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New trends in LSP teaching

edited by

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Deklaracja o wersji pierwotnej:
wersją pierwotną każdego numeru czasopisma jest wersja drukowana
ukazująca się nakładem Polskiego Towarzystwa Neofilologicznego

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INTRODUCTION

The increasing specialization of individual economic sectors, globalization processes, the emergence of new scientific fields as well as the growing number of international corporations and the dissemination of cross-border projects contribute to enormous differentiation in language and language usage. Language is evolving and changing at a rapid pace. These new tendencies are particularly visible within languages for specific purposes (LSP). The result of rapid development processes are new fields and subdisciplines, which in turn trigger new insights and inventions. The knowledge of the respective specific language is an important requirement to enable the user to communicate in a professional context.

This urgent need to master subject-specific foreign languages in the professional world together with requirements for future employees, which include foreign/specialist language skills, is creating a rising demand for new methods of working in foreign language teaching that will most effectively empower employees to communicate in an international society. None of these methods can be developed in isolation from the authentic context.

This issue is a collection of papers presenting different challenges for, as well as expectations of, foreign language teaching in the modern, globalised and multilingual world. Academics representing different universities present ways of combining the theory and practice of teaching language for specific purposes with respect to the increasing specialisation of different fields and expectations of potential learners. All of the contributors are either experienced LSP teachers or researchers, which adds a practical dimension to the publication.

In the first paper of the volume, Magdalena Aleksandrzak (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań) examines the genre-based approach in the context of its links to English for specific purposes (ESP). First, she describes the place of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the field of ESP. This is followed by a discussion of definitions and the role of genre in EAP courses. The author also discusses the

benefits of implementing genre-based pedagogy as the leading framework and as an important point of reference for EAP education.

The second paper focuses on the language of marketing. Basing on a corpus of specific marketing texts, Hanka Błaszkowska (Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań) sheds light on the influence of specialist language on the shaping of the image of the German car brand Volkswagen. Analysis of terminology emphasises the importance of developing text-building skills.

Beata Bury (Philological School of Higher Education in Wrocław) in her paper concentrates on the use of Web 2.0. tools to simulate TOEFL iBT©-style speaking exercises and improve students' test taking ability in speaking tests. First, she describes how Web 2.0 has changed the language learning process. Web-based activities are also implemented to help students overcome their fear of speaking. A survey study was conducted among kindergarten teachers in Andrychów. The author presents both the problems involved as well as possible solutions.

In the paper by Borka Richter (Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences) the role of teaching specific terminology within the course of Translation Studies at the Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences (KJUAS) is discussed. The author describes the practice of translation teaching in the context of the expectations of graduates and professional circles. Using real life examples, Richter shows how a separate course on terminology may increase students' language awareness and translation skills.

In the next paper, Weronika Szota (the University of Silesia in Katowice) focuses on aspects of a specific kind of translation (melic translation, i.e. translation of song lyrics). The author first presents different theories applicable to melic translation, highlighting the challenges inherent in the process, and then discusses the translation of lexical and grammatical elements to match the specific structure of the song and its musical characteristics, which is crucial for translating lyrics or specific texts from the field of music. Then, she presents and analyses a specific example of melic translation (of a song composed by Magdalena Grabowska-Wacławek), describing and justifying the translator's choices.

Grażyna Strzelecka (Warsaw University) describes the programme of master studies at Warsaw University, where students acquire both language teaching skills and professional knowledge from the field of logistics through a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) formula.

Anna Wierciak (the Jagiellonian University) in her paper concentrates on student-generated communication activities in an ESP course. The author presents a description of student-generated tasks that can be used at the very beginning of the course (needs analysis) and then at every stage of an ESP class. Apart from a detailed description of each activity the author also presents pitfalls and ready-made solutions and suggests guidelines for giving

feedback on the tasks. At the same time, Wierciak places the activities in a professional context, as they help to develop many skills which are essential in the workplace environment, such as collaboration, brainstorming, negotiating, and public speaking.

The final paper in this volume is Siek-Piskozub's review of the book by Jolanta Sujecka-Zając "A competent student in a language class: challenges for mediation in language teaching". In the book Sujecka-Zając presents a new approach to language teaching, where the focus is on the development of student competences using the author's own model of a profile of a competent student, which she calls Manager-Artist-Researcher (Polish abbreviation: MAN). After a general discussion of the theory and practice of learning and the competences involved, Sujecka-Zając goes on to emphasise the role of dialogue as a mediation tool in the teaching process. She sees mediation as a new approach that may help teachers to deal with student anxiety and to support the development of autonomy and other language learning competences.

We hope the following issue will reflect the rapid development in the field of languages for specific purposes as well as the need for multipolarity and interdisciplinary approaches in research. The papers included in the volume indicate that LSP is still a "terra incognita" and we hope that these contributions will motivate further explorations of the field.

We are very thankful to all the authors for their contribution to this volume.

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GENRE-BASED APPROACHES IN TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP)

Abstract

In recent years English for academic purposes (EAP) has become one of the mainstream fields of practice, study and research within language education, mainly due to the position of English as the international language of higher education and scientific research. The paper briefly examines the main assumptions of the approach in the context of its links to ESP (English for specific purposes), systemic functional linguistics and new literacy studies. However, the main focus of the present discussion is on genre-based pedagogy as the leading framework and an important point of reference for EAP education. To illustrate this perspective within the field, the notion of genre and its interpretations in foreign language teaching are discussed. Finally, two closely related academic genres – discussion and debate – are explored with the aim of indicating their potential benefits, areas of difficulty and challenges for students and teachers in the EAP classroom.

Keywords: English for academic purposes (EAP), genre, critical thinking, academic skills, discussion, debate

Słowa kluczowe: język angielski akademicki, gatunek, myślenie krytyczne, umiejętność uczenia się, dyskusja, debata

1. English for Academic Purposes – introduction

The field of English for academic purposes (EAP) which "emerged out of the broader field of English for specific purposes (ESP)" (Hamp-Lyons, 2011: 89) is often considered an eclectic sub-discipline within ESP. However, EAP can be clearly differentiated from ESP by its focus on academic contexts, and its scope of interest can be most accurately defined as "the linguistic, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic description of English as it occurs in the contexts of academic study and scholarly exchange itself" (Hamp-Lyons, 2011: 89). Thus, EAP education is concerned with the teaching of specialized knowledge and literacy skills and intends to prepare university students and young researchers for efficient communication in English in different institutional and research settings. The specific aim of EAP education is to help students study and conduct research in different English-medium contexts and participate in academic life. Consequently, it is the teaching of English which does not focus on developing students' general proficiency in English but rather on the language which is used in the academic world.

The initial focus of attention in EAP was probably the expansion of higher education, multilingualism and to provide support for international students, but at present EAP is concerned also with local students (either monolingual or multilingual) and their increasing need for training in academic literary skills (see Lillis & Tuck, 2016). Nevertheless, it seems that the increasing popularity of EAP education and its rapid growth as a field of study and research results mostly from the position of English as the international lingua franca of higher education and research (Pérez-Llantada & Swales, 2017) or, in other words, "the gradual growth of English as the leading language for the dissemination of academic knowledge" (Hamp-Lyons, 2011: 92). Thus, it comes as no surprise that nowadays "the need to learn how to communicate in English in global academia is unprecedented" (Pérez-Llantada & Swales, 2017: 42). Bearing this in mind, it is worth considering whether EAP education should be (or is) looked upon as a specific support service, or as a research-informed academic subject on its own. In fact, EAP pedagogy takes on various forms or guises and, although it has become increasingly influential in recent years, its status is frequently questioned.

One way of looking at EAP is to distinguish two differing perspectives within the field. A wide-angle approach, often referred to as English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), is based on the conviction that there are a number of language forms, skills and study activities that are common to many disciplines which, as a result, are transferable across contexts (Hyland, 2016). In fact, activities such as skimming and scanning texts, paraphrasing and summarizing,

taking notes and giving presentations are important to all students regardless of the individual's subject of study. The other approach – English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) – points to the necessity of tailoring the course to the needs of students. This narrow angle view concentrates on very specific uses of language typical of a particular discipline and its theoretical and re-search orientation. It focuses on skills, language features, subject-specific knowledge and genres which seem to be directly linked and applicable to the students' specialization. According to Hyland (2016), who opts for the strong case for specificity, ESAP is more challenging and demanding for teachers, as it requires both expertise in a field and the ability to use the specialist dis-course. However, it gives students the opportunity to work on a more relevant selection of academic texts or skills and allows them to better prepare for fur-ther studies (masters or doctoral). In a similar vein, Murray (2016: 436) under-lines the fact that a decentralized approach to EAP takes into account the var-iation that exists between typical language practices within different aca-demic disciplines. By contrast, traditional centralized models of English lan-guage provision do not recognize the importance of context and, as a conse-quence, they interpret EAP education in terms of developing a static set of skills that are generalizable across disciplines (Murray, 2016).

The present paper aims to discuss the position of genre-based approaches within EAP teaching and learning, to examine the notion of genre in the EAP con-text, in particular with regard to the spoken language, and, lastly, to analyze the possible forms of practical implementation of two closely related spoken aca-demic genres, discussion and debate, during an advanced EAP course.

