the present corpus-based study is of a small-scale nature. The procedure used to collect the tokens of metaphorical linguistic expressions was a simple search on the computer using a set of keywords: discuss, show, display, provide, highlight, explain, confirm, investigate, explore, involve, shed light, present, describe, deal, review, reveal, refer, indicate, introduce, allow, and represent. The literal uses were then separated from the metaphorical expressions. MIP was the method used in the identification of these metaphors. To compare the contextual meaning of the lexical units with their basic meaning, I referred to *Cambridge Online Dictionary*.[5] For instance, the basic meaning of the word "discuss" in the metaphorical expression: "This chapter discusses the results of the investigation" was examined by referring to this dictionary. This has led to the classification of this metaphorical linguistic expression within the CHAPTER IS A PERSON metaphor.

To analyse the data, I relied on a quantification method. The quantitative analysis was conducted on a corpus comprising 907 metaphorical linguistic expressions identified, exhibiting personification (see Table 1 in the section on results). The total number of words that made up the corpus was 144,901. The results of the analysis were quantified in numbers and percentages and were displayed in the form of a table. The percentages were calculated by means of the percentage formula $z\% = x*100/y$. The symbol x represents the frequency of occurrence of identified metaphors, and y stands for the total number of identified metaphorically used words in the corpus; i.e., 907.

The identified metaphors were calculated with respect to their types. That is, ontological metaphors based on personification were isolated from other

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[4] See Arab (2021), Abboud (2021), Hadjam (2021), Hadj Mohand (2019), Mebarki (2019), Boudiaf (2018).

[5] *Cambridge Online Dictionary* is available at https://dictionary.cambridge.org/.

types like journey, money, or spatial metaphors. In addition, verbs constituted the metaphorically used lexical items that were retained for analysis. To reveal the salience of personification in the EFL learners' academic writing, the three outstanding metaphorical expressions were displayed in a descending order and were analysed with reference to the conceptual metaphors they involved, along with the metonymy appearing in them.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the present investigation are supplied in Table 1. It reveals the rates of personification used in the six master's dissertations labelled: A, B, C, D, E, and F. The 21 metaphorically used lexical items, which were searched for in the corpus are arranged randomly on a column. The frequency of use of each item, e.g. "discuss", has been calculated within the six dissertations separately in order to compare the rates. Then, a total was computed and a percentage was determined following the methodology described in the previous section. This percentage revealed the frequency of use of each metaphorically used item in the whole corpus. The three outstanding metaphorically used verbs are classified following their rates. The discussion of these results is conducted with respect to the frequencies of metaphor use, and the variation in the rates of each prominent and less prominent metaphorically used verbs. An explanation of the causes for the personification use is also debated. The discussion is based on the results displayed in Table 1 hereafter.

Table 1. Frequencies of metaphorically used verbs in personification

Verbs	Number of tokens of linguistic expressions per dissertation (A, B, C, D, E, F)						Totals	Percent-ages
Discuss	10	7	7	1	13	6	44	4,85
Show	10	28	21	21	21	16	117	12,89
Display	5	2	0	1	2	1	11	1,21
Provide	14	17	27	7	21	9	95	10,47
Highlight	5	0	1	3	2	4	15	1,65
Explain	2	3	0	0	7	11	23	2,53
Confirm	6	2	0	9	4	4	25	2,75
Investigate	3	7	4	7	1	2	24	2,64
Explore	3	5	0	2	2	1	13	1,43
Involve	9	18	18	10	9	6	70	7,71
Shed light	3	1	2	1	1	1	9	0,99

Present	8	12	16	2	9	8	55	6,06
Describe	4	7	2	8	5	4	30	3,30
Deal	17	4	17	8	8	6	60	6,61
Review	2	3	3	5	3	4	20	2,20
Reveal	15	13	16	20	16	12	92	10,14
Refer	20	21	30	8	9	9	97	10,69
Indicate	1	2	2	1	3	3	12	1,32
Introduce	1	4	1	1	0	2	9	0,99
Allow	13	12	19	2	2	7	55	6,06
Represent	1	2	7	6	12	3	31	3,41
Total							907	100

The analysis of Table 1 indicates that the three most prominent metaphorically used verbs in the corpus come in the following order:

(1) Show (2) Refer (3) Provide

Show is ranked in the first position with a rate of 117 occurrences, making 12.89% of all the identified metaphors. A variety of metaphorical expressions involving the verb *show* was produced in the six dissertations as an instantiation of the conceptual metaphor RESULTS ARE PERSONS and the related metonymy results stand for persons. This is illustrated in examples (1), (2), and (3) hereafter:

(1) The findings show that the techniques vary from one teacher to another.
(2) The pre-test results show that only four (4) participants of each group used verbal fillers.
(3) The results of the questionnaire show that many MS4 learners support the fact that there is a difference in the inclusion of intercultural contents in the two textbooks under study.

The verb *refer* comes in the second position. It occurred 97 times in the corpus, with a percentage corresponding to 10.69% of all the identified metaphors. This verb was involved in the linguistic manifestation of the conceptual metaphor CONCEPTS ARE PEOPLE, which is connected to the CONCEPTS STAND FOR PEOPLE metonymy, as shown in examples (4), (5), and (6) below:

(1) This term refers to the individual's ability to understand and perform a given task appropriately and effectively.
(2) Formulaic Competence refers to those words, expressions, collocations, idioms, phrasal verbs and fixed phrases used to facilitate communication.
(3) High culture refers to all the artistic artefacts such as painting, classical music, and literature.

The verb *provide* is found to be less used than *refer* and *show,* thus occupied the third position in terms of frequency with the rate 95 (=10.47%). This verb

was used in metaphorical linguistic expressions of the conceptual metaphor the CHAPTER IS A PERSON and the metonymy the CHAPTER STANDS FOR A PERSON, as revealed in examples (7), (8), and (9):

(1) This chapter provides a detailed description of the sample.

(2) This chapter provides some definitions of the term communicative competence.

(3) The General conclusion provides an overall summary of the main points that are tackled in the research.

The least frequently used verbs in the corpus are, on the one hand, *shed light* and *introduce* with an equal rate of 9 (= 0.99%) for each, and, on the other hand, *display* and *indicate* with frequencies equating 11 (= 1.21%) and 12 (=1.32%) respectively. This indicates that the metaphorically used verbs in personification manifested at variable rates throughout the corpus.

The aforementioned analysis has revealed that personification was largely used in the six dissertations wherein metaphorical verbs have been used at variable frequency rates. The 21 metaphorically used verbs, which were investigated in the corpus lead to the identification of 907 instances of personification in a corpus including 144,901 words. This observed fact demonstrates the significant part played by personification in advanced learners' academic writing.

However, a question arises here. That is, the reason why this phenomenon is overwhelmingly present in their written discourse. One reasonable answer would be that the authors of the dissertations might have resorted to personification as a strategy to produce some greater impact, as it renders a non-human entity more vivid and lively through human attributes. Readers can easily understand the human traits and in turn, the non-living entities are described in a prominent and remarkable way that grabs the readers' attention. The use of this device enables the object, action, or concept that is personified, to connect with the readers, as it adds a deeper meaning to the piece of writing that makes them comprehend and remember the text.

As argued earlier, "personification makes use of one of the best source domains we have-ourselves. In personifying nonhumans as humans, we can begin to understand them a little better" (Kövecses 2002: 35). Students making an extensive use of metaphorical verbs in personifications, not only conceal their actions and decisions as the producers of the dissertations, but also employ the source domain HUMAN (i.e., THEMSELVES) to reach a better interpretation of the meaning conveyed through the use of non-human elements within the target domain (CHAPTER, SECTION, FINDINGS, DIAGRAM, or TABLE). In the same line of thought, Cameron (2003) claims the usefulness of animating metaphors in making theoretical abstract notions accessible to readers, and this via concrete source domain concepts.

Further reasons may have prompted the use of personification as well. Probably, the students were required to use personification as a practical tool for achieving objectivity and modesty in academic scientific research. This is likely to keep distance *vis à vis* the text they produced. As Low (1999: 223) argues, "the production of expressions like **This essay thinks** is not so much the creation of animacy, but rather part of a strategy for avoiding or reducing subjectivity". That is, metonymy is employed as a technique wherein the person writing the dissertation is substituted by the dissertation or any part of it in order to create a kind of distance between himself/herself and the text. This explains well the practices of students at the Department of English in Mouloud Mammeri University. They are very often discouraged from using first personal pronouns to guarantee this distance and attain objectivity in their academic writings. This is similar to what is claimed by Steen. Namely, such expressions as *This essay argues* "can be used to avoid using the personal pronouns I and we" (2007: 103).

Educational practitioners and teachers need to show awareness of the overwhelming presence of personification in students' dissertations. They have to consider its pertinence within EFL contexts and make clear decisions on how to cope with it. Personification is a central aspect featuring scientific texts produced by EFL students, and as advocated by Darian (2008), it should be given an important position in teaching science.

6. CONCLUSION

The main issue raised in this research was whether personification metaphors are used in EFL students' academic writing and to what extent. The corpus under examination included six master's dissertations. Three objectives were set at the beginning of the present paper: (1) show that personification importantly featured students' writing, (2) reveal that the metaphorical verbs within personification were used at variable rates, and (3) clarify the reasons behind the overwhelming metaphoric use of action verbs within personification metaphor in the selected corpus.

The findings displayed in Table 1 reveal that the metaphorical verbs searched for in the corpus have been used extensively, each at variable frequency rates. This is to say that personification importantly featured students' writing. This confirms the claim made at the outset of this paper; i.e., a significant number of personification metaphors is produced in the written discourse in question.

The discussion of the findings has attempted to provide some plausible explanations for the causes that have led to the overwhelming use of personification in the six dissertations. One likely justification was that personification

has been used as a strategy to produce some greater impact on readers. Their use of personification was also explained in terms of their inclination to make their text more comprehensible to readers through the attribution of human qualities to non-human elements. Another reason was that the students have resorted to personification to conceal themselves; i.e., the text they produced or part of it substituted the authors to avoid the use of first person pronouns *I* and *we*, and attain objectivity.

This research has a limited scope as it concerned only some advanced EFL students' production of personification metaphors in their dissertations. This scope can be enlarged to include further issues relating to metaphors used in EFL learners' writings and teachers' reaction to this natural-occurring phenomenon. Investigations can be conducted in EFL educational settings to elucidate such questions as:

- students' awareness of metaphor use in their own written productions,
- learners' attention to metaphor manifestations in academic discourse,
- learners' understanding of what metaphors are and how they can be used efficiently in written discourse,
- teachers' familiarisation with personification metaphors in academic discourse,
- teachers' training to cope with personification metaphors to help learners improve their academic writing.

It must be pointed out that the conclusive statements made in this paper are constrained to the present research, and thus are not generalizable. In addition, the number of dissertations that have been analysed is very restricted. Besides, only 21 metaphorically used verbs were searched in the corpus. A greater number of dissertations and metaphorical verbs would have brought far-reaching data that would have been fruitfully exploited. It can be hoped, nonetheless, that this small-scale corpus research has contributed with some useful information to the existing literature on personification in academic and scientific texts, and to the field of metaphor in educational contexts within a cognitive linguistic perspective that would be of interest to students, researchers, and educational practitioners.

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The Interactive Learning Model: A theory that assists the L2 learner in achieving self-awareness

ABSTRACT. This study uses the Interactive Learning Model theory to explore the nature of self-awareness within each of three L2 learners. Using the Learning Connections Inventory (LCI), a validated and reliable learning instrument, each participant identified their combination of learning patterns. The subjects then recalled specific L2 learning experiences, relating them in first person narratives. Next, each subject composed anecdotes and reflections based on their narratives. They also participated in one-on-one interviews in which they described their learning experiences during basic L2 learning activities: vocabulary, grammar, writing, conversation, and passive listening during movies, live theatre, spectator sports, and television. Our analysis of the LCI outcomes and self-reported learning experiences demonstrated that the self-awareness gained from understanding their combination of learning patterns and expanded by the self-reflection activities, increased the participants' ability to articulate the nature of their self-awareness and to identify evidence of their growth in self-awareness during L2 learning.

KEYWORDS: self-awareness, metacognition, L2 learning, learning patterns.

1. INTRODUCTION

Learning is crucial to our existence. Centuries ago, ancient literature characterized learning as the wellspring of our existence. However, as ancient literature explains, in order for learning to be maximized, it needs to be used with intention (Proverbs 4.23). In other words, learning needs to develop an individual's ability to become self-aware. A model of learning that teaches learners how to visualize, listen, and respond to the internal workings of their learning mind is the Interactive Learning Model (ILM). Its 25-year application in primary, secondary, university, and adult learning settings suggests that it is a theory that – when implemented with fidelity – results in nimble, effective, efficient, and self-aware learners. The study here reported suggests the Interactive Learning Model also has the potential to enrich the learning experience of L2 learners (Camilleri 2003).

2. THE FIRST STEP TO SELF-AWARENESS:
UNDERSTANDING OUR BRAIN-MIND CONNECTION

The Interactive Learning Model defines learning as "taking in the world around you and making sense of it" (Johnston 1994). The ILM theory suggests that learning begins when the brain takes in stimuli through our five senses (sight, sound, taste, touch, and smell). Our sensory portals regulate the stimuli entering the brain. Once inside the brain, the stimuli are processed by neuro-receptors and electro-chemicals using all sectors of the brain. However, the stimuli require translation, something to break the electrochemical and neuro-receptor codes. The interpreter-translator is found in the working memory of the mind.

As Figure 1 illustrates, in order to reach the mind, the stimuli must pass through a brain-mind interface and enter the working memory where they are translated into symbolic representations (language, numbers, musical notes, scientific notation, and thousands of other symbols) to be stored and retrieved when needed.

The depiction in Figure 1 represents the brain-mind interface. Note the function that learning patterns play in the interface between the brain and mind. Observe how they filter the stimuli that pass from the brain to the mind. Next, note how the stimuli enter the mind and are translated by the Working Memory into symbolic representation (numbers, letters, musical notes, etc.), and stored in an individual's memory for retrieval. The Interactive Learning theory posits that each learning pattern provides a specific filtering function. A factor analysis of the descriptive data collected from 2,700 children and adults between 1989–1996,
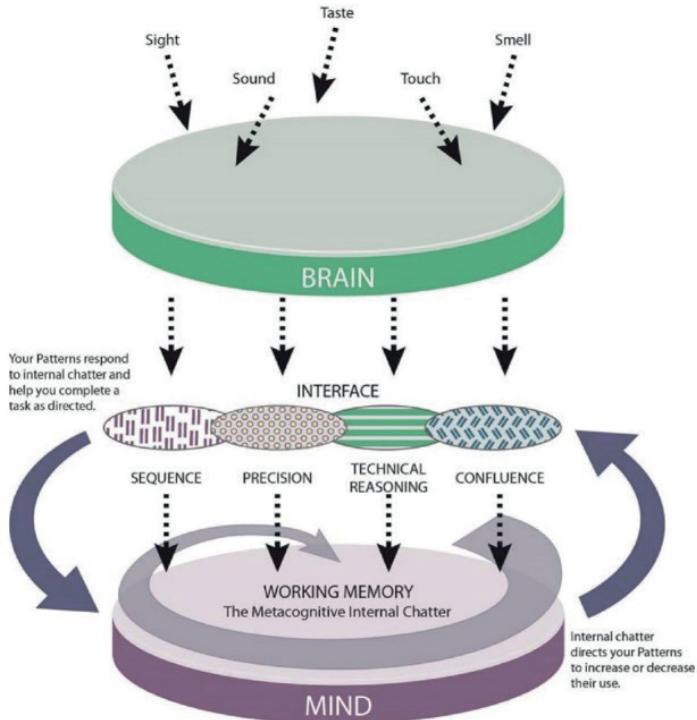
Figure 1. The Brain-Mind Interface ©

Source: Johnston: 2018, 44

resulted in the researchers identifying four discrete constructs which were labeled learning patterns and named based on the role and function each played in the filtering process. The labels designated were: Sequence, Precision, Technical Reasoning, and Confluence. Table 1 lists the primary characteristics of each learning pattern. The learning patterns are described in detail (see Tables 2–9).

Table 1. The primary characteristics of each learning pattern

Pattern of Sequence	Pattern of Precision	Pattern of Technical Reasoning	Pattern of Confluence
– Organizes life – Makes lists – Lives by schedules – Makes extensive plans	– Relishes information – Seeks facts – Must be right – Provides detailed responses	– Solves problems – Uses few words – Looks for relevance and practicality – Works alone	– Takes risks – Sees the big picture – Embraces innovation – Initiates change

Source: Johnston 1998.

2.1. A distinguishing feature of the ILM theory

A distinguishing feature of the ILM theory is its representation of the mental processes which operate within each of the four learning patterns. These mental processes consist of cognition (thinking), conation (doing), and affectation (feeling) (McClean 1978; Snow, Corno & Jackson 1996). Figure 2 illustrates the interaction occurring among the mental processes of each of the four patterns.
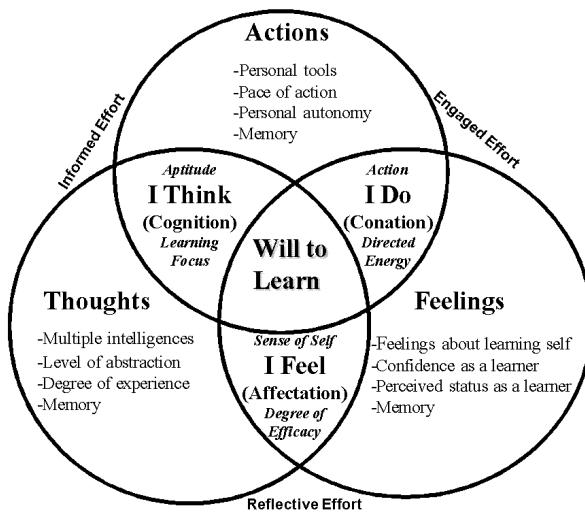
Figure 2. The interaction of mental processes within each learning pattern

Source: Johnston 1998: 32.
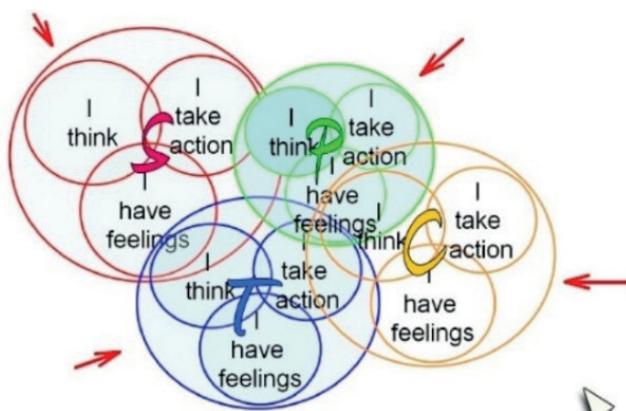
Figure 3. The interaction of all three processes interacting within each of the four learning patterns

Source: prepared on the basis of Borkowski, Carr, Rellinger & Pressley 1990: 53–92.

Figure 3 represents the synchronous interplay among the four learning patterns and the constructs of cognition, conation, and affectation within each that create a learners' sense of motivation and degree of efficacy (Borkowski, Carr, Rellinger & Pressley 1990: 53–92).

2.2. The mental processes that form an individual's sense of self as a learner

Cognition is the construct of thinking. It is the source of written and spoken communication, the basis of levels of abstraction, and the engine of an individual's reflective thought. Conation is the construct of taking action. It determines an individual's use of tangible and intangible tools. It is the governor of an individual's pace and degree of social interaction. Affectation is the construct of feelings. It is the basis of an individual's sense of value, sense of self, and sense as a learner. It is an individual's emotive barometer (Pattoia 2009).

The instrument that captures an individual's combination of learning patterns, the Learning Connections Inventory (LCI) (Johnston & Dainton 1997), was developed over a six-year period and involved 2,700 subjects (1800 12–18 year-old students and 900 professional educators in the US, Canada, England, Malta, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Czechia, Italy, Spain, and Australia). Individuals completing the LCI use a five-point scale to respond to each of the 28 self-report items and provide three short-answer free responses. Upon completion of the LCI, individuals receive a set of scores that indicate the range into which their scale scores fall for each of the four learning patterns. The ranges include Use First, Use as Needed, Avoid. Tables 2–9 present the internal thoughts, actions, and feelings of either end of the spectrum.

Table 2. Sequence Pattern Use-First Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
I think in categories and objectives.	I break tasks into steps and complete them in order.	I feel secure when I have a plan and can work the plan.	What's the goal for this? Let's stay on task!
I think with clarity, not clutter.	I organize my schedule, my workspace, and my life.	I thrive on a well-ordered life.	There is a place for everything and everything in its place.
I think in phases: beginning, middle, and end.	I do a task from beginning to end without interruptions.	I feel complete when I can bring closure to a task.	Nothing feels better than crossing an item off my to-do list.

Source: Johnston 2010: 39.

Table 3. Sequence Pattern Avoid Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
Why practice?	I avoid directions and practicing.	I feel I'm wasting my time.	Do I have to do it again?
These directions make no sense!	I ignore directions and written plans, such as a syllabus.	I feel confused by the directions.	What do you mean I have to follow these directions?
Why can't I just jump in?	I begin a task where I am most comfortable.	I don't feel the need to start by using only one entry point.	Does it really matter what I do first?

Source: Johnston 2010: 39.

Table 4. Precision Pattern Use-First Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
I think in information.	I challenge statements and ideas that I doubt.	I thrive on knowledge.	I need more information.
Do I have all the information?	I ask many questions.	I feel confident when I have accurate information.	What is…?
I leave no piece of information unread.	I write things down.	I like people to share information with me.	I am currently reading three different books on…

Source: Johnston 2010: 40.

Table 5. Precision Pattern Avoid Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
Do I have to read all of this?	I don't have specific answers.	I am overwhelmed when confronted with details.	Don't expect me to know names and dates!
How am I going to remember all of this?	I skim instead of reading details.	I fear looking stupid.	Do all these details matter?
Who cares about all this stuff?	I take few, if any, notes.	I become frustrated trying to find the one right answer.	Stop asking me so many questions!

Source: Johnston 2010: 40.

Table 6. Technical Reasoning Pattern Use-First Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
I think of a situation as a puzzle to be solved.	I size up the situation and solve the problem.	I feel satisfaction when I have solved a problem.	Good job! Bring on the next problem.
I think: How practical is this?	I look for relevance.	I feel useful when the task has purpose.	How will I ever use this in the real world?
I want to know how something works.	I tinker with the object.	I enjoy discovering its function.	What a great design!

Source: Johnston 2010: 41.

Table 7. Technical Reasoning Pattern Avoid Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
I don't think 'repair', I think 'replace'.	I avoid using tools or instruments.	I am inept.	If it is broken, throw it away!
Can anyone help me figure this out?	I can describe a problem but struggle to solve it.	I hate problem solving.	I'm an educated person; I should be able to do this!
Why do I have to assemble this?	I rely on the directions to help me succeed.	I lack the confidence to construct things.	I need written directions not just pictures!

Source: Johnston 2010: 41.

Table 8. Confluence Pattern Use-First Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
I think: to risk is to learn.	I take risks.	I am not afraid to risk and fail.	Nothing ventured; nothing gained!
I think outside the box.	I brainstorm. I let my mind wander without boundaries.	I feel energized by possibilities that are still in the idea stage.	I have an idea. No, wait! I have an even better idea!
I connect things that are seemingly unrelated.	I read over, under, around, and between the lines.	I revel in connecting the dots!	Think big picture!

Source: Johnston 2010: 42.

Table 9. Confluence Pattern Avoid Characteristics

(Cognition) How you think	(Conation) How you act	(Affectation) How you feel	What you might say
Where is the focus?	I look for the purpose.	I feel unsettled.	Let's stay focused!
What do you mean, imagine?	I avoid the unknown.	My head is in a whirl!	Where did that idea come from?
Who is in control?	I operate with clear goals and a single laser like focus.	No more changes or surprises, please!	This is out of control!

Source: Johnston 2010: 42.

Tables 2–9 provide person-specific pattern descriptions (Johnston 2021). Unlike measures of personality, multiple intelligences, or learning styles, the ILM theory identifies the learner's interactive learning patterns and teaches them to use their new self-awareness with intention. The ILM theory accomplishes this by revealing to learners the internal chatter of their learning patterns and then coaching them to use this micro-level of metacognition to manage their learning more effectively.

2.3. Metacognition: The power to direct learning experiences

Metacognition is the means by which learners gain their awareness of how to develop and use their learning to the fullest capacity (Flavell 1979). Its use develops a learner's ability to self-regulate, reflect, strategize, and respond appropriately to any learning situation. Brown describes it as "the ability to have insight into your ability to learn intentionally; to reflect and monitor your internal learning activities; that is, to plan, orchestrate, or oversee your own learning efforts" (after Scanlon 2004: 76). Hennessey (1999: 6) contends that metacognition is, "an inner awareness of one's own unobservable learning constructs". As the NRC (1999: 14) reports, "Metacognition often takes the form of an internal conversation… one in which individuals note failures, activate knowledge, plan ahead, and apportion time and memory".

The ILM theory depicts the act of metacognition as the internal talk of an individual's learning patterns as they direct their pattern-centric talk to each other and vie to lead the learning experience. Table 10 depicts the pattern chatter and the interaction of the learning patterns within an L2 learner's mind (Auchère 2021).

Table 10. The pattern chatter and the interaction of the learning patterns within an L2 learner's mind

NBA Degree of Use and Scores	–	SEQUENCE Use First	PRECISION Use First	TECHNICAL REASONING Use as Needed	CONFLUENCE Use First
Metacognitive Recall	The Task L2 Application	Chatter	Chatter	Chatter	Chatter
What chatter was occurring among your learning patterns?	Carry out a conversation and write in English	This is complicated translating every sentence from French to English in my head before I speak.	I can learn composition skills by reading English subtitles off the screen!	I don't have to understand every word I'm hearing. I can understand the context with things other than words.	I can use lyrics from songs to learn the language!

Source: based on Auchère 2021.

By having individuals complete pattern tables of this nature, both the instructor and student have a means by which to express their self-awareness. An external expression of pattern speech artifacts allows individuals to bring to light and examine what is driving their response to a given learning experience or activity. Further, it enables them to address their feelings, negotiate or restructure the activity, and resolve any pattern conflicts (Paris & Winograd 1990). Numerous studies conducted on the effects of the ILM theory on the development of learner self-awareness and academic achievement in STEM (science, technology, engineering and math), and other foundational academic subjects (writing and reading), have reported that students who used their self-awareness as a learner with intention experienced a statistically significant improvement on assessments ranging from high stakes tests to team performance (teams engaged in lab work, engineering competitions, and in-class projects (Ward 2009; Newell, Dahm & Harvey 2004; McSweeney 2005). These studies suggest that L2 learners might also benefit from the application of the ILM theory to their L2 acquisition experience.

2.4. Other theories of L2 learning

A review of other theories of L2 learning found that there is no agreement on how we learn language. While there is no unified conceptualization or robust theory of L2 learning, there are a number of theories that focus on L2 learning. Chief among them is Krashen's 5 Hypotheses (1982) which posit that traditional textbook

guided L2 learning (Learning) is not effective. Instead, Krashen favors an inductive approach, also described as spontaneous or natural, "learning in situ" as the most effective L2 method (Acquisition) (Johnson 2016). Krashen labels the phases of his 5 Hypotheses Acquisition-Learning, Monitor, Input, Affective Filter, and Natural Orders. After careful review, Krashen's hypotheses leave the reader asking: *Where is the science that links these hypotheses to a comprehensive theory of L2 learning? How do these constructs operate at the micro level within the mind of the L2 learner?*

Figure 4 illustrates Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition (after Schütz 2019) in chart form juxtaposing the ILM theory against both the traditional approach of L2 Learning against and Krashen's Acquisition hypothesis. By charting the three, the reader can compare how each approach to L2 learning addresses or fails to address how their theory or set of hypotheses increases the L2 learner's growth in self-awareness.

LEARNING		INTERACTIVE LEARNING MODEL		ACQUISITION
Artificial	⇄	Students use their self-awareness of their learning patterns (mental operations) to *consciously* chose the most authentic and effective L2 learning techniques	⇄	Natural
Technical	⇄	Intrapersonal and interpersonal	⇄	Personal
Priority on written language	⇄	Priority: Use self-awareness to grow, develop, and succeed in L2 learning	⇄	Priority on spoken language
Theory (language analysis)	⇄	Interactive Learning Model theory	⇄	Practice (language in use)
Formal instruction	⇄	L2 intentional use of interactive mental operations	⇄	Meaningful interaction
Deductive Teaching (rule-driven, top-down)	⇄	Synthesis of deductive and inductive learning driven by the L2 learner rather than the instructor	⇄	Inductive coaching (rule-discovery; bottom-up)
Conscious process	⇄	Metacognitive self-awareness (consciously listens to the chatter among one's learning patterns)	⇄	Subconscious process
Preset syllabus	⇄	Combination of preset and improvised activities	⇄	Learner-centered activities with room for improvisation

Figure 4. Where the Interactive Learning Model fits between the traditional and Krashen's L2 learning model

Source: Schütz 2019.

3. THE METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The study reported here examines the cases of three L2 learners (ages 22–60) and explores their growth in self-awareness over a 15–20 year period. It relates their first-hand introduction to L2 learning and traces the growth that led to a more advanced L2 level. Next, the subjects identify how they were introduced to the concept of their learning patterns and how each grew to use them with intention. Finally, each subject provides metacognitively generated reflections on the pattern chatter in their minds. Further, this study provides evidence of the subjects' self-awareness at the ILM micro level. For the sake of participant anonymity, the participants are referred to by means of pseudonyms.

Prior to the study, the participants provided their Learning Connections Inventory (LCI) scores and discussed their understanding of their learning combination. Then three phases of the research followed.

Phase I Personal Narrative
The study subjects then composed a personal narrative, in which they recounted their benchmark L2 learning experiences in chronological order. They were then asked to expand their initial responses by answering six questions that drilled down on their actual learning experiences. The questions ranged from learning vocabulary and grammar to initial and on-going experiences with oral language (hearing and comprehending the language in music, film, etc.) and through personal interaction.

Phase II Data Analysis
In Phase II, the subjects analyzed their personal narrative looking for evidence of their learning patterns unobtrusively embedded in their written responses. They colour-coded phrases and single words using a standard ILM protocol for determining which learning pattern it represented. Within their written responses they identified evidence of metacognitive chatter and pattern artifacts. Finally, they reflected on the extent their data reinforced and/or provided them with a greater sense of self-awareness as L2 learners.

Phase III Insights
In the final phase, the subjects recorded how they currently use their L2 skills in their professional settings. Each identified the extent to which their pattern knowledge and conscious development of their metacognitive skills had heightened the use of their L2 awareness within a professional context.

In the data section which follows, we present data collected from the subject in the order of the phases.

4. DATA COLLECTED[1]

4.1. NTJ

NTJ became aware of his learning patterns at age eight. His narrative reflects his degree of metacognitive self-awareness as an L2 learner and teacher. Table 11 reports the degree to which he uses each of his learning patterns as determined by the Learning Connection Inventory.