2. Genre-based ELT and EAP pedagogy

The initial emphasis on solving practical problems, developing educational practices in rhetoric, or composition studies and implementation research which characterized the field of EAP in the early years of its development has been gradually replaced by the focus on genre analytic studies. In fact, it was Swales' (1990) pioneering work in genre analysis that gave the initial impetus for the growing popularity of genre-based approaches and helped to establish their present position as one of the mainstream trends in teaching English (particularly writing) all around the world. Both Swales (1990) and Paltridge (2001) opted to give genre a more central position in language teaching (par-ticularly in ESP and EAP education), indicating that genre-based approaches allow for exploring languages from the perspective of the whole text and take into account the social and cultural contexts of communication.

At present the growing body of research concentrates not only on specific textual genre analysis but also on numerous phenomenological aspects of academic genres and the notion of genre in non-literary discourse, particularly in the context of language teaching and learning (see Paltridge, 2001; Hamp-Lyons, 2011; Hyland, 2016; Pérez-Llantada & Swales, 2017). It seems that exploring the effectiveness of genre-based approaches in teaching different aspects of academic English in generic and subject-specific contexts has become one of the leading research themes within the field, particularly as regards teaching academic writing.

Generally speaking, genre-based approaches to teaching languages comprise at least three main theoretical perspectives:

- English for specific purposes (ESP) – In the 1950s and 1960s English became a leading language for science and business in many countries and growing numbers of international students continued their education in Britain (as part of national educational policy). Since then ESP and EAP courses have served as the answer to the emerging needs of increasingly multilingual and multicultural populations of students who need training in specific academic and research skills in English. This orientation is strongly influenced by the position of English as the dominant language of higher education, academic knowledge and research.
- systemic functional linguistics – The approach derives from Hallidayan functional linguistics (Halliday, 1978) and the sociocultural theory of learning, based on the ideas of Vygotsky (1978). It points to the interactive and sequential character of genres and the ways in which language is related to context by means of its lexical, grammatical and rhetorical features (Hyland, 2003). The structures of genres are not fixed but they vary according to three changeable characteristics:
  - context – where genres are used,
  - purpose – the function of genres,
  - audience – the community to which genres are directed.
  Consequently, the approach promotes a more situated view of genres, although it is stressed that "there are no rules that can be applied to all texts across contexts, purposes, and audiences" (Correa & Echeverri, 2017: 48).
- new literacy studies or academic literacy (Hamp-Lyons, 2011: 97) – Originally the terms were narrowly associated with American composition literature and school reading and writing. The change in perception of academic literacies started in the 1990s and since then they have been seen as a complex set of skills necessary to be able to use language to learn and experience knowledge (Johns, 1997). Contrary

to earlier interpretations, nowadays academic literacies are not understood as confined to reading or writing and the main emphasis within the movement is placed on practices rather than on exploring texts. Additionally, it is assumed that "academic rules and conventions are negotiable and that students have the right to participate in the academic community and therefore develop a critical stance towards these rules and conventions" (Pérez-Llantada & Swales, 2017: 45). The "academic literacies" perspective is an example of a decentralized approach to teaching academic language (English for specific academic purposes) and it aims to reflect the practices of individual disciplines, both with regard to language and social meanings (Murray, 2016: 436).

Within all of the above-mentioned orientations genre pedagogy offers a number of unquestionable advantages to learners and teachers, mainly because it manages to incorporate language, content and context into a coherent approach to language teaching. The main benefits of the approach can be summarized in the following way (Hyland, 2007: 150):

Genre pedagogy is:

- explicit – it makes clear what should be learnt,
- systematic – it provides a meaningful framework which combines language and contexts,
- needs-based – course content and objectives are closely related to students' needs,
- supportive – it helps teachers in promoting and stimulating students' learning and creativity,
- empowering – it provides learners with patterns of texts and possibilities of their variations,
- critical – it provides access to appropriate resources and creates opportunities for challenging valued discourses,
- consciousness-raising – it contributes to increasing teachers' awareness of texts and helps them to advise learners on their specific problems.

3. The notion of genre

It cannot be denied that Bakhtin's (1986) ideas on the understanding of genres were in fact the major, if not the most influential, contribution in promoting the notion of genre (McCarthy, 1998). In his interpretation Bakhtin (1986) focuses on 'utterances', which he sees as abstract units of speech. They may vary considerably in length and comprise both extended monologues and short one-speaker turns in conversation. Utterances illustrate different conditions and

goals of human communication, not only by means of specific grammatical and lexical choices that speakers make, but also through their particular "compositional structure [and the fact that] each sphere in which language is used develops its own relatively stable types of these utterances" (Bakhtin, 1986: 60). These types reflect specific conventions and sociohistorical elements or meanings characteristic of a given community and are enriched each time by interpersonal aspects (such as the typical concept of the addressee) and individual strategies employed by interlocutors.

Definitions of genre are usually based on the idea that particular discourse communities develop the ability to identify similarities in the texts (both written and oral) which they use regularly and for clearly defined purposes. The notion of discourse community, which shares a clearly definable discursive space (although by no means static or fixed – as membership of particular communities is always in a state of flux), seems both useful and necessary for better understanding "of the ways individuals acquire and deploy the specialized discourse competencies that allow them to legitimate their professional identities and to effectively participate as group members" (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002: 6). Consequently, the concept of discourse communities is at present seen as one of the main organizing principles in EAP and serves as a point of reference for explorations of genres or communicative conventions within different academic disciplines from linguistic and pedagogical perspectives (Hamp-Lyons, 2011: 94).

Broadly speaking, the repeated experience of participating in the activities of a given community allows its members to read, comprehend and reproduce genres (in writing or speaking) with a considerable degree of ease and gives them a sense of conventionality or even ownership of genres. As John Swales (1990: 58) claims

> [a] genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. The rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of contents and style.

In the definitions of genre situated within the context of foreign language teaching, the process of constructing a genre in an ongoing interaction is closely related to its communicative goals and does not necessarily reflect the interlocutors' commitment to generic norms or conventions. Moreover, such goals may become evident during the interaction and not at its beginning (McCarthy, 1998). According to Thornbury (2007: 121), the term genre refers to any potential kind

of communicative event, such as, for example, chat, conversation, presentation, discussion and interview or any other communicative situation, which is characterized by a clear and largely predictable structure and is situated within a particular sociocultural context. Derewianka (1990) asserts that the social goals and context of a text (written or spoken) in fact decide about its structure and the particular features of language in use which are mostly schematic and conventional. Hughes (2002) underlines the typicality of a given text structure and grammar, and Hyland (2007: 149) sees genres as abstract, socially recognized and accepted ways of using language in various communicative circumstances.

Thus, it can be observed that genres are usually defined with regard to social purposes of particular communicative situations. They integrate higher- and lower-order features (lexis and grammar tend to correspond to goals and context). However, typologies of genres vary according to the theoretical orientations behind them. One of the popular categorizations of genres, rooted in systemic functional linguistics (Derewianka, 1990), is based on the distinction between text prototypes and specific genres which are the combinations of different text types. Importantly, social functions of discourse are used here as the main point of reference and achieving certain social purposes is seen as the main aim of communication.

The classification comprises six prototype texts distinguished on the basis of their primary social purposes and representative genres, interpreted here as more specific classes of texts, written or spoken, which may contain the elements typical of different prototypes (Derewianka, 1990; Lin, 2006):

- narratives – telling a story,
- recounts – telling what happened,
- information reports – providing factual information,
- instructions – telling someone what to do,
- explanations – explaining how something happens,
- expository texts – presenting a viewpoint.

According to the above classification, some genres may be based on one text prototype (for example, recipes are in fact "instructions"), while others may include a number of text prototypes (for example, a sermon usually includes the elements of narrative or recount and explanation) (Lin, 2006).

A general typology which focuses on spoken genres was put forward by Carter and McCarthy (1997). However, the authors stress that genres should not be seen as stable or fixed formats but rather as dynamic and overlapping spoken events that realize complex functions and the individual, communicative goals of interlocutors, which frequently differ. The main generic forms in this typology are defined in the following way:

- narrative – reporting on events from the speaker's everyday life with active participation of listeners,
- identifying – talking about oneself, presenting facts from one's own biography, talking about work, hobbies, family, place of residence, etc.,
- language-in-action – speech that accompanies everyday activities (such as cooking, cleaning, packing),
- comment-elaboration – speakers express their opinions, comment on latest events, social, phenomena, actions performed by other people, etc.
- debate and argument – interlocutors take a position in a discussion or debate, present their arguments, justify their opinion,
- decision-making and negotiating – speakers intend to take a decision or negotiate to solve a current problem.

Importantly, as McCarthy (1998) claims, any theory or typology of spoken genres should take into account the specificity of spoken language (its context-variation, the issues of participant goals and relationships), which is best reflected in real data coming from different communicative settings. The relative stability of genres can also work as an effective tool in developing coherent and socially appropriate patterns of communicative behavior in foreign language learners. Unfortunately, as Nowicka and Wilczyńska (2011: 36) point out, such an approach to teaching communicative skills is very rare in Polish schools, and similarly in advanced university courses offered by language departments. Consequently, the practice of general reflection concerning the specific conditions and contexts of communicative events and actions is rather ignored (Nowicka & Wilczyńska, 2011: 37) and references to text types or genre typologies (potentially beneficial from the perspective of developing learners' communicative competence) are unsystematic. This observation becomes even more meaningful in the light of Bhatia's (2002: 4) view, according to which analyzing genres (relevant to the needs of a given language classroom) offers numerous and unquestionable benefits to the learners. In general, generic descriptions may be used as models and input for students to analyze, explore, exploit and experience language in specific contexts.

The most popular arguments against using genre-based approaches in the language classroom concern the possibility of encouraging simple reproductions of discourse forms, promoting a simplified, static view of the world (or discourse), and discouraging creativity or active transfer of skills among learners (Bhatia, 2002).

To sum up this discussion, it can be claimed that the increasing interest in the concept of genre and the forms of its application to language teaching seems to be focused mainly on (or, in other words, even visibly confined to) the

skill of writing. Little is known about the potential effectiveness of employing genre-based instruction in developing learners' speaking abilities, including the aspects of the skill which seem of particular importance to EAP learners. To fill this gap, the next section of the article concentrates on two spoken academic genres, namely discussion and debate, and examines recommended procedures and potential problems which may appear while incorporating these text formats into a practical EAP course.

4. The application of a genre-based approach to teaching speaking skills within an EAP framework – discussion and debate as academic genres

Introducing academic texts (both spoken and written) which are typically taught in EAP higher education courses requires detailed and analytic consideration of the variables of context, purpose and audience. In fact, academic genres can be very challenging for students as they contain specific language patterns, which are frequently abstract, technical or metaphorical, and more complex clause structures or less concrete lexis (Correa & Echeverri, 2017) than genres of everyday communication. They are often identified by their use of generalized or specific participants, rigid or rather flexible structure, and more or less topic-specific vocabulary. The configuration of a particular text has to be determined by its author, but it requires a number of genre-specific features which make a given text acceptable within the discourse community for which and/or in which it was created to be taken into account. Therefore, it is assumed that academic genres should be introduced explicitly and practised extensively before students are given a chance to come up with their own examples of particular genres. One of the most popular schemas employed in the teaching of EAP writing is the so called teaching-learning cycle which can be best described as "an interactive process of contextualization, analysis, discussion, and joint negotiation of texts" (Hyland, 2002: 126). The stages of the process, which can be effectively modified and adopted for teaching spoken genres, involve:

- preparation – comprises negotiating the content of teaching and learning and introducing students to general features of the chosen genre (relevant vocabulary and grammatical patterns),
- modelling – sample texts (written or oral) are used to illustrate the schematic structure and purposes of the genre and specific linguistic features are examined in relation to their functions in the text,
- joint construction – students construct similar texts in groups or with the whole class (this may involve conducting earlier research on the relevant topic in order to develop the knowledge of the field),

- independent construction – learners construct their own texts individually, in pairs or small groups (depending on the specific nature of the genre in question) with appropriate support from the teacher (or other students) when needed.

At each stage collaboration between students and the teacher is an essential part of the process – it allows for scaffolding which supports the learners' progress and helps them move through the consecutive stages of the cycle in accordance with the intended sequence of actions.

One of the most popular spoken genres – discussion (and its more elaborate form – debate) can serve as an interesting example and illustrate the problems, challenges and potential benefits connected with the application of a seemingly common academic genre in the EAP classroom. Discussion is generally defined as "a form verbal interaction between two or more people with the purpose of looking at a certain issue from different points of view or aspects" (Dakowska, 2005: 245). It requires students to have sufficient ability to understand input which may be difficult in terms of language and content or unanticipated, to negotiate output, to express their opinions and to evaluate the opinions of other participants in ongoing, face-to-face interaction. Debates usually have a more formal character than discussions and they involve "two opposing points of view, with points of view ascribed to members of each debating team, but also with points being developed in answer to the opponents as they emerge during the activity" (Dakowska, 2005: 246).

Stewart (2003: 10) makes a distinction between different debate formats. An academic or educational debate style (used for the purpose of educational training in argumentation skills) differs considerably from an applied or real-world debating style (used for decision-making in the real world), particularly with regard to the level of formality, structure of the event and the type of language used. Irrespective of the debating style, the terms used to refer to particular stages and elements of debate are defined in the following way (Stewart, 2003: 10):

Debate term	Definition
Affirmative team	➢ the side that supports the resolution in a debate
Argument	➢ a claim supported by evidence
Cross-examination	➢ the questioning period in a debate
Debate format	➢ a type of debate with particular goals, rules and practices,
Negative team	➢ the team that rejects or opposes the resolution in a debate
Opening statement	➢ the opening speech in a debate
Position	➢ a stand on an issue that a debater supports
Rebuttal	➢ a response to an opponent's arguments
Resolution	➢ the topic of a debate that the affirmative team supports and the negative one rejects

Table 1: Definitions of debate terms (Stewart, 2003: 10).

Both discussions and debates in the context of foreign language learning are student-centered, fluency-based activities which are believed to stimulate and develop critical thinking skills and require them to be made use of in real time during unrehearsed verbal exchanges. Critical thinking abilities can be presented by referring to a number of dispositions (Ennis, 1996: 171) essential to successful accomplishment of any discussion-oriented activity. They include the ability to:

- seek alternatives, explanations, hypotheses and conclusions,
- endorse a position to an extent that seems justified by the available information,
- be open and well-informed,
- take into consideration viewpoints different from or opposed to your own.

However, students' critical thinking potential may well be taken advantage of only if the activity is planned in accordance with certain rules. Dakowska (2005: 245) enumerates the following guidelines for a successful discussion:

- the topic is controversial enough to ensure that it can be looked at from different angles,
- students have some influence on the choice of topic – as a result, they are more likely to prepare and participate in the activity,
- they must be interested in the topic and knowledgeable enough to discuss it – they need access to relevant sources of knowledge and topic-specific information to construct their arguments,
- students need some idea of the events to come - they may benefit from task sequencing at the stage of preparation and they must be aware of the typical features of the discussion genre.

Similar rules should be taken into account while designing a debate in an EAP classroom. In fact, debates are more often associated with academic settings and are considered to be more formal and demanding in practical implementation, both from the perspective of students and their teachers.

As a formal academic genre, debate can be described in terms of a procedure consisting of a number of stages. Stewart (2003: 15) suggests the following debate format, which is intended to support learners in the activity and motivate them to practise both the language and critical thinking skills.

1. opening statement – two opposing teams (affirmative and negative) present their general introductions,
2. major arguments are stated by each of the parties – after each argument the opposing team asks questions or gives rebuttal,
3. question preview – each team asks two initial questions (comprehension questions from the opposing team can be asked afterwards),

4. cross-examination – teams answer the questions (each team can challenge with follow-up questions),
5. affirmative and negative teams present their closing statements.

The amount of time needed for each part of the debate depends on the number of team members and their verbal activity during the task. Undoubtedly, balanced contributions from different team members are recommended but in reality they are not easy to elicit.

Importantly, an academic debate is a genre that requires the ability to extensively use so-called academic language. Chamot and O'Malley (1994) define it as the kind of language used for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge or skills and illustrate by indicating several functions that language is used for in academic settings (explaining, justifying, debating, classifying, proving, persuading, evaluating, etc.). All kinds of debate-related activities involve some of these skills, as the format centers on some sort of controversy or the opposition of viewpoints. Debates provide language teachers "with a solid vehicle for integrated instruction" (Stewart, 2003: 10), promote meaningful engagement of learners in a task and authentic communication in the classroom. It is not a random discussion of a particular topic but a communicative situation which provokes students to think critically and speak in an organized, argumentative manner.

Preparing and conducting a debate is believed to foster the development of academic skills in language students. The stages of a typical language classroom debate may be connected with practising the following academic skills (Stewart, 2003: 12):

Tasks	Academic skills
Researching a topic	• reading (scanning, skimming, close reading) • writing (note taking)
Organizing information (selecting major arguments in teams, planning opening and closing statements)	• reading (close reading) • speaking (summarizing information, discussing) • listening (comprehending short oral reports) • writing (note taking, summarizing) • critical thinking (categorizing information, evaluating information, synthetizing information) • group work (sharing information, planning)
Writing a short comparative essay	• writing (essay writing, note taking, paraphrasing, summarizing) • critical thinking (contrasting main ideas)
Making an oral presentation	• speaking (presenting, stating arguments, clarifying, posing and responding to questions) • listening (comprehending oral presentations, discussions, questions and responses) • writing (note taking, editing)

	• critical thinking (evaluating presentations, questions and responses) • group work (evaluating, planning)

Table 2: Debate format in language pedagogy (Stewart, 2003: 12).