Table 11. NTJ's LCI Patterns: Measured degree of use

Case ID	Sequence	Precision	Technical Reasoning	Confluence	L2 Application/ Vocation
NTJ	Use as Needed	Use First	Use as Needed	Use First	L2 Instructor of English in French Second-ary School (TAPIF)

NTJ is a native English speaker who explains: *I hadn't known much about the French language or culture, and simply chose it by chance as my language requirement.* His motivation to accelerate his L2 experience came as a result of his first two semesters (32 weeks) of guided instruction:

> During my initial exposure to the French language, I developed a growing interest in the language fueled by my passionate curiosity in linguistics. I actually enjoyed picking apart and re-constructing parts of a language new to me. I resonated with learning the patterns and order of the language. In college, I specialized in studying translation and interpretation. My collegiate language acquisition also included two immersive study abroad experiences: at the Université de Nice Sophia Antipolis in the Faculté de Lettres (2018), and 5 months in Bordeaux at the Université Bordeaux-Montaigne (2019).

A scenario each participant in the study was asked to respond to was, "Recall the first time you were asked to speak with a native speaker. What was the internal chatter that occurred within your mind?" Table 12 represents NTJ's metacognitive thoughts designated by learning pattern chatter.

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[1] The quotations from primary sources, i.e. the narratives and reflections of the examined individuals, are marked in italics.

Table 12. NTJ's coded responses to Q. 5 Indicating metacognitive pattern chatter

Metacognitive Recall	The Task	Sequence Chatter	Precision Chatter	Technical Reasoning Chatter	Confluence Chatter
Reconstruct what was occurring within your mind the first time you spoke to a native speaker.	*I need to ask the server a question after dining.*	*It's a good thing I thought of this scenario ahead of time. At least I've practiced it in my head.*	*I know the correct vocab. I'm almost certain. Just use clear pronunciation and then listen carefully to her response.*	*Let's be practical, here. The server doesn't care if I'm fluent in French. Just ask the question.*	*I just need to speak and not worry about taking a risk and embarrassing myself.*

In his narrative, NJT unfolds also on L2 benchmark experiences:

One area of L2 learning that caused frustration was correcting my essays. When I made an inaccurate translation, I'd have my paper returned with sentences underlined and the comment, 'This doesn't sound French.' I would propose other solutions only to have my professor say she 'didn't know what to fix, but that it sounded off'. This used to drive me up the wall because it was a worst-case scenario for both my Use First Precision and my Use First Confluence. I was wrong (Precision), but I couldn't get more information to rectify my error, and my risks (Confluence) hadn't paid off. Then came my opportunities to study abroad and with them came the means to resolve my frustration of not knowing 'what sounded French'. Once in France I was eating, shopping, exploring, and learning, in every sense of the word consuming another language. I started to build an internal grit that resisted the temptation to completely understand a new expression and instead focus more on when and where it's used. I learned to partner the 'learn by experience' aspect of my quietest pattern (Technical Reasoning) with my Use First Precision and identified how the seeds of experience helped my mind make the fine distinctions necessary to be a successful L2 learner. This was a significant moment of self-awareness for me.

With reference to his professional application, NTJ explains:

After college graduation, I was accepted to the Teaching Assistant Program In France (TAPIF) for 2020-2021. Currently, I assist seven English teachers between a vocational high school and a middle school in Orleans, France. I interact with hundreds of L2 learners and am continuously immersed in the language. I seek to use my self-awareness to help them advance in their second-language acquisition.

4.2. JTJ

JTJ became aware of his learning patterns in graduate school and uses his L2 skills and ILM self-awareness as a part of his interactions with German friends when participating at international conferences. Table 13 represents the degree to which JTJ uses each of his learning patterns as identified by the LCI.

Table 13. JTJ's LCI Patterns: Measured degree of use

Case ID	Sequence	Precision	Technical Reasoning	Confluence	L2 Application/ Vocation
JTJ	Use First	Use First	Avoid	Avoid	Executive Director, of an educational service, NGO

JTJ's journey to achieving L2 fluency began in his junior year of high school, when he enrolled in a German class and after one year of traditional foreign language instruction was chosen to spend 12 months in Germany sponsored by the US Congress-German Bundestag Program (USC-GB). After his second month living with his host family, they stopped speaking English – forcing him to *speak the language and learn the vocabulary and grammar* since his host family had enrolled him in a gymnasium. Within three months of his arrival in Germany, the *[Berlin] wall came down* and shortly afterwards, he participated in an L2 class on German along with immigrants from Russia and Poland. He surmises that,

> learning German with these students was very helpful because we were doing so at a slower pace which meant we could become more familiar with the sounds and where words were breaking. As the year progressed, I suddenly, really got it. I was not fluent, but the language just seemed to slow down for me, and my precision was no longer flustered by the speed of the spoken language.

JTJ's initial experience using his L2 skills is recorded in Table 14. His metacognitive pattern chatter reveals his use of Sequence to prepare, his desire to be correct, and his concern that he will embarrass himself.

In his narrative, JTJ unfolds also on benchmark experiences:

> As I analyze my L2 learning experience through the lens of my ILM self-awareness, I recall my host parents' frustration with me because I was trying to understand every word and by doing so, I was failing to get the big picture. Had I understood my learning patterns, I would have known that my Use First 'need to know every word' Precision was actually preventing me from wrapping my mind around the

conversation I was hearing. In addition, my Avoid level of Confluence would not let me take the risk of being wrong. Another insight I have had involves my unwillingness to invest in learning German grammar. I used to complain that grammar is so perfunctory, until 20 years later in grad school when my self-awareness kicked in. In my teens, I saw grammar as something very mechanical, represented with diagrams of sentence structures, and, since I Avoid Technical Reasoning, I set myself up to dislike grammar. I also thought grammar was all about rules and exceptions to the rules. What I did not realize was that my same Use First Sequence and Precision that helped me practice and memorize vocabulary could help me see the patterned structure of grammar and memorize those grammar exceptions. As I reflect on that aspect of my L2 development, I recognize that a learning pattern-based strategy could have changed my affective response to learning German grammar.

Table 14. JTJ's coded responses to Q.5 indicating metacognitive pattern chatter

Metacogni-tive Recall	The Task	Sequence Chatter	Precision Chatter	Technical Reasoning Chatter	Confluence Chatter
Reconstruct what was occurring within your mind the first time you spoke to a native speaker.	Go into the open-air market and purchase an item (Wiesbaden)	I'll rehearse what I'm going to say. I'd better rehearse possible responses to the seller too.	What do I need to say? What are they going to say back to me? What if they use words I don't know?	I can figure out how to build a conversation something you'd actually say in a market. If I pan it, I can do it	I've got to try this. It probably won't go very well. I could embarrass myself.

When taking about his professional application, he explains:

My interest in speaking German has remained high due to my family heritage, interest in travel, and my need to communicate with German speaking friends and business clientele as business opportunities arise. I take pride in working to maintain my L2 fluency by listening to German radio, watching German sports, and reading German news publications.

4.3. GBK

GBK became aware of the ILM theory fifteen years ago as a participant in an EU sponsored Grundtvig Project. She uses her ILM self-awareness within her EU sponsored Intercultural Projects (SPICES 2007; RADAR 2016; DREAMM 2021). The degree to which GBK uses each learning pattern is reflected in Table 15.

Table 15. GBK's LCI patterns: Measured degree of use

Case ID	Sequence	Precision	Technical Reasoning	Confluence	L2 Application/ Vocation
GBK	Use First	Use First	Use First	Use First	Coordinator of EU Intercultural Communication projects

GBK grew up in a multi-language environment, so it is not surprising that she chose to enter the field of sociolinguistics. In her narrative, she explains

> sociolinguistics encompasses many competences: sociology, anthropology, different linguistic approaches… It has quantitative and qualitative approaches; it includes not only theory but also empirical studies; all learning patterns fit perfectly into this panorama, and when you have them all as Use First, I would say you have a big advantage in dealing with this kind of scholarly field.

GBK's narrative was similar to NTJ's and JTJ's in that she was able to identify specific L2 learning experiences where a knowledge of ILM would have helped her wrap her mind around Arabic (which she reflected ran counter to her Sequence, Confluence, and Technical Reasoning as she was not given the opportunity to practice it with native speakers) and Chinese (which was too tedious to learn and required more focus than her Use First Confluence was willing to devote). Table 16 captures GBK's metacognitive chatter decoded by Pattern. Her confidence in her L2 use is clearly represented in her metacognitive pattern chatter in Table 16.

Table 16. GBK's coded responses to Q.5 indicating metacognitive pattern chatter

Metacognitive Recall	The Task	Sequence Chatter	Precision Chatter	Technical Reasoning Chatter	Confluence Chatter
Reconstruct what was occurring within your mind the first time you spoke to a native speaker.	Learn the sentence and construction rules of a language.	I can already form sentences in this language. That was easy! It's similar to….	How do you say…? Really? I wonder why they say it that way?	I can figure out this language. Well, I have to so I can do some basic shopping.	I like talking to these native speakers. I'm not concerned about making mistakes.

GBK's narrative was similar in its examples of L2 benchmark experiences, i.e., her Precision's fear of speaking to native speakers if she were not certain of specific idiomatic distinctions, or her Use First Confluence talking back to her

Precision stating: *I really don't care if I'm making a mistake, I'm not going to worry about it*. However, the content of her narrative differed from NTJ's and JTJ's in the degree to which her ILM self-awareness informs her personal and professional life, as she wrote:

> Since both my husband and I use all four patterns at the Use First level, we sometimes struggle working together; on the other side, knowing that he is higher in Technical Reasoning and Sequence, while I am higher than him in Precision and Confluence, I better can foresee when we need to integrate our learning patterns to make progress.

GBK's self-awareness also feeds her realization how she manages her EU sponsored intercultural communication projects.

When it comes to her professional application, GBK uses ILM awareness to plan content and activities for the migrant population with whom she works that takes into consideration the combination of learning patterns of her clients and guides her decisions on how to manage and communicate with her clients and project partners:

> In all learning/teaching materials, I take into account how learners with very different pattern combinations can use their learning patterns to develop their cultural and language integration. Since all projects revolve around communication (interpersonal and visual) in an intercultural perspective, also considering that the difference in communicating/interacting with others is not only culturally influenced, but also in relationship to one's learning pattern(s).

5. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

All three subjects have Precision at the Use First level. This is the pattern that values words and their correct usage. In language learning, it would appear that a Use First level of Precision would be to an L2 learner's advantage. Interestingly in this study, each subject found Use First Precision to both assist and detract from different aspects of their L2 learning. In their reflections, each provided examples of how their use of Precision helped them develop their vocabulary; however, each also noted how their Use First Precision caused them frustration. The evidence of this two-fold effect is found in their reflections which follow. As they examined the effects of their other patterns on their Use First Precision, each noted the cumulative effect of these results on their L2 self-awareness.

NTJ in his personal narrative explains he used his Use First level of Precision to *immerse sic (himself) in the basic studying of subjects, objects, verb tenses, and a hearty helping of vocabulary and grammar*. He allowed his Use First pattern of Confluence to give his Precision permission to make mistakes with the rationale, *so I can learn from it*. He hypothesizes that his two Use First learning patterns are the reason for his fascination with translation and interpretation:

> Reflecting on this, I recognize that my Precision was nurtured for the first two years of L2 study by learning basic linguistic foundations, but I needed even more details and information, more 'toys' for my Confluence for me to remain engaged and not become bored or grow stagnant so study abroad became an equally essential aspect of my L2 experience.

In contrast, JTJ relates in his narrative that his Use First Precision triggered his initial venture into L2 learning, and he enjoyed using it to learn vocabulary. However, unlike NTJ's use of Precision, JTJ's both helped and frustrated him, particularly when it came to knowing the precise gender of German nouns. His situation was further compounded by his other Use First pattern, Sequence (the pattern of rules and structure). It "wanted" the rules for the gender of nouns to be logical and consistent. Finally, his learning of grammar was stymied because he saw it as requiring the use of Technical Reasoning, a learning pattern he avoided. While JTJ was cognitively capable of memorizing this information, his patterns of Precision, Sequence, and Technical Reasoning negatively affected his willingness to invest the time to do so. JTJ's case presents an example of how a learner's self-awareness of learning patterns could have helped resolve his frustration. Years later, JTJ reflects, *I recognize now what a difference knowing my learning patterns would have made in establishing a better attitude toward the learning of the language beyond just vocabulary. I would have applied myself instead of giving up and making do*.

Finally, GBK believes it is her Technical Reasoning that motivates her to use sociolinguistics in practical ways to improve people's lives. In her reflection, she posited the following premises:

> Premise A: Migrants have difficulties interacting with civil servants / service providers. Premise B: Civil servants / public and private service providers have difficulties interacting with migrants. Private and public service is the intersection where integration of migrants into their new socio-cultural context fails or succeeds. Therefore, I have chosen to use my ILM self-awareness to help migrants learn how to use their learning patterns and to correctly fill out forms and conduct over the counter interactions. This is a concrete approach to solving an intercultural communication problem. It works. It satisfies all my patterns, and it works!

6. CONCLUSION

While many variables affect L2 learning, one factor appears to be more determinative of increasing self-awareness than others – and that is how L2 learners consciously or subconsciously use their learning patterns to metacognitively direct their learning experiences. Clearly three cases are not sufficient to draw broad conclusions; however, this work along with Camilleri's (2003) original study of nineteen L2 learners and the effect of their knowledge of their learning patterns on their academic persistence and achievement, suggests that additional studies are warranted. According to the present study, three principal issues are worth examining: 1) the power and influence of metacognition to accelerate an individual's ability to achieve L2 competency; 2) the long-term effects of knowing one's learning patterns and applying them with intention to real life learning settings (work, coaching, relationships); and the impact on L2 achievement when both instructors, or coaches, or mentors, and their students are aware of their learning patterns and strive to use them with intention.

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La politique du multilinguisme dans le système éducatif polonais

Multilingual policy in the Polish education system

ABSTRACT. The aim of this article is to reflect on the implementation modalities of educational policy promoting multilingualism in Poland, a country where linguistic and cultural variety remains relatively low. The article begins with a definition of the concept of "language policy". Subsequently, the European Union's directives promoting the policy of multilingualism in the educational context are presented. In this part, the focus is on the following aspects: modern foreign languages, regional and minority languages, certification of language skills and teaching of a curriculum subject integrated into foreign language instruction. The last part of the article concentrates on the implementation of the said directives in Poland. In the research, the author relies on statistical data from various sources to demonstrate that - even if Poland is considered a country where linguistic and cultural variety remains low - foreign (in a broad sense of the term), regional and minority languages are regaining their rightful place in the functioning of the state, including in the Polish education system.

KEYWORDS: language policy, multilingualism, school, Poland.

MOTS-CLÉS : politique linguistique, multilinguisme, école, Pologne.

1. INTRODUCTION

L'objectif du présent article est de présenter la notion de politique linguistique sur l'exemple de la Pologne dont le paysage linguistique peut sembler peu varié. Pour ce faire, nous définirons brièvement le concept de politique linguistique, tout en mettant l'accent sur son caractère dynamique et multidimensionnel. Ensuite, nous présenterons les axes de ladite politique, promus par l'Union européenne, à savoir : l'enseignement/apprentissage des langues étrangères vivantes, régionales et minoritaires, de même que les principes de l'enseignement d'une matière intégré à une langue (EMILE). Cela nous permettra de passer à la présentation de quelle façon les principes ci-mentionnés sont mis en place en Pologne, un des pays membres de l'UE depuis 2004. Comme la Pologne est un

pays où les diversités linguistique et culturelle sont peu variées, la question de la politique linguistique, analysée du point de vue éducatif, nous paraît intéressante. Dans notre texte, nous nous référerons à des données venant de sources diverses. C'est la raison pour laquelle elles ne sont pas toujours complètes ou peuvent paraître anciennes. Force est quand même de constater qu'il est difficile d'accéder aux données les plus récentes relatives à l'enseignement/apprentissage des langues minoritaires/régionales, car c'est une question souvent négligée par les autorités éducatives. Il en résulte que dans l'article, nous ne nous référons qu'à des données disponibles pour montrer le paysage linguistique de la Pologne dans le contexte éducatif, ce qui constitue le noyau central de nos réflexions. Pour la même raison, nous ne nous concentrons pas non plus sur les approches didactiques qui pourraient être mises en place dans le cadre de la politique du multilinguisme. Nous sommes persuadé qu'elles pourraient constituer un champ d'investigations à part, d'autant plus que les recherches concernant le sujet en question sont peu nombreuses, surtout dans le contexte éducatif polonais.

2. LA NOTION DE POLITIQUE LINGUISTIQUE

Aborder la question de la politique linguistique nécessite de se mettre d'accord sur le vocable en question. Comme le remarque – à juste titre – J.-C. Beacco (2016 : 10–12), la notion de politique linguistique puise dans les apports de la sociolinguistique qui « peut être appréhendée globalement en tant qu'une étude du langage comme fait social ou en relation avec la société » (Beacco 2016 : 11). En effet, les résultats de plusieurs recherches menées dans le cadre de la sociolinguistique – dans le sens large du terme – peuvent être exploités lors de l'élaboration des politiques linguistiques. Il est notamment question des domaines de recherches tels que : les contacts des langues, le phénomène de véhicularisation ou vernacularisation langagière, l'emploi alterné des langues ou les pratiques linguistiques dans les communautés plurilingues (y compris les communautés immigrées). Bref, il est question des objets de recherche qui sont importants du point de vue de la société ou d'un groupe social donné et qui permettent de proposer certaines modalités de leur fonctionnement. Ainsi,

> la notion de politique linguistique, appliquée en général à l'action d'un État, désigne les choix, les objectifs, les orientations qui sont ceux de cet État en matière de langue(s), choix, objectifs et orientations, suscités en général (mais pas obligatoirement) par une situation intra- ou intercommunautaire préoccupante en matière linguistique (…) ou parfois même ouvertement conflictuelle […] (Boyer 2010 : 67).

Il s'ensuit alors que la politique linguistique englobe toutes les décisions prises par les autorités concernant l'utilisation des langues sur un territoire donné.

Cela nous pousse à nous pencher sur deux notions : celle de corpus et celle de statut de la langue, car les actions d'aménagement linguistique oscillent entre ces deux vocables. Par statut, il faut entendre toutes les formes systémiques (dues à la standardisation) de la langue en question tandis que l'usage se réfère à l'emploi social de la langue (Eloy 1997 : 10–12 ; Beacco 2016 : 13–14). Néanmoins, depuis un certain temps, dans le contexte des politiques linguistiques, l'accent est le plus souvent mis sur le côté social de la langue qui couvre, entre autres, les pratiques langagières des communautés (par exemple, les modalités de sélection des variétés langagières), leurs croyances et idéologies ou encore différentes façons d'influencer les pratiques langagières d'une communauté (Beacco 2016 : 20–21).

Vu le sujet du présent article, il convient de constater que la notion de politique linguistique se réfère également aux systèmes éducatifs, au sens où la politique définit la place occupée par les langues à l'école, de même que leurs modalités d'enseignement/apprentissage. Les auteurs du document du Conseil de l'Europe *Guide pour l'élaboration des politiques linguistiques éducatives en Europe* (2007) partagent cette opinion en ajoutant l'éducation à un des champs de la politique linguistique. Cette dernière est définie, dans ledit document, comme « une action volontaire, officielle ou militante, destinée à intervenir sur les langues quelles qu'elles soient (nationales, régionales minoritaires, étrangères…) dans leurs formes (les systèmes d'écriture, par exemple), dans leurs fonctions sociales (choix d'une langue comme langue officielle) ou dans leur place d'enseignement. » (Beacco et Byram 2007 : 17).

Il s'ensuit du passage qui précède que la politique linguistique devrait également couvrir l'enseignement/apprentissage des langues (nationales, régionales, minoritaires et étrangères dans le sens large du terme) tout en tenant compte de leurs caractéristiques résultant à la fois du corpus et du statut. Ce point de vue est repris par le Conseil de l'Europe dont la mission principale est de veiller sur la défense et la promotion des valeurs fondamentales de la communauté dont le multilinguisme fait partie.

3. LA POLITIQUE LINGUISTIQUE DE L'UNION EUROPEENNE

Étant donné le caractère hétérogène de la Communauté et la grande mobilité de ses citoyens, le multilinguisme est inscrit de manière permanente dans le quotidien des Européens. Pour cette raison, c'est le caractère multilingue de l'Union européenne qui garantit son fonctionnement cohérent et qui – par voie de conséquence – devrait être protégé et cultivé. Il va donc de soi que c'est le multilinguisme qui devrait se placer au centre de la politique linguistique actuelle, notamment celle qui concerne les systèmes éducatifs. Les auteurs du *Cadre*

européen commun de référence (2001) (désormais le CECR) le définissent en tant que « connaissance d'un certain nombre de langues ou la coexistence de langues différentes dans une société. On peut arriver au multilinguisme simplement en diversifiant l'offre de langues dans une école ou un système éducatif donnés, ou en encourageant les élèves à étudier plus d'une langue étrangère, ou en réduisant la place dominante de l'anglais dans la communication internationale. » (CECR 2001 : 11). Il s'ensuit donc que c'est l'école qui est l'endroit privilégié pour la promotion du multilinguisme. En effet, toutes les actions entreprises par les autorités nationales reflètent les axes principaux de la politique linguistique de l'Union européenne, ce qui est surtout visible dans les domaines suivants : enseignement/apprentissage des langues étrangères vivantes, enseignement/apprentissage des langues régionales et minoritaires, certification des compétences langagières et enseignement d'une matière intégré à une langue (désormais EMILE).

3.1. Des langues étrangères vivantes

En réfléchissant sur la politique linguistique promouvant le multilinguisme, il semble nécessaire de souligner l'importance des conclusions de la présidence du Conseil européen, formulées lors du sommet à Barcelone en mars 2002. En effet, les pays membres sont encouragés à modifier leurs politiques éducatives pour « améliorer la maîtrise des compétences de base, notamment par l'enseignement d'au moins deux langues étrangères dès le plus jeune âge »[1]. Formulée de cette façon, la conclusion en question change significativement la réalité éducative. D'un côté, l'accent est mis sur le processus d'enseignement/apprentissage précoce des langues étrangères vivantes ; de l'autre, on redéfinit la notion de compétence de communication qui englobe, outre la langue maternelle des apprenants, la connaissance de deux autres langues (Kucharczyk 2018 : 24). Dans les tableaux qui suivent, nous présentons des données statistiques relatives au nombre d'élèves apprenant des langues étrangères lors de leur parcours scolaire obligatoire.

Tableau 1. Pourcentage d'élèves apprenant des LVE à l'école primaire en Europe

Nombre de langues apprises au niveau primaire – UE	Pourcentage d'élèves [%]			
	année 2005	**année 2007**	**année 2010**	**année 2014**
0	32,60	29,70	21,80	16,3
1	64,70	62,70	72,10	79,2
2	2,80	3,10	6,10	4,6

Sources : Eurydice 2012 : 58 ; Eurydice 2017 : 165.

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[1] https://www.consilium.europa.eu/media/20935/71026.pdf [accès : 27.10.2019].

Tableau 2. Pourcentage d'élèves apprenant des LVE à l'école secondaire du 1er cycle en Europe

Nombre de langues apprises au niveau secondaire (1 cycle) – UE	Pourcentage d'élèves [%]			
	année 2005	année 2007	année 2010	année 2014
0	1, 2	1,2	1,8	1,4
1	52, 0	44,8	37, 4	38,9
2	46,7	54, 0	60,8	59,7

Sources : Eurydice 2012 : 67 ; Eurydice 2017 : 166.

Tableau 3. Pourcentage d'élèves apprenant des LVE à l'école secondaire du 2e cycle en Europe

Nombre de langues apprises au niveau secondaire (2 cycle) – UE	Pourcentage d'élèves [%]			
	année 2005	année 2007	année 2010	année 2014
0	4,6	2,5	3,6	2,9
1	33,3	34,8	36,9	28,4
2	62,2	62,6	59,4	68,7

Sources : Eurydice 2012 : 71 ; Eurydice 2017 : 166.

Les données présentées ci-dessous montrent deux tendances :
- – de plus en en plus d'élèves apprennent au moins une langue étrangère à l'école,
- – les élèves étudiant au moins deux langues étrangères au niveau secondaire sont de plus en plus nombreux.

On peut donc supposer que la voie au multilinguisme dans le contexte éducatif se voit ouverte, mais comme le remarquent les auteurs du rapport Eurydice, le nombre d'heures de cours de LVE à l'école primaire reste relativement pauvre, ce qui résulte – dans la majorité des cas – des décisions politiques prises par les autorités de l'État.

3.2. Des langues régionales et minoritaires

La politique linguistique actuelle accorde également une place importante aux langues régionales et minoritaires qui sont traitées comme une valeur ajoutée à la diversité culturelle et linguistique de l'Union européenne et qui – par voie de conséquence – devraient être protégées vu le risque de leur disparition. Ce point de vue est adopté par la *Charte européenne des langues régionales ou minoritaires* (1992) qui oblige les pays membres qui l'ont ratifiée à protéger et valoriser les langues régionales et minoritaires présentes sur leur territoire, car ces langues

font partie intégrante du patrimoine national de la communauté en question. Il va donc de soi que les langues régionales et minoritaires retrouvent leur place légitime dans les systèmes éducatifs, car les pays qui ont ratifié la *Charte européenne des langues régionales ou minoritaires* sont censés proposer la formation (totale ou partielle) dans une langue minoritaire ou régionale. Il ne s'agit pas seulement des cours de matières non-linguistiques, mais aussi des cours de langues régionales ou minoritaires. Il faut quand même souligner que cette formation ne doit pas se faire au détriment des langues nationales (Kucharczyk 2018 : 39). Les statistiques fournies par le rapport Eurydice (2012) semblent confirmer que les langues minoritaires et régionales gagnent de l'importance dans les systèmes éducatifs européens car, dans presque les deux tiers des pays membres, elles sont intégrées dans les programmes scolaires :

> Dans presque les deux tiers des pays, les autorités éducatives centrales recommandent ou exigent que certaines langues régionales ou minoritaires, ou certaines langues dépourvues de territoires, soient incluses dans les programmes des établissements scolaires. Dans beaucoup de pays, toutes les langues bénéficiant d'un statut officiel figurent dans les recommandations ou dans les exigences relatives aux programmes d'études (Eurydice 2012 : 49).

3.3. La certification des compétences langagières

La promotion du multilinguisme dans le domaine éducatif est également visible au niveau de la standardisation du processus d'enseignement/apprentissage des langues dans les systèmes éducatifs européens. Il est surtout question du recours aux descripteurs de compétences langagières définis par les auteurs du CECR, qui constituent une sorte de cadre de référence pour la formation des enseignants de LVE, l'élaboration des curricula et des supports didactiques, de même que pour la construction des épreuves certificatives en LVE. Il est nécessaire de souligner que la majorité des pays membres teste le niveau des compétences langagières des apprenants à la fin d'une étape éducative donnée en se référant aux descripteurs fournis par le CECR. Il est alors possible non seulement de comparer les résultats obtenus par les élèves venant de différents pays, mais aussi de comparer les matrices des tests, ce qui peut déboucher sur un échange intéressant concernant la mise en place de la politique du multilinguisme. L'image ci-dessous montre les pays qui recourent aux descripteurs du CECR lors de la certification des compétences langagières des apprenants :
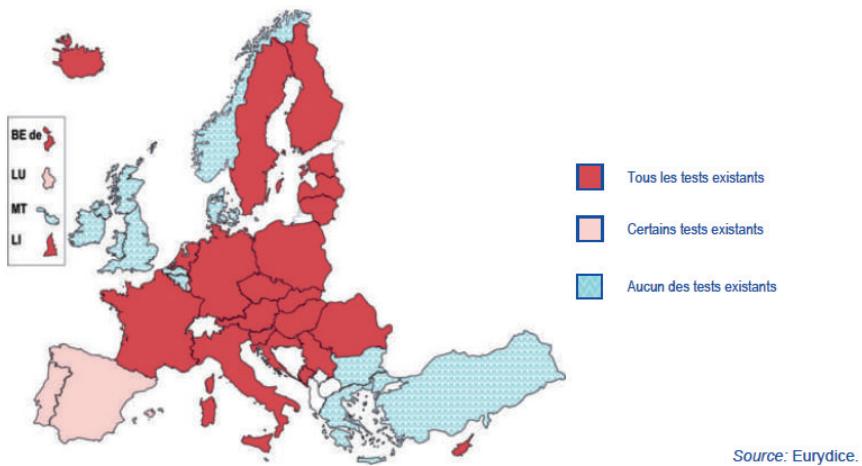
Source: Eurydice.

Figure 1. Pays dont les tests de compétences langagières se réfèrent aux descripteurs du CECR

Sources : Eurydice 2015 : 32.

3.4. L'enseignement d'une matière intégré à une langue (EMILE)

Proposer l'enseignement d'une discipline non linguistique dans une langue étrangère, régionale ou minoritaire n'est pas un phénomène nouveau. En effet, encore avant les années 1970, ce type d'enseignement était présent soit dans les régions à situation linguistique particulière comme les régions frontalières ou bilingues, soit dans les grandes villes pour permettre aux apprenants « d'acquérir des compétences linguistiques proches de celles dont disposent les locuteurs natifs » (Eurydice 2006 : 7). Cet enseignement, dit bilingue, était un enseignement élitiste, réservé à un groupe très restreint d'apprenants. Depuis les années 1990, on observe des changements dans les pratiques de l'éducation bilingue : « l'accent est mis sur le fait que la langue et la matière non linguistique sont toutes deux objets d'enseignement, sans qu'il y ait de préséance de l'une par rapport à l'autre. » (Eurydice 2006 : 7). Cette nouvelle modalité de travail, appelée Enseignement d'une Matière Intégré à une Langue Étrangère, demande une démarche réflexive non seulement de la part des enseignants, mais aussi des autorités qui décident de la politique linguistique du pays.

Les données montrent (Kucharczyk 2018 : 41–42) que, dans une grande majorité des pays européens, l'EMILE fait partie intégrante des systèmes éducatifs soit en tant qu'une des possibilités de parcours scolaire, soit en tant que projet pilote, ce que montre l'image ci-dessous :
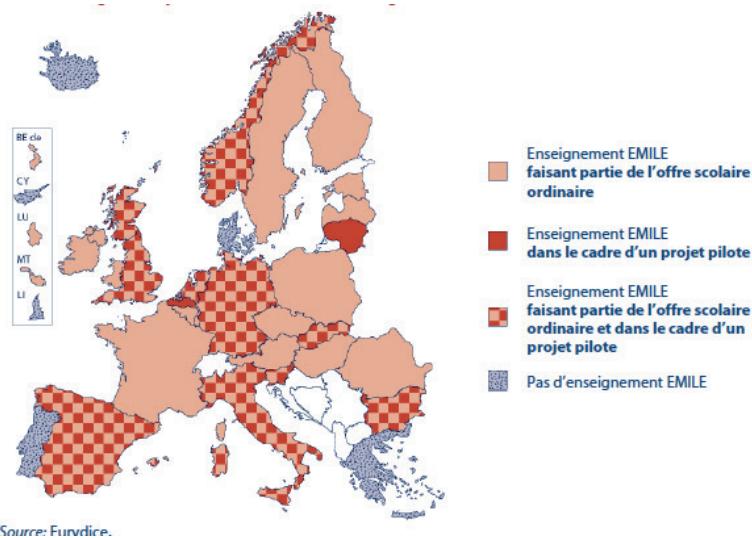
Figure 2. Statut de l'EMILE dans les pays européens

Source : EMILE 2006: 13.