5. Concluding remarks – problems and solutions

Discussions and debates, like most speaking activities, are likely to cause learner anxiety which, on one hand, results from the unpredictable nature of ongoing, real-time communication, and on the other is connected with the character and specific structure of the expected output. Other problems typically encountered during classroom discussions or debates are related to:

- unequal participation of learners (which can have different sources),
- difficulties connected with the topic, which might be too intellectually demanding or may require specialist knowledge,
- specialized (or very specific) discourse needed for discussing a particular topic,
- insufficient background knowledge and/or lack of practice in the discussion genre and its specific elements (grammar, lexis, phraseology, turn-taking, opening and closing remarks, formulaic language, ways of addressing the audience, etc.),
- chaotic or not sufficiently developed task model, without clearly defined objectives, criteria of success or forms of assessment.

To sum up, it has to be stressed that good task design and clear structure of the activity, together with careful topic- and genre-specific preparation on the part of students and teachers can facilitate the implementation of the format, both in a general EFL class and during an EAP course (either in the EGAP (English for General Academic Purposes) or ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes) format). However, language provision – in order to be effective – should take into account the disciplinary variation in language use since "all academic English is necessarily contextualized – as indeed is all language – even if there may be certain features that are widely generalizable across disciplines" (Murray, 2016: 440).

In the context of EAP teaching, a discussion or debate task is probably seen as a more formal or structured and knowledge-based activity than in less specific educational settings which aim mainly at developing students' general proficiency in the target language. Explicit scaffolding of skills and task components is likely to increase learners' confidence and their chances for a successful and effective task compliance. However, the extent of this explicitness should always be tailored to the possibilities and needs of a particular group of learners. Similarly, the same attitude seems to be the best option while deciding

on the proper balance between the amount of structured, genre-specific output and genuine language production expected and elicited from students.

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FACHSPRACHSPEZIFISCHER WORTSCHATZ ALS INSTRUMENT ZUR MARKENPFLEGE AM BEISPIEL DER KATEGORIE ELEKTROMOBILITÄT IM *VOLKSWAGEN MAGAZIN*

**Specialist terminology as a means of branding:
the category of Electro Mobility in *Volkswagen Magazin***

The article explores the influence of the specialised language on the shaping of the image of the German car brand Volkswagen. The analysed material comprises marketing texts from an image magazine of the Volkswagen Magazin brand, available on the company's website. The issue will be examined on the basis of the semantic category of Electro Mobility, which constitutes a subcategory of the semantic category of innovation, which in turn is currently the company's main area of activity and the focus of all actions, also linguistic, in terms of shaping the brand's image. The specialised language in the texts from the Magazine, a digital journal, whose articles resemble forms of journalistic writing, limits itself mainly to specialist vocabulary – the technical vocabulary referring to automotive technology, as well as pseudo-specialised language, whose role is merely to evoke technical connotations. Both types of specialist terminology contribute to the restoring of the reputation of the brand in the eyes of the consumers, which has been severely affected as a result of the emissions scandal in 2015.

Keywords: automotive engineering, electromobility, automotive terminology, promotional communication, marketing texts, brand image, branding

Słowa kluczowe: technika motoryzacyjna, elektromobilność, terminologia motoryzacyjna, komunikacja promocyjna, tekst marketingowy, wizerunek marki, pielęgnacja wizerunku marki

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1. Einleitung

Der größte Erfolgsfaktor eines jeden Automobilunternehmens ist heute sein Markenimage, d.h. das Bild der Marke im Bewusstsein relevanter Bezugsgruppen, das von den Unternehmenswerten geprägt ist. Zu den Werten von Volkswagen gehörten traditionell u.a. Verlässlichkeit und Glaubwürdigkeit, die jedoch mit der Dieselkrise vom Herbst 2015 in Frage gestellt wurden. Im Zuge der Neuausrichtung hat das Unternehmen seine Markenwerte neu definiert und Elektromobilität zum neuen Markenkern erklärt[1]. In dem Beitrag soll anhand einer semantisch-lexikalischen Analyse der Kategorie Elektromobilität in den Marketingtexten des *Volkswagen Magazins* (im Weiteren kurz *Magazin* genannt) die Fachsprache als Mittel der Markenpflege untersucht werden. Das *Magazin*[2] prägt als Instrument der Marktkommunikation das Image und beeinflusst die Einstellung der Bezugsgruppen (Fans bzw. Kunden) zur Marke. Indirekt übermittelt das Medium auch Werbebotschaften, weshalb es an der Schnittstelle des PR- (Information), des Marketingbereichs (Verkaufsförderung) und darunter der Werbung zu platzieren ist. Mit der Markenpflege mittels Texten hängt die informativ-persuasive Sprachfunktion[3] zusammen, die auf Meinungslenkung und Bewusstseinsbildung abzielt. Ein wichtiges Element der Persuasion bilden semantische Kategorien, die die Adressaten der imageprägenden Texte durch Hervorhebung von Informationen über hohe Qualität und Leistungsfähigkeit der Produkte ansprechen. Semantische Kategorien in der Werbung hat u.a. Ożóg (2001: 103-125) untersucht, der in Bezug auf das Produkt die Kategorien Neuartigkeit (Fortschrittlichkeit), Tradition, Natürlichkeit, Funktionalität, Luxus, Effektivität und Preis unterschieden hat. Alle diese Kategorien werden als Mittel der Persuasion eingesetzt und haben eine hohe lexikalische Repräsentation in Werbe- und Marketingtexten. Die erste und zugleich

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[1] Konzernchef Matthias Müller hat in der Jahrespressekonferenz am 13. März 2018 „nachhaltige Mobilität" als großes Zukunftsthema für Volkswagen und „Aufbruch in eine neue Ära" angekündigt. Bis 2025 plant Volkswagen 30 reine Elektrofahrzeuge in seinem Markenportfolio anzubieten. https://www.volkswagenag.com (letzter Abruf 25.03.2018)

[2] Das *Volkswagen Magazin* ist ein digitales, auf der offiziellen Internetseite von Volkswagen Deutschland zugängliches Medium, dessen Beiträge auf die Rubriken *e-Mobility, Innovation, Sport, Events, Ratgeber, Modelle, Menschen, Historie, News* verteilt sind. https://live.volkswagen.com/content/magazine/de.html (letzter Abruf 25.03.2018)

[3] Grünert (1984: 29-37) differenziert die Appellfunktion aus und nimmt eine Unterteilung in die poskative, regulative, integrative und informativ-persuasive Funktion vor, von denen die letzte Sprachfunktion auf Meinungslenkung und Bewusstseinsbildung der Rezipienten hinzielt. Eine starke persuasive Wirkung entfalten auch die spannenden Bilder des *Magazins*, worauf in dem Beitrag jedoch nicht näher eingegangen wird.

frequenteste Kategorie Neuartigkeit kann im Falle der Automobilmarke Volkswagen als Innovativität[4] umschrieben werden, im Sinne neuer technologischer Entwicklungen, die den Weg u.a. zur Elektromobilität ebnen. Innovativität hat als semantische Kategorie eine starke persuasive Wirkung, denn innovative Produkte werden als hochwertig angesehen und animieren den Konsumenten zum Kauf. Die positiven Assoziationen zu Innovativität und Elektromobilität werden auch in Texten der Volkswagen-Markenpflege ausgiebig genutzt. Der Fokus der durchgeführten Analyse richtet sich auf die fachsprachliche Realisierung der semantischen Kategorie Elektromobilität in den *Magazin*-Texten, ihre Funktion und ihren Einfluss auf das Image der Marke.

2. Fachsprache in der Werbe- und Marketingkommunikation

Das *Volkswagen Magazin* liegt als Kommunikationsinstrument auf der vertikalen Achse der Fachkommunikation und markiert die fachexterne Kommunikation zwischen Experten des Fachgebiets (interne Fachredakteure) und (informierten und uninformierten) Laien. Die Kommunikationssituation mit der Teilnahme von Fachleuten als Textautoren ist entscheidend, um von Fachkommunikation sprechen zu können. Um die Verständlichkeit der Wissensübermittlung zu gewährleisten, dürfen die an Laien adressierten Texte jedoch nicht von einem hohen Fachlichkeitsgrad sein. Nach Gläser (1990: 173ff) ist die spezifische Fachlichkeit der popularisierenden, d.h. aus der Fachwelt in den Alltag vermittelnden Textsorten, am Gebrauch der Fachwörter sowie ihrer Verteilung und Erklärung ablesbar. Janich (1998: 32f) spricht im Kontext der Werbekommunikation, die unter die Marketingkommunikation fällt und daher Relevanz für den untersuchten Bereich hat, von der „fachexternen Fachlichkeit", d.h. Fachlichkeit im weiteren Sinn, die fachlich wirkende Ausdrücke (werbespezifische und inhaltlich vage Wortschöpfungen) umfasst, im Gegensatz zur Fachlichkeit im engeren Sinn, der Ausdrücke zur Referenz auf Sachverhalte oder Gegenstände eines Fachgebiets zugewiesen werden. „Fachlichkeit im engeren Sinn umfasst also all das, was fachlich ist. Fachlichkeit im weiteren Sinn umfasst dementsprechend all das, was fachlich scheint oder auf Fachliches anspielt" (ebd. 33).