Il est aussi important de souligner que, d'habitude, cette forme d'enseignement se déroule à travers les langues minoritaires ou régionales, ce qui est visible sur l'image ci-dessous :
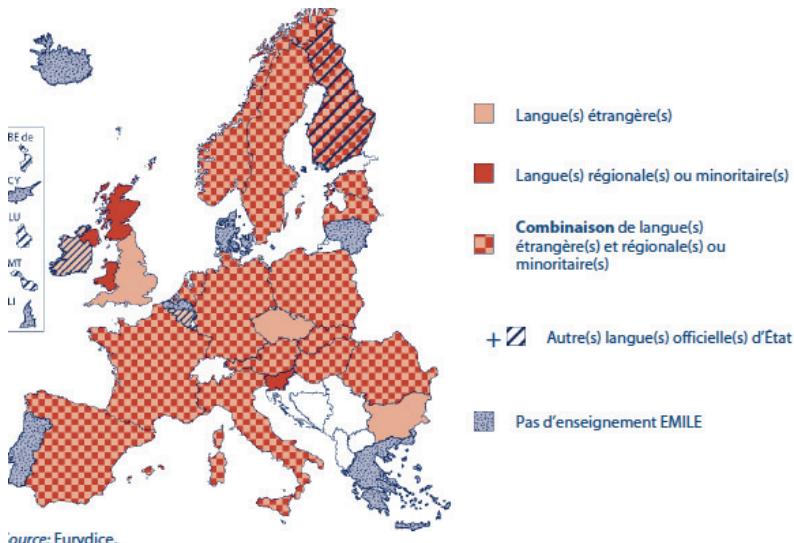
Figure 3. Langues utilisées dans l'EMILE

Source: Eurydice 2006: 17.

4. LA POLITIQUE LINGUISTIQUE DE LA POLOGNE

La Pologne, en tant que membre de la Communauté européenne depuis le mois de mai 2004, suit les axes principaux de la politique européenne, y compris les directives concernant la politique du multilinguisme ; ceci est avant tout visible dans la sphère éducative. Adopter des démarches visant le multilinguisme ne semble pas facile vu la basse variété linguistique et culturelle en Pologne. En effet, la Pologne peut être qualifiée de pays à faible variété linguistique et culturelle pour les raisons suivantes (Wojciechowska 2010 : 67 ; Kucharczyk 2016 : 250) :

– en Pologne, il existe une seule langue officielle, à savoir le polonais (en d'autres termes, c'est la langue qui est utilisée dans la vie publique, de même que dans l'éducation),

– 95 % des personnes habitant sur le territoire polonais se déclarent Polonais,

– 98 % des habitants de la Pologne considèrent que le polonais est leur langue maternelle et 99 % d'eux utilisent le polonais dans leur quotidien,

– il existe une seule langue régionale en Pologne : le kachoube,

– le nombre d'immigrants vivant sur le territoire de la République de la Pologne est relativement bas.

4.1. Les langues vivantes étrangères à l'école polonaise

Il résulte de ce qui précède que c'est l'école, en Pologne, qui est le lieu privilégié pour la promotion du multilinguisme. En effet, les élèves polonophones, lors de leur parcours scolaire, peuvent apprendre jusqu'à trois langues vivantes étrangères (désormais LVE). Ci-dessous, nous montrons l'organisation du processus d'enseignement/apprentissage des LVE à l'école polonaise :

Tableau 4. Organisation du processus d'enseignement/apprentissage des LVE à l'école polonaise

école primaire		lycée
classes 1-6	**classes 7-8**	**lycée**
LVE1		
	LVE2	
ou bien		
LVE1		LVE3
	LVE2	

Depuis l'année scolaire 2009/2010, les élèves polonophones apprennent une langue étrangère depuis leur entrée à l'école primaire à l'âge de 7 ans. Puis, 6 ans plus tard, ils commencent à apprendre une autre LVE dont ils peuvent continuer l'apprentissage à l'école secondaire. Suite à l'implémentation des directives européennes (conclusions du Conseil européen de 2002), le nombre d'élèves apprenant des LVE a significativement augmenté au cours des dernières années, ce que montrent les données dans les tableaux ci-dessous :

Tableau 5. Pourcentage d'élèves apprenant des LVE à l'école primaire en Pologne

Nombre de langues apprises au niveau primaire – PL	Pourcentage d'élèves [%]			
	année 2005	**année 2007**	**année 2010**	**année 2014**
0	–	45,5	2,3	2,3
1	–	52,3	83,8	86,8
2	–	1,3	13,9	11

Sources : Eurydice 2012 : 58 ; Eurydice 2017 : 165.

Tableau 6. Pourcentage d'élèves apprenant des LVE à l'école secondaire du 1er cycle en Pologne

Nombre de langues apprises au niveau secondaire (1 cycle) – UE	Pourcentage d'élèves [%]			
	année 2005	**année 2007**	**année 2010**	**année 2014**
0	–	1,9	1,8	1,7
1	–	89,6	32,9	4,7
2	–	8,5	65,3	93,7

Sources : Eurydice 2012 : 67 ; Eurydice 2017 : 166.

Tableau 7. Pourcentage d'élèves apprenant des LEV à l'école secondaire du 2e cycle en Pologne

Nombre de langues apprises au niveau secondaire (2 cycle) - UE	Pourcentage d'élèves [%]			
	année 2005	**année 2007**	**année 2010**	**année 2014**
0	–	0,8	2,7	2,9
1	–	19,9	24,9	28,4
2	–	79,3	72,4	68,7

Sources : Eurydice 2012 : 71 ; Eurydice 2017 : 166.

Néanmoins, force est de constater que, même si les apprenants polonophones apprenant deux ou plus de LVE sont de plus en plus nombreux, c'est l'anglais qui reste la LVE la plus souvent choisie par eux, ce que montrent les données présentées ci-dessous :

Tableau 8. Popularité des LVE à l'école polonaise

Langue	Année scolaire pourcentage d'élèves [%]				
	2005/2006	2010/2011	2012/2013	2015/2016	2019/2020
Anglais	65,9	89,0	93,2	94,9	91,8
Français	3,3	2,9	3,0	2,4	2,8
Allemand	33,6	36,4	38,2	33,7	35,4
russe	6,1	4,8	4,9	3,9	4,4

Source : *Oświata i wychowanie w roku szkolnym 2015/2016* : 102; Oświata i wychowanie w roku szkolnym 2019/2020 : 21.

4.2. La certification en langues vivantes étrangères à l'école polonaise

La promotion de la politique du multilinguisme à l'école polonaise est également visible dans l'organisation des examens externes en LVE. Comme le curriculum polonais pour les LVE se réfère aux niveaux de référence proposés par les concepteurs du CECR, il va de soi que les épreuves nationales le font aussi. L'organisation des examens externes en LVE en Pologne est montrée dans le tableau qui suit :

Tableau 9. Épreuves en LVE à l'école polonaise

École	Épreuve	Niveau du CECR	Épreuve obligatoire	Remarques
primaire	la même épreuve pour tous les apprenants	A2+/B1	oui	–
secondaire	baccalauréat – niveau de base	B1+/B2	oui	Cette épreuve est obligatoire pour les élèves qui ont décidé de se présenter au baccalauréat.
	baccalauréat – niveau avancé	B2+/C1	non	–
	baccalauréat – niveau bilingue	C1+/C2	non	–

4.3. Les langues minoritaires et régionales à l'école polonaise

Nous venons de constater que la Pologne se caractérise par un bas niveau de diversité linguistique et culturelle. Néanmoins, sur le territoire de la République de Pologne, on distingue des minorités nationales et ethniques (Kucharczyk 2020 : 92). Parmi les minorités nationales, on distingue les minorités suivantes

(dans l'ordre alphabétique) : arménienne, allemande, biélorusse, juive, lithua-nienne, russe, slovaque, tchèque et ukrainienne. En ce qui concerne les mino-rités ethniques, elles sont moins nombreuses : Karaïmes (pl. Karaimi), Lemkos (pl. Łemkowie), Roms (pl. Romowie) et Tatars (pl. Tatarzy).

Selon la loi polonaise, la minorité – qu'elle soit nationale ou ethnique – est moins nombreuse que l'ensemble des citoyens polonais et se distingue par sa propre langue, culture et tradition qu'elle cultive et protège. De plus, pour que la minorité donnée puisse jouir du statut officiel de minorité, elle doit être présente sur le territoire polonais depuis au moins 100 ans. La seule différence entre la minorité nationale et la minorité ethnique consiste en l'identification à la nation organisée au sein de son propre territoire : si les minorités nationales s'y identifient, ce n'est pas le cas pour les minorités ethniques.

Dans le tableau qui suit, nous présentons les données relatives aux minorités nationales et ethniques présentes sur le territoire polonais :

Tableau 10. Minorités nationales et ethniques en Pologne

Minorité		Appartenance à la minorité nationale/eth-nique déclarée en 2002	Utilisation de la langue minoritaire au foyer déclarée en 2002	Appartenance à la minorité nationale/eth-nique déclarée en 2012	Utilisation de la langue minoritaire au foyer déclarée en 2012
minorités nationales	allemande	147 094	196 841	144 236	96 461
	arménienne	262	321	1 683	1 847
	biélorusse	47 640	43 878	40 226	26 448
	juive	1 055	243	7 353	411
	lituanienne	5 639	5 696	5 696	5 303
	russe	3 244	12 125	8 796	19 805
	slovaque	1 710	794	2 739	765
	tchèque	386	1 226	2 831	1 451
	ukrainienne	27 172	21 055	38 795	24 539
minorités ethniques	Karaïmes	43	–	314	–
	Lemkos	5 850	5 605	9 640	6 279
	Roms	12 731	15 657	16 723	14 468
	Tatars	447	9	1 828	9

Source : Kucharczyk 2020 : 93–94.

De plus, sur le territoire de la République, il existe une seule langue régionale : le kachoube (pl. kaszubski). Par langue régionale, on entend une langue qui est utilisée sur le territoire d'un pays par des citoyens qui sont en minorité et qui n'est

pas un dialecte ou une langue des migrants[2]. La minorité kachoube est relativement nombreuse, ce que montrent les données présentées dans le tableau ci-dessous :

Tableau 11. Minorité kachoube en Pologne : 2002 et 2012

Minorité régionale	Appartenance à la minorité régionale déclarée en 2002	Utilisation de la langue minoritaire au foyer déclarée en 2002	Appartenance à la minorité régionale déclarée en 2012	Utilisation de la langue minoritaire au foyer déclarée en 2012
Kachoubes	5 062	52 665	214 600	108 100

Source : GUS 2002 et 2011.

Selon la loi polonaise, l'État est censé maintenir chez les apprenants leur identité « minoritaire », ce qui revient à leur donner la possibilité d'apprendre la langue minoritaire. En effet, trois curricula ont été conçus (Kucharczyk 2020 : 95–96) qui balisent le processus d'enseignement/apprentissage des langues minoritaires en définissant ses objectifs et – par voie de conséquence – les objectifs des examens externes en langues minoritaires. Il est question des curricula suivants :

– le curriculum pour les langues de minorité nationale (pl. *podstawa programowa języka mniejszości narodowej*),
– le curriculum pour les langues de minorité ethnique (pl. *podstawa programowa języka mniejszości etnicznej*),
– le curriculum pour la langue kachoube (pl. *podstawa programowa języka kaszubskiego*).

Dans le tableau qui suit, nous présentons des données concernant le nombre d'élèves étudiant les langues minoritaires lors de leur parcours scolaire en Pologne :

Tableau 12. Élèves apprenant des langues minoritaires en Pologne

langue	Nombre total d'élèves			
	année 2008/2009	année 2009/2010	année 2010/2011	année 2016/2017
allemand	23 616	23 481	25 076	44 191
arménien	16	15	35	pas de données
biélorusse	3 438	3 037	3 041	2 710
hébreu	315	310	327	pas de données
kachoube	9 776	10 658	13 632	19 473

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[2] D'après *Ustawa o mniejszościach narodowych i etnicznych oraz języku regionalnym z dn. 6 stycznia 2005.* http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/download.xsp/WDU20050170141/U/D20050141Lj.pdf [accès : 19.05.2018]

langue	Nombre total d'élèves			
	année 2008/2009	année 2009/2010	année 2010/2011	année 2016/2017
karaïm	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données
lemkovien	288	288	268	pas de données
lituanien	681	660	675	pas de données
romani	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données	2 224
russe	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données
slovaque	217	197	196	pas de données
tatar	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données
tchèque	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données
ukrainien	pas de données	pas de données	pas de données	1 807

Source : GUS 2016.

4.4. L'EMILE à l'école polonaise

La promotion du multilinguisme à l'école polonaise est également possible grâce à l'introduction de l'EMILE dans le système éducatif polonais. En effet, tout établissement scolaire qui propose l'enseignement d'au moins deux matières dans deux langues – le polonais et une LVE – est appelé un établissement bilingue qui réalise les principes de l'EMILE (Pawlak 2015 : 5). Dans une LVE peuvent être enseignées les disciplines suivantes : biologie, chimie, physique, géographie (sauf les cours consacrés aux sujets relatifs à la géographie de la Pologne), histoire universelle (ceci dit, sans l'histoire de la Pologne), mathématiques et autres matières dites complémentaires.

L'enseignement de type EMILE a avant tout lieu au lycée, mais – suite à la dernière réforme éducative de l'année 2016/2017 – il peut être aussi réalisé dans les deux dernières classes de l'école primaire. Dans la majorité des cas, l'EMILE se réalise dans une LVE. Dans le tableau qui suit, nous présentons les données relatives au nombre de lycées bilingues et d'élèves qui y suivent les cours d'EMILE :

Tableau 13. Établissements bilingues en Pologne en 2015

Voïvodie	Nombre d'établissements	Nombre de classes « bilingues »	Nombre d'élèves
Mazovie	25	97	2 660
Silésie	13	56	1 621
Poméranie	10	38	1 077
Grande-Pologne	8	33	894
voïvodie d'Opole	7	11	235

Voïvodie	Nombre d'établissements	Nombre de classes « bilingues »	Nombre d'élèves
Basse-Silésie	6	21	503
voïvodie de Łódź	6	19	478
Poméranie Occidentale	5	19	448
Couïavie-Poméranie	4	15	435
Petite-Pologne	3	18	499
voïvodie de Lublin	2	9	252
Podlachie	2	5	119
Basses-Carpates	1	1	13
voïvodie de Lubusz	1	2	43
Varmie-Mazurie	1	4	126
Sainte-Croix	0	0	0
TOTAL	**94**	**348**	**9 403**

Source : Pawlak 2015: 14.

Pour ce qui est des langues d'enseignement dans les établissements bilingues, la vedette revient sans nul doute à l'anglais ; viennent ensuite : l'allemand, l'espagnol, le français, l'italien et le russe, ce que montre le tableau ci-dessous :

Tableau 14. Les langues dans les établissements bilingues en Pologne en 2015

Langue d'enseignement	Nombre d'établissements	Nombre de classes	Nombre d'élèves
anglais	56	190	5 144
allemand	22	51	1 307
espagnol	15	54	1 511
français	12	44	1 278
italien	2	2	48
russe	2	2	48

Source : Pawlak 2015: 16.

5. BILAN

Nous venons de constater que la notion de multilinguisme est un des axes principaux de la politique de l'Union européenne, notamment dans le contexte éducatif. Il va donc de soi que c'est non seulement l'enseignement/apprentissage des LVE qui doit être valorisé dans le parcours scolaire obligatoire, mais que les langues minoritaires devraient y retrouver leur place légitime. La République de Pologne, membre de la Communauté européenne depuis 2004, réalise, elle

aussi, les directives concernant la politique du multilinguisme. Vu le faible degré de diversité linguistique et culturelle de la Pologne, la mise en place de ces recommandations se fait avant tout à l'école. Les élèves polonophones ont la possibilité d'apprendre jusqu'à trois LVE lors de leur parcours scolaire. Ils peuvent également suivre l'enseignement de type EMILE dans une langue choisie (anglais, allemand, espagnol, français, italien ou russe). De plus, le curricula pour les LVE et – par voie de conséquence – les examens externes de LVE sont reliés au CECR, ce qui garantit la transparence des acquis linguistiques des apprenants. Il faut également souligner que les langues minoritaires (y compris le kachoube – la langue régionale présente sur le territoire polonais) retrouvent leur place légitime dans le système éducatif polonais aussi bien au niveau du processus d'enseignement/apprentissage que de celui de la certification des compétences langagières. Bref, il résulte de ce qui précède que la mise en place de la politique du multilinguisme dans un pays où la diversité linguistique et culturelle est relativement basse est possible à condition que les autorités de l'État prévoient, dans le cadre des systèmes éducatifs, des modalités de fonctionnement appropriées.

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The disconnect between textbook and research: Inductive versus deductive approaches to grammar in first-year German college textbooks

ABSTRACT. Foreign language teaching methodologies have changed noticeably in the last hundred years. The emphasis on grammar has decreased, while the focus on communication has increased. Rather than quantitative in nature, these changes concern themselves more with the qualitative question of *how* grammar is taught. Two common approaches to grammar teaching are the inductive and deductive approach. While they both fall under the explicit grammar-teaching umbrella, research strongly points toward an advantage of the inductive grammar teaching approach. Therefore, a principal question that this article seeks to answer is which approach is more commonly found in current first-year German college textbooks. A detailed analysis of how eleven relevant textbooks present their grammar lessons reveals that the overwhelming majority (N=8) of the textbooks use the deductive approach. These findings indicate a significant disconnect between grammar presentation in textbooks and recent research on successful and effective foreign language teaching. It is strongly recommended that textbook authors and colleagues involved in the textbook selection process be more informed with the research findings in SLA and be instrumental in seeing that these changes are reflected in textbooks and language teaching curricula.

KEYWORDS: inductive and deductive grammar, first-year German textbooks, the imperative, textbook selection.

1. INTRODUCTION

Changes in foreign language teaching methodologies have been driven, on the one hand, by new demands presented by learners (e.g., a greater need for conversational knowledge in the language as opposed to ability to read authors in the original language and translate texts) and, on the other hand, by advances and new findings regarding successful language learning in a growing number of subfields (such as foreign language teaching, second language acquisition, English as a second language, bilingualism, etc.).

One of the more disputed aspects of foreign language teaching is grammar instruction. Its role and emphasis has indeed changed significantly over the last several decades. Grammar was at the center of the Grammar-Translation method (i.e., focus on form). But this teaching method fell out of favor, as it became clear that merely conjugating verbs correctly and memorizing vocabulary, without being able to formulate meaningful sentences, is unsatisfactory. The emphasis gradually shifted from grammar toward conversation skills with the advent of the Communicative Approach (i.e., focus on content). This, in turn, led to a pronounced emphasis on communication without focus on form, leading in part to fossilization of bad grammar habits in students (Richards & Rogers 2001). So, language teachers found themselves back to paying more attention to grammar in the Post-Communicative Approach (i.e., focus on forms). Renewed attention to form is a reflection of the fact that, while using a communicative approach in teaching, one should not ignore accuracy. Or as Cohen (2009: 4) quite elegantly concludes in his article arguing that we cannot have grammar and communication without each other, "Language is both rule-governed and creative. However, efforts to be creative without an underlying competence of the how and the why of rules, are akin to playing tennis with neither net or lines, that is to say, mere aimless chaos".

There are a number of variables that affect foreign language teaching. Among them are differences in learner types, learning goals, teaching materials, learning environment, and teacher beliefs. Nevertheless, while variation from class to class is to be expected, it is hoped that new findings regarding more successful teaching methods are reflected in textbooks and other teaching materials. However, from past research, we know that mainstream textbooks are very slow to integrate new findings from second language acquisition research (Tschirner 1998). Criticism of the grammar presentation in German college-level textbooks was also expressed by Rott (2000), who found that there is a disconnect between grammar and communication and that the instruction based on textbooks does not line up with pedagogical research. According to Magedanz (2008), grammar presentation and practice in textbooks do not promote proficiency skills as outlined by the ACTFL Guidelines. Roche and Suñer (2016) also draw attention to the lack of communication between the fields of language acquisition research and language pedagogy, resulting in the slow pace at which language classes and textbooks adopt new research findings in acquisition research.

On the above grounds, this article investigates the extent to which first-year German college textbooks reflect current findings in effective grammar teaching. On a broad and superficial level, we can distinguish between inductive

and deductive foreign-language grammar teaching. However, it is useful to go beyond these two approaches and use other benchmarks for assessment. A list of criteria that reflect essential elements of integrated grammar teaching will be used to further evaluate textbooks that presently dominate the market.

2. INDUCTIVE VERSUS DEDUCTIVE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

The debate around which method is better is not a new one, as we can surmise from Hammerly's (1975) book *The deduction/induction controversy*. Generally speaking, the inductive approach to teaching grammar consists of exposing students first to meaningful examples before they can discern patterns and make generalizations. The formulation of rules follows interaction with language, and it is a discovery-based learning method, or as Norris and Ortega (2000) put it, learners arrive at metalinguistic generalizations on their own. The deductive approach, on the other hand, presents the learner with the rule, and then students are to engage in language practice. Norris and Ortega (2000) place inductive and deductive teaching on a continuum of more explicit to less explicit instruction. In other words, both inductive and deductive teaching are explicit types of teaching, in opposition to implicit teaching, which does not present the learner with any kind of grammar explanation or rule formulation (cf. Tammenga-Helmantel, Arends & Canrinus 2014, who conclude that *any* kind of grammar instruction has a positive effect on learning).

What does research say about the effectiveness of the two methods? While the specific methodologies vary somewhat among the studies that tested the inductive approach, there is strong evidence in its favor. For instance, Haight, Herron and Cole (2007) found that students in second-semester French courses did significantly better learning grammatical structures through the inductive approach than the deductive approach. Montazeran, Asadi and Maghsoudi (2014) also found that teaching countable and uncountable nouns to young learners of English as a foreign language yielded better results through the inductive method than through the deductive method. Similar were the findings in Tammenga-Helmantel, Bazhutkina, Hummel, Suhre and Steringa's (2016) study on Dutch students learning complex German grammatical structures and DeKeyser's (2003) study that found that the explicit-inductive group outperformed the explicit-deductive group on a grammaticality judgement test.

Some studies go beyond a binary consideration of the inductive versus the deductive method and consider other variables. Such is a study by Hwu (2014), in which she found that the inductive one worked better with high-aptitude

learners and the deductive better with low-aptitude learners. Hwu's results corroborated earlier findings by Erlam (2005) and Shaffer (1989) which established a similar correlation between the teaching method and learner aptitude. Interesting is also a study conducted by Tammenga-Helmantel et al. (2014) who used inductive, deductive, implicit, and incidental grammar instruction when teaching adjectives in three different languages (English, German, and Spanish) to Dutch learners and obtained varying results for the three languages. The authors' main conclusion is that explicit instruction is definitely better than implicit instruction, but they also recommend the integration of varying forms of instruction for better results. Other studies that successfully used both inductive and deductive teaching to enhance learning are Ana and Ratminingsih (2012) and Widodo et al. (2006).

3. BEYOND INDUCTIVE AND DEDUCTIVE

We have seen so far that explicit grammar teaching is overall better than implicit teaching and that the inductive approach is generally more effective than the deductive approach. There are many other considerations that have been addressed recently in pedagogical research. For instance, findings show that successful teaching of grammar should be contextualized (Fehringer 2002; Omaggio Hadley 1993), include communicative activities (Rott 2000; Magedanz 2008), offer a sociocultural approach (Levine 2006), and be interactive and socially situated (Betz & Huth 2014). Based on research by Lee and Van Patten (1995) and Swain (1993), Rott (2000) writes that a focus on grammatical form integrated in communication-oriented instruction is more effective. Lee and Van Patten (1995), similarly to Long and Robinson (1998), also make recommendations for sequencing activities from word to sentence to discourse levels, and they recommend generally focusing on only one new grammatical form. Oral and written modalities should also be chosen carefully and purposefully. Weber (2018), in her article on teaching grammar through literature, writes that linguistic competence and literary competence should be a single goal. Furthermore, Vyatkina (2013, 2020) recommends that we maintain a more holistic perspective toward grammar as a meaning-making resource, and she details a usage-based and corpus-based approach to grammar teaching. Numerous are also the studies that reach out to the use of multimedia and computer-assisted tools to teach grammar more effectively (Hoffman & Wanner 2003; Kolesnikova 2012; Vyatkina 2013; Culman, Henry & Van Patten 2009).

The cited studies are by no means prescriptive in nature. If there is one thing that these studies have in common, it is the recommendation to integrate grammar into language teaching and not to teach grammar for its own sake. Similarly,

in the present study, in addition to evaluating the textbooks as to whether they use an inductive or deductive approach, assessment will be made of how well they integrate grammar into language teaching generally.

4. COLLEGE-LEVEL FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEXTBOOKS

Research analyzing foreign language textbooks is growing and is quite diverse. Looking across the languages, some studies on Spanish textbooks examined the presentation of the future tense (Orozco & Thoms 2014) and articulatory phonetics (Arteaga 2000). A study on the typology of grammar activities in Italian textbooks conducted by Aski (2003) found that they still heavily rely on mechanical drills and are not reflective of the findings in research in second language acquisition. In comparison, Chapelle (2009, 2014) looked at how Canadian culture is represented in American French textbooks.

Examples from research on German textbooks include Vandergriff et al.'s (2008) study which analyzed gender-marking in seven first-year textbooks. The integration of pronunciation into German textbooks was explored by Müller (2008) and Pittman (2015). Furthermore, Snider (2005) compared communicative and non-communicative activities in six popular first-year German textbooks. He found that, while all textbooks claim to have a communicative approach, they still contain a significant amount of grammatical drills. Focus on form in and of itself is not bad, but research recommends that, even when students are focusing on grammatical accuracy, there should be meaning-based communication, and this was lacking from these grammatical drills. Furthermore, in response to students' growing interest in communication, textbooks have generally increased the amount of speaking practice/activities. Interestingly though, a close analysis of all activities included in the six textbooks considered in Snider's (2005) study shows that they can be reduced to only a few types of activities, which were found to easily lead to a monotonous classroom experience. Another study on German first-year textbooks was conducted by Sippel and Nimmrichter (2017). It focused on students' perception of American versus Germany-published textbooks that differ both in methodology and in the presence or absence of English. They found no negative perception from students regarding the lack of English in the Germany-published textbooks. On the contrary, students reported the all-German textbooks as a welcome challenge. The authors conclude their article by recommending that German programs in the U.S. strongly consider adopting Germany-published textbooks in their curriculum. Other aspects of the textbooks that were analyzed include readings, culture, vocabulary, and ancillary materials. Particularly noteworthy is a study from 2000 by Olsen, who published

a review of several first- and second-year textbooks based on 127 questionnaire responses from German college-level educators. Of all topics addressed in that survey, grammar was deemed the most problematic in terms of its presentation.

Textbooks represent an important component in the college-level foreign language learning experience. They are the result of the collaboration between one or several authors, generally professors in the field, and a publishing house. In terms of customers on the market, we can say that, while college professors are the main decision makers for textbook selection, students are in the end the ones purchasing the books. Research has also found that students' attitudes toward certain types of textbooks can influence their learning process (Edmonson & Ward 2015). Furthermore, textbook prices, which are high and ever-growing, can sometimes be a factor that keeps students away from taking a language course (Sippel & Nimmrichter 2017). When comparing U.S.-published German textbooks with Germany-published textbooks, Sippel and Nimmrichter found that the U.S.-published textbooks cost on the average $200, which is significantly higher than the prices from the German publishers. In addition to the price difference, the authors give a favorable report from a pedagogical point of view about the two Germany-published books, compared to the two U.S.-published books. Particularly relevant to this article is their observation that American books use primarily the deductive method for teaching grammar, whereas the Germany-published books use the inductive method.

While the adoption of one particular textbook does not tell us to what extent and in what way the textbook is being used in the classroom, textbooks can still be broad indicators of current teaching methodologies in foreign languages. Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) note that textbooks generally include both *what* is taught and *how* it is taught. However, they also call for more research on the connection between learning and class materials (including textbooks), and they call for the development of a theoretical framework for materials used. Hutchinson and Torres (1994), similarly to Masuhara and Tomlinson (2008), suggest that materials can act as agents of change by supporting novice teachers and can facilitate curricular change (Rubdy 2003). It is important to note, though, that oftentimes when changes in methodologies occur, teachers need appropriate training (Nur 2003), and oftentimes when the new course material does not match teachers' beliefs, expectations, and experience, the textbooks are not used as intended (Humphries 2014). One way of mitigating this would be to make sure to the people involved in the textbook selection process are more informed with current research (Angell, DuBravac & Gonglewski 2008).

As we can see, there are many things to consider when we discuss college-level German textbooks. Some of these things have to do with their development, others with the selection process in a specific program, and others yet with their

role in the teaching process. Given that decision makers in textbook selection can easily find themselves overwhelmed with choices, an overview of how first-year college level textbooks integrate grammar in light of new research findings is a needed contribution to the field.

5. FIRST-YEAR GERMAN TEXTBOOKS

The German college textbook market has been thriving for the last several decades, with many textbooks appearing in new editions every few years and with brand new textbooks frequently added to the market. Below is a representation of the most popular textbooks for first-year college German including the number of all printed editions (Table 1). The textbooks are listed in alphabetical order.

Table 1. Overview of the most popular textbooks for first-year college German

Name of textbook	Author(s)	Year(s)	Number of editions
1. *Deutsch heute*	Jack Moeller et al.	1974–2012	10
2. *Deutsch, na klar!*	Robert Di Donato et al.	1990–2020	8
3. *Kontakte*	Erwin Tschirner et al.	1988–2016	8
4. *Netzwerk*	Stefanie Dengler et al.	2012, 2021	2
5. *Neue Horizonte*	David Dollenmayer et al.	1984–2013	8
6. *Sag mal*	Christine Anton et al.	2014–2021	3
7. *Studio [21]*	Funk and Kuhn	2013–2015	2
8. *Treffpunkt Deutsch*	Margaret T. Gonglewski, E. Rosemarie Widmaier et al.	1991–2018	7
9. *Vorsprung*	Thomas A. Lovik et al.	1996–2020	4
10. *Welten*	Prisca Augustyn et al.	2015	1
11. *Wie geht's?*	Dieter Sevin et al.	1980–2014	10

5.1. Grammar in first-year German textbooks and the imperative

This article seeks to answer the question whether first-year German textbooks follow the deductive or inductive approach and to examine how they integrate grammar within their chapters. Since textbook authors generally follow a certain language pedagogy philosophy and use it consistently in the book, the analysis in this article looks closely at how one representative grammar topic, the imperative, is introduced in first-year textbooks. Analyzing grammar integration by

looking at one or a few selected grammar points is commonly done (Montazeran 2014; Tammenga-Helmantel et al. 2014; Orozco & Toms 2014). The imperative was chosen as the focus of the present study for several reasons. It is different enough from the English imperative, it can be taught in several different ways, all textbooks introduce it in the first year of teaching, and while not particularly difficult, it is more complex in German than in English.

As we know, the imperative is used to express requests and commands or give directions and instructions. Speakers usually use the imperative when addressing one or several persons. Unlike English, which has one "you" form (used for both the singular and plural, informal and formal), German has the pronoun *du* for informal singular, *ihr* for informal plural, and *Sie* for formal singular and plural. Hence, there are three imperative forms that students have to learn. In addition to the general rules for the three different imperative forms, students need to pay attention to stem-changing verbs for the singular informal imperative. Additionally, the verb "to be" (Gr. *sein*) follows an irregular pattern in the imperative and is usually presented separately. The tables below (Table 2 and 3) shows the contrast between the English and German imperative using the regular verb "to go" (Gr. *gehen*) and the irregular verb "to speak" (Gr. *sprechen*).

Table 2. German and English Present tense and imperative conjugations of "to go"

German – "gehen"		English – "to go"	
Present simple tense	**Imperative**	**Present simple tense**	**Imperative**
du gehst	Geh!	you go	Go
ihr geht	Geht!	you go	Go
Sie gehen	Gehen Sie!	you go	Go

Table 3. German and English Present tense and imperative conjugations of "to speak"

German – "sprechen"		English – "to speak"	
Present simple tense	**Imperative**	**Present simple tense**	**Imperative**
du sprichst	Sprich!	you speak	Speak
ihr sprecht	Sprecht!	you speak	Speak
Sie sprechen	Sprechen Sie!	you speak	Speak

5.2. Data collection

The latest available copy of each textbook under analysis in this paper was used for this study. For each, the pages pertaining to the imperative were selected and photocopied for easier analysis. Some textbooks present the

information regarding the imperative in one chapter, whereas others break it up across several. The pages selected for analysis include both the theoretical presentation of the grammar as well as exercises directly relevant to it. Furthermore, information regarding the articulation of the authors' pedagogical philosophy was gathered from the introductory pages of the textbooks. The information was tabulated and is presented in the table below (Table 4). It lists the name of the textbook and country of origin of the publishing house, year of latest edition, chapter(s) in which the imperative can be found (and total number of chapters in the textbook), method of grammar presentation (i.e., deductive or inductive), and general methodology of the textbook as articulated by the authors in the introductory pages. The number of pages of the grammar presentation proportionate to the total number of pages of the textbook is also calculated.

Table 4. Deductive or inductive approach for the Imperative

Textbook (Publication Country/ Year)	Chapter(s)	Ind/ Ded	Approach	Pages of Imperative/ Textbook Percent
1. Deutsch heute (U.S./2012)	Ch. 3 (out of 12)	Ded	No information	1/467 (0,2%)
2. Deutsch, na klar! (U.S./2020)	Ch. 4 (out of 14)	Ded	Authentic material, communicative building blocks	3/428 (0,7%)
3. Kontakte (U.S./2016)	Intro A1, Ch. 2 & Ch. 10 (out of 12)	Ded	Natural approach	11/431 (2,6%)
4. Netzwerk neu (Germany/2021)	**Ch. 3 & Ch. 8 (out of 12)**	**Ind**	**Authentic and interactive**	**2/158 (1,3%)**
5. Neue Horizonte (U.S.//2014)	Ch. 4 (out of 15)	Ded	Communicative competence	6/445 (1,3%)
6. Sag mal (U.S./2021)	Ch. 3 (out of 12)	Ded	Graphic intense	4/538 (0,7%)
7. Studio [21] (Germany/2015)	**Ch. 12 (out of 12)**	**Ind**	**Communicative, interactive**	**2/137 (1,4%)**
8. Treffpunkt Deutsch (U.S.//2019)	Ch. 4 (out of 12)	Ded	Communicative approach	3/382 (0,8%)
9. Vorsprung (U.S./ 2020)	**Ch. 1 & Ch. 4 (out of 12)**	**Ind**	**Discovery learning, explicit instruction**	**7/486 (1,4%)**
10. Welten (U.S./2015)	Ch. 4 (out of 12)	Ded	Functional, meaningful tasks	6/449 (1,3%)
11. Wie geht's (U.S./2014)	Ch. 6 (out of 15)	Ded	Balanced 4 language skills	2/449 (0,4%)

5.3. Data analysis

As can be seen in Table 1, there is great variety in the publication years and number of editions of first-year German textbooks. There are textbooks that have been on the market for as long as 44 years (*Deutsch heute*) and with as many editions as ten (*Deutsch heute* and *Vorsprung*), and others that may have one or two editions (*Netzwerk / Netzwerk neu* and *Welten*, two fairly recent publications). Furthermore, of all eleven selected textbooks, there are nine that are published in the United States and two (*Netzwerk/Netzwerk neu* and *Studio [21]*) that are published by German publishing houses.

Eight of the eleven textbooks introduce the imperative in one chapter, and the other three break it up over several. Traditionally, first-year textbooks are used over the course of two semesters, and from the chapter number in which the imperative is taught, we can surmise whether it was to be taught in the first, second, or both semesters. All textbooks that teach the imperative in one chapter do it in the first half of the book, with the exception of *Studio [21]*, which teaches it in chapter twelve, the last chapter of the book. From among the textbooks that divide it into several chapters, one textbook, *Vorsprung*, teaches it in two chapters in the first half of the book, and the other two, *Kontakte* and *Netzwerk*, spread it over two semesters. In the following paragraphs, details about the integration of the imperative are given for each textbook separately.

Deutsch heute

There is an introductory chapter and twelve further chapters in this book. Each chapter follows a similar format; namely, it is divided into a non-grammar part (including dialogues, vocabulary, and readings) and a grammar part. Throughout each chapter, there are four culture sections presented in English. The grammar part has anywhere between two and fifteen lessons with an average of eight per chapter. The imperative is introduced in Chapter three, as one of fifteen grammar lessons. There is one fill-in-the blank exercise prior to the grammar part, which includes a few informal singular imperatives. The exercise requires students to complete blanks with various active vocabulary from that chapter. Unless their attention were drawn to it, students would probably miss the fact that this exercise includes imperative forms. In the grammar section, first, the entire imperative paradigm is presented in a table using seven different regular and irregular verbs. Then, each form of the imperative (i.e., *du*, *ihr*, and *Sie*) and the imperative of *sein* are presented in detail. The grammar explanation section is followed by one brief exercise where students are asked to give commands by transforming infinitives into the various imperative forms.

Deutsch, na klar!

Every chapter in this textbook is clearly split up into two main parts: *Wörter im Kontext* (which includes three *Themen*) and *Grammatik im Kontext* (which includes anywhere between two and six grammar topics). Each chapter also has several *Kultur* sections, a *Sprache im Kontext* (which includes video activities and a reading), and a vocabulary list at the end. With the exception of one activity in *Thema 3* asking students to match situations with suggestions that are phrased in the imperative, the entire imperative is restricted to the grammar section of Chapter four. First, the formal imperative is explained, followed by one listening exercise where students distinguish based on intonation whether a phrase is a question or a command. Then, the informal imperative is introduced, in singular and plural. Four exercises follow, in which students have to transform indicative sentences into imperative sentences, fill in the blanks with the imperative of *sein* (which is irregular), and come up with a list of possible commands given to a child. The next exercise, which appears to be part of the same unit, is an assignment wherein students create a podcast, but it has absolutely no relationship to the imperative or commands.

Kontakte

The textbook is divided into twelve chapters preceded by two introductory chapters. Each chapter is separated into non-grammar sections (including themes, culture, and readings) and a grammar section (including four to seven grammar topics). The formal imperative is introduced at the very beginning of the textbook in the form of common requests heard in the classroom. With the help of explanatory images and drawings and the recognition of cognates, students can successfully complete the exercises presented here. The separate grammar page starts out with an explanation in English of how formal requests are phrased in German, followed by another exercise that requires students to match requests with images. Chapter two introduces the informal singular imperative in the grammar section. There is no connection to the themes presented in the first part of the chapter. Following a concise explanation in English accompanied by examples, students are asked to complete a few exercises. The first one is a matching exercise, and the other two ask students to transform present tense indicative verbs and infinitives into imperatives. Chapter ten teaches giving directions, and students are given models with both the formal and informal imperative before being asked to practice giving directions with a partner. This lesson also introduces prepositions for giving directions, and the following exercise has a fill-in-the-blanks format where students need to fill in the correct preposition. The dialogues in the latter exercise include formal and informal (singular and

plural) imperatives. The grammar section includes an extensive overview of the imperative, which reviews the formal and informal singular forms introduced earlier in the book, expanding upon them by introducing the informal plural, the first-person plural, and the irregular imperative forms of *sein* ("to be"). The three exercises that follow have students transform infinitives into imperatives and cover both formal and informal.

Netzwerk neu

This textbook published by Klett has twelve chapters, and each chapter opens with an introduction of relevant vocabulary followed by approximately five brief lessons. On the average, three grammar topics are integrated into some of these lessons, and each chapter ends with an interactive video lesson that has continuity throughout the entire book. The imperative is taught in Chapters three and eight. In Chapter three, the students learn how to give directions and are first exposed to imperatives in an audio exercise. At their second listening, they have to follow along on a map in the book. Then, they are given a very simple dialogue structure that includes "*Gehen Sie*" and are asked to practice with a partner. At this point, students are only taught how to use "*gehen*" and "*fahren*" in the imperative. A small grammar table with visual highlights provides the correct imperative forms of these two verbs. The next exercise has students work with a partner and practice giving each other directions with a map in the book. Chapter eight introduces imperatives with *du* and *ihr* (and reviews the *Sie*-imperative). Students are exposed to several commands in the context of a fitness app that a character is using to become more active. Students are then asked to mark the imperative forms of the verbs in the exercise and to try to determine how imperatives with *du* are formed. Similar to what was seen in Chapter three, a table with visual highlights gives students the correct formation of the imperative of four verbs that are actively used in the lesson. Students are asked to practice several verbs with a partner. The next activity exposes students to imperatives with *ihr* and *Sie*, and students are then asked to complete a table to formulate the rule for how these words are formed. Another exercise asks students to phrase a few requests appropriate for the classroom from a list of infinitives provided and share them with the class. In both chapters, we see imperatives also integrated at the end of the chapter in the video lesson.

Neue Horizonte

The textbook is divided into fifteen chapters, and each starts out with a few dialogues that introduce the topic of the chapter, followed by a page of relevant vocabulary and several interactive activities. A long section of grammar follows

that includes between two and seven lessons. A reading section and a culture section conclude each chapter. The imperative is introduced in Chapter four. The dialogues at the opening of the chapter do contain a few imperatives, but unless the instructor draws students' attention to these forms, they will go unnoticed. The grammar section on the imperative includes separate sections on formal and informal as well as singular and plural (including the *wir* form), followed by a total of twelve exercises. Most of the exercises are set up as partner work, but basically all students have to do in these is to change a given infinitive into an imperative form. There are also a few exercises where students have to translate sentences from English into German and one where students have to come up with their own commands to each other.

Sag mal

This textbook has twelve chapters, and each chapter has two lessons. Each lesson starts out with a section that sets the context for the lesson. This is followed by pronunciation, the *Fotoroman*, culture, and grammar. The second lesson follows the same structure, and the entire chapter concludes with *Panorama*, which is another culture section, involving some reading, listening, and writing activities, as well as a glossary for the entire chapter. The imperative is taught in the second lesson of Chapter three. While a few imperative forms are included in the script of the *Fotoroman*, students' attention is not drawn to them. The entire paradigm of the imperative is laid out in the grammar section, and two pages of exercises follow. These are divided into application and communication exercises, which progress from using a mechanical infinitive, to following a conversional format in the imperative, to eliciting realistic commands in partner work. The lesson review also prompts students to work in pairs and plan a weekend trip with a friend, in which they would naturally use imperative forms.

Studio [21]

This textbook is divided into an introduction and twelve chapters. Each chapter has four to five lessons and two or three well-integrated grammar lessons. The imperative is taught in Chapter twelve. In it, students have to read a text and then use the *Sie*-imperative to make a list of the tips given. Another exercise asks them to match a problem in the indicative with a solution in the *du*-imperative. Only then are students prompted to find more imperatives in the previous text and complete a table that summarizes the rule for the *Sie* and *du* imperatives. The next exercises present a few tips for non-smokers using the *ihr*-imperative. Students are asked to suggest more tips. Following this, they are prompted to complete a table with the rule for the *ihr*-imperative.

Treffpunkt

Treffpunkt is divided into an introduction and twelve chapters. Each chapter includes sections on vocabulary, culture, grammar, and pronunciation. The grammar portion includes a total of five lessons on the average. The individual sections focus on a variety of things. The imperative is taught in the second section of Chapter four. Nothing prior to the grammar lesson includes any commands or imperative forms. The imperatives for *Sie*, *ihr*, and *du* are presented separately, and each section is followed by practice exercises. In these, students have to either match a problem with a suggestion or change an infinitive into an imperative. The last exercise of the grammar lesson merely has students recognize infinitive forms from some authentic German advertising.

Vorsprung

This textbook contains twelve chapters, and each chapter is divided into an *Anlauf*, *Absprung*, and *Ziel* section. Within the first two of these divisions, there are several grammar lessons, culture points, and colloquial German segments. Noteworthy are the *Textdetektiv* (text detective) sections, which serve as a metacognitive activity, guiding students to make connections between forms and structures taught and the intended meanings and usage of those forms and structures. These sections are embedded in the language lesson, prior to the explicit grammar sections. In *Vorprung*, the formal imperative is introduced in Chapter one and the informal (singular and plural) is taught in Chapter four. In both sections, there are imperative forms used in texts that lay the foundation for the lesson. The formal imperative exercises from Chapter one focus on passive understanding of requests and recognition of form. The *Textdetektiv* in Chapter four asks students to look back at the text and determine whether a certain imperative form is a command, apology, or inquiry. It also has them find more examples of commands and analyze their endings. Even in the grammar section, the imperative is introduced contextualized within the lesson, namely explaining that a character familiar to the students is using an informal form of a command. This same lesson introduces the *du*, *ihr*, and *wir* imperative forms, and each section includes several exercises. One multiple-choice exercise has students match the correct response to a problem; another has students match a correct response to a problem and change an infinitive into an imperative; yet another has all four forms mixed together so that students need to determine which to use, changing an infinitive into the correct imperative; and the last exercise has students play "Simon says." At the end of the chapter, in the *Ziel* section, there is a communicative partner exercise where students play parent/child roles and give each other advice for a trip using imperatives.

Welten

This textbook is divided into twelve chapters, each structured around one person. The chapters have four or five sections, and each section includes several texts and one or more grammar lessons. The imperative is taught in Chapter four. It is not clear why the imperative is taught in this chapter, since there is no imperative used in the chapter outside the grammar lesson. The grammar lesson explicitly presents the entire imperative paradigm including the *du*, *ihr*, *Sie*, and *wir* forms, as well as the irregular imperative of *sein* and the fact the *bitte* is often used to make a command sound more polite. Four exercises follow, in which students must match problems with suggestions, transform infinitives or present tense indicatives into imperatives, and fill in the blanks with a correct imperative form, with no verb provided.

Wie geht's

This textbook starts out with five introductory sections called *Schritte* (steps), and the rest of the textbook is divided into fifteen chapters. Each chapter is broadly divided into three parts. The first presents the theme of the chapter and can include dialogues, exercises, and vocabulary lists. The second part of a chapter involves several grammar lessons, and the third is usually a reading section. The imperative is taught in Chapter six, without making any connection to the beginning of the chapter. The imperative is explained as having the *du*, *ihr*, *Sie*, and *wir* forms. Three out of the four exercises have students transform given infinitives into imperatives, and the last activity asks students to come up with a list of commands and give them to a partner. At the end of the chapter, there is an activity that has students give advice to a friend having a hard time in college. Some helpful prompts are given, and students are also asked to use the imperative in this last exercise. They are then asked to give advice to an unknown audience using the formal imperative.

5.4. Findings

Using Norris and Ortega's (2000) distinction between an inductive (discovery-based) approach versus a deductive (grammar presentation followed by exercises) approach to grammar teaching, we find eight textbooks in the present study that use the deductive and three that use the inductive approach.

While there is some variation in the presentation, wording, and number of pages dedicated to the imperative, the eight textbooks that use the deductive approach generally follow the same pattern. There is a presentation of the grammatical rules of the imperative, and this is followed by a number of exercises to

apply the new knowledge. The three remaining textbooks differ in their approach greatly from the other eight in that they present examples of the imperative first and then have students interact with the material and formulate the rules by themselves.

The authors' own wording used to describe the pedagogical philosophy of each textbook is somewhat harder to quantify and summarize. This is to be expected because each textbook, in order for it to "make it" on the market, needs to distinguish itself clearly from all the other textbooks already existent. Nevertheless, all textbooks describe themselves, broadly speaking, as communicative. While teaching grammar deductively cannot necessarily be labeled as non-communicative, it would be fair to say that it is less communicative than the inductive approach.

The percentage taken up by the sections addressing the imperative in each textbook varies between 0.4% and 2.6%, with an average of 1.3% of the entire textbook (excluding introductory pages, appendices, and indexes).

5.5. Suggestions for modifying deductive into inductive teaching

This section will offer a few practical examples of how existing teaching of the imperative can be modified to a more inductive approach. Given the variety of presentations in the many textbooks analyzed above, we can think of a few broad guidelines as a starting point. First, instructors should avoid starting the lesson with an English presentation of the entire paradigm for the imperative. Instead, they should offer a few examples to the students that ideally tie into the theme of the chapter. For instance, *Deutsch heute* can use the topic of shopping as its context since the imperative is introduced in the chapter on "Eating and Shopping" (e.g., *Was brauchen wir?*; *Kauf bitte Brot, Marmelade und Milch*; or *Geben Sie mir bitte zwei Orangen und drei Tomaten*). The instructor can bring in pictures or toy foods, and comprehension can be tested by having brief dialogues where students ask for certain foods. In *Neue Horizonte*, the instructor can start out by pointing students to the imperative examples in the opening dialogue of the chapter. (e.g., *Gehen Sie doch ohne mich*; *Warte mal!*; *Iss doch wenigstens ein Brötchen*; *Nimm doch das Brötchen mit.*) A few examples in the *Fotoroman* in *Sag mal* can be used as the starting point for the imperative (e.g., *Sei nicht traurig!*; *Sei nicht gemein!*; *Aber mach dir keine Sorgen.*) Instructors who use *Treffpunkt* can use the information on modals and daily routines from Chapter four as a segue for the imperative. Students can be given a few examples of the imperative, such as *Was sollen ich heute machen?*; *Geh ins Kino*; *Was soll ich heute essen?*; and *Iss eine Banane.* In textbooks that teach the imperative in a chapter where it is more difficult to

contextualize it, instructors can either use classroom TPR examples (e.g., *Stehen Sie bitte auf!*; *Setzen Sie sich!*; *Schreiben Sie!*; or *Geh bitte zur Tafel!*) or the teaching of the imperative can be moved to a chapter where the theme lends itself better to the use of commands (e.g., directions, shopping, advice, etc.). Once students see a few examples, they should be prompted to make observations about form and formulate the rule(s) for the imperative. In addition to further classroom and homework practice that allows students to practice several verbs and forms of the imperative, one important component at the end of the imperative unit should be free production of correct imperatives in meaningful contexts (e.g., planning a picnic or a party, asking for advice, giving each other directions, etc.).

5.6. Discussion

The major finding of this study is that the large majority of textbooks for introductory levels of college German use the deductive approach to grammar. Worth noting is the fact that two of the three textbooks that use an inductive approach are the two textbooks published in Germany. A plausible explanation for this correlation is that these two textbooks were originally created as *second* language textbooks. However, in recent years, Germany-published textbooks have been increasingly used outside of German-speaking countries in foreign language programs. By contrast, all textbooks that use a deductive approach are written for American students studying German as a foreign language in U.S. colleges. The first type of textbook sees its users as adults who live in a German-speaking country and who are driven by an integrative and instrumental motivation (see Gardner & Lambert 1972) to learn the language as well as possible. The second type of textbook sees its users as learners of a foreign language who take classes on the average three days a week in an American college, some to fulfill a language requirement and others with a true desire to become fluent.

We saw in Section 2 of this article that previous research has found a significant advantage in teaching grammar using the inductive method compared to the deductive method. It is therefore surprising that such a small number of textbooks (and only one from among the U.S.-published ones) use the method that research shows to be more effective. It is important to remember that the quoted research discusses the teaching methods used in the classroom but does not specify how the grammar is presented in the teaching materials. In other words, one could still teach inductively from a textbook that presents the material deductively. It would be, however, more productive to teach inductively from a textbook that presents the material inductively too.

The pedagogical philosophy articulated in the textbooks (including each U.S.-published book) generally indicates a communicative approach. Let us be reminded that deductive and inductive teaching methods are both classified as explicit grammar teaching and have been found more effective than implicit grammar teaching. However, research strongly points toward the inductive approach as being more effective in foreign language teaching. It is hoped that new textbooks and new editions of existing textbooks will take into consideration the latest findings in foreign language pedagogy and integrate grammar inductively.

6. CONCLUSION

The presentation of grammar in the first-year German college textbooks can be broadly divided into the deductive and the inductive approach. An analysis of the eleven textbooks (nine from American publishers and two published by German publishing houses) reveals that almost all American textbooks – the large majority of the books analyzed here – use the deductive approach, whereas only a minority – the ones published by German publishing houses and one published by an American publishing house – use the inductive approach. Research on many different languages has revealed a strong argument for the success of the inductive approach over the deductive approach. It is surprising, therefore, to see that textbook authors are maintaining grammar presentations from old editions and are not adapting the methodology of grammar presentation in recent editions to the latest findings in research on foreign language teaching. It is important that action be taken in order to align grammar presentations in textbooks with findings in SLA research. This can be achieved by ensuring that textbook authors and colleagues in the field who are involved in the textbook selection process stay informed with current methods and strategies in teaching pedagogy and that they be instrumental in implementing these changes in textbooks and language teaching curricula.

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Zusammenspiel zwischen Diskurs und Syntax im Erwerb des Deutschen als Zweitsprache in der Kindheit

Interplay of discourse and syntax in the acquisition of German as a second language in childhood

ABSTRACT. The goal of this study is to investigate the interplay of discourse and syntax, as it can be observed in the use of null objects, in the language development of a child who starts to acquire German at the age of nine years in a naturalistic setting. The study shows that children at such an age can profit from the knowledge already acquired in their first language. After nine months of exposure, the child under study uses null objects similarly to monolingual children. The acquisition of null objects in a second language can be impeded at an early stage, however, due to the different syntactic restraints for the use of null objects in the first and second languages.

KEYWORDS: German as a second language, null objects, discourse, syntax.

SCHLÜSSELWÖRTER: Deutsch als Zweitsprache, Nullobjekte, Diskurs, Syntax.

1. EINFÜHRUNG

Der Gebrauch jeder menschlichen Sprache verlangt vom Sprecher, die syntaktischen Informationen in einen adäquaten Diskursrahmen zu integrieren. Mit dem Begriff „Diskurs" wird hier eine Einheit verstanden, die größer als ein Satz ist, und die die Kriterien der Kohäsion sowie der Kohärenz erfüllt[1].

Die Untersuchungen von Diskurs werden vor allem als Teilbereich der Pragmatik verstanden, weil ihr Gegenstand der Gebrauch der Äußerungen während der Kommunikation ist. Wenn jedoch die formale Abhängigkeitsstruktur untersucht wird, die die Satzgrenzen einerseits überschreitet und die andererseits den Satzaufbau und die Wahl der sprachlichen Formen beeinflusst, dann müssen zur Erklärung solcher Phänomene sowohl die Pragmatik als auch die Syntax herangezogen werden.

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[1] Im Rahmen des Artikels kann nicht auf die vielen Bedeutungen des Begriffs „Diskurs" eingegangen werden.

Eines der Phänomene, bei denen man das Zusammenspiel von syntaktischen und pragmatischen Regeln sehr gut sehen kann, ist der Gebrauch der Nullargumente. Subjekte und Objekte können in mehreren Sprachen phonetisch nicht realisiert werden. Die Möglichkeit unterliegt aber sowohl pragmatischen als auch syntaktischen Einschränkungen. Die Bedingungen, unter denen sie zulässig sind, können von Sprache zu Sprache unterschiedlich sein.

2. NULLOBJEKTE IM DEUTSCHEN UND POLNISCHEN

Referentielle Argumente können in jeder Sprache unterschiedlich realisiert werden. Die Formen der referentiellen Ausdrücke mögen von indefiniten über definite Nominalphrasen, starke und schwache Pronomen bis hin zu Nullargumenten reichen.

Gundel, Hedberg und Zacharski (1993) schlagen eine Hierarchie der Möglichkeiten des kognitiven Status eines referentiellen Ausdrucks vor (siehe Tabelle 1). Der kognitive Status spiegelt die Zugänglichkeit des Referenten im Redeuniversum wider und beeinflusst in hohem Grade die Wahl der entsprechenden Form des referentiellen Ausdrucks (vgl. Fukumura & van Gompel 2011; siehe auch Sopata 2017 für die Zusammenfassung der Diskussion).

Tabelle 1. Givenness-Hierarchie

in focus > activated > familiar > uniquely identifiable > referential > type identifiable
In Fokus > Aktiviert > Vertraut > Identifizierbar > Referentiell > Typ-Identifizierbar

Quelle: Gundel et al. 1993

Nach Gundel et al. (1993) determiniert der kognitive Status des Referenten den Gebrauch einer gegebenen Form des referentiellen Ausdrucks. Die Stelle des Arguments in der Gegebenheitshierarchie, die visuelle Präsenz des Diskursreferenten und seine Salienz im Diskurs beeinflussen den kognitiven Status des gegebenen Referenten. Wenn das Argument im Kopf des Sprechers und des Hörers aktiviert ist, dann kann es in einigen Sprachen als Nullargument realisiert werden.

Die Form der referentiellen Argumente wird jedoch auch durch ihre syntaktischen Eigenschaften determiniert. Nach Huang (1984), Holmberg (2005) und Sigurðsson (2011) kann man in der Hinsicht von drei Klassen von Nullargumenten reden (vgl. auch Sopata 2017):

– Nullargumente, die mit der Subjekt-Verb oder Objekt-Verb-Kongruenz verbunden sind, wie beispielsweise Nullsubjekte in romanischen Sprachen und im Polnischen, oder Nullobjekte in Pashto (siehe Beispiel 2),

   – Nullargumente, die mit der Topik-Position verbunden sind, d.h. solche, die nur am Satzanfang realisiert werden können, wo die in der Satzstruktur hervorgehobenen Elemente vorkommen, wie beispielsweise Nullsubjekte und Nullobjekte im Deutschen (siehe Beispiel 1),

   – Nullargumente, die satzextern konditioniert werden, wie beispielsweise Nullsubjekte und Nullobjekte im Chinesischen sowie Nullobjekte im Polnischen (siehe Beispiel 2).

Im Deutschen können die Nullargumente nur in der Topik-Position auftreten. Auf die Frage eines Gesprächspartners im Beispiel 1 können mehrere Antworten in einem Gespräch gegeben werden (1a-1d). Man kann eine volle Nominalphrase oder ein Pronomen gebrauchen (siehe 1a). Das Objekt, das durch eine volle Nominalphrase oder ein Pronomen ausgedrückt wird, kann in die sog. Topik-Position, d.h. an den Satzanfang bewegt werden (siehe 1b). Wenn das Objekt sich am Satzanfang, in der sog. Topik-Position befindet, dann kann die Form des Nullobjekts benutzt werden (siehe 1c). Im Satzinneren kann das Objekt jedoch nicht als Null ausgedrückt werden, obwohl es im Kopf des Sprechers und des Hörers aktiviert ist (siehe 1d).

(1)   Person 1:   *Wo steht dein Auto?*
            Person 2:
(1a)   *Ich habe das Auto/es verkauft.*
(1b)   *Das Auto/Das hab ich verkauft.*
(1c)   *_ hab ich verkauft.*
(1d)   **Ich habe _ verkauft.*

Im Polnischen muss das Objekt im Kopf des Sprechers auch aktiviert werden, und den kognitiven Status des vertrauten Arguments haben, um als Null realisiert zu werden. Seine Aktivierung kann beispielsweise durch sein Auftreten in der voranstehenden Äußerung eines Gesprächspartners erfolgen (siehe Beispiel 2).

(2)   Person 1:   *Gdzie stoi twój samochód?*
                     'Wo steht dein Auto?'
            Person 2:   *_Sprzedałam _.*
                     habe verkauft
                     'Ich habe das Auto verkauft.'

Kein Nullobjekt kann gebraucht werden, wenn das Argument nicht aktiviert ist (siehe Beispiel 3):

(3)   Person 1:   *Dokąd idziesz?*
                           'Wohin gehst du?'
           Person 2:   **Sprzedałam _.*
                           habe verkauft
                           'Ich habe _verkauft.'

Die Aktivierung des Arguments kann auch durch den situativen Kontext erfolgen, ohne dass es im vorhergehenden Diskurs auftritt (siehe Beispiel 4):

(4)   Person 1:   *Co z tym?*
                           'Was damit?'

(Auf dem Parkplatz deutet der Sprecher auf einen leeren Platz hin, an dem vorher das Auto des Gesprächspartners stand)

           Person 2:   *Sprzedałam _.*
                           habe verkauft
                           'Ich habe das Auto verkauft.'

Wie das Beispiel 2 verdeutlicht, unterscheiden sich die syntaktischen Einschränkungen für den Nullobjektgebrauch im Polnischen (vgl. Mykhaylyk & Sopata 2016; Sopata 2016) von denen im Deutschen. Der wichtigste Unterschied liegt darin, dass die Objekte im Polnischen auch im Satzinneren als Null realisiert werden können. Sie sind also nicht wie im Deutschen an die Topik-Position gebunden. Die Nullobjekte sind im Polnischen satzextern bedingt und werden durch den Diskurs interpretiert.

Anzumerken ist noch, dass von den Nullobjekten im Polnischen nur bei den Verben, die im perfektiven Aspekt verwendet werden, die Rede sein kann, weil nur sie obligatorisch mit einem Objekt auftauchen. Wenn die Verben im imperfektiven Aspekt gebraucht werden, dann können sie in der intransitiven Variante, also ohne direktes Objekt vorkommen. Sie drücken dann weder Handlungsabschluss noch Zustandswechsel aus (vgl. Kotin 2003: 199f.). Im Beispiel 5a ist die Verwendung des Verbs im perfektiven und in 5b im imperfektiven Aspekt zu sehen:

(5a)   Person 1:   *Co przeczytałaś?*
                           'Was hast du gelesen$_{perfektiv}$?'
           Person 2:   *Przeczytałam artykuł.*
                           'Ich habe den Artikel gelesen$_{perfektiv}$.'

(5b)   Person 1:   *Co robiłaś?*
                          'Was hast du gemacht_{imperfektiv}?'
          Person 2:   *Czytałam.*
                          'Ich habe gelesen_{imperfektiv}.'

3. NULLOBJEKTE IM ERWERB DES DEUTSCHEN ALS ERSTSPRACHE

Die Aufgabe, die syntaktischen und pragmatischen Aspekte der Sprache zu koordinieren, ist eine Herausforderung für Kinder, die ihre Erstsprache erwerben. Die obligatorischen morpho-syntaktischen Elemente werden manchmal durch die Kinder im Erstspracherwerb ausgelassen, was von der noch nicht perfekten Meisterung der Phänomene an der Schnittstelle Syntax-Diskurs zeugt. Die im Erstspracherwerb oft ausgelassenen Elemente sind Subjekte, Objekte und Artikelwörter.