Da in den *Magazin*-Texten auf das Automobil als Gegenstand der Kfz-Technik referiert wird, ist von Fachlichkeit im engeren Sinn auszugehen, andererseits lassen der Adressatenkreis und der Marketingcharakter der Texte auch auf Fachlichkeit im weiteren Sinn schließen. Die Fachlichkeit der Texte lässt sich am deutlichsten an der Fachlexik festmachen. Zwar gehören auch

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[4] Volkswagen hat den Anspruch, die innovativste Volumenmarke zu werden. https://www.volkswagenag.com (letzter Abruf 25.03.2018)

andere Merkmale zur Fachsprache, wie z.B. die fachtypische Syntax und der Stil, die jedoch eine weit größere Rolle in Texten der fachinternen Kommunikation spielen. Die digitale Zeitschrift *Volkswagen Magazin* ist Träger journalistischer Textsorten, die einen publizistischen Stil anstreben und sich auf lexikalischer Ebene primär der Fachsprache, d.h. der Fachwörter, bedienen.

Fluck (1996: 48) unterscheidet zwischen systembezogenen, exakt definierten Fachwörtern, die in den *Magazin*-Texten der etablierten Kfz-Fachlexik entsprechen, und unsystematischen Fachwörtern, d.h. Halbtermini, die den Bereich der synonymischen quasi-fachsprachlichen Ausdrucksvarianten markieren. Janich (ebd. 39-43) schlägt eine Trennung der Fachlexik im Werbebereich in Wörter mit fachlichem Charakter im engeren Sinn, zu denen wohldefinierte, kontextunabhängige Fachwörter gehören, die auf ein fachliches Denotat referieren, und Wörter mit fachlichem Charakter im weiteren Sinn in Form von Fachjargon- und pseudofachsprachigen Ausdrücken, die kein Fachwissen vermitteln, jedoch fachliche Assoziationen wecken sollen, vor. Die Fachwörter im engeren Sinn informieren über Fachinhalte, die Fachwörter im weiteren Sinn evozieren die Fachlichkeit, wodurch sie den technisch ungebildeten Laien imponieren und die Texte glaubwürdiger und seriöser machen sollen (ebd. 52f.). Nach Janichs Auffassung ermöglicht diese Gliederung ein Urteil über den Informationsgehalt der Texte. In ihren Untersuchungen der Werbetexte, auch aus der Automobilbranche (vgl. Janich, 1998, 2001), kommt die Autorin zu dem Schluss, dass Fachsprache in der Werbung weniger Fachliches übermittelt als Fachliches inszeniert. Diese Erkenntnis wird auch von anderen Forschern bestätigt, die die Fachsprache in der Werbekommunikation als „pseudofachsprachliche Imponiersprache" ansehen, die sich das Prestige der Fachlichkeit und die positiven Konnotationen von Fach- und Wissenschaftstermini zunutze macht (vgl. Morgenroth, 2000: 30), da unsere Gesellschaft von einer starken Wissenschaftsgläubigkeit geprägt ist (vgl. Bastian et al., 2000: 91). Im Falle der *Magazin*-Texte kann angenommen werden, dass sie auf Grund ihres Bezugs auf die Automobiltechnik sowie ihrer journalistisch-werblichen Prägung fachliche Wörter beider von Janich (1998) klassifizierten Gruppen enthalten und zum Zweck der Markenpflege auch aus dem stilistischen Reservoir der Werbesprache schöpfen werden.

3. Fachlexik zur Elektromobilität im *Volkswagen Magazin*

Im untersuchten Material wird auf Elektromobilität explizit und implizit Bezug genommen, wobei hier die erste Gruppe der Bezüge ins Gewicht fällt. Als implizit werden alle Bezüge eingestuft, die auf Elektromobilität ohne expliziten Gebrauch von Fachwörtern referieren. *Be more Norway* ist bspw. eine Anspielung

auf Norwegen als Elektro-Land Nr. 1 in Europa, an dem sich Deutschland ein Beispiel nehmen könnte. Die expliziten Bezüge auf Elektromobilität, elektrifizierte Fahrzeugmodelle, ihre Konstruktionsteile und Ausstattungselemente bedienen sich einer Reihe von Fachwörtern, die im Weiteren mit Beispielen illustriert werden. Obwohl die Kategorisierung der Wörter im Einzelfall Probleme bereiten kann, wird versucht, sie den Wörtern fachlichen Charakters im engeren und weiteren Sinn zuzuordnen.

I. Wörter mit fachlichem Charakter im engeren Sinn:

1) *Fachwörter zur Mobilität in Form von Nominalkomposita mit dem adjektivischen Kurzwort Elektro-, die sich auf die elektrische Antriebstechnologie, die Fahrzeuge und ihre Konstruktionsteile beziehen, z.B. Elektromobilität, Elektrofahrzeug/Elektro-Fahrzeug, Elektroauto, Elektroauto-Flotte, Elektroantrieb, Elektro-Hybridantrieb, Elektromotor, Elektro-Modus, Elektro-Prototyp, Elektro-CUV (Cross Utility Vehicle), Elektrotransporter,* und auch die herstellerspezifische Bezeichnung *Elektro-Golf* für das hauseigene Modell;

2) Sprachökonomische synonymische Varianten zu 1 in Form von Nominalkomposita mit den Abkürzungen *e-/E*, z.B. *e-Mobilität, E-Antrieb, e-Auto, e-Modell, e-Motor, e-Services.* Zu dieser Gruppe gehören auch die herstellerspezifischen Produktnamen *e-Golf* und *e-up!*;

3) Fachwörter in Form von Nominalkomposita ohne *Elektro-/e-* Konstituenten, darunter deutsch-englische Hybridkomposita, die auf die Antriebsart und die Lade-Infrastruktur Bezug nehmen, z.B. *Hochvoltflachbatterie, Hybridfahrzeug, Ladestation, Ladestandanzeiger, Stromverbrauch, Photovoltaikanlage, Plug-In-Hybrid, Schnellladesäule*;

4) Mehrwortbenennungen, z.B. *Modularer Elektrifizierungsbaukasten (MEB), Combined Charging System (CCS), Digital Key, Smart Mobility*.

5) Fachwörter in Form von Adjektiven, Adverbien bzw. Partizipien, z.B. *batteriegetrieben, rein elektrisch, elektrisch betrieben, elektrisch angetrieben, vollelektrisch* sowie fachliche Wendungen, die durch ihre Verbindung mit Nomina zustande kommen, z.B. *elektrisch angetriebenes Modell* (als Pendant zu *e-Modell*), *rein elektrisch betriebenes Serienfahrzeug, rein elektrisches Rennfahrzeug, vollelektrisches Fahrzeug, elektrischer Antrieb* (als Synonym zu *Elektroantrieb*);

6) Fachwörter in Form von Verben, z.B. *aufladen, laden, elektrifizieren*.

II. Wörter mit fachlichem Charakter im weiteren Sinn:

1) Assoziativ fachliche Fremdwörter, die durch die Ausdrucksseite fachliche Konnotationen hervorrufen, z.B. *Dynamik, Effekt, Effizienzklasse, Funktionalität, Innovation, modular, Nachhaltigkeit, Reichweite, Serie, Variante, E-Version*;

2) Bildungen mit den Konstituenten *-konzept, -technologie, -technik -system*[5], die Fachlichkeit vortäuschen, z.B. *»Open Space«-Raumkonzept* (des e-Modells I.D. CROZZ), *Mobilitätskonzept, App-Connect-Technologie, Batterietechnik, Soundsystem, Infotainmentsystem*; darunter auch attribuierte Umschreibungen für *Elektromobilität*, z.B. *innovatives Mobilitätskonzept, Mobilitätslösung von morgen, alternative Antriebstechnologie*;

3) Wendungen, bei denen das Attribut keine feste fachliche Konstituente des Ausdrucks bildet, doch Fachlichkeit nahelegt, z.B. *optimierte Aerodynamik, ausgeklügelte Technik, innovative Serviceleistungen, intelligente Aufladetechnik, hochinnovatives Elektroauto, elektrisierter Motorsport* sowie *nachhaltige/emissionsfreie/saubere Mobilität* als synonymische Varianten zur *Elektromobilität*;

4) Fremdsprachige Ausdrücke, die eine deutsche Ausgangsvariante haben, zu der sie synonymisch gebraucht werden, z.B. *e-Mobility*;

5) Ad-hoc-Bildungen mit fachlichen Konstituenten, wie *e-mobility-Passion, e-mobility-Kunden, Elektroauto-Fahrer, Elektro-City Amsterdam, Zero Emission Allradantrieb* (gebildet nach dem Muster von *Zero-Emission-Vehicle (ZEV)*);

6) Fachjargonismen und saloppe Benennungen für Elektrofahrzeuge und ihre Nutzer, z.B. *Null-Emissions-Fahrzeug* für ZEV, *e-Kunden/ E-Kunden* für Kunden von Elektroautos, *Stromer* für Elektroautos, *E-Maschinen* für Rennfahrzeuge mit Elektroantrieb, *Elektroflitzer* für den e-up!;

7) Sprachspielerische Bildungen, die keine typischen Elemente der Fachsprache sind, z.B. *e-Golfer* (Ingenieur Roland Gaber), *Mr. e-mobility* (Ingenieur Adolf Kalberlah), die Modellbezeichnung *Golf I CitySTROMer*;

8) Mehrdeutige Verwendungsweisen von Fachwörtern im engeren Sinne zur Erzielung von speziellen stilistischen Effekten, wie *elektrisieren (elektrisch aufladen* bzw. *entflammen)*:

>   ***ELEKTRISIERENDER*** *SERVICE - Diese Zusatzleistungen bietet Volkswagen seinen e-mobility-Kunden. Komplett* **elektrisiert**.