Hamann (1996: 180) hat den Gebrauch der Nullobjekte im monolingualen Erwerb des Deutschen untersucht. Das erste von ihr untersuchte Kind wurde vom Alter 3;4 bis zum Alter 3;7 und das andere Kind vom Alter 3;1 bis zum Alter 3;4 aufgenommen. Haman (1996: 174) hat die Aufnahmen in vier Entwicklungsstufen zusammengefasst. Die Anzahl von Nullobjekten in den Daten von beiden Kindern – Christoph und Elisa – werden zu vier Zeitpunkten in den Tabellen 2 und 3 dargestellt. Die Bezeichnungen P1-P4 in den Tabellen beziehen sich auf die Phasen der Sprachentwicklung von Christoph und Elisa, die von Hamann identifiziert worden sind (vgl. auch Sopata 2017).

Tabelle 2. Nullobjekte in den Daten von Christoph

Zeit	Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position [in %]	Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position [in %]
P1	28,5	2,7
P2	44,4	2,5
P3	31,8	1,3
P4	50,0	5,0

Quelle: Hamann 1996.

Tabelle 3. Nullobjekte in den Daten von Elisa

Zeit	Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position [in %]	Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position [in %]
P1	28,5	2,3
P2	13,0	0,5
P3	42,0	1,6
P4	20,0	1,5

Quelle: Hamann 1996.

Die Tabellen zeigen, dass monolinguale Kinder, die Deutsch erwerben, häufig von der Möglichkeit Gebrauch machen, Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position zu benutzen (vgl. auch Sopata 2017). Da solche Strukturen auch in der Erwachsenensprache vorkommen, gelten sie als normgerecht. Darüber hinaus lassen die Kinder aber auch Objekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position aus, in der die Erwachsenensprache keine Nullobjekte zulässt. Die Anzahl dieser Nullobjekte ist jedoch niedrig (vgl. auch Sopata 2017).

Mehrere empirische und theoretische Studien zur Wahl der Form der referentiellen Argumente im Erstspracherwerb sind in den letzten Jahren entstanden. Im Zentrum des Interesses standen meistens Auslassungen von klitischen Objekten (z.B. Clark 1985; Costa, Lobo & Silva 2012; Jakubowicz, Müller, Kang, Riemer & Rigaut 1996; Jakubowicz, Müller, Riemer & Rigaut 1997; Müller & Hulk 2001; Pérez-Leroux, Pirvulescu & Roberge 2008; Wexler, Gavarro & Torrens 2004).

In der Erstspracherwerbsforschung tauchen mehrere Hypothesen auf, die zum Ziel haben, die im Laufe des Erstspracherwerbs vorkommenden Nullobjekte zu erklären. Einige Ansätze verbinden das Auslassen der obligatorischen Objekte einerseits mit den Einschränkungen des kognitiven Systems der Kinder oder andererseits mit den Unterschieden zwischen den mentalen Grammatiken bei Kindern und Erwachsenen, die auf verschiedenen Ebenen auftauchen können. Ansätze, die nach einer syntaktischen Erklärung der Auslassungen suchen, verbinden sie oft mit der Komplexität der Verarbeitung der klitischen Elemente (siehe zum Beispiel Hamann, Rizzi & Frauenfelder 1996; Gruter 2006; Gavarró, Torrens & Wexler 2010). Die Ansätze, die nach einer pragmatischen Erklärung dieses Phänomens suchen, verbinden die Auslassungen mit verschiedenen Diskurseigenschaften (siehe zum Beispiel Matthews, Lieven, Theakston & Tomasello 2006; Hughes & Allen 2013). Ein Überblick über die unterschiedlichen Ansätze kann in Castilla & Pérez-Leroux (2010) oder in Gavarró et al. (2010) gefunden werden.

4. NULLOBJEKTE IM ERWERB DES DEUTSCHEN ALS ZWEITSPRACHE IN DER KINDHEIT

In der vorliegenden Studie wird der Gebrauch der Nullobjekte bei einem Kind untersucht, das Deutsch als seine Zweitsprache unter natürlichen Bedingungen erwirbt. Die Untersuchung soll auf folgende Fragen Antwort geben:

1. Wie sieht die Sprachentwicklung im Bereich der Nullobjekte bei dem Kind aus, das den Erwerb der Zweitsprache mit 9 Jahren angefangen hat?
2. Kann das Kind daraus Nutzen ziehen, dass es das Zusammenspiel der syntaktischen und der pragmatischen Einschränkungen beim Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in ihrer Erstsprache schon erworben hat?

3. Wird der Erwerb der syntaktischen Einschränkungen für den Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Zweitsprache dadurch erschwert, weil sie sich von denen in der Erstsprache unterscheiden?

Um auf die oben genannten Fragen eine Antwort zu finden, werden Daten von einem Kind – Ala – über einen Zeitraum von einem Jahr gesammelt. Ala ist in Polen geboren und im Alter von 9 Jahren nach Deutschland gekommen. Ihre Erstsprache sowie die ihrer Eltern ist Polnisch. Zum Zeitpunkt der Ankunft in Deutschland spricht Ala kein Deutsch. Seit dem Alter von 9;1 besucht das Mädchen eine Grundschule. In der Schule bleibt sie ca. 5 Stunden täglich. Ihre Erstsprache ist sehr gut entwickelt. Die Aufnahmen von Ala werden in monatlichem Abstand gemacht. Die erste Aufnahme wird zum Zeitpunkt eines abgeschlossenen Kontaktmonats (KM) zu Deutsch gemacht (zu weiteren Details siehe Sopata 2009).

Alas Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position kann der Abbildung 1 entnommen werden. In einigen Monaten ist der Anteil der Nullobjekte an allen Objekten in der Nicht-Topik-Position in Alas Daten ziemlich hoch. In KM5, KM6 und KM7 überschreitet er 20%. In anderen Aufnahmen liegt der Wert um 10%.
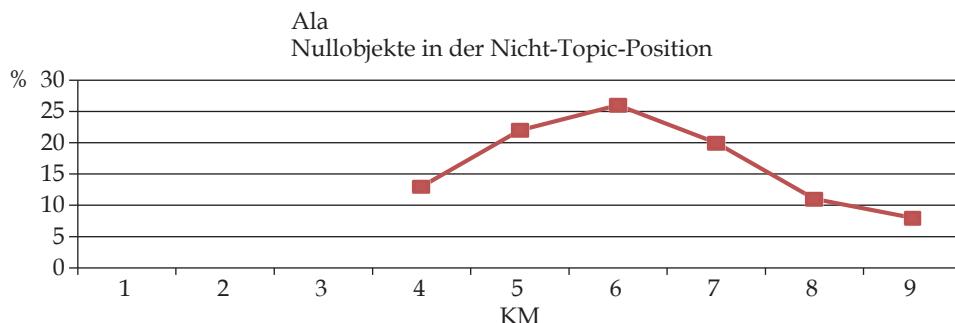

Abbildung 1. Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position in aufeinander folgenden Kontaktmonaten – Ala

Wenn wir Alas Daten mit denen der monolingualen Kinder vergleichen, die Deutsch als ihre Erstsprache erwerben, dann ist ein deutlicher Unterschied zwischen den Sprachprofilen zu sehen. Der Vergleich des Gebrauchs der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position von Ala einerseits und von den monolingualen Kindern aus Hamanns Studie andererseits wird in der Abbildung 2 dargestellt:

Der Abbildung kann entnommen werden, dass der Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position in Alas Daten im Allgemeinen viel höher als in Christophs und Elisas Daten liegt. Im monolingualen Erwerb des Deutschen

liegt der Anteil der Nullobjekte an allen Objekten in der Nicht-Topik-Position im Allgemeinen bei 2% und im Erwerb des Deutschen als Zweitsprache in der Kindheit liegt der Wert bei 17%.
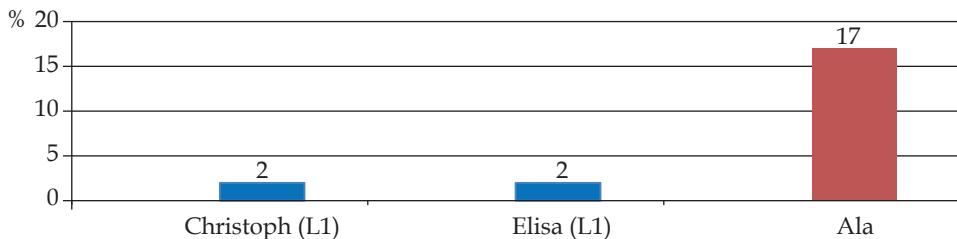

Abbildung 2. Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position – Christoph (L1), Elisa (L1) und Ala (L2)

Die Situation sieht etwas anders aus, wenn man die Ergebnisse des Gebrauchs der Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position ansieht. Die Abbildung 3 stellt den Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position in Alas Daten vor.
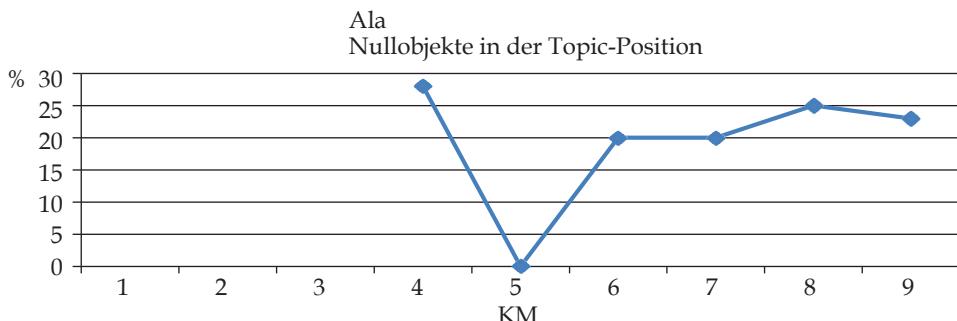
Abbildung 3. Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position in aufeinander folgenden Kontaktmonaten – Ala

Der Abbildung 3 kann man entnehmen, dass Ala mehrere Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position in den meisten Aufnahmen benutzt. Der Anteil der Nullobjekte an allen Objekten in der Topik-Position beträgt zwischen 20% und 30%. Nur in einer Aufnahme liegt der Wert bei 0%. Interessanterweise kommen die Topik-Strukturen in KM1-KM3 bei Ala gar nicht vor, was auf die niedrigere Stufe der Sprachentwicklung zu dieser Zeit bei Ala zurückzuführen ist.

Alas Sprachentwicklung unterscheidet sich nicht gravierend von dem der monolingualen Kinder. Ein Vergleich von Alas, Christophs und Elisas Daten ist in der Abbildung 4 zu sehen.
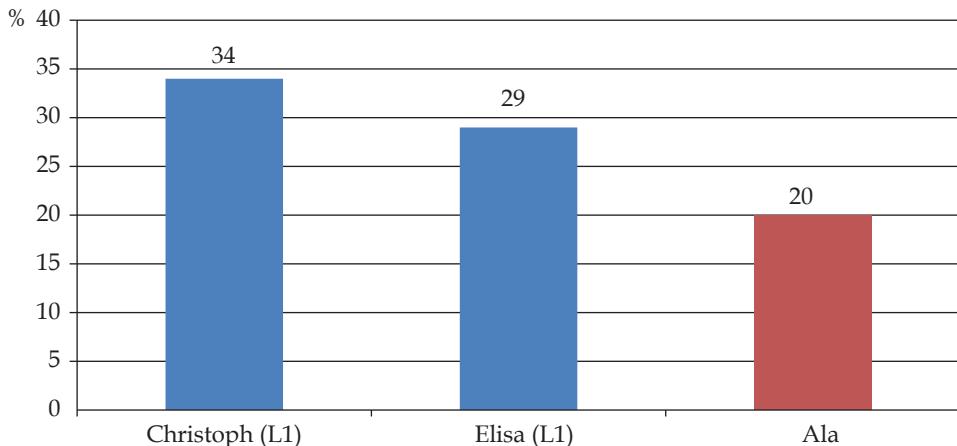
Abbildung 4. Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position – Christoph (L1), Elisa (L1) und Ala (L2)

Die Abbildung 4 zeigt, dass der Anteil der Nullobjekte an allen Objekten in der Topik-Position im Allgemeinen bei einem monolingualen Kind 34% bei dem anderen 29% beträgt. Der Wert liegt bei Ala, die Deutsch als ihre Zweitsprache erwirbt, bei 17%. Es ist demnach ein klarer Unterschied. Wenn wir jedoch bedenken, dass es sich bei den Werten um ganz allgemeine Durchschnittswerte in allen Aufnahmen handelt, dann scheint der Unterschied nicht sehr groß zu sein.

Zusammenfassend kann man sagen, dass die Entwicklung des Deutschen bei dem Kind, das den Erwerb der Zweitsprache im Alter von 9 Jahren angefangen habt, sich von den Sprachprofilen der Kinder unterscheidet, die Deutsch als ihre Erstsprache erwerben. In der Hinsicht auf den Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position ist ein deutlicher Unterschied zwischen dem bilingualen und den monolingualen Kindern zu sehen. Wenn man die Ergebnisse des Gebrauchs der Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position genau betrachtet, dann sieht man auch einen Unterschied zwischen den Sprachprofilen der Kinder. Der Unterschied scheint jedoch in diesem Bereich etwas kleiner zu sein.

5. SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN

Auf Grund der im Rahmen der Studie durchgeführten Untersuchungen kann man folgende Antworten auf die oben gestellten Fragen geben. In Bezug auf die Frage Nr. 1 muss man feststellen, dass sich die Sprachentwicklung im Bereich der Nullobjekte von dem Kind, das den Erwerb der Zweitsprache mit 9 Jahren begonnen hat, von der der monolingualen Kinder gravierend unterscheidet. Ala

benutzt einerseits Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position viel häufiger als jene Kinder, die Deutsch als ihre Erstsprache erwerben. Andererseits gebraucht sie die Nullobjekte in der normgerechten Topik-Position etwas seltener als monolinguale Kinder.

Bei der Beantwortung der zweiten Forschungsfrage kann festgehalten werden, dass das Kind nach einiger Zeit daraus Nutzen ziehen kann, dass es die Koordination der syntaktischen und der pragmatischen Einschränkungen beim Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in ihrer Erstsprache schon erworben hat. Der Erwerb des Deutschen als Zweitsprache verläuft bei Ala sehr schnell (vgl. Sopata 2010, 2011 zum schnellen Erwerb von anderen Bereichen des Deutschen als Zweitsprache durch Kinder in dem Alter). In KM8 und KM9 liegt der Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position bei Ala bei über 20%. Der Wert ist gleich der Häufigkeit des Gebrauchs der Nullobjekte in der Topik-Position in der letzten Sprachentwicklungsstufe bei Elisa, die Deutsch als Erstsprache erwirbt und die zu diesem Zeitpunkt 3;4 Jahre alt ist. Ala macht also schon nach 8 Kontaktmonaten zu Deutsch Gebrauch von Strukturen, die in der Erwachsenensprache und in der fortgeschrittenen Phase des Erstspracherwerbs vorkommen.

In Bezug auf die dritte Forschungsfrage zeigen die Ergebnisse der Untersuchung auf, dass der Erwerb der syntaktischen Einschränkungen für den Gebrauch der Nullobjekte im Erwerb der Zweitsprache dadurch erschwert ist, dass sie sich von denen in der Erstsprache des Kindes unterscheiden. Die Grundlage dieser Behauptung bilden die Daten zum Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position bei Ala. Im Polnischen sind Nullobjekte sowohl in der Topik- als auch in der Nicht-Topik-Position zulässig. Im Deutschen kommen sie nur in der Topik-Position vor. Die Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position tauchen nicht in der deutschen Erwachsenensprache und auch sehr selten während der Sprachentwicklung des Deutschen als Erstsprache auf. Der hohe Anteil der Nullobjekte in der Nicht-Topik-Position in Alas Daten ist daher als Folge des Einflusses ihrer Erstsprache Polnisch auf die Entwicklung ihrer Zweitsprache Deutsch zu interpretieren.

Der Verlauf des Erwerbs der Fähigkeit, syntaktische Informationen in einen adäquaten Diskursrahmen zu setzen, ist also davon abhängig, ob er ein Teil des monolingualen oder des sukzessiven bilingualen Spracherwerbs ist. In beiden Situationen lernen aber die Kinder ziemlich schnell das Zusammenspiel von Diskurs und Syntax im Sprachgebrauch. Sie eignen sich die Fähigkeit an, den kognitiven Status des gegebenen referentiellen Arguments richtig festzulegen und sie treffen ziemlich schnell normgerechte Entscheidungen über die Form des Arguments, die im gegebenen Kontext zu verwenden ist. Da sie meistens in der fortgeschrittenen Stufe der Sprachentwicklung eine richtige Entscheidung treffen, heißt es, dass sie die Stelle des Arguments in der Gegebenheitshierarchie

zu diesem Zeitpunkt wahrheitsgemäß bestimmt haben. Der richtige Gebrauch der Nullobjekte in der fortgeschrittenen Phase des Erst- und des frühen Zweitspracherwerbs bedeutet aber auch, dass die Kinder die syntaktischen Bedingungen für den Gebrauch der Nullargumente im Deutschen erkannt haben.

Die Daten der vorliegenden Untersuchung können schwer im Rahmen der Ansätze erklärt werden, die die Nullargumente auf die Komplexität der Verarbeitung der klitischen Elemente zurückführen (Hamann et al. 1996; Gruter 2006; Gavarró et al. 2010), weil die ausgelassenen Objekte in vielen Fällen gar nicht Klitika sein können. Das Kind scheint eher bei der Interpretation der ausgelassenen Kategorien vor allem Diskursstrategien zu berücksichtigen. Die ausgelassenen Elemente werden möglicherweise durch Diskurs und nicht durch entsprechende syntaktische Operationen interpretiert, die in der Erwachsenensprache für die Interpretation der Nullelemente zuständig sind.

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Zur Entwicklung der kodematischen Theorie des Fremdsprachenunterrichts

On the development of the codematic theory of foreign-language learning

ABSTRACT. The discussion addresses the linguistic code and its contribution to the development of the codematic theory of foreign-language teaching. This theory deals with the essence and properties of the course of processes of coding and decoding foreign-language structures. Teachers and learners participate in these processes as primary and secondary senders and receivers of transmitted lexical-grammatical structures with the aim of learners' mastering them. The process of learning and mastering foreign-language structures takes place in two stages, that is, during their decoding and construction in the form of structural matrices in the receiver's appropriate memory. In this way, in the receiver (learner) there forms a warehousing mechanism with regard to the foreign language. This mechanism is equipped with a receptive and (re)productive functioning force, that is a force that activates the structural matrices. Structural matrices in long-term memory attain the appropriate force of activation, and therefore demand constantly being brought up to date in various syntagmatic-syntactic constructions, that is in the process of their encoding.

KEYWORDS: linguistic code, foreign-language code processes, primary and secondary sender, primary and secondary receiver, merging structural matrices, spoken and written linguistic structural matrices and their processes of encoding.

SCHLÜSSELWÖRTER: Sprachkode, fremdsprachliche Kode-Prozesse, Primärsender und Sekundärsender, Primärempfänger und Sekundärempfänger, Verkoppelung der Strukturmatrizen, Sprech-Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrizen und ihre Einkodierungsprozesse.

1. EINLEITUNG

Für den Fremdsprachenunterricht sind verschiedene wissenschaftliche Theorien ausgearbeitet worden, die als begründete Darstellungen erklären und vorschlagen, wie sie didaktisch-methodisch in der Lehr-Lern-Praxis umgesetzt werden können. Zwischen den linguistischen Theorien, welche die

Sprachsysteme hinsichtlich deren Funktion in den Kommunikationsvorgängen untersuchen und beschreiben, und den fremdsprachenunterrichtlichen Theorien, welche die Erlernungs- und Aneignungsprozesse der Fremdsprache(n) erörtern, didaktisch-methodische Konzeptionen ausarbeiten und vorlegen, bestehen enge Relationen.

In diesem Beitrag versuchen wir, auf das Wesen des Sprachkodes und seine Relevanz auf die Entwicklung der kodematischen Theorie des Fremdsprachenunterrichts hinzuweisen und zu schildern, welche Subprozesse den fremdsprachlichen Kodierungs- bzw. Dekodierungsprozess konstituieren und wie diese ablaufen. Darüber hinaus werden noch den neuen dekodierten fremdsprachlichen Strukturen und deren im Gedächtnis aufbewahrten Sprachmatrizen besondere Aufmerksamkeit gelenkt, dank denen sie länger im Speicher-Mechanismus behalten werden können. Diese Ziele erreicht man auf Grund der Einprägung dieser Sprach-Strukturmatrizen in die tieferen Schichten des Langzeit-Gedächtnisses und solche Prozesse bezeichnen wir – der kodematischen Theorie gemäß – als Einkodierungsprozesse.

2. SPRACHKODE UND SEINE SPEZIFIK

Wird die Begrifflichkeit des Kommunikationskodes eingehender ergründet, so zeigt sich, dass in seinem Bereich mehrere Sonderkodes funktionieren, die in zwei Grundsysteme, und zwar in die sprachlichen und die nichtsprachlichen Kodes eingeteilt werden können (Abb. 1).
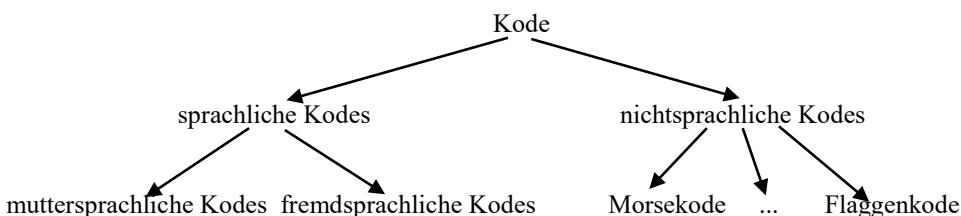
Abbildung 1. Kodes und ihre Arten

Wie aus dem obigen Schema ersichtlich sein dürfte, gilt der Kode als Sammelbegriff für verschiedene Arten menschlicher Kommunikation. Sein Wesen schließt das in der Kommunikationsgemeinschaft vereinbarte und regelhafte Inventar von Zeichen oder Signalen ein, mittels deren Informationen zwischen den Kommunikationspartnern, die den gleichen Kode verwenden, übertragen werden (vgl. Baacke 1973: 95 u. 88; Gipper 1978: 173). Betrachtet man den

Kodebegriff im Lichte der Informations- und Kommunikationstheorie, wo die Gesetzmäßigkeiten der Übertragung von Informationen mit mathematischen Methoden untersucht werden, so lässt sich das dort verwendete Sender-Empfänger-Modell für die Sprachkommunikation adaptieren und die durch den Sender (Sprecher/Schreiber) und den Empfänger (Hörer/Leser) benutzte Sprache als Kode bezeichnen. Dementsprechend wird der im Sender generierende Vorgang von Informationen als Kodierung und der sich im Empfänger vollziehende Aufnahmevorgang der Informationsstrukturen als Dekodierung definiert. Die Kommunikationspartner sind über den Kanal verbunden, durch den die vom Sender kodierten Informationen an den Empfänger vermittelt werden. Dieses Faktum zeugt deutlich davon, dass die Kommunikation unbedingt der Information(en) bedarf, d. h. die Kommunikation bedingt die Information oder noch anders ausgedrückt: sie stehen in gegenseitiger Abhängigkeit (vgl. Bünting & Kochan 1973: 93ff.).

Jeder einzelne Sprachkode hat sich in der bestimmten Sprachgemeinschaft so herausgebildet, dass seine phonetisch-phonologischen und graphisch-graphematischen Strukturen (falls der Kode über sie verfügt) sowie seine lexikalischen und grammatischen Strukturen ein geordnetes Gefüge darstellen. Diese Strukturen wiederholen sich – entsprechend den in der Sprache festgelegten Gesetzmäßigkeiten – in Verbindungen verschiedener Art und bilden das sprachliche System als Grundlage für die zwischenmenschliche Verständigung. Im Bereich des sprachlichen (allgemeinen) Systems werden weiterhin dessen Subsysteme und auch Subsubsysteme unterschieden.

Eine wissenschaftlich gründliche Analyse des Sprachkodes hat Ludwik Zabrocki (1961: 65ff.) durchgeführt. Ausgehend vom allgemeinen Kodebegriff, der als Gesetz der Transponierbarkeit von irgendwelchen Zeichen in andere Zeichen definiert wird, deutet Zabrocki auf die Gesetze der Transponierbarkeit der dem Begriff des Sprachkodes zugrunde liegenden sprachlichen Zeichen hin. Bezugnehmend auf die Konzeption des bilateralen Charakters des sprachlichen Zeichens wird die Funktion der Transponierbarkeit des Kodes im Bereich der bezeichnenden Substanz hervorgehoben, wo sie durch eine andere bezeichnende Substanz des Zeichens repräsentiert werden kann. Der Transponierungskode bezieht sich nur auf die bezeichnende Substanz, die bezeichnete Substanz des Inhaltsplans unterliegt jedoch nicht dem Transponierungsprozess, wodurch sie ihre inhaltliche Substanz ohne jede Veränderung beibehält. In weiteren Erörterungen unterscheidet Zabrocki den Lauttransponierungs-Kode und den Morphemtransponierungs-Kode. Er erläutert das Wesen und die Funktion des synthetischen Transformations-Kodes, auf Grund dessen die Worteinheiten im Satz angeordnet werden, und des analytischen Transformations-Kodes, auf Grund dessen die syntaktische Struktur in Syntagmen und Worteinheiten zergliedert wird.

3. FREMDSPRACHLICHE KODE-PROZESSE

In den Arbeiten, die die fremdsprachlich-kodematische Problematik aufgreifen, werden zwei Kode-Grundprozesse dargestellt und erläutert, und zwar des Kodierungs- und des Dekodierungsprozesses. Da der Sprachkode für die zwischenmenschliche Kommunikation relevant ist, wird dessen Funktion *eo ipso* in den Lehr-Lern-Prozessen berücksichtigt. Gegenstand unserer Erörterungen sind Kode-Prozesse, die in den institutionalisierten (hier schulischen) Formen des Fremdsprachenunterrichts stattfinden. In diesem Falle handelt es sich um Deutsch als Fremdsprache. Die Sprache wird hier unter anderen Bedingungen gelernt und erworben als im sprachlichen Unterricht von Deutsch als Muttersprache. Die Lernenden, die sich unter schulischen Bedingungen die Fremdsprache aneignen, beherrschen bereits ihre Muttersprache, die als Ausgangssprache betrachtet wird, und die den fremdsprachlichen Lernprozess einerseits zwar erleichtern, andererseits aber auch erschweren kann.

Ludwik Zabrocki (1966: 3–42) hat die kodematischen Grundlagen für die Theorie des Fremdsprachenunterrichts gelegt und gilt auch als Begründer des kybernetischen Strukturalismus, wo die Sprache als Tätigkeit, Wirkung (Energeia) in das kybernetische Gefüge der Kommunikationsprozesse eingebettet wird (vgl. Helbig 1970: 344f.). In den theoretischen Erörterungen hebt Zabrocki (1966: 9) ausdrücklich hervor, dass man den Sprachkode im Sprechprozess als entsprechende Transformationsregeln bezeichnen kann, die der Kodematik zugrunde liegen. Für die kodematische Theorie des Fremdsprachenunterrichts ist von besonderer Wichtigkeit, dass sich der Lehrende des für die zu lernende Fremdsprache bestimmten Transformationskodes bedient. Dementsprechend taucht das didaktisch-methodische Problem auf, wie die Transformationsregeln den Lernenden erklärt und vermittelt werden, damit diese sie erfolgreich begreifen und sich aneignen können. Mit diesem Problem ist noch ein anderes verbunden, nämlich die außersprachliche Wirklichkeit, deren Bestandteile (Gegenstände, Erscheinungen und ihre Eigenschaften) in jeder Sprache auf eine spezifische Art und Weise abgebildet, segmentiert und dabei unterschiedlich kodiert werden, was auch den Fremdsprachenlernern Schwierigkeiten bereiten kann. Die fremdsprachenunterrichtliche Kommunikation wird von Zabrocki (1966: 15 u., 1975: 26) in das allgemeine Sprachkommunikationsgefüge eingebaut, das des Weiteren in das kybernetische Gefüge eingeordnet wird, wo man es mit dem Sender und dem Empfänger, der/den Information(en) und den Übertragungskanälen zu tun hat. Unter den Kanälen sind zu unterscheiden: 1. der nukleare Kanal, durch den die vom Sender kodierten Informationen an den Empfänger vermittelt werden, 2. der Steuerungskanal, der für die optimale und erfolgreiche Übertragung der Informationen verantwortlich ist, und 3. der

Kontrollkanal, durch den die Erfolge des sich im Primärempfänger vollzogenen Dekodierungsprozesses der Informationsstrukturen nach entsprechenden Transformationen vom Sekundärsender kodiert und dem Primärsender mitgeteilt werden. Daraus ergibt sich, dass die fremdsprachlichen Kommunikationspartner sowohl einseitig als auch im Rückkoppelungsgefüge miteinander verbunden sind. Den materiellen Kommunikationsvermittler bilden die lautliche Substanz (die phonetisch-phonologischen Strukturen) oder die schriftliche Substanz (die graphisch-graphematischen Strukturen).

Den Fremdsprachenunterricht beginnt selbstverständlich der Lehrende/Sender, der die bestimmten Informationsstrukturen den Lernenden/Empfängern vermittelt, die sie dekodieren, kennenlernen, verstehen und behalten. Dementsprechend ist unsere Aufmerksamkeit insbesondere auf die Lernenden gelenkt. Es ist wichtig zu wissen, wie sie diese fremdsprachliche Substanz aufnehmen, dekodieren und speichern. Die Handlungen verlangen genauere Erörterungen, die von Zabrocki in seinen Arbeiten ausführlich entwickelt und dargestellt worden sind.

Die empfangenen fremdsprachlichen Informationen bestehen einerseits aus den durch die Lernenden im Unterricht erlernten und andererseits aus den ganz neuen/unbekannten (lexikalischen oder grammatischen) Strukturen, die in den Satzkonstruktionen dargestellt und vermittelt werden. Von jedem Lernenden werden diese Satzkonstruktionen erstens mit Hilfe des analytischen Kodes in kleinere bedeutungtragende Einheiten (Syntagmen und Wörter) segmentiert. Zweitens werden die schon bekannten Strukturen den im fremdsprachlichen Zentrum gespeicherten Matrizen zugeordnet und die neuen Strukturen als Matrizen aufgebaut (Näheres hierzu Zabrocki 1966: 19 ff. u. 1975: 42–52). Um den Inhalt des Satzes zu verstehen, müssen all seine Einheiten zu einem Ganzen zusammengefügt werden. In diesem Falle bedienen sich die Lernenden des synthetischen Kodes. Zusammenfassend bedeutet dies, dass sich die Lernenden während der ganzheitlichen Dekodierung des Satzinhalts zweier Kodes bedienen, des analytischen als des primären Grundkodes und des synthetischen als des sekundären Grundkodes, wobei der letztere auch als Kontrollkode bezeichnet wird. Bei der Erlernung der Fremdsprache eignet man sich zuerst deren phonetisch-phonologischen analytischen Grundkode (den Hörkode) an, dann den phonetisch-phonologischen synthetischen Grundkode (den Sprechkode). So werden auch der graphisch-graphematische analytische Grundkode (der Lesekode) und der graphisch-graphematische synthetische Grundkode (der Schreibkode) beherrscht (Zabrocki 1966: 17, 27 u. 35).

An dieser Stelle dürfte der Hinweis nützlich sein, dass sich sowohl der Hörkode als auch der Lesekode, die auf der ersten Stufe des Dekodierungsprozesses funktionieren, folgendermaßen spezifizieren lassen:

```
         Hörkode                    Lesekode
        ↙      ↘                   ↙        ↘
phonetischer  phonologischer   graphischer  graphematischer
  Hörkode       Hörkode         Lesekode      Lesekode
```
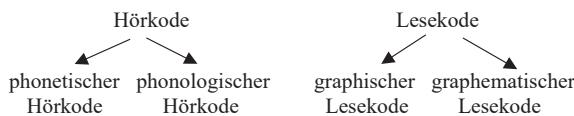
Abbildung 2. Die Aufgliederung des phonetisch-phonologischen analytischen Hörkodes und des graphisch-graphematischen Lesekodes in ihre einzelnen Subkodes

Aus der Spezifizierung beider Kodes ergibt sich, dass für die korrekte Aneignung der fremdsprachlichen bezeichnenden Substanz folgende Bausteine wesentlich sind: zum einen die akustisch-auditiven Eigenschaften der Laute (der Phone) oder die optisch-visuellen Eigenschaften der Schriftzeichen (der Graphe), zum anderen die kleinsten bedeutungsdifferenzierenden Spracheinheiten (die Phoneme oder die Grapheme).

In der Konklusion der Betrachtungen über den Sprachkode-Begriff und die ihm zugrundeliegenden Gesetze weist Zabrocki auf das Wesen des Erlernens einer Fremdsprache hin. Um die Fremdsprache zu beherrschen, um sich deren in den zwischenmenschlichen Kommunikationsakten bedienen zu können, muss man sich zunächst die Kodegesetze der Transformation aneignen. Diese Transformationsgesetze sind Bausteine für die kodematischen und kybernetischen Grundlagen der Theorie des Fremdsprachenunterrichts.

Die Problematik des Fremdsprachenunterrichts ist von vielen Linguisten und Didaktikern erneut aufgenommen worden. Da die Fragen komplex sind und sowohl multidisziplinäre als auch interdisziplinäre Zusammenarbeit betreffen, bedürfen sie selbstverständlich breiterer und gründlicher Überlegungen, wissenschaftlicher Betrachtungen und eingehender Diskussionen über die Erlernungs- und Aneignungsprozesse der Fremdsprache(n) (vgl. Hennig & Huth 1975: 79 ff.).

Moulton und Freudenstein (1972: 39) haben beispielsweise den fremdsprachlichen Gesamtprozess vom kodematischen Standpunkt aus in folgende elf Stufen unterteilt:

```
                            → 1. Semantische Verschlüsselung
Verschlüsselung  ←————————→ 2. Grammatische Verschlüsselung
  der Nachricht             → 3. Phonologische Verschlüsselung

Sendung ————————————————→ 4. Vom Gehirn zu den Sprechwerkzeugen
                         → 5. Bewegungen der Sprechwerkzeuge

Übermittlung ——————————→ 6. Schwingungen der Luftmoleküle

Empfang —————————————→ 7. Schwingungen des inneren Ohres
                      → 8. Vom Ohr zum Gehirn

                         → 9. Phonologische Entschlüsselung
Entschlüsselung ←————————→ 10. Grammatische Entschlüsselung
                         → 11. Semantische Entschlüsselung
```

Diese bereits aufgezählten Stufen der Kode-Prozesse verdeutlichen – so Moulton und Freudenstein (1972: 40 ff.) – den ganzen Kommunikationsverlauf, d. h. die inneren und nicht direkt beobachteten Prozesse des Senders und des Empfängers und den äußeren Übermittlungsprozess, der die Kommunikationspartner verbindet. In die semantische Verschlüsselung wird der „Gedanke", der "Inhalt" einbezogen und als Ausgangspunkt des Prozesses angenommen. Die grammatische Verschlüsselung regelt die entsprechende Anordnung der für die Übertragung von Informationen ausgewählten semantischen Einheiten (Wörter) und deren Kombinationsmöglichkeiten in den Syntagmen und Sätzen. Als letzte findet die phonologische Verschlüsselung statt, in der die syntagmatisch-syntaktisch angeordneten Strukturen phonetisch-phonologisch produziert werden.

In Bühlers (1972: 25) kodematischer Konzeption werden fünf Grundprozesse mit ihren einzelnen Subprozessen folgendermaßen dargestellt:

1) Kodierung der Mitteilung
   a) semantische Kodierung
   b) grammatische Kodierung
   c) phonologische Kodierung

2) Sendevorgang
   a) Vom Gehirn zu den Sprechorganen
   b) Bewegungen der Sprechorgane

3) Übertragung
   Schwingungen der Luftmoleküle

4) Empfangsvorgang
   a) Schwingungen des Trommelfells
   b) Vom Ohr zum Gehirn

5) Dekodierung
   a) phonologische Dekodierung
   b) grammatische Dekodierung
   c) semantische Dekodierung

Die sprachliche Kodierung versteht Bühler (27 u. 132) als Verwendung der in einer Sprachgemeinschaft festgelegten Zeichen, deren sich die Kommunikationspartner (Sprecher und Hörer) in bestimmten Situationen bedienen. Ein besonderer Wert wird der grammatischen Kodierung beigemessen, weil sie für den Sprechvorgang als strukturierende Komponente anzusehen ist. Um die Eigenart der sprachlichen Kodierung zu beschreiben, sollten vor allem die semantische und die syntaktische Kodierung sowie die Gesprächssituationen berücksichtigt werden.

4. KODIERUNGS- UND DEKODIERUNGSPROZESSE DER FREMDSPRACHLICHEN INFORMATIONEN

Den Fremdsprachenunterrichtsprozess beginnt der Lehrende mit der Kodierung der schon erlernten sowie auch der zu lernenden Strukturen, die mit den

sich schon angeeigneten Strukturen in bestimmte syntagmatisch-syntaktische Konstruktionen eingebaut und gleichfalls dargestellt werden (vgl. auch Grucza 1967: 14f.). Diese Lehrhandlung sollte sich auf das Aneignungsniveau der fremd-sprachlichen lexikalisch-grammatischen Strukturen der Lernenden beziehen, über die sie vor allem rezeptiv – jedoch nicht ausschließlich – verfügen, um so alle neuen und bekannten Informationsstrukturen richtig zu dekodieren und die zum ersten Mal vermittelten kennenlernen und als Sprach-Strukturmatrizen im Speicher-Mechanismus aufbauen und behalten zu können. Obwohl das für den Fremdsprachenunterricht aufbereitete Material in den Lehr-Lern-Büchern präsentiert wird und den Unterrichtsteilnehmern zur Verfügung steht, müssen bestimmte Strukturen in den Unterrichtsstunden sowohl (vor allem) mündlich als auch schriftlich vermittelt werden. Dies verlangt auch, dass die Lehrenden feststellen und entscheiden müssen, welche Strukturen des fremdsprachlichen Materials (und warum) lautlich oder graphisch dargeboten werden sollten. An dieser Stelle muss betont werden, dass man im Fremdsprachenunterricht das Primat der Lautsprache vor der Schriftsprache berücksichtigen sollte, was nicht bedeutet, dass das graphische Material im Unterricht vernachlässigt wird. Ganz im Gegenteil, es wird sowohl im Klassenzimmer, aber vor allem im Selbst-unterricht als Ausgangspunkt betrachtet und benutzt (Schiffer 1976: 75). Für die fremdsprachenunterrichtlichen Kodierungs- und Dekodierungsprozesse sind also zwei sprachliche Substanzen wichtig, nämlich die lautliche und die graphische, und deshalb werden sie in den weiteren Erörterungen berücksichtigt.

Die glottodidaktischen Kodierungs- und Dekodierungsprozesse werden in das kybernetische Gefüge eingebaut, um zu zeigen, nach welchen Gesetzmäßig-keiten sie ablaufen. Das dargestellte Modell (Abb. 3) umfasst im Allgemeinen die grundlegenden kodematisch-kybernetischen Prozesse, wobei ihre wesentlichen Bestandteile im Einzelnen dargeboten und erklärt werden.
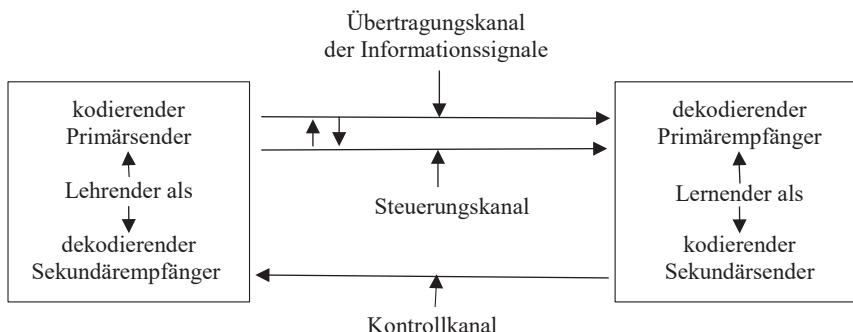

Abbildung 3. Fremdsprachenunterrichtliche Kodierungs- und Dekodierungsprozesse des Leh-renden und des Lernenden mit den interindividuellen Verbindungen

Wie im Modell angedeutet wird, sind die kodierenden und die dekodierenden Primär- und Sekundärsender im Rückkoppelungsgefüge verbunden. In solch einem Gefüge unterscheidet man drei Schaltungskreise: 1. den Trägerkreis der nuklearen Informationen (Grundinformationskreis), 2. den Steuerungskreis und 3. den Kontrollkreis (Zabrocki 1966: 8 u. 1975: 26). Der Trägerkreis dient der Übertragung der Grundinformationen an die Empfänger/Lernenden. Mit dem Trägerkreis ist direkt und eng der Steuerungskreis verknüpft, der – so wird angenommen – eine inhärente Einheit mit dem Trägerkreis bildet. Seine wesentliche Aufgabe beruht darauf, dass die durch den Sender kodierten Informationssignale von den Empfängern optimal aufgenommen und erfolgreich dekodiert werden. Deshalb benutzt man für die Steuerung der Grundinformationen sowohl die suprasegmentalen Eigenschaften der sprachlichen Strukturen (vgl. die Hervorhebung des Akzents, der Rhythmik oder der Intonation bestimmter Worteinheiten) als auch die parasprachlichen Eigenschaften (Gestik, Mimik) sowie die visuellen Mittel (Bilder, Situationen), welche die entsprechenden Elemente der außersprachlichen Wirklichkeit, die versprachlicht werden sollten, durch Veranschaulichung deutlicher machen. Auf Grund der vom Lernenden kodierten und durch den Kontrollkanal an den Lehrenden überlieferten Informationsstrukturen wird ihre Korrektheit geprüft. Falls einige Strukturen fehlerhaft und/oder mangelhaft kodiert worden sind, bedürfen sie selbstverständlich einer Berichtigung. Welche Sprachstrukturen der Primärsender auswählt und den Lernenden vermittelt, haben wir schon oben angedeutet. Seine intraindividuellen Kodierungsprozesse vollziehen sich im fremdsprachlichen Speicher-Mechanismus, wo die lexikalisch-grammatisch bekannten Strukturen und eine neu zu lernende lexikalische oder grammatische Struktur generiert und syntagmatisch-syntaktisch angeordnet werden. Fungiert der Primärsender als Sprecher, so werden die syntagmatisch-syntaktisch generierten Strukturen in neuronale Substanz umgewandelt und in Artikulationseffektoren transportiert, wo deren artikulatorische Produktion stattfindet. Auf diese Weise vollzieht sich der intraindividuelle Kodierungsprozess, der aus zwei Subprozessen (der Generierung und der Produktion) besteht. Demnach wird die artikulatorische Substanz der kodierten Strukturen im interindividuellen Übertragungskanal in akustische Signale transponiert und den Rezeptoren der Empfänger/Lernenden übermittelt, wo sie in auditive Signale der phonetisch-phonologischen Strukturen umgewandelt werden.

Agiert der Primärsender als Scheiber, werden die im fremdsprachlichen Speicher-Mechanismus generierten Strukturen in neuronale Substanz umgewandelt und zu motorischen Effektoren transportiert, wo deren motorisch-graphische Produktion stattfindet. Im Übertragungskanal wird die motorisch-graphische Substanz in optische Signale transponiert und den Rezeptoren der Empfänger/

Lernenden übermittelt, wo sie in visuelle Signale umgewandelt werden. In den Rezeptoren beginnt die erste Stufe des Dekodierungsprozesses, während dessen die phonetisch-phonologischen Strukturen differenziert, in neuronale Substanz transponiert und zum Speicher-Mechanismus transportiert werden. Dort findet die zweite Stufe des Dekodierungsprozesses statt, nämlich der ganzheitliche, d. h. der lexikalisch-grammatische Dekodierungsprozess. Da die durch den Primärsender/Lehrenden kodierten und vermittelten Informationsstrukturen aus bekannten und neu dargebotenen fremdsprachlichen Struktureinheiten bestehen, werden die bekannten den schon im Speicher-Mechanismus des Lernenden existierenden Sprachmatrizen zugeordnet und so verstanden, die neuen dagegen werden dekodiert und kennengelernt sowie als Sprachmatrizen konstruiert und dort aufbewahrt. Hierzu sei noch darauf verwiesen, dass die Dekodierung als zweistufiger Prozess betrachtet wird, in dem die neuen fremdsprachlichen Struktureinheiten als Matrizen konstruiert und im Gedächtnis aufbewahrt oder gespeichert werden, die bekannten Struktureinheiten hingegen durch ihre Dynamisierung eine festere Einlagerung gewinnen, die sicherlich das Funktionieren des Speicher-Mechanismus ermöglicht. Unter dem Begriff der fremdsprachlichen Struktureinheiten versteht man im glottodidaktischen Sinne die grundlegenden Spracheinheiten, nämlich die lexikalischen Strukturen und die grammatischen Strukturen, die des Weiteren auf lautliche oder schriftliche Art und Weise im Fremdsprachenunterricht dargeboten und erlernt werden.

Die durch die Lernenden neu empfangenen und dekodierten fremdsprachlichen Einheiten hinterlassen im Gedächtnis Spuren, auch Engramme genannt (vgl. u. a. Parreren 1972: 297ff.; Gagne 1973: 67; Schnabl 1972: 131; Hoffmann & Klix 1980: 192; Wettler 1980: 12), die unter kodematischem Aspekt als Sprach-Strukturmatrizen bezeichnet werden. Im Falle der lautlichen Vermittlung der neuen lexikalischen oder grammatischen Struktur und deren phonetisch-phonologischer Dekodierung wird im Speicher-Mechanismus jedes Lernenden die Sprech-Sprach-Strukturmatrize konstruiert, während der schriftlichen Vermittlung und deren graphisch-graphematischer Dekodierung wird dagegen die Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrize aufgebaut. Wenn die lexikalische Sprech-Sprach-Strukturmatrize im Speicher-Mechanismus des Lernenden vorhanden ist und im Lernprozess deren Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrize konstruiert wird, dann kommt es zur völligen Verkoppelung beider Sprach-Strukturmatrizen in eine in sich geschlossene und übergeordnete bezeichnete Ganzheit, die begrifflich als Sprech-Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrize erfasst werden kann. Daraus ist der glottodidaktische Schluss zu ziehen, dass die fremdsprachlichen Strukturmatrizen durch den Lernenden *primo* als Sprech-Sprach-Strukturmatrizen, *secundo* als Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrizen und *tertio* – wenn die Sprachstrukturen lautlich und schriftlich parallel dargeboten und dekodiert werden – als Sprech-Schreib-

Sprach-Strukturmatrizen aufgebaut werden und so funktionieren können. Die bisherigen Erörterungen bezüglich der Sprach-Strukturmatrizen lassen sich modellhaft wie folgt konzipieren:

Fremdsprachliche Strukturmatrize

Sprech-Sprach-Strukturmatrize ⟷ Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrize

Transponierungsregeln

Sprech-Schreib-Sprach-**Strukturmatrize**
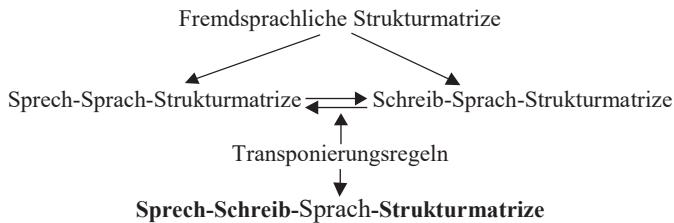
Abbildung 4. Die Verkoppelung der Sprech-Sprach-Strukturmatrize und der Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrize in die Sprech-Schreib-Sprach-Strukturmatrize

Die neu lexikalisch oder grammatisch konstruierten Sprech-Sprach- und Schreib- Sprach-Strukturmatrizen bedürfen sicherlich vielfältiger Präzisierung, weil deren Aufbau erstens bei jedem Lernenden durch seine individuellen Lernfähigkeiten bedingt ist, was einen direkten Einfluss auf deren Aufbewahrungszeit im Speicher-Mechanismus hat, und zweitens sich die Sprach-Strukturmatrizen hinsichtlich der rezeptiven, reproduktiven und produktiven Leistungsfähigkeiten (ganz) gewiss bei jedem Lernenden unterscheiden. Drittens müssen auch die Verbindungsmöglichkeiten der neu erlernten mit den bekannten Strukturen in syntagmatischen und syntaktischen Konstruktionen berücksichtigt werden.

Mit den bereits aufgeworfenen Fragen ist der Kodierungsprozess des Fremdsprachenlernenden verbunden, in dem er als selbständiger Empfänger, aber insbesondere als Sender in den Kommunikationsakten fungiert. Seine fremdsprachlichen Handlungen basieren auf den im Speicher-Mechanismus vorhandenen lexikalischen und grammatischen Strukturen, die als Sprecheinheiten oder Schreibeinheiten benutzt werden. Diese Einheiten bilden das fremdsprachliche Inventar, auf Grund dessen die benötigten Informationen kodiert werden. Um die Informationen zu kodieren, finden im Speicher-Mechanismus des Lernenden folgende Subprozesse statt: 1. Der Suchprozess der für die Kommunikationsintention entsprechenden Wortstrukturen, 2. Der Auffindungsprozess der für die Kodierung benötigten Wortstrukturen, 3. Der Transformationsprozess der ausgewählten Wortstrukturen und deren Anordnung in die syntagmatischen und syntaktischen Konstruktionen und 4. Der Abrufprozess oder der Generierungsprozess der angeordneten Wortstrukturen, die des Weiteren zu den artikulatorischen oder den motorischen Effektoren transportiert werden, wo sich deren Produktionsprozess vollzieht. Der Generierungs- und der Produktionsprozess sind Bestandteile des Kodierungsprozesses der Informationsstrukturen (vgl. Szczodrowski 2001: 145–165).

5. EINKODIERUNGSPROZESSE DER FREMDSPRACHLICHEN STRUKTURMATRIZEN

Dass die fremdsprachlichen Strukturen durch den Lernenden dekodiert und im Speicher-Mechanismus als konstruierte Sprech-Sprach-Schreibmatrizen aufbewahrt werden, bedeutet bei weitem noch nicht, dass sie dem Lernenden/ Fremdsprachenbenutzer auf unbegrenzte Zeit zur Verfügung stehen werden. Sie bedürfen ständiger rezeptiver, reproduktiver und vor allem produktiver Dynamisierungen, die dazu beitragen, dass sie ins Langzeit-Gedächtnis übertragen, dort tiefer und fester verankert werden und dadurch ihre operations- und leistungsfähige rezeptiv-produktive Potenz erreichen. Solch einen Übertragungsprozess der konstruierten Sprach-Strukturmatrizen ins Langzeit-Gedächtnis bezeichnen wir als Einkodierungsprozess (= Einprägungsprozess, vgl. dazu Szczodrowski 2016), wo sein Wesen und seine Eigenschaften im Bereich der kodematischen Theorie reflektiert und präzisiert worden sind.

Auf Grund der Dekodierung der neu empfangenen fremdsprachlichen lexikalischen oder grammatischen Strukturen vollzieht sich der Aufbau deren Matrizen im Gedächtnis des Lernenden, die dort für eine gewisse Zeit verfügbar sind. An dieser Stelle erhebt sich einerseits die Frage, die in einem direkten Zusammenhang mit dem spatio-temporalen Charakter der fremdsprachlichen Matrizenkonstruktion im Gedächtnis steht. Das Gedächtnis ist bekanntlich die Grundlage der Lernprozesse und diesbezüglich umfasst es die Aufnahme, das Behalten und die Wiedergewinnung der (fremd-)sprachlichen Informationen. Da sich im Gedächtnis des Menschen sowohl das Zentrum der Muttersprache als auch der Raum der neu konstruierten fremdsprachlichen Matrizen befindet, bezeichnen wir ihn als Speicher-Mechanismus. Dort werden die bereits erwähnten Matrizen für eine bestimmte Zeit aufbewahrt (im Speicher) und sind dementsprechend mit der Vorrichtung der Rezeptions-, Reproduktions- und Produktionspotenz (des Mechanismus) ausgestattet. Andererseits besteht noch eine offene Frage, und zwar wie lange die fremdsprachlichen Sprachstrukturmatrizen im Speicher behalten werden. Die Aufbewahrungsdauer dieser Matrizen ist nicht unbegrenzt und deshalb berücksichtigen wir das möglichst dreistufige Behalten der konstruierten fremdsprachlichen Matrizen im Gedächtnis des Lernenden (vgl. dazu Vester 1975: 58 u. passim), nämlich deren

– Aufbewahrung im Ultrakurzzeit-Gedächtnis (UKZG)
– Speicherung im Kurzzeit-Gedächtnis (KZG) und
– Einkodierung im Langzeit-Gedächtnis (LZG)

Wesentlich für jeden Lernprozess sind insbesondere zwei Probleme: das Behalten des Erlernten und dessen Verlust. Die Lernprobleme sind nicht identisch für jeden Lernenden, weil die rezeptive und die produktive Aneignung des

fremdsprachlichen Systems – sowohl des phonetisch-phonologischen als auch des lexikalisch-grammatischen – durch die Sprachbegabung jedes Individuums in irgendwelchem Maße bedingt ist. Um die im UKZG aufbewahrten fremdsprachlichen Sprachstrukturmatrizen länger zu behalten sowie die im KZG gespeicherten ins LZG zu übertragen, verlangen die Sprachstrukturmatrizen systematische rezeptive und (re-)produktive Dynamisierungen. Verzichtet man auf die bereits genannten Übertragungen der Sprachstrukturmatrizen, so zerfallen sie wahrscheinlich ganz und gar. Mit den rezeptiv-produktiven fremdsprachlichen Handlungen ist auch die Verarbeitung des gelernten Materials verbunden, die beispielsweise durch die Verwendung der Wortstrukturen in den syntagmatisch-syntaktischen Konstruktionen zustande kommt, und zwar in den Äußerungen der Lernenden während des Unterrichts, in den schriftlichen Übungen im Selbstunterricht und auch in den möglicherweise vorkommenden selbstständigen Kontakten mit den fremdsprachlichen Kommunikationspartnern.

Das LZG scheint der dauerhafteste Speicher zu sein und deshalb haben wir auf die Eigenschaften des Einkodierungsprozesses hingewiesen, auf Grund dessen die fremdsprachlichen Sprachstrukturmatrizen tiefer ins Gedächtnis eingeprägt werden und dort eine sichere Existenzgrundlage erhalten sowie operationsfähiger funktionieren können. Der Einkodierungsprozess basiert auf den bereits erwähnten Dynamisierungen der im UKZG aufbewahrten und der im KZG gespeicherten fremdsprachlichen Strukturmatrizen und deren Übertragung ins Langzeit-Gedächtnis, wo ihre Existenz zwar nicht unendlich ist, aber wo sie ganz gewiss einen längeren Zeitraum überdauern. Alle Dynamisierungen der im LZG einkodierten Strukturmatrizen festigen in verschiedenartigen Kommunikationsakten ihre bezeichnenden und bezeichneten Substanzen und deren Leistungsfähigkeiten, die auch davon abhängig sind, in welchen Schichten des Langzeit-Gedächtnisses sie verankert worden sind. Hierzu wird ein Modell konzipiert (Abb. 5, vgl. auch Szczodrowski 2018: 350), welches die mögliche Verteilung der fremdsprachlichen Sprech-Schreib-Strukturmatrizen in diesem Gedächtnis darstellt:

Einkodierungsprozess
der fremdsprachlichen Sprech-Schreib-Strukturmatrizen
im Langzeit-Gedächtnis
↓
Einkodierte fremdsprachliche Sprech-Schreib-Strukturmatrizen
in den Oberflächenschichten des Langzeit-Gedächtnisses
und deren Übertragung in die Tiefenschichten
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ↓ - - - - - - - - - ↓ - - - - - - - - - ↓ - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
Einkodierte fremdsprachliche Sprech-Schreib-Strukturmatrizen
in den Tiefenschichten des Langzeit-Gedächtnisses
und ihre rezeptiv-produktiven Leistungsfähigkeiten

Abbildung 5. Übertragung der einkodierten fremdsprachlichen Sprech-Schreib-Strukturmatrizen von den Oberflächenschichten in die Tiefenschichten des Langzeit-Gedächtnisses

Da die einkodierten fremdsprachlichen Sprech-Schreib-Strukturmatrizen im Langzeit-Gedächtnis jedes Lernenden/Benutzers hinsichtlich der räumlich-zeitlichen und der operationsfähigen Eigenschaften nicht gleich sind, haben wir im Speicher-Mechanismus deren zwei Schichten differenziert, in denen sie als interiorisierte Strukturmatrizen ihre Dauerhaftigkeit und ihr kommunikatives Leistungsvermögen erzielen. Betrachtet man den Fremdsprachenlernenden hinsichtlich des effektiven Einkodierens der einzelnen fremdsprachlichen Struktureinheiten, dann sollten ebenso folgende Probleme berücksichtigt werden: Die Spezifik der lexikalisch-grammatischen Strukturen und deren lautliche oder schriftliche Realisierung, die nötige Einprägungszeit und die erreichten Leistungen. Dass manche im Langzeit-Gedächtnis einkodierten fremdsprachlichen Strukturmatrizen irgendwann auch in (völlige) Vergessenheit geraten (können), kommt aus verschiedenen Gründen nicht selten vor.

6. ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Abschließend taucht das linguistische und das glottodidaktische Problem auf, wie die kodematische Theorie bezüglich der sich im Fremdsprachenunterricht vollziehenden Prozesse einerseits durch die Lehrenden und andererseits durch die Lernenden in die Praxis umgesetzt werden kann. Betrachtet man unter dem glottodidaktischen Aspekt die vorgenommene Einteilung der im Unterricht stattfindenden Kode-Prozesse noch einmal, so fällt auf, dass sowohl der Lehrende wie auch der Lernende als Primärsender und Primärempfänger sowie als Sekundärsender und Sekundärempfänger bestimmte fremdsprachliche Aufgaben zu erfüllen haben, um die gesetzten Ziele zu verwirklichen. Wenn die Lernenden an den bereits erwähnten Kommunikationshandlungen teilnehmen (wollen), müssen sie sich die Strukturen sowie deren richtige Anordnung in den syntagmatisch-syntaktischen Konstruktionen angeeignet haben.

Insbesondere wurden auch das Wesen des Einkodierungsprozesses der fremdsprachlichen Sprech-Schreib-Strukturmatrizen im Langzeit-Gedächtnis des Lernenden und dessen Ergebnisse betont. Jede Dynamisierung der Strukturmatrizen versteht sich als deren Aktualisierung in einer bestimmten Kommunikationshandlung, was naturgemäß dazu beiträgt, dass die Strukturmatrizen tiefer im Langzeit-Gedächtnis des Lernenden verankert sind, dass sie sich durch eine längere räumlich-zeitliche Stabilität auszeichnen, was eine direkte Wirkung auf die rezeptiv-produktiven Leistungsfähigkeiten und -fertigkeiten des Lernenden ausübt.

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Language and education policy as one of the main challenges of migrant integration in Poland

ABSTRACT. This article aims to map current state policy and governmental responses to migrant integration in Poland, as well as to identify pressing needs and key challenges in this area, with a particular focus on language and education. It draws on a literature review and analysis of legal documents and reports on migrant integration and language policy for 1989–2020. When analysing the data, particular attention was paid to the declared state policy on migrant integration and its actual implementation, as captured in the Supreme Audit Office (NIK 2015, 2020) and Migrant Integration Policy Index reports (MIPEX 2015, 2020). The research shows that the scope of integration activities and their effects have been unsatisfactory to date. The situation of migrants in Poland was dubbed "equality on paper" in the MIPEX 2020 report. Current programmes and activities are not fostering full integration of migrants. Apart from housing and employment issues, a lack of language skills and education that is not responsive to the needs of migrants remain the main barriers to migrant integration in Poland.

KEYWORDS: migrant integration, language policy, migration policy, language and education.

1. INTRODUCTION

The article examines migrant integration strategies adopted by policymakers in Poland as a relatively new destination for newcomers and seeks to acknowledge the existing policies and adopted models of migrant integration in Poland with a special focus on language and education. The main premise underlying this paper is that Poland has inconsistent integration policies, which pose significant challenges to migrants, negatively affecting their daily functioning and hindering their integration and participation in social life. Therefore, the main rationale for the current analysis is the lack of updated accounts on the *status quo* migrant integration in Poland available in the English language that could contribute to the relevant discussion and exchange of experiences in a wider context. Thus, the paper aims to identify current state policies and governments' responses to migrant integration as well as discern burning needs and key challenges in this area.

As far as the research data is concerned, the article draws on a literature review as well as the analysis of legal documents and reports for the period 1989–2020. When analysing the data, special attention was paid to the state declarative migrant integration policy and its real-life realisation as outlined in MIPEX 2015 and 2020 reports (MIPEX 2015, 2020). Additionally, by comparing the findings and recommendations of the two reports, the progress and developments in migrant integration policy are assessed. Finally, in a broader sense, the paper also attempts to contribute to a better understanding of migrant integration processes with the ultimate goal to minimise the marginalisation of migrants and foster their integration in contemporary Poland.

The article is organised in the following way. It begins with an overview of migrant integration policies in Poland to provide the context for a discussion in the next sections centred on language and education policies (Sections 3 and 4, respectively). Based on the analysis of 2015 and 2020 MIPEX, as well as the Supreme Audit Office [Pl. Najwyższa Izba Kontroli (NIK); hereinafter SAO] reports, Section 5 overviews the challenges to migrant integration in Poland. The final section provides the conclusions to the literature review and document analysis undertaken. The findings of the analysis will partly contribute to the intellectual outputs developed in the MaMLiSE Project – Majority and Minority Languages in School Environment: Helping Teachers, Pupils and Parents, 2020-1-PL01-KA201-081612, funded by the European Commission under the Erasmus+ program, KA201-Strategic Partnership for school education.