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[5] Janich (1998: 80f) zählt sie zu den sog. Plastikwörtern, die aus Wissenschaft und Technik in die Alltagssprache eindringen und in Werbetexten rein werbend, nicht fachlich verwendet werden, z.B. *Umwelttechnologie, Kindersitzbefestigungssystem, Raumkonzept*.

> *Mit der Technologie von morgen **elektrisiert** Volkswagen nach über 30 Jahren den legendären Pikes Peak beim berühmtesten Berg-Rennen der Welt.*

Die Fachlexik zur Elektromobilität in den untersuchten *Magazin*-Texten besteht aus Wörtern mit fachlichem Charakter im engeren und weiteren Sinn, darunter aus branchenüblichen und herstellerspezifischen Bezeichnungen, synonymischen Benennungen auf Grund unterschiedlicher orthographischer Varianten bzw. fremdsprachiger Entsprechungen sowie aus einer Reihe von Bildungen, die dem quasi-terminologischen Vokabular zuzuweisen sind. In welcher Bedeutung und Funktion diese Wörter in den Texten auftreten und wie sie zum Markenimage beisteuern, soll die folgende semantische Kontextanalyse zeigen.

4. Semantische Kontextanalyse der Kategorie Elektromobilität

Anhand der Lektüre der Magazin-Texte kann zunächst festgestellt werden, dass die oben klassifizierten Fachwörter in unterschiedlicher Dichte und Verteilung in allen Beiträgen der digitalen Markenzeitschrift, die Elektromobilität zum Thema haben, anzutreffen sind. Die ersten zwei Gruppen von Beispielen beziehen sich auf fachliche Kontexte und informative Verwendungsweisen der Fachlexik. Dazu gehören:

1) Angaben zu Stromverbrauch, Effizienzklasse und Reichweite der Elektrofahrzeuge mit Verweis auf Normen und Nennung von Werten:
   1a) *e-Golf: Stromverbrauch in kWh/100 km: 12,7 (kombiniert), CO_2-Emission in g/km: 0 (kombiniert), Effizienzklasse: A+;*
   1b) *e-up!: Stromverbrauch in kWh/100 km: 11,7 (kombiniert), CO_2-Emission in g/km: 0 (kombiniert), Effizienzklasse: A+;*
   1c) **Die angegebene Reichweite ist die Reichweite nach Durchfahren der Zyklen nach dem Neuen Europäischen Fahrzyklus (NEFZ) auf dem Rollenprüfstand. Die tatsächliche Reichweite weicht in der Praxis davon ab. Sie beträgt bei praxisüblicher Fahrweise im Jahresmittel circa 200 km und ist abhängig von Fahrstil, Geschwindigkeit, Einsatz von Komfort-/Nebenverbrauchern, Außentemperatur, Anzahl Mitfahrer/Zuladung, Auswahl Fahrprofil (Normal, ECO, ECO+) und Topografie.*

2) Erklärungen zu Komponenten, Funktionsweise und Ladevorgang der Elektrofahrzeuge mit Angabe von Werten und Aufzählung technischer Eigenschaften:
   2a) *CCS steht für **Combined Charging System** – und dient zum Anschluss an die neuen **Schnellladesäulen**: ein Typ-2-Stecker, ergänzt um zwei zusätzliche Leistungskontakte. Auch die **e-Modelle** von Volkswagen haben*

Gleichstromladen) mit bis zu 170 kW. In der Praxis liegt der Wert eher bei **50 kW**. *hier diese* **Ladebuchse**. *AC- und DC-Laden (***Wechselstrom- und**

2b) *Während ein Benzin- oder Dieselmotor chemische Energie in mechanische umwandelt, um die Räder anzutreiben, schöpft der* **e-Motor** *die Kraft aus elektrischer Energie. Dazu werden* **Magnetfelder** *eingesetzt: Eine Reihe unbeweglicher* **Magnete (Statoren)** *ändert bei* **Stromzufuhr** *immer wieder blitzschnell die* **Polung** *– und bringt dadurch einen weiteren, beweglichen Magneten (Rotor) in Drehung. Seine Bewegung überträgt sich auf die Räder, das e-Auto fährt. Der* **e-Motor** *hat einen großen nutzbaren* **Drehzahlbereich***, daher braucht der* **Antrieb** *keine* **Gangschaltung***.*

2c) *Jedes* **e-Auto** *wird mit einem Kabel geliefert, das die Verbindung zur* **Ladestation** *ermöglicht. Da* **Elektromobilität** *nicht als normiertes System begann, existieren unterschiedliche* **Steckertypen** *(die jedoch durch* **Adapter** *aneinander angepasst werden können). Während das vollständige* **Laden** *einer leeren* **Batterie** *an konventionellen* **Stationen** *bis zu acht Stunden dauert (also am besten nachts geschieht), spart man an* **Schnellladesäulen** *viel Zeit: Hier ist die Batterie schon nach rund 45 Minuten zu 80 Prozent voll – der spezielle* **CCS-Stecker** *steht an der Säule zur Verfügung.*

2d) *Wie der I.D., so basiert auch der in Detroit vorgestellte I.D. BUZZ auf dem neu entwickelten* **Modularen Elektrifizierungsbaukasten (MEB)***. Der* **Zero Emission Allradantrieb** *des I.D. BUZZ setzt sich im Wesentlichen aus einem* **E- Motor** *(150 kW) an der* **Vorderachse***, einem E-Motor an der* **Hinterachse** *(150 kW) sowie einer im Wagenboden platzsparend angeordneten* **Hochvoltflachbatterie** *zusammen. Das* **Laden** *geschieht* **induktiv** *oder per* **Ladesäule***. Nach 30 Minuten sind 80 Prozent Kapazität bei einer* **Ladeleistung** *von* **150 kW** *erreicht.*

Die obigen Textteile vermitteln Fachinformationen zur Elektromobilität und charakterisieren sich durch Fachtextstil und einen dichten Gebrauch von Fachwörtern im engeren Sinn. Sie enthalten auch weitere Elemente von Fachlichkeit, wie Zahlen und Ziffern in Datenform sowie Verweise auf Normen und Klassen. Um die kommunikativen Bedürfnisse des fachexternen Adressaten zu beachten, sind die fachlichen Textteile oft kurz gefasst und zur besseren Lesbarkeit aus dem Fließtext herausgestellt (1a, 1b, 1c). Längere Fachtextteile haben eine übersichtliche Struktur, um den Laien den Sachverhalt möglichst zugänglich zu erklären. Die Belege 2b und 2c stammen bspw. aus dem Beitrag *Wie fährt man elektrisch? 10 Fragen und Antworten zum e-Auto*, in welchem dem Leser fachliche Erklärungen und Handlungsanweisungen in kürzeren Textsegmenten dosiert präsentiert werden. Komplexe Begriffe und Sachverhalte werden durch leicht verständliche Definitionen erklärt.

Die nachfolgenden Gruppen von Beispielen betreffen nichtfachliche Kontexte und persuasive Verwendungsweisen, bei denen es sich um alle Themen

rund um Elektroautos handelt. Zur besseren Übersicht werden sie in thematische Kategorien untergliedert:

3) Elektromobilität als Markenzeichen von Volkswagen:
   3a) *„Wir machen die **Elektromobilität zum neuen Markenzeichen** von Volkswagen", proklamierte Dr. Herbert Diess, Vorstandsvorsitzender der Marke Volkswagen.*

Der Automobilhersteller betont in den *Magazin*-Texten, dass bei den die individuelle Fortbewegung verändernden Phänomenen, wie Digitalisierung, Connectivity und Nachhaltigkeit, der Elektromobilität eine entscheidende Rolle zukommt. Der Leitsatz 3a wirkt als Versprechen des Herstellers, durch Elektromobilität die Innovativität seiner Produkte weiter zu steigern. In der Elektromobilität sieht Volkswagen nach dem Abgasskandal die Chance, das Auto „neu zu erfinden" und das Unternehmen aus der Image-Krise zu führen.