2. MIGRANT INTEGRATION POLICIES IN POLAND

Before Poland's accession to the UE in 2004, the scale of migration to Poland was marginal so until the last decade, the issue of migrant integration was not given much attention (Lesińska 2010: 102–103). The studies comparing integration practices in Poland with the experiences of Western countries generally indicated provisional, chaotic actions in various areas of integration policy (Łodzinski & Grzymała-Kazłowska 2011). In recent years, however, there has been a significant increase in interest in this area, inspired mainly by EU funds allotted for research and activities for the integration of migrants (Lesińska 2010: 108). Like other new Member States, Poland has adopted EU practices on migration and integration but failed to tailor them to national needs and specificities (Pawlak 2013: 97–121). In Poland, various aspects of foreigners' integration have been regulated in many legal acts, referring mainly to Polish citizens. These are, for example, the Act on Social Assistance of 2004, the Act on the Education System of 1991, the 2004 Act on Health Care Services

financed with public funds or the 1998 Act on the Social Insurance System (cf. Rajca 2015: 191).

Although the Government has made certain efforts to draft some documents defining the policy of migration and integration of foreigners in Poland, attempts to formulate a comprehensive state migration policy have so far been unsuccessful. According to experts from the Department of Analysis and Migration Policy of the Ministry of Interior and Administration (*Polityka migracyjna Polski…* 2020: 3), the only attempts that can be considered partially successful are the development of the document "Migration policy of Poland – the current state and postulated actions", adopted by the Council of Ministers in 2012 and cancelled in 2016, and the document "Socio-economic priorities of the migration policy", developed under the guidance of the Ministry of Investment and Development and adopted by the Council of Ministers in 2018. However, there is no document that comprehensively and coherently addresses the issue of co-ordination of state actions towards migration processes. The inability to foresee the dynamics of changes in the migration situation in Poland and the migration situation in Europe resulted in the rapid outdating of the document "Migration policy of Poland – the current state and postulated actions" (*Polityka migracyjna Polski…* 2012). Based on this assumption, current activities aimed at developing the migration policy of the country are based on the conviction that both the migration processes and the migration situation of the country are subject to constant transformations and changes which may occur. Therefore, the migration policy should be updated on an annual basis as well as, if necessary, in response to unexpected changes in the situation.

In 2020, work on the new migration policy of the country was commenced, changing the method of proceeding used in previous schemes, which was enforced by the need to render the changeability of the situation. A set of main assumptions and lines of action for 2021 was established, together with a timetable, which allowed the development of a diagnosis based on the current migration situation. Unfortunately, the Covid-19 epidemic halted progress, making it impossible to implement the previously adopted schedule. Despite certain organisational limitations and difficulties with updating elaborated analyses and obtaining new necessary materials, the works continued and the Migration Team managed to resume activities important for the implementation of the set objective undertaken during the pandemic (*Polityka migracyjna Polski…* 2020: 3).

Regardless of the future development of the pandemic, issues related to migration processes require planned and coordinated activities. It was therefore decided to develop a diagnostic document and lines of action for 2021, as further delay in starting the process of preparing a migration policy would endanger the process itself. The development of a set of basic principles has been postponed to

a further time horizon. In subsequent periods, the preparation of new diagnostic material and directions of action for subsequent years will create an opportunity to fill in gaps and improve the very form of these documents. The representatives of the Polish administration are members of the EU Council working groups and European Commission committees. In the groups and committees draft legal acts and strategic documents of the Union are prepared, also concerning migration. An annually updated document on migration policy will take into account the changes introduced to the law and practice of the state in the field of migration. From this point of view, the new "Pact on Migration and Asylum" will be of particular importance for the migration policy of the country (*Polityka migracyjna Polski…* 2020: 3).

The integration programmes implemented so far have been addressed mainly to refugees and repatriates. Integration of foreigners under international protection is a two-stage process. The realisation of the first stage lies with the responsibility of the Office for Foreigners and includes the period of waiting for the granting of refugee status (pre-integration) in centres for refugees (Rajca 2015: 192). As research shows, the stay in these centres is not conducive to integration within society (Łodzinski & Ząbek 2010: 236). The second type of integration, i.e. actual integration, concerns persons who have obtained refugee status or have been granted subsidiary protection. They have the right to apply to the *starost* [district governor] with jurisdiction over the foreigner's place of residence for an individual integration programme (IIP). It is implemented by the district family assistance centres and supervised by the Minister of Family, Labour and Social Policy. Assistance under the IIP depends – at least in theory – on active participation in the integration programme and the fulfilment of obligations related to the integration contract. In 2012–2014, 674 IIPs covering 1459 people were implemented in 51 counties (NIK 2015). It is difficult to unequivocally assess the effects of integration activities, as the legal provisions do not require monitoring the situation of foreigners after the completion of the individual integration programme. The 2015 report of the Supreme Audit Office shows that IIPs were most often only of a formal nature, and their development was aimed at fulfilling statutory requirements (NIK 2015). Monetary benefits were the main element of the IIP. The obligation arising from the Act on Social Assistance to learn the Polish language during the implementation of the IIP was carried out almost exclusively by non-governmental organisations, which play a substantial role in migrant integration. However, the activities undertaken to learn the Polish language have not ensured the possibility of mastering it to an extent that would allow individuals to function in the local labour market (Rajca 2015: 193).

The current legal provisions in Poland do not prescribe any special treatment for refugees on the labour market, even though employment has a major impact

on other dimensions of integration. Only very few refugees have found work or obtained permanent residence. It is therefore not surprising that there is little progress in the area of social functioning, the achievement of which is made even more difficult by the unwelcoming attitude of society and the authorities. The schools audited by the Supreme Audit Office, which were attended by children of foreigners, in most cases did not offer support for these pupils in the ways provided for in the Act on the Educational System, i.e. offering additional free Polish language learning or additional remedial classes. As reported by the Supreme Audit Office, the current system of social assistance for refugees discourages them from staying in Poland rather than fosters their integration into society and taking up independent life (NIK 2015). The literature stresses that the integration of refugees is impeded by the lack of housing, stable well-paid work and language skills, as well as low education and professional qualifications of refugees (Łodzinski & Grzymała-Kazłowska 2011: 30).

The second group that is entitled to integration assistance is that of the repatriates. Studies indicate significant adaptation and integration problems of this group of people (Hut 2002). In the Act of 9 November 2000 on repatriation, the types of assistance provided to repatriates are specified. Imposing on local authorities the obligation to undertake integration efforts (guarantee of housing and assistance in finding a job) proved to be an obstacle hindering the repatriation process (Rajca 2015: 193–194). Criticism of the poor results of repatriation programmes prompted the drafting of a civic repatriation law in 2010. Additionally, the Supreme Audit Office, in its post-audit statement of 2014, negatively assessed the implementation of migration policy concerning foreigners declaring Polish origin. It pointed out, among others, the following: no concept of a comprehensive system of care for repatriates; no concept of assistance and motivational system for repatriates intending to find places of settlement on their own; no analysis of the need for activities in the field of professional activation among repatriates; no data enabling the management (monitoring) of the implementation of tasks resulting from the Government Programme of Cooperation with Poles and Poles Abroad (Kutyła 2014).

The critical voices finally paved the path to the updating of the repatriation law in 2017. Under the new law, the repatriate status has been extended to persons living in the Asian part of the former USSR. The Act of 7 April 2017 enables opening asylums for repatriates which provide Polish language courses as well as ensuring housing benefits to repatriates.

With regard to foreigners who are not beneficiaries of international protection, Poland has not conducted any active integration activities so far – except for co-financing projects implemented since 2007 under the European Fund for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals. As noted by Rajca (2015: 194),

these projects implemented mainly by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (e.g. legal and vocational counselling, educational projects, including language courses, cultural projects), often in public-private partnerships, were aimed both at third-country nationals and the receiving society (two-way integration). A detailed analysis by Matusz-Protasiewicz shows that it is very difficult to assess the effectiveness of these integration activities (Matusz-Protasiewicz 2014: 86 et seq.) This results from a lack of data that would allow us to state how these activities have translated into tangible integration effects and to assess unequivocally whether non-governmental organisations have become effective in integration activities or only efficient in obtaining available funds (cf. Rajca 2015: 195).

In the current state of the law, integration policy does not belong to the tasks of local governments. Local actions have an ad hoc rather than systemic character, based on the goodwill of local government representatives and their voluntary cooperation with other entities, especially with NGOs. Apart from the largest cities, only a few local governments undertake any activities exceeding their statutory competence (Open Cities). Some cities (Warsaw, Lublin, Wrocław), using EU funds, have taken the first actions in the field of diversity management (Matusz-Protasiewicz 2014). They do not stem from challenges, but more from the availability of European money and trends towards multiculturalism (Rajca 2015: 196).

3. LANGUAGE POLICY IN POLAND

The Polish language has the status of the only official language in Poland. The highest legal act regulating language policy in Poland is the current Constitution, enacted and implemented in 1997, which explicitly states in Article 27 that: "[i]n the Republic of Poland the Polish language shall be the official language. This provision does not affect the rights of national minorities under ratified international agreements" (Konstytucja RP). This document refers to the issue of language in two more instances. Namely, Article 45, paragraph 1, indicates that "the Republic of Poland guarantees Polish citizens belonging to national and ethnic minorities the freedom to maintain and develop their language, preserve their customs and traditions and develop their own culture" (Konstytucja RP). On the other hand, the Constitution (Article 233, paragraph 2) states that "It is inadmissible to restrict the freedoms and rights of a human being and citizen solely on the grounds of race, sex, language, religion or lack thereof, social origin, birth and property" (Konstytucja RP).

Another legal act relating to the national language is the Act on the Polish Language (Ustawa o języku polskim 2018), which was adopted on 7 October

1999 and has subsequently been amended several times. This law was created upon the initiative of a group of Polish philologists, who perceived the globalisation processes and the prospect of Poland's accession to the EU as a potential threat to the national language. The document addresses the following issues: ensuring the accuracy of usage, counteracting vulgarisation, popularisation of Polish language abroad, supporting its teaching. Additionally, it has a goal of "promoting respect for regionalisms and dialects and preventing their disappearance" (Ustawa o języku polskim 2018, Chapter 1, Art. 3) and specifies the rules for the use of foreign languages and their impact on Polish in the area of culture and education as well as in business and legal transactions, etc. Non-compliance with the rules is threatened with the rigour of legal sanctions (Ustawa o języku polskim 2018, Chapter 4, Article 14). Under this document, the Council for the Polish Language was also established, which is to fulfil the function of an opinion-giving and advisory institution and to submit to the Polish Sejm and Senate, i.e. the lower and higher chamber of the Polish Parliament, at least every two years, a report on the state of protection of the Polish language (Ustawa o języku polskim 2018, Chapter 3, Article 12). It is worth noting at this point that the Act was not adopted unanimously and critical voices were raised. For example, it received criticism not only from legal circles (Mostowik & Żukowski 2001), who accused it of inconsistencies in its provisions, mistakes and even harmfulness but also from linguists (Piotrowski, 2011), who reproached the document for its fictitious creation of a state of emergency and its prescriptive approach to language (cf. Wąsikiewicz-Firlej, Szczepaniak-Kozak & Lankiewicz in press).

Even though Poland is quite homogenous linguistically and culturally compared to other European countries, several ethnic groups can be distinguished. Their list is published by the Central Statistical Office [Pl. Główny Urząd Statystyczny, GUS] based on the census, which last took place in 2011 (GUS 2011), and the Act on National and Ethnic Minorities and Regional Language (Ustawa o mniejszościach… 2017). However, it should be remembered that the concepts of declared and statutory minorities differ. In the statutory sense, only a group of people who have Polish citizenship and meet certain criteria together can be considered a national minority. One of them is that "their ancestors have inhabited the present territory of the Republic of Poland for at least 100 years" (Ustawa o mniejszościach… 2017, Chapter 1, Article 2). Hence, the said Act recognises as a minority only the Belarusian, Czech, Lithuanian, German, Armenian, Russian, Slovak, Ukrainian and Jewish communities. On the other hand, the Karaite, Lemko, Roma and Tatar communities are recognised as ethnic minorities. Even inclusion in the latter group requires the combined fulfilment of several conditions. What distinguishes a national minority from an ethnic minority is the fact that it "does not identify with the nation organised in its own state" (Ustawa

o mniejszościach… 2017, Chapter 1, Article 2). The document recognises the linguistic distinctiveness of Kashubians by referring to the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, which came in force in Poland in 2009 (cf. Baranowska 2014), and defines the Kashubian language precisely as a regional language. Based on this law, the language of a national or ethnic minority may be used by the commune authorities, apart from the Polish language, if the number of minorities is not lower than 20% of the total population and, additionally, such a commune must be registered in the Official Register of Communes in which an auxiliary language is used" (Ustawa o mniejszościach… 2017, Chapter 1, Article 9). Attempts were made to extend this right to the district unit, but the President of Poland, Andrzej Duda, vetoed this amendment in 2015 (Prezydent.pl).

The rights of national minorities and ethnic groups living in Polish territory, including linguistic ones, are protected by European legislation and by Polish national legislation. They are guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Poland, which stipulates in Article 35, paragraph 1, that "The Republic of Poland guarantees Polish citizens belonging to national and ethnic minorities the freedom to maintain and develop their language, preserve customs and traditions and develop their own culture", and additionally in paragraph 2 it ensures that "National and ethnic minorities have the right to establish their own educational, cultural and institutions for the protection of their religious identity and to participate in the settlement of matters concerning their cultural identity" (Konstytucja RP). These rights are further elaborated in the Act on Education System of 1991 (Ustawa o systemie oświaty… 1991), which obliges public schools in Poland to "enable pupils to retain their sense of national, ethnic, linguistic and religious identity, and in particular, shall make it possible for them to learn their own language, history and culture" (Ustawa of systemie oświaty… 1991; after Baranowska 2014: 41). Thus, at least on paper, legal protection of national and ethnic minorities is guaranteed and does not deviate from other European countries (Kirpsza 2012; Romanowski 2020). Another issue, however, is the execution of the rights provided by the legislator (Baranowska 2014: 48). The challenges faced by particular minorities are discussed in more detail by Romanowski (2020).

Until the fall of communism, in the then People's Republic of Poland, the problems of language policy mostly pertained to the accuracy of language use. This was the result of the country being considered homogeneous in terms of nationality by the communist authorities and suppression of any alternative voices by the prevailing censorship. On the other hand, some disputes relating to matters of language policy did take place (Pisarek 2007). The issues of language policy in our country regarding the languages of national minorities started with the adoption by Poland of the first European document on the pro-

tection of minority rights, including language, the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (Konwencja ramowa… 1995). As Pisarek (2007) noted, the act of signing the Convention by Poland in 2001 landmarked a "shift of the national framework" in the Polish language policy "towards the civic framework". According to Pisarek (2007), this is particularly evident in the amendments to the Act on the Polish Language, introduced in 2004, from which "the spirit of a civil society whose full-fledged members are not only people of Polish nationality" shines through (Pisarek 2007).

As far as the practical dimension of the Convention is concerned, it is limited by the annexe (Interpretative Declaration), resulting from the political consensus of the member states of the Council of Europe, which is expressed by leaving the decision on the recognition of a given minority group to the signatory state. As pointed out by the Advisory Committee on the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (FCNM Opinion on Poland 2003, Chapter III, Article 3), Poland issued two declarations when it ratified the Framework Convention. The first of these declarations states the following: "[…] the Republic of Poland declares that it understands this term as national minorities residing within the territory of the Republic of Poland at the same time whose members are Polish citizens" (Pisarek 2007). The second declaration is specifically related to Article 18 and reads as follows: "The Republic of Poland shall also implement the Framework Convention under Article 18 of the Convention by the conclusion of international agreements mentioned in this Article, the aim of which is to protect national minorities in Poland and minorities or groups of Poles in other States" (Pisarek 2007). In the concluding remarks of the FCNM *Opinion on Poland* (2003), experts appreciated Poland's efforts to provide support for national minorities and their respective cultures but pointed simultaneously to certain legal incoherence and a range of shortcomings in the area of minority languages provision in the administrative, educational and media sectors. The recommendations also responded to the voiced demands of national minorities, especially those of Germans, Ukrainians and Jews, to solve problems related to monuments and cemeteries, and foster the establishment and maintenance of minority cultural centres, libraries and museums (FCNM *Opinion on Poland* 2003).

It can be assumed that Poland's accession to the EU resulted in intensified concern about the status of its language within this organisation. The aforementioned provisions of the EU law have contributed to the activities of the Polish authorities in promoting our language in the EU. Many of these activities take place through the European Federation of National Institutions for Languages (EFNIL), which was established in Stockholm in 2003 as a network of institutions from the European Union Member States dealing with language matters. The Council for the Polish Language has been a full member of EFNIL since 2006.

4. LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN POLAND

Learning the Polish language is obligatory not only for members of national and ethnic minorities but also for communities speaking a regional language (e.g. Kashubian). Minorities are, however, offered a possibility to take part in their language classes and cultural activities. A minority language may be used as the language of instruction, the second language of instruction as it is the case in bilingual education, or as an optional subject. Minority language teaching can be organised for as few as seven pupils at the request of parents or in inter-school groups of 3–20 pupils in more dispersed groups (Poszytek et al. 2005; Romanowski 2020). The teaching of learning of minority languages in Poland is coordinated and funded by the state. In reality, the repertoire of minority languages offered as languages of instruction is limited to Lithuanian and Ukrainian. For example, the efforts of the German minority to introduce bilingual education have so far remained unsuccessful. Yet, regional or minority languages, such as Belarusian, Kashubian, Lemko, and Ukrainian, might be taught as school subjects (Romanowski 2020: 18).

Poland's language policy does not only involve taking care of the national language and protecting the languages of national and ethnic minorities. An integral part of it is also the educational policy concerning the learning of foreign languages. The promotion of language learning in Poland on a larger scale began after the fall of communism. Since 1999 the reform of the school system was launched in all sectors of education, with the aim of bringing it into line with European standards. During this period, the number of public and private higher education institutions increased considerably, and all types of foreign language teacher training and philological studies became immensely popular. Significant growth in the number of publications, conferences and studies related to foreign language teaching and learning has been also observed (cf. Komorowska 2017: 82ff).

An important element of the language learning process is the use of European documents, including the translation into Polish of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (2001) that took place two years after its first publication. After the changes in the core curriculum in 2007, since September 2008 learning a foreign language became compulsory from the first grade of primary school, and learning a second foreign language in lower secondary and secondary school classes. Despite certain objections raised by teachers of other foreign languages (Kucharczyk 2016), the dominance of English in Polish schools remains unshaken, as reflected in the latest census (Statistics Poland 2020: 135).

Currently, according to the core curriculum in force since 2017, learning a foreign language begins in kindergarten and continues throughout primary

and secondary school. From the seventh grade of primary school, the learning of a second foreign language is introduced. As recommended, "it should become a principle to provide students with the opportunity to continue learning the same foreign language as their first language at all educational stages, from the first grade of primary school to the last grade of secondary school (i.e. for 12 or 13 years)" (Smolik & Poszytek 2017: 70). The new system aims to ensure effective communication in spoken and written foreign languages at a specific CEFR level, according to the variant of the core curriculum. Taking into account that except for compulsory English most schools typically provide German or less frequently Russian or French as the second foreign language (Statistics Poland 2020), migrant children are often exposed to three new languages, i.e. Polish, English, and another foreign language that rarely coincides to be their heritage language (e.g. Ukrainian, Belarussian or Vietnamese). Additionally, the continuity of learning the second foreign language is not always ensured at higher levels of education which might potentially translate into learning another foreign language in secondary school (Komorowska 2017; Raport Eurydice 2017). Much as multilingualism is appreciated, in some cases, the simultaneous exposure to so many languages can be burdensome and pose additional challenges for children with a migrant background, especially during the initial adaptation to the new educational settings and the focus on mastering the majority language. In addition to the difficulties experienced, intensive learning of several foreign languages at the same time might occur at the expense of heritage language attrition, which seems to be unfavourable from the point of view of the use of personal resources.

5. REMAINING CHALLENGES

The magnitude of challenges and problems for Poland is signalled in the 2015 and 2020 Migrant Integration Policy Index report (MIPEX 2015, 2020) – a tool which uses 167 indicators to evaluate and compare government efforts to promote migrant integration in the EU member states and several other countries around the world. Eight areas of integration policies are periodically assessed, namely: labour market, family formation, education, health, political participation, right to permanent residence, right to obtain citizenship and protection from discrimination.

In the recent report (MIPEX 2020), the results obtained by Poland in the field of migrant integration policy were rather disappointing since only four countries in the EU scored lower (Croatia, Slovakia, Lithuania, and Latvia). Poland scored 40 out of a maximum of 100 points, which is below the whole European Union (EU28) average (49) but comparable to other new EU new member states

(EU13). By contrast, among European countries, the highest-rated were Sweden (86), Finland (85), and Portugal (81), which along with Canada (80) and New Zealand (77), topped the world MIPEX 2020 ranking.

Poland's approach to integration policies has been categorised as slightly unfavourable and described "equality on paper" only, which "means that immigrants enjoy equal rights and long-term security, but not equal opportunities" (MIPEX 2020). Such policies create multiple barriers to the integration of non-EU citizens. Similarly to other Central and Eastern European countries, migrants in Poland benefit from some basic rights and security (e.g. to settle long-term), but are not afforded equal opportunities. These areas require improvement since, in comparison to most MIPEX countries, in Poland, equal rights and equal opportunities for migrants remain below average. In everyday life, migrants in Poland encounter the most severe difficulties in four areas that scored the lowest in MIPEX 2020, i.e. political participation (10), health (27), labour market mobility (31), and education (33).

An important aspect of integration is the participation of migrants in political life. Yet, in Poland the opportunities for migrants to participate in political life are limited. Polish law in this regard is among the most restrictive in Europe since only Polish citizens and citizens of the EU member states are entitled to vote and to be elected in local government elections, stand for community or town councillor and participate in referendums (cf. Rajca 2015: 195). The possibility of founding political parties and being their members is also restricted to Polish citizens (Polska polityka integracji cudzoziemców 2013: 23). Indeed, in MIPEX (2020) report political participation, qualified as *unfavourable (score: 10)*, appears to be the weakest area across Central Europe. Under current policies, migrants in Poland are deprived of the right to vote, support or consultation by policymakers, which in practical terms excludes them from participation in public life.

Health services and policies, labelled *slightly unfavourable (score: 27)*, is another area that generates obstacles to migrants and does not respond to their specific needs. The main obstacle is limited access to healthcare and insufficient target-oriented information on healthcare provisions. It must be noted, however, that compared to the previous ranking (MIPEX 2015), since 2014, certain positive changes might be observed in this field. With the launch of a new website for promoting health education, accessing the information on health education and promotion has been facilitated to migrants.

Labour market mobility appears to be another problematic, *slightly unfavourable (score: 31)*, area. Although Poland has opened to labour migrants, which has made finding a job or starting a business activity easier, non-EU newcomers are still not offered the same benefits or general support as Polish or EU citizens to enhance their skills and careers.

The remaining aspects of integration included in MIPEX (i.e. permanent residence, access to nationality, family reunification, anti-discrimination) obtained more favourable scores and represent at least the EU average. In MIPEX 2020 report, the permanent residence has been defined as *halfway favourable (score: 50)*. Compared to previous years, nowadays migrants in Poland face greater uncertainty in their efforts to settle as permanent residents due to more restrictive economic and language requirements that were introduced in 2018. Under these requirements, applicants need to prove that they have a stable and regular source of income to provide for subsistence costs of themselves and their dependants, and are required to certify their knowledge of the Polish language at B1 level. It must be admitted, though, that permanent residents then enjoy a considerable degree of security and are entitled to equal access to social benefits.

Access to nationality has been also deemed *halfway favourable (score: 50)*. Compared to other EU/OECD countries, the difficulty of the Polish path to citizenship is rather average. To become dual nationals, since 2012 migrants in Poland must meet a number of residential, linguistics and economic requirements. As far as family reunification is concerned, it has also been qualified as *halfway favourable* (score: 58) since the law in Poland to a certain degree fosters the process of non-EU families reunification and integration in society. Finally, anti-discrimination has obtained the highest score (63) and has been categorised as *slightly favourable*. On the one hand, the law and its enforcement guarantee equality to migrant residents in all areas of life. On the other hand, "victims are not only confronted with a young law still weak in a few areas, but they also receive less help in Poland than in most countries from its weak equality body and weak equality policies" (MIPEX 2020). This situation ideally renders the status quo of Poland's migration integration qualified in MIPEX 2020 as "equality on paper".

The latest MIPEX report has shown that Polish migrant integration policy still creates more barriers than opportunities for migrants to participate with full rights in society, in comparison with other Central European countries. Compared to the previous ranking (MIPEX 2015), certain slight improvements have been only made in the area of political participation, education and health but the overall result turned out to be minimally lower (-1). Poland's current policies do not foster public views of migrants as their equals, neighbours and potential citizens but instead perpetuate their perception as strangers. As summarised by MIPEX experts:

> Restrictive policies like Poland's can create a 'vicious circle' of exclusion that reinforces fear and separation. Policies that treat immigrants as threats lead more people to see immigrants as general threats and treat them in ways that harm integration. Under restrictive policies, the public experiences higher levels of xenophobia and

islamophobia and lower levels of social trust, which leads them to fewer contacts and positive experiences with immigrants. (MIPEX 2020)

The above quotation shows that Poles are filled with many fears and prejudices against migrants and are not sufficiently prepared for their inclusion in social life. This indicates that there is an urgent need for top-down and bottom-up integration and educational activities leading to increasing cultural awareness of Poles and changing their attitudes towards migration and acceptance of the growing cultural diversity and multilingualism.

In recent years, Poland has received a very large number of people of Ukrainian, Belarusian and Vietnamese nationalities in particular, who wish to settle permanently in Poland. Taking into account the number of foreign students enrolled in education in the Polish educational system that has increased in the last decade from 9,610 in 2009 to 51,363 in 2019, educational challenges are by no means marginal. The most numerous group in primary and secondary schools was made up of students from Ukraine (30,777 persons). Classes for foreign students were provided in the school year 2019/2020 in 7,318 schools, compared to 1,571 schools in the school year 2009/2010 (NIK 2020). Challenges in the education of children with a migration background (CMB) including children of Polish citizens returning from abroad, were highlighted by the Supreme Audit Office (SAO) in its recent report, which examined how this process progressed in the school years from 2017/18 to 2019/20 (NIK 2020). The audit targeted the Ministry of National Education and 24 public primary and secondary schools. In addition, the SAO conducted a questionnaire survey among teachers of the audited schools teaching CMBs.

On the one hand, the audit report (NIK 2020) showed that CMBs are provided with educational opportunities in Poland, including adequate conditions for learning the Polish language. Parents mostly positively evaluated the process of adaptation and integration of their children into the school environment. However, the SAO audit showed a complete lack of interest in this issue on the part of the Minister of National Education, who is responsible for educational policy. The Ministry does not monitor the situation nor perform relevant analyses, has practically no knowledge on the subject and has done nothing to obtain it. It turns out that teachers are a considerable asset, who, despite the institutional lack of support, are mostly committed to their work.

The Minister of National Education, who bears responsibility for the co-ordination and implementation of the state's educational policy, has failed in practice to plan and organise activities related to the education of CMBs, despite the growing scale of migration. The Ministry did not collect, monitor or analyse any data concerning such pupils, although it had at its disposal data stored in the Educational Information System (SIO) database. What is more, the Ministry

failed to collect data on the number of pupils with Polish citizenship returning to the country, hence the scale of this phenomenon is unknown. The Ministry is ignorant of the effectiveness of education of these students because it did not undertake supervisory activities over the organisation and conditions of their education. In particular, the performance of pedagogical supervision by school superintendents was not monitored or evaluated.

The only positive exception was the realisation of the public task "Supporting educational initiatives in a school multicultural environment" implemented since 2015. The state budget allocated 340 million PLN in 2015–2019 (until 29 November) for expenses related to additional support for the education of children of Polish citizens returning to the country and children of foreigners.

The Ministry failed to analyse the needs for methodological counselling and training of in-service teachers working with CMBs. Despite the growing number of schools for CMBs (from 1,571 to 7,318 in the period 2009–2019) and teachers involved in this process, school principals did not perceive the ever-increasing needs in this respect either. The majority of principals (20 schools) did not provide support to teachers in their professional development in this area.

Meanwhile, surveyed teachers indicated that the basic problem in their work with CMBs is communication (44% of indications). Differences in the level of Polish language proficiency among students who use different languages on a daily basis often make it impossible to conduct classes. Another problem is the lack of textbooks for learning Polish as a foreign language and adequate teaching materials, as well as poor support for teachers by schools (7%). Curriculum differences resulting from studying in other educational systems, especially when students in a given section come from different countries, are also a problem (7%). According to teachers, pupils face adaptation and integration problems (6%), and contact with pupils' parents is difficult or non-existent (6%). These pupils have a low motivation to learn, being unwilling to complete the tasks assigned to them (5%). Only 4% of teachers declared that they did not notice any problems when working with foreign students, and considered these children to be more reliable in fulfilling their school tasks than Polish students. More than half of the schools did not undertake any measures at all to integrate foreign students that would respond to their specific cultural needs.

All these irregularities, in the opinion of the SAO, testify to the lack of effective supervision of education of foreign pupils exercised by school principals. The principals tend to ignore the evaluation of important elements of the educational process such as: verifying and assessing educational achievements of students, modification of curricula to their needs, monitoring the progress of students, the effectiveness of psychological and pedagogical support provided to students or cultural integration (NIK 2020).

6. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The Polish migrant integration policy, both at the central and local levels, is at an early stage of development. No coherent and long-term strategy for migrant integration with clearly formulated political and legislative goals has been developed so far (Matusz-Protasiewicz 2014). The related issues have not become the subject of public debate, and there have been no broader efforts to develop a concept of integration (Łodzinski, Grzymała-Kazłowska 2011: 39). Even in the face of the current migration crisis, there is no well-thought-out reflection on the integration of migrants (Ośrodek Badań nad Migracjami 2015). Currently, however, the development of such a concept is becoming necessary due to the possibility of receiving a much larger number of migrants, including refugees, than before.

As observed by Rajca (2015: 197–198), the integration of migrants from the Middle East and North Africa into Polish society can be particularly challenging. Ethnically homogenous Poland is characterised by a low degree of acceptance of this group of migrants and general reluctance for multiculturalism in social life, accompanied by the negative attitude of Poles towards Muslims. Potential migrants from the current wave of migration will not be as familiar with the Polish language, laws and customs as migrants to France or the United Kingdom from former colonies. Besides, Poland will probably be treated as a transit country. For these reasons, potential migrants will probably be less inclined to adopt our system of values. The draft regulation of the Council of Ministers on the relocation of foreigners did not envisage any additional integration measures beyond those already in place. It can be predicted with high probability that the influx of a larger number of migrants to Poland will cause similar problems to those encountered in other European countries in the first half of the 1990s, or even more challenging due to living conditions worse than in the West, lack of housing, difficulties in the labour market, limited integration activities and unfavourable attitudes of the society.

Solutions proposed at the European level have become a model for creating integration activities in Poland. The government adopted the definition of integration as a bilateral process proposed by the European Commission. The policy and practice of integration in Poland are strongly influenced by European funds, but also by the attitudes of the Polish society and the nature of migration to Poland. Integration activities are mainly carried out by non-governmental organisations, independently or in cooperation with public entities, mainly thanks to EU funds. The experience gained will undoubtedly contribute to the development of more comprehensive policies and concepts for the integration of migrants (Rajca 2015: 197).