4) Elektromobilität als Autoritätsargument und Kernkompetenz des Unternehmens:
   4a) *1970 gründete Volkswagen **in Wolfsburg das Zentrum für Zukunftsforschung**. Eine der drängenden Aufgaben war, die **Elektromobilität** voranzutreiben. […] Bereits 1976 folgte **der erste Golf mit Elektroantrieb**, zunächst als Prototyp. 1981 entstand eine Kleinserie als **Golf I CitySTROMer** für Testzwecke. […] Schon **vor fast 50 Jahren** fuhren **Fahrzeuge mit Elektroantrieb made by Volkswagen** über deutsche Straßen.*
   4b) *Die **Gläserne Manufaktur in Dresden** ist **das neue Kompetenzzentrum für Elektromobilität** von Volkswagen. **Gemeinsam mit der sächsischen Landeshauptstadt** bringt der Standort schon heute die Mobilität der Zukunft auf die Straße.*
   4c) *„Wir wollen die **Elektromobilität** in Dresden aktiv mitgestalten", sagt Siegfried Fiebig, Sprecher der Geschäftsführung von Volkswagen Sachsen.[…] **In enger Kooperation mit den regionalen Forschungsinstituten** wollen Volkswagen und die Landeshauptstadt eine Modellstadt für **saubere, nachhaltige und vernetzte urbane Mobilität** etablieren. Die Gläserne Manufaktur übernimmt dabei die Rolle eines „**Center of Future Mobility**"[…]*

Die Beispielgruppen 3 und 4 bestätigen, dass Elektromobilität für den Automobilhersteller Priorität hat. Mit dem unternehmenseigenen Wolfsburger Zentrum für Zukunftsforschung und der Gläsernen Manufaktur in Dresden (*Elektromobilität made by Volkswagen,* 4a) betont der Automobilhersteller seine Pionierrolle (*eine Pioniergeschichte aus der Gründerzeit der Elektromobilität*, 4a), 50jährige Tradition und fundiertes Know-how auf dem Gebiet der

Elektromobilität, das durch Forschung und Entwicklung in enger Kooperation mit externen Institutionen permanent erweitert wird. Das Markenimage steht folglich in unmittelbarem Zusammenhang mit Wissenschaft, was die Glaubwürdigkeit der Marke steigert. Die Unternehmensprojekte im Bereich Elektromobilität genießen volle Unterstützung der Landeshauptstadt. Es wird in Aussicht gestellt, dass Dresden zu einer Modellstadt wird, in der eine *saubere, nachhaltige und vernetzte urbane Mobilität* im Sinne der *Smart City* etabliert wird. Um die relevanten Bezugsgruppen für diese Idee zu gewinnen, müssen gezielt Informationen über Elektromobilität verbreitet werden.

5) Informationsvermittlung zur Elektromobilität:
   5a) *[…] Erfahren Sie mehr über das Thema **Elektromobilität**: Wann ist ein Auto **elektrisch**, wie **lädt** man richtig und was gilt es bei Reparaturen zu beachten? […]Ein kleiner Einblick in ein großes Thema: […] die Zukunft ist da!*

Die Leser werden aufgefordert, sich anhand der *Magazin*-Beiträge mit dem Thema zu beschäftigen und herauszufinden, was Elektromobilität zu bieten hat.

6) Meinung von Experten über Elektromobilität:
   6a) *[…] für Roland Gaber kommt gar kein anderes Auto in Frage als der Elektro-Golf. […] Und weil der Experte für Elektromobilität heute beim Kasseler Fraunhofer Institut die Leistung des Elektroantriebs bei jeder Straßenlage testet, ist er immer auf dem neusten Entwicklungsstand.*
   6b) *Wenn Kunden sich für ein Elektroauto entscheiden, denkt man ja im ersten Moment: Es geht ihnen vor allem **ums Ökologische, um die Umwelt**. Natürlich ist Gerhard Heinz auch dieser Faktor wichtig – aber der Hauptgrund, warum er sich für **e-Mobilität** begeistert, ist ein anderer. „Meine **technologische Neugier** ist gewaltig", sagt er.*

Argumente von Experten werden in Marketingtexten gern angeführt, weil sie meinungsbildend sind und das Verhalten der anvisierten Bezugsgruppen beeinflussen.

7) Meinung der e-Kunden über Elektromobilität:
   7a) *ALEXANDRE MARIE, 40: „Der Wechsel war für mich aber hauptsächlich eine **Kostenfrage**." Für die jährlich 35.000 Kilometer zahlt er mit seinem kleinen schwarzen **Stromer nur ein Zehntel** dessen, was ihn vorher das Benzin kostete.*
   7b) *Insgesamt 120 Kilometer fährt Michael Kreppold jeden Tag in seinem **e-Golf** zur Arbeit und zurück. Dass er ihn dabei zwischendurch **kostenlos laden** kann, findet er besonders gut. So kommt es auch, dass er im*

> *e-Golf für sich und seine Familie rundum einen Gewinn sieht: hier ist* ***genügend Platz für alle*** *– mit dem gewohnten* ***Komfort*** *eines Golf.*

7c) *Man kann das* ***e-Auto*** *auch an einer* ***konventionellen Haushaltssteck-dose*** *aufladen.*

7d) *Mit* ***innovativer Technologie*** *soll das Automobil* ***sauber, sicher und deutlich komfortabler*** *werden.*

7e) *„Für den Stop-and-go-Verkehr ist der* ***Elektroantrieb*** *ideal: Man musste nicht schalten und er bremste elektrisch, wenn man vom Gas ging.* ***Entspannter kam man nicht durch den Stau.****"*

7f) *Zwei Dinge fallen bei der ersten Fahrt mit einem* ***e-Auto*** *auf: die* ***rasante Beschleunigung*** *– und die* ***Stille****. […] Zu hören ist dabei in der Regel nur* ***ein minimales Surren: Elektromotoren*** *sind* ***ausgesprochen leise****.*

7g) *Breite Motorhaube, konturierte Kotflügel und hochglanzschwarzes Dach – der I.D. CROZZ prägt* ***den neuen Designstil der Elektromobilität****. […] Neben dieser* ***zukunftsweisenden Designsprache*** *der Elektro-mobilität stand die* ***Aerodynamik*** *im Fokus der Entwicklung..*

7h) ***e-Mobilität*** *ist nicht nur smart und nachhaltig – sie* ***macht vor allem Spaß****. Menschen, die den* ***e-up!*** *fahren, wissen das am besten.*

Durch gründliche Informationen direkt von der Marke (2a, 2b, 2c) und die Na-helegung der Vorteile gestützt durch die Argumentation von Experten und Elektroautofahrern (6-7) soll die Neugier auf die Zukunftstechnologie geweckt, das Bewusstsein geschaffen, begeistert und überzeugt werden. Die weit ver-breiteten Vorurteile, Elektroautos wären teurer und weniger komfortabel als konventionell angetriebene Fahrzeuge, sollen dabei entkräftet werden. Dar-über hinaus brauchen die Nutzer von Volkswagen-Elektroautos keine Abstriche im Design und Fahrspaß zu machen. Rationale Fakten und emotionale Appelle sollen die potentiellen Kunden überzeugen. Es wird der Nutzen von Elektroau-tos in konkreten Anwendungssituationen dargestellt. Die Elektromodelle wer-den nicht nur als besonders effizient und umweltverträglich, sondern auch als vielseitig einsetzbar, bequem, ästhetisch sowie still und leicht aufladbar charak-terisiert. Mit der Präsentation der Kundenmeinungen in den *Magazin*-Texten will das Unternehmen Kundennähe als wichtigen Markenwert vermitteln und unterstreichen, dass im Mittelpunkt aller technologischen Entwicklungen stets der Mensch steht, für den der Autohersteller zukunftsorientierte und lebens-praktische Lösungen auf dem höchsten Niveau kreiert.

8) Elektromobilität und (Renn)Sport:

8a) *Die Kooperation Kalberlah und Zander brachte dem* ***Elektroantrieb*** *auch einige Pokale ein. Der Privatrennfahrer Hagen Arlt aus Düssel-dorf holte 1986 erstmals im* ***CitySTROMer II*** *eine Trophäe im Grand Prix Formel E.*

8b) *Mit **Elektromobilität** zurück an die Spitze.[...] Mit Rennwagen, aber auch mit Serienfahrzeugen treten die **E-Maschinen** nun seit einigen Jahren erfolgreich bei dem traditionsreichen Wettbewerb an. [Pikes-Peak-Bergrennen].*

8c) *Volkswagen stellt sich ab sofort europäisch auf, um die Fußballwelt gemeinsam mit der UEFA zu begeistern. Die langjährige **Fußball-Leidenschaft der Marke** wird weitere vier Jahre intensiv gelebt, um allen Fans europaweit **e-Mobilität nahe zu bringen** und einzigartige Erlebnisse zu ermöglichen.*

Auch im Rennsport beweist der Hersteller seine Kompetenz und Leistungsfähigkeit, die sich mit der Entwicklung der Elektromobilität erfolgreich auf die e-Modelle ausgedehnt hat (8a, 8b). So wird den *Magazin*-Lesern nahegelegt, dass wenn sich die Elektromobilität auf der Rennstecke bereits bewährt hat, sie mit Sicherheit auch im alltäglichen Verkehr bestehen wird. Im Kontext der Leidenschaft für Fußball (8c) will Volkswagen die Partnerschaft mit der UEFA nutzen, um den ganzen Kontinent für das erste Modell der innovativen I.D. Familie[6] zu begeistern. Die Europameisterschaft 2020 fällt mit dem Verkaufsstart des I.D. zusammen. Der Hersteller kündigt an: *Der Fußball soll uns dabei unterstützen, der Elektromobilität zum Durchbruch zu verhelfen*.