It should be emphasised that together with elementary subsistence issues, such as housing and employment, language and education remain considerable challenges. Despite slight progress in education in recent years, schools do not always comply with existing legal regulations on the provision of language education and the Ministry of Education is neither supportive nor truly interested in this matter, as evidenced in the Supreme Audit Office's reports (NIK 2015, 2020). What comes to the fore is the insufficient qualifications of teachers and their preparation to teach in multilingual classes and lack of institutional and methodological support. There is a burning need for integrated, large-scale actions preparing for language-sensitive teaching, offering tangible support for schools and teachers, as well as organisations teaching the Polish language to adults. It is also essential to undertake educational activities aimed at raising cultural awareness and changing xenophobic attitudes of a large part of Polish society to foster cultural adaptation. Teachers and school authorities should also take a reflective approach and revisit their oftentimes non-empathic attitudes centred on a complete adaptation of migrants to the host country and orient them towards migrants' needs. According to the literature and legislation reviewed, very little attention or care is given to preserving the cultural and linguistic heritage of migrants or to promoting their multilingualism and seeing diversity as an asset rather than a disadvantage. A promising example of such an initiative is the MaMLiSE project currently carried out within the Erasmus+ programme, which aims to develop comprehensive, open-access tools to support teachers, students and parents.

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II. BOOK REVIEWS

Udo O.H. Jung. *Investigativer Fremdsprachenunterricht*. Norderstadt: BoD – Books on Demand. 2021. S. 474

Die von Udo O.H. Jung verfasste Monografie ist dem investigativen Fremdsprachenunterricht (IFU) gewidmet. Der Begriff bildet den Anschluss an den investigativen Journalismus: Hinter den beiden Termini steht nämlich die Annahme, Sachverhalte aufzudecken, die bisher verborgen waren – im Fall vom IFU manchmal auch dem Lehrer. Dies zu erläutern und zu exemplifizieren, wird laut dem Autor Aufgabe des Buchs sein. Von Anfang an ist die Verwendung dieses Terminus im Kontext des FSUs lobenswert, da man von der investigativen Einstellung sowohl des Lernenden als auch des Lehrenden ausgeht.

Die Arbeit folgt einer nutzerfreundlichen und durchdachten Struktur und umfasst vierzehn Kapitel, die sich vorwiegend auf bestimmte Länder beziehen. Das vorliegende Buch veranschaulicht, wie sich Deutsch-, Englisch- und Französischlernende dem kulturellen und dem zugleich kommunikativen Gedächtnis von Deutschland, Österreich, Frankreich, Kanada, Luxemburg, Großbritannien und den USA annähern, indem sie sich mit den Straßennamen, Schulnamen, Briefmarken, Leserbriefen, Cartoons, Belletristik und kulturellen Schlüsselerlebnissen vertraut machen. Das Ziel ist es, ein multiperspektivisches Bild der Zielsprachenkulturen sowohl in der Gegenwart als auch in der Vergangenheit zu erhalten und kontrastive Vergleiche zu erstellen. Aus strategischen Gründen ist es dem Verfasser zufolge empfehlenswert, vor der IFU-Arbeit mit einer rekonstruktiv-investigativen Fremdsprachenunterrichtsphase (RIFU) den Auftakt zu bilden. Dabei macht man sich die Vorarbeit zunutze, indem man die im Buch angebrachten von Statistikämtern und Datenbankbetreibern übernommenen oder im IFU-Verfahren erarbeiteten Tabellen kooperativ rekonstruiert. Zu diesem Ziel bekommt jeder Lernende nur einen bestimmten Teil der Gesamtmenge des Materials und den Auftrag, sich die nötigen Informationen zu den betreffenden Sachverhalten zu beschaffen.

Die rezensierte Veröffentlichung ist Fortsetzung und vor allem Erweiterung des vom Autor 2014 verfassten Buchs „Deutsche SchildBürgerKunde. Das ausgestellte Gedächtnis der Nation" (vgl. Jung 2014), das ausschließlich Straßennamen betraf.

Im ersten Kapitel mit dem Titel „Auf dem Weg zum kulturellen Gedächtnis" wurde zuerst der Terminus des investigativen Lernens näher erläutert und mit den im FSU existierenden Termini „forschendes" und „entdeckendes Lernen" verglichen. Da sich die beiden letzten

Bezeichnungen im wissenschaftlichen Diskurs auf die Lehreraus- und -fortbildung beziehen, war ein neuer Begriff von Nutzen. Im IFU stützt man sich auf das kulturelle Gedächtnis. Es wird angenommen, dass wer erfahren will, wie die Menschen in einem Land funktionieren, der kann sich nicht allein auf die schöne Literatur stützen oder eine Vielzahl an Dokumenten durchmustern, er muss komparatistisch vorgehen, was das Ziel im weiteren Verlauf des Buchs ist. Es wird in diesem Kapitel auch auf die Bilddidaktik verwiesen.

Die nächsten sieben Kapitel widmen sich der Reihe nach folgenden Ländern: Deutschland, Österreich, Frankreich, Kanada, Luxemburg, Großbritannien und den Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika. Der Autor exemplifiziert ausführlich Straßennamen, Schulnamen, Postwertzeichen, Leserbriefe und Cartoons, reichert dieses Material mit vielen assoziativen Ketten, Exkursen, wertvollen Tabellen, Grafiken, Bildern und externen nützlichen Links an und präsentiert die Anregungen und mögliche Aufgaben für den IFU. Die Lernenden erhalten dabei die Gelegenheit, ihre sprachlichen Fähigkeiten zu trainieren und zu erweitern, während sie sich investigativ dem kulturellen Gedächtnis der Zielsprachenländer nähern. Am Ende eines jeden Kapitels findet man nützliche Internetquellen.

Im neunten Kapitel mit dem Titel „Vorwärts, Marsch!" setzt sich der Autor mit einer Art Triangulation auseinander, indem er den Stellenwert der Amerikaner, Briten und Deutschen zum Krieg bespricht. Man untersucht Straßenschilder, die zu verschiedenen mit dem Krieg verbundenen Anlässen entstanden sind und tabellarisch nach der Häufigkeit geordnet wurden. Der Autor bespricht nacheinander die Schlachtorte und stellt die Aufgaben für die Schüler dar.

Das zehnte Kapitel bezieht sich auf den Frieden. Der Verfasser reflektiert am Anfang, wie man den Schülern diesen, so scheint es dem Autor, beliebig interpretier- und manipulierbaren Begriff näherbringen sollte. Es wird zunächst nach dem LINGUAPAX gegriffen. Der Terminus lateinischen Ursprungs bedeutet so viel wie Frieden durch Sprachen. Die erste LINGUAPAX-Konferenz wurde 1987 von Viktor Viktorovitsch Koptilov im Auftrag der UNESCO in Kiew organisiert. Der Verfasser veranschaulicht weiter den möglichen Gesprächsstoff zum Thema Frieden für den IFU, indem er u. a. die Ergebnisse aus dem Programm *Google Books Ngram Viewer* in Bezug auf dieses Schlusswort in dem amerikanischen, englischen, französischen, russischen und deutschen Schrifttum darlegt.

Bei dem Titel „Stadtluft macht frei?" im elften Kapitel handelt es sich um die Intonationsfrage, komplexen Fragestellungen anfangs aus dem Wege zu gehen, was dem Autor zufolge ein beliebtes Mittel in der Didaktik ist. Deswegen können die Schüler zunächst hier ihre Präferenzen zur Lebensqualität in der Stadt vorstellen und erst dann kommt zur Hilfe die Londoner Wochenzeitschrift *The Economist* mit dem „Liveability Index 2018", der die Lebensqualität in 140 Städten rund um die Welt vergleicht. Im weiteren Verlauf hat der Autor 78 der von den Postverwaltungen Westberlins, der DDR und der Bundesrepublik herausgegebenen Propagandastücke angeführt. Zuerst verteilt der Lehrer sie unter den Schülern und die Aufgabe lautet, die Bedeutung der architektonischen Stücke zu eruieren und ihre Standorte auf einer ÖPNV-Karte zu markieren.

Das nächste Kapitel betrifft vorwiegend das Konzept der Globalisierung. Das Unterrichtsmaterial basiert auf den 2011 gesammelten Ergebnissen einer repräsentativen Studie

zur Befindlichkeit von über 30 000 jungen Leuten im Alter von 16 bis 29 Jahren. Aus der Vielzahl der Frage- und Feststellungen wurden 17 ausgewählt und in Prozent in tabellarischer Form widergespiegelt. Dazu wurden Denkanstöße mit weiterem Hintergrundmaterial zur Diskussion gegeben.

Die im nächsten Kapitel zitierten kulturellen Schlüsselerlebnisse können dem Autor zufolge Türen in eine fremde Welt öffnen und sind gleichzeitig offen oder verdeckt sprachbasiert. Der Autor hat die von Freunden und Kollegen erzählten Schlüsselerlebnisse auf Englisch, Französisch und Russisch aufgeschrieben, ohne irgendwelche Vorgaben zu machen. Das Ziel ist es, die dargestellten kulturellen Schlüsselerlebnisse den Lernenden als Anregung näher zu bringen.

Das abschließende Kapitel „Quo vadis, Fremdsprachenunterricht?" entstand mit dem Gedanken an Lehramtsstudenten und Referendare. In diesem Kontext bildet das von Carola Surkamp 2017 herausgegebene Lexikon mit dem Titel „Metzler Lexikon Fremdsprachendidaktik" den Gegenstand für den IFU. Es umfasst 238 Artikel aus allen Bereichen der Fremdsprachendidaktik. Der Autor setzt sich in diesem Kapitel mit Stärken und Schwächen (vor allem in Bezug auf die fehlenden Lemmata) des Lexikons auseinander. Dieser Ausschnitt des Buchs kann als eine Art Rezension gelten, die laut dem Autor von werdenden Lehrern als Ausgangspunkt eines Seminars oder als Vorbereitung auf das Assessorenexamen kooperativ aufgefasst werden kann.

Die Anhänge am Ende des Buchs beinhalten Leertabellen, Glossare und Textauszüge mit Bezug zu bestimmten Seiten in der Monografie. Die Bibliografie enthält 21 Seiten mit Literaturangaben.

Udo O.H. Jungs Veröffentlichung zeigt das enzyklopädische historische Wissen des Verfassers und hervorragende Belesenheit, die sich durch eine Menge Literaturangaben auszeichnet. Das rezensierte Buch wirft zweifellos ein neues Licht auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht, indem es nach den Konzepten des „investigativen Fremdsprachenunterrichts" und „kulturellen Gedächtnis" (bzw. kollektiven Gedächtnis, vgl. auch dazu Jung 2005; 2008) gegriffen wird. Die Tragweite der Monografie wird außerdem durch wertvolle Exemplifizierungen vergrößert. Die Menge und die Diversität des im Buch angeführten Materials ist beeindruckend; dank dieser umfassenden und sehr komplexen Form gewährt es viele Reflexionen. Die Monografie kann als eine Art Ausgangsdatenbank für korpusbasierte Forschungen gelten und vor allem als interessantes Anschauungsmaterial im landeskundlich ausgerichteten Deutschunterricht verwendet werden. Wie der Autor im Vorwort andeutet, ist der eigentliche Ort des IFUs der Fortgeschrittenenunterricht. Man sollte aber die Bereitschaft und die Fähigkeiten der unterhalb dieser Schwelle operierenden Lerner nicht unterschätzen. Die hervorgebrachten Methoden lassen sich so weit übertragen, dass auch Schüler mit geringeren Vorkenntnissen an dem IFU teilhaben können.

Insgesamt sind im Buch zahlreiche Anlässe für die kulturwissenschaftliche Projektarbeit im Fremdsprachenunterricht inbegriffen. Demnach ist diese äußerst wertvolle Lektüre besonders Fremdsprachenlehrern und Glottodidaktikern zu empfehlen.

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III. REPORTS

Seminar report: "International dialogue on English language teaching" Institute of Applied Linguistics of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland and Department of Foreign Language Education of Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University in Burdur, Turkey, 26th March 2021

Conducted within an intimate and supportive environment, the academic seminar "International dialogue on English language teaching" organized by the Institute of Applied Linguistics of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland, and the Department of Foreign Language Education of Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University in Burdur, Turkey, was an event which provided its participants an opportunity to discuss and reflect on selected current topics in the field of English language teaching from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Held online on 26th March 2021, the event enabled scholars, students, and teachers from different countries, and backgrounds to share and benefit from each other's insights, studies conducted, and experiences in respect of the field of English language teaching.

After the introduction of the seminar by the organizers: Dr Joanna Kic-Drgas and Prof. Dr. Ferit Kılıçkaya, the first presenter of the event, Prof. Dr. Gölge Seferoğlu, who is a faculty member of California State University, San Bernardino, was introduced by Prof. Kılıçkaya.

Prof. Seferoğlu preceded with her presentation entitled "What Characteristics do Effective English Language Teachers Possess?". First, she underlined her passion for teaching and being a teacher due to the positive and powerful feelings she gets out the profession. Prof. Seferoğlu went on to discuss the controversial subject of what makes a good teacher by emphasizing the fact that no list, or set of categories could satisfactorily be considered the absolute answer to that question. As the subjectivity of the various answers would be challenging to consider, she showed that each suggestion should be evaluated since the case is context-sensitive. Since this subject is more personal than a simple fact, she discussed her own values, standards, ethics, and ideals that drive her teaching, which were stated as being engaging, encouraging, and empowering students, as well as diversifying values and successful analysis of student profiles. In addition, she provided details about her own approach, being passionate, a role-model, trustworthy, sincere, humble, and confident. Nonetheless, she put forward the broader idea that instead of making a list we should acknowledge the basic understanding that "People are the core" and "We are stronger together" which could guide us towards being a "good" teacher for our students. By quoting Thomas Carruthers' saying that "A teacher is the one

who makes himself progressively unnecessary.", she drew attention to the common mistake whereby teachers instinct pushes them towards making the students heavily dependent on them. As a result of this reliance, studies often indicated that students' ability, knowledge, and development in education are heavily dependent on "teacher learning". Based on all those aspects, she put forward another general aspect of a "good teacher" that of a life-long learner. Since the global pandemic made digitally-mediated/distant-teaching more prevalent, this aspect gained even more attention in today's conditions. Moving forward to more widely accepted perspectives, Prof. Seferoğlu discussed the standards of teachers from a variety of commonly respected institutions and communities, such as The Economist, University of Southampton, Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation, and TESOL. Referring to all the existing frameworks for teacher education, she diagnosed how they could be used for the benefit of personal development. To illustrate the realization of the frameworks, she presented one of her former students' PhD theses, titled "Investigating Perceived Competences of English Language Teachers in Turkey with Regard to Educational Background and Experience". The research showed that participants mentioned language proficiency as one of the most important competences a good teacher needs to possess, along with other personal traits. This, once again, shed light on the complex nature of teacher characteristics as the personality aspect of it, is troublesome to assess. To illustrate overlapping ideas on the concept of a good teacher and the understanding of the factor of personality in respect of it, she provided some brief information about studies on the subject. Among that research, she stressed a different perspective on the topic, by sharing the findings of a study which she helped to conduct. The study was entitled as "Qualities and Qualifications of EFL Professionals: What Do Intensive English Program Administrators Think?" and, by asking administrators what they looked for when hiring language teachers, they found that administrators sought language proficiency, self-reflection, character, and pedagogical knowledge. In addition to those aspects, they specifically emphasized the importance of "in-class presence", which was explained as the superordinate term to describe the all-in-one traits of a teacher within the teaching/learning environment. Finally, after reviewing and discussing several aspects from different scholars and teachers in the field, Prof. Seferoğlu shared her own perspective upon the topic. She described "good teachers" as being daring, driven, and resilient. To sum up the discussion, she concluded her presentation by quoting from the novella The Little Prince, "That which is essential cannot be seen with the eye. Only with the heart can one know it rightly."

After finalizing the first presentation with a question-and-answer session with Prof. Seferoğlu, Dr Joanna Kic-Drgas introduced the second presenter of the event Roger Griffin, who is an MA student in the teaching English as a second language program at California State University.

Roger Griffin preceded with his presentation entitled "Why Academic Freedom Challenges in China Matters to English language Teaching in a Global Context". First, he underlined that it was crucial to examine China because it appeared to be the prominent area of fast changes and the largest centre of the international students. After quickly overviewing the outlines of his presentation, he defined academic freedom as the freedom to teach and learn, conduct research freely, ability to voice options, and to take responsibility for the social ramifications. He further linked the subject with English language teaching as academic freedom functions

like a tool to openly explore, pursue, and discuss challenging, sensitive, and controversial issues. He indicated that in the cases of academic freedom being limited or not existing at all, nation-wide or even global changes would follow. He started discussing those changes in the history of China. He stated that, starting with the period of 1947–1997, the limitations, such as a punishment and reward mentality became dominant and that free speech in public was strictly restricted, with the higher education system completely closed for four years. Despite the restrictions, China still has the largest education system in the world. During the period of 1998–2003, the Higher Education Law came into effect, which included some specific articles which made university presidents responsible for all teaching and research activities, leading to the restriction of research and teaching of sensitive matters, as well as imposing Marxist, Leninist, Zedongist, and Xiaopingist ideologies upon curricula. After that, the times of 2003–2013 came with even more limitations, such as filtering publications, government surveillance, detentions, dismissals, and private communication tracking. He went on to show that from 2013 to 2017 limited freedom was allowed on topics which could not in any way be related to governmental, international, or political issues. Yet, the confusion of openness and suppression persisted. Coming to the recent years, he mentioned the Hong Kong Security Law, which led to controversial issues related to objectivity and transparency by giving examples of students who got into trouble due to their social media activities. Finally, after the revision of historical changes in China in respect of academic freedom, Griffin clarified the connection between language teaching and the developments mentioned, by suggesting that language teachers should understand the challenges that originated in China, and which have spread worldwide with the help of exchange and international degree programs, and be indulgent towards those students regarding self-censorship, and adjust our approaches and methods to create a harmonious and stress-limited environment, especially on topics the students do not feel enthusiastic about discussing, caused by the possible consequences of being judged and even punished. He concluded his presentation by putting forward the main idea that a teacher needs the necessary skills to be able to navigate the students' cultural nuances during their time of adaptation to a new environment, and this mostly depends on the likeability of the teacher, because the aura of the teacher should make students feel welcomed, so that this process could be eased and diversity embraced.

After finalizing the second presentation with a question-and-answer session with Roger Griffin, Prof. Dr. Ferit Kılıçkaya introduced the last presenter of the event, Rachel Nahlen who is, also, an MA student at California State University.

Rachel Nahlen, in her presentation entitled "Native Speakerism: Prevalence, Implications, and Support of Non-native Speaker Model", underlined how native speakerism was described and defined by other scholars. She illustrated the common belief that native speakers of English are perceived as superior in the most areas, yet no accent could be privileged over others. She brought a double-sided perspective to the consequences of native speakerism. First were the challenges for native speakers; that is, some students or even other teachers might believe that since English is their native language, native speakers might not have bothered to learn the grammatical and linguistic rules of the language; therefore, people did not take them seriously in a professional sense. Second were the difficulties for non-native speakers, that is, the lower probability of getting hired, since the private sector favours native speakers over non-natives

for the sake of better advertisements for the "customers", in this case, parents. Regarding the issue of prevalence, she presented some small-scale research in which she took part, together with some colleagues. The research analysed English language teaching advertisements from Asia, Central and South America and they counted the number of times "Native speaker, Citizenship, Education, Teacher experience, and Age" were mentioned in those commercials. She shared the findings that in Asia and Central / South America, native speakerism and education factors were strongly highlighted. When they examined the advertisement profile of Asia, they found out that citizenship was the most favoured characteristic, by a wide margin. When only Central and South America were given focus, the criterion of age was the most prominent one among all others. After the findings, she summarized the implications which she and her colleagues had agreed on. These implications were that there were discriminatory hiring processes, favouring native speakers, biological factors (nativeness, citizenship, and age) given top prominence in each area, and non-natives given no opportunity to even apply for the positions. Her own suggestions to overcome the prioritization of nativism were to raise awareness of the issue, and to support non-native colleagues. In addition, she promoted the "Non-native Speaker Model" to harmonize language learning classrooms with the rich variety of accents from all over the world and have students realize the fact that no accent could be superior over others as the growth of English language depends on its diversity. She also drew attention to the issue that this model could be implemented to help students overcome their drawbacks on not being confident with their accent, therefore, ending up having communication complications. Regarding the application of the suggested model, she offered that teachers could make use of digital media platforms such as YouTube to give voice to the diverse nature of language, having discussions with non-natives to foster empathy, and providing opportunities to have dialogues with students to address biases and prejudices, including native speakerism. Finally, after all the descriptions, findings, and suggestions; she concluded her presentation by saying that the awareness of native speakerism is more well-known than before but still not prevalent today. To be able to resist this ideology, she suggested that a variety of accents should be integrated in our classes, as well as supporting, respecting, and welcoming them, to eliminate the unjustified ideologies once and for all. The presentation followed with a question-and-answer session to give participants the opportunity to reflect their own opinions and ask their questions to the presenter.

Considering all the informative and impactful presentations described so far, it is apparent that the seminar was a notable and enlightening event which enabled its presenters and participants to share their insights and experiences, provide useful ideas, practical knowledge, and valuable perspectives in the field of English language teaching.

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Bericht über die VIII. Internationale Nachwuchskonferenz „Junge Forschung im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache". Marburg, Poznań, Nijmegen & weltweit, 7. – 8. Oktober 2021

Die Internationale Nachwuchskonferenz „Junge Forschung im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache" ist als forschungsmethodologisch orientierte Tagung für Doktorand*innen und Habilitand*innen ein wichtiger Teil der deutsch-polnisch-niederländischen universitären Zusammenarbeit der Arbeitsgruppe Deutsch als Fremdsprache des Instituts für germanistische Sprachwissenschaft der Philipps-Universität Marburg, des Lehrstuhls für Fremdsprachendidaktik und interkulturell orientierte Studien des Instituts für angewandte Linguistik der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań und des Studiums Deutsche Sprache und Kultur / Niederlande-Deutschland-Studien der Radboud Universität Nijmegen. Die Konferenz wird jährlich von diesen drei Partneruniversitäten immer abwechselnd an einem der drei Standorte ausgerichtet und findet unter Leitung von Prof. Dr. Kathrin Siebold (Marburg), Prof. Dr. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz (Poznań) und Dr. Sabine Jentges (Nijmegen) statt.

Während der Tagung bekommen die Referent*innen die Möglichkeit, ihre laufenden Forschungsprojekte im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache vorzustellen und darüber zu diskutieren sowie sich über Fragestellungen und methodische Herangehensweisen auszutauschen. Ziel ist es sowohl inhaltlich als auch methodisch neue Impulse für die eigene Forschung zu bekommen und das internationale Netzwerk der jungen Forscher*innen zu erweitern.

Die VIII. Internationale Nachwuchskonferenz „Junge Forschung im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache" fand am 7. und 8. Oktober 2021 statt und wurde, wie im letzten Jahr, digital als Zoom-Konferenz veranstaltet. Dies ermöglichte es Teilnehmenden aus der ganzen Welt anwesend zu sein. Insgesamt stellten neunzehn Referent*innen ihre aktuellen und innovativen Forschungsprojekte in 15-minütigen Präsentationen vor. Die Vortragenden in diesem Jahr sind Forschungszentren aus Nijmegen, Poznań, Marburg, Augsburg, Macerata, Münster, Köln, Rzeszów und Oran verbunden. Während beider Tagen waren stets ungefähr 30 Vortragende und Interessierte anwesend, die jeweils nach den Präsentationen zu einer lebhaften und kritisch-konstruktiven Diskussion beitrugen.

Neu in diesem Jahr war, dass die Moderation ebenfalls von den Nachwuchswissenschaftlerinnen übernommen wurde. Von Marburger Seite übernahmen Jennifer Müller und Martina Franz dos Santos diese Rolle, aus Poznań moderierten Dr. Luiza Ciepielewska-Kaczmarek und Dr. Magdalena Jaszczyk-Grzyb und aus Nijmegen Jana Hermann und Chrissy Laurentzen.

Nachdem Prof. Dr. Kathrin Siebold, Prof. Dr. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz und Dr. Sabine Jentges die Konferenz eröffnet hatten, leitete Chrissy Laurentzen (Radboud Universität Nijmegen) den ersten thematischen Block zu Mehrsprachigkeitsdidaktik mit ihrer Präsentation ihres Forschungsprojekts „Deutsch + Mehrsprachigkeitsstrategien = echte kommunikative Fähigkeit" ein. Der erste Beitrag der Adam Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań erfolgte von Aleksandra Putowska. Sie zeigte Ergebnisse aus ihrem Projekt „Sprachübergreifende Einflüsse beim Drittspracherwerb im syntaktischen Bereich: Polnische Lerner, die Deutsch und Englisch erwerben". Darauf folgte Abdoulaye Faye von der Philips-Universität Marburg mit seinem Beitrag „Mehrsprachigkeit, interferenzbedingte Fehler und Mehrsprachigkeitsdidaktik im senegalesischen Deutschunterricht". Nach der Pause präsentierte Bente Berenschot ihre Mas-

terarbeit zum Thema „Einflussfaktoren auf den Wortschatzerwerb im bilingualen Unterricht Niederländisch-Deutsch", gefolgt von Fleur de Mulder (beide Radboud Universität Nijmegen, unter Begleitung von Dr. Eva Knopp), die ihre Masterarbeit zum bilingualen Rechtschreiberwerb bei nah verwandten Sprachen vorstellte. Der gendersensible DaZ-Unterricht im institutionellen Integrationskontext wurde von Laura Schmidt der Universität Augsburg aufgegriffen. Zum Abschluss des ersten Konferenztages präsentierte Miriam Morf (Università degli Studi di Macerata) ihr Forschungsvorhaben zum Innenohr-Phänomen bei der Segmentierung von hypoartikulierter Sprache und deren Entwicklung im deutschen Fremdsprachenunterricht.

Am Freitag wurde der zweite und letzte Konferenztag mit einem Block zum Thema Sprachlernberatung und -coaching eröffnet. Martina Franz dos Santos (Philipps-Universität Marburg) sprach von der Messung niedrigschwelliger schriftsprachlicher Kompetenzen im Rahmen der Lernberatung für gering literalisierte Lernende. Als zweite Referentin des Tages präsentierte Niloofar Eskandari (Westfälische-Wilhelms Universität Münster) ihr Vorgehen bezüglich der schriftlichen Selbstkorrektur mithilfe von Korrekturkarten im DaF-Unterricht. Anschließend präsentierte Dr. Mazlume Demirci zum Thema Lernerautonomie im DaF-Unterricht einen Bericht über ein empirisches Forschungsprojekt zur Sprachlernberatung am Lehrbereich DaF der Universität zu Köln. Der Block wurde von Katarzyna Bieniecka-Drzymała (Adam Mickiewicz Universität Poznań) mit ihrem Beitrag „Potential von Sprachlerncoaching bei der Entwicklung der Sprachlernbewusstheit und Autonomisierung von Fremdsprachenstudierenden" abgeschlossen.

Die nächsten Themen gehörten zum kommunikativen (Unterrichts-)Block. Xiao Wang (Philipps-Universität Marburg) präsentierte erste Ergebnisse seines Forschungsprojekts „Die Rolle von Chunks zur Entwicklung sprachlicher Flüssigkeit im chinesischen DaF-Unterricht". Sihem Chafi stellte eine Reihe von kommunikativen Unterrichtsmethoden vor, die sie in ihrem modernen handlungsorientierten Fremdsprachenunterricht an der Universität Oran 2 (Algerien) einsetzte. Katarzyna Vetterman (Universität Rzeszów) präsentierte als letzte Referentin vor der Mittagspause ihre Ideen zu einem Forschungsprojekt zu Liedern und literarischen Texten als motivierender Faktor im DaF-Unterricht.

Nach der Mittagspause wurde die Möglichkeit geboten, auch auf informelle Weise und tiefgründiger miteinander in Kontakt zu treten. Einige Referent*innen tauschten sich über die online Plattform *wonder.me* aus und erweiterten so ihr internationales Netzwerk. Nach diesem Treffen wurde die Zoom-Konferenz fortgeführt. Mingyue Gu (Philipps-Universität Marburg) griff den kommunikativen Themenschwerpunkt erneut auf und präsentierte vorläufige Ergebnisse aus ihrem Forschungsprojekt „Syntaktische Strukturen der gesprochenen Sprache und ihre Darstellung unter Jugendlichen in monologischen YouTube-Videos". Zum Abschluss dieses Blockes präsentierte Lin Zhang (Philipps-Universität Marburg) die ersten Schlussfolgerungen ihres Projekts „Komplimentantworten in der Lernersprache: Pragmatischer Transfer von chinesischen Deutschlernenden". Im Anschluss stellte Jana Hermann (Radboud Universität Nijmegen) ihr Dissertationsprojekt zu Lehrpersonen im (Schul-)Austausch vor, welches sie Ende Oktober 2021 an der Radboud Universität Nijmegen verteidigt hat.

Nach einer kurzen Kaffeepause wurden noch zwei Projekte mit dem Themenschwerpunkt Deutsch als Zweitsprache vorgestellt. Lisa Teufele (Universität Augsburg) präsentierte die ersten Schritte ihres Forschungsprojekts „Berufssprachliche Kompetenzen von berufserfahrenen

Zugewanderten ohne formal anerkannten Berufsabschluss". Jennifer Müller, Promovendin der Philipps-Universität Marburg, schloss die Konferenz ab. Sie zeigte Teile der Datenanalyse aus ihrem Projekt „Literacy im Geschichtsunterricht. Herausforderungen beim Textverstehen für Zweitsprachenlernende".

Auch in diesem Jahr wurde wieder deutlich, wie wertvoll grenzüberschreitender wissenschaftlicher Austausch über laufende Forschungsprojekte im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache ist, der während dieser Nachwuchskonferenz ermöglicht wird. Von der Organisation, den Teilnehmenden und den Zuhörer*innen wurden insbesondere das Format und die produktive Atmosphäre während der Diskussionen als sehr positiv hervorgehoben. Die Nachwuchswissenschaftler*innen bekamen wertvolle Tipps und neue Ideen und haben auch online ihr Netzwerk um internationale Kontakte erweitern können. Es waren zwei sehr lehrreiche und bereichernde Tage mit intensivem und gewinnbringendem Austausch und das digitale Format der Konferenz wurde von allen als sehr gelungen empfunden.

Prof. Dr. Kathrin Siebold, Prof. Dr. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz und Dr. Sabine Jentges schlossen die Konferenz mit einem Ausblick auf 2022 ab. Sie sprachen die Hoffnung aus, die neunte Nachwuchskonferenz wieder als Präsensveranstaltung durchführen zu können, eventuell in hybrider Form. Auf diese Weise könnte im nächsten Jahr wieder persönlicher Austausch vor Ort ermöglicht werden, jedoch ergänzt durch digital dazugeschaltete Teilnehmende. So steht die Konferenz Teilnehmenden aus aller Welt offen.

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