9) Anreize für Elektromobilität:

9a) *Ihr Einstieg in die **Elektromobilität**: Erhalten Sie bis zu **4.000 € Umweltbonus** beim Neukauf der Volkswagen **e-Modelle** vom **e-Golf** bis zum Passat GTE.*

9b) *Als Anreize für die **Elektromobilität** will die Stadt bis 2025 **zusätzliche 250 öffentliche Ladepunkte** aufstellen und mehr als 70 zentrale Verkehrsknotenpunkte für Umsteiger einrichten – sogenannte intermodale Mobilitätspunkte.*

9c) *Während das vollständige Laden einer leeren Batterie an konventionellen Stationen bis zu acht Stunden dauert (also am besten nachts geschieht), **spart man an Schnellladesäulen viel Zeit**: Hier ist die Batterie schon nach rund 45 Minuten zu 80 Prozent voll – **der spezielle CCS-Stecker steht an der Säule zur Verfügung**.*

9d) ***E-Kunden** genießen **besondere Vorteile**: Das Angebot von Volkswagen wird durch diverse e-Services und Dienstleistungen abgerundet – von der Charge & Fuel Card für **müheloses Bezahlen an der Ladesäule** bis zum **Mietwagenangebot für e-Kunden**. Besuchen Sie Volkswagen im Internet für den Überblick über das gesamte Angebot.*

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[6] Jakob (1991: 8) weist auf die Fülle der Körpermetaphorik in der Techniksprache hin. In den *Magazin*-Texten sind zahlreiche Beispiele dafür vorhanden. Zu der Personifizierung im Branding der Marke Volkswagen s. Filip (2014).

9e) *„Doch damals*[7] *fehlten die Anreize für die Nutzer:* **besondere Parkplätze** *zum Beispiel. Heute arbeitet man ja daran."*

Den Nutzern von Fahrzeugen mit konventionellem Antrieb wird durch besondere finanzielle und infrastrukturelle Anreize, wie Prämien, freie Parkplätze in der Innenstadt und einen immer leichteren Zugang zu Ladestationen, die Entscheidung für den Wechsel zu Elektroautos empfohlen.

10) Elektromobilität als zukunftsweisende Technologie:
   10a) *Wenn man ein* **Elektrofahrzeug** *kauft, ist das eine* **Investition in die Zukunft**.
   10b) *WARUM SIND E-AUTOS DIE ZUKUNFT? Weil sie auf Dauer die* **zeitgemäßeste, nachhaltigste Form von Mobilität** *bieten. […] Auch weil […] andere Vorteile des* **elektrischen Fahrens** *– Beschleunigung,* **Lautlosigkeit**, **Energieeffizienz** *– zu immer größeren Argumenten werden.*
   10c) **Die Zukunft wird elektrisch**, *vollvernetzt und nachhaltig – und alle können daran teilhaben.*
   10d) *Richtet man den Blick in die nahe Zukunft, so wird klar, dass in den boomenden Großstädten* **vollelektrische Fahrzeuge** *von unschätzbarem Wert sind: Gerade in Ballungsgebieten ermöglichen sie dank der* **geringeren Emissionen** *und mit* **reduziertem Lärmpegel** *den Stadtbewohnern* **ein neues Lebensgefühl** *und damit verbunden* **mehr Lebensqualität**.

Die Beispiele in 10 stellen Elektromobilität als Zukunftstechnologie dar, von deren Vorzügen besonders die Menschen im urbanen Raum profitieren können. Diese Zukunftstechnologie ist allerdings bereits heute im Alltag angekommen: *Elektromobilität ist keine fixe Idee für die Zukunft – sondern jetzt schon Realität, Komfort und Spaß*. Die Einführung des e-up! als erstes vollelektrisches Serienfahrzeug im Jahre 2013 war für den Konzern *ein Schritt aus Überzeugung*, der zum Umdenken führte und Elektromobilität nicht länger als *exotische Spielerei* ansehen ließ. In 10 wird für Elektromobilität als umweltverträgliche Technologie moralisch argumentiert. Dies veranschaulicht die Verpflichtung des Unternehmens gegenüber Gesellschaft, Umwelt und zur Nachhaltigkeit und lässt die Marke als verantwortungsbewusst und sozial engagiert erscheinen. Während die Kontexte 1-2 Fachinformationen über Elektromobilität vermitteln, argumentieren die Kontexte 3-10 rational, emotional und moralisch für Elektromobilität als eine lebensnahe und praktische Lösung. Die Leser sollen nicht nur durch den Standpunkt des Herstellers beeinflusst (3, 4, 8, 10), sondern auch durch die Meinungen von Experten (6) und Kunden von Elektroautos (7) überzeugt werden. Bei der Entscheidungstreffung sollen

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[7] In den 70er Jahren, wo die Elektromobilität ihre Ursprünge hat.

die besonderen Anreize (9) helfen, die finanzielle Vorteile und infrastrukturelle Begünstigungen in Aussicht stellen. Die Beispiele, die durch „fachexterne Fachlichkeit" gekennzeichnet sind, spiegeln die persuasive Funktion der *Magazin*-Texte wider. Sie wird sowohl mit dem Gebrauch von Fachwörtern im engeren als auch im weiteren Sinn realisiert und durch Einsatz typischer Werbemittel unterstützt. Die Fachwörter im engeren Sinn treten hier jedoch seltener und stets in Begleitung assoziativ fachlicher Ausdrücke auf, die durch synonymische Verwendung die Fachwörter im engeren Sinn zu erklären und die Texte stilistisch aufzulockern versuchen. Die sprachliche Variation unterstützt den unterhaltenden Charakter der *Magazin*-Texte. Die auf Elektromobilität referierenden Fachwörter beider Gruppen stellen die Elektrifizierung von Fahrzeugen als eine hochinnovative und zukunftsweisende Technologie dar, die einen wesentlichen Faktor des Markenimage bildet. Die Schlussfolgerungen aus der fachlexikalischen Analyse der Kategorie Elektromobilität werden im Folgenden festgehalten.

5. Fachsprachliche Analyse der Kategorie Elektromobilität und Fazit

Fachsprachliche Elemente treten in den *Magazin*-Texten vor allem in Form von Fachlexik auf. Weitere syntaktische und stilistische Merkmale von Fachsprache sind lediglich in den fachlichen Textteilen der Marketingtexte zu beobachten, die technische Beschreibungen, Definitionen und Angaben enthalten. In diesen Textteilen, die primär der Informationsvermittlung dienen, dominieren Fachwörter im engeren Sinn, d.h. authentisches Fachvokabular der Kfz-Sprache. Im Falle der Elektromobilität sind darunter vom Adjektiv *elektrisch* abgeleitete Fachwörter (z.B. *Elektroantrieb, e-Modell, vollelektrisch*) besonders zahlreich. Es sind branchenübliche, fachspezifische Benennungen, die die Zugehörigkeit des Unternehmens zum Fachgebiet der Automobiltechnik, und speziell zum Handlungsfeld der Elektromobilität, signalisieren. Dabei ist zu bemerken, dass die Elektromobilität den Fachwortbestand des Kfz-Bereichs nachhaltig verändert. *Benzinmotor* wird durch *Elektromotor, Tankstelle* durch *Ladesäule* und *Kraftstoffverbrauch* durch *Stromverbrach* abgelöst. Für Elektrofahrzeuge können aus dem Fachvokabular *Ölfilter, Zündkerzen, Kupplung* oder *Auspuffanlage* ersatzlos gestrichen werden. Somit zeichnet sich ein Sprachwandel ab, der mit der fortschreitenden Elektrifizierung der Mobilität weiter zunehmen wird. Neben der branchentypischen Fachlexik kommen in den *Magazin*-Texten auch hersteller- und markentypische Bezeichnungen vor, die die Eigenheit des Unternehmens hervorheben sollen. Zu diesen firmeninternen Neubildungen gehören Bezeichnungen für e-Modelle, wie *Golf I CitySTROMer, e-Golf* oder *e-up!*. Durch die adjektivische Abkürzung sind in den Namen bereits wichtige technische Informationen über die Modelle enthalten, die für das Markenimage relevant sind.

Fachwörter im engeren Sinn werden in den *Magazin*-Texten adäquat eingesetzt, um sachlich und präzise zu informieren. Durch ihren Gebrauch wird die fachliche Kompetenz des Unternehmens betont und der Marke Seriosität verliehen, da die Marke durch wissenschaftliche Fundierung an Prestige gewinnt. In Bezug auf den Bekanntheitsgrad der Kfz-Fachlexik wird angenommen, dass sie auf Grund der großen Alltagsrelevanz der Automobiltechnik allgemein bekannt ist. Da zum Adressatenkreis der *Magazin*-Texte auch informierte Laien gehören, die zum Teil auch mit fachinternen Begrifflichkeiten vertraut sind, mag das stimmen. Sind bestimmte Fachwörter den uninformierten Laien nicht bekannt, so verstärken sie bei ihnen nur den Eindruck von Fachlichkeit und regen an, sich zu informieren. Auf diese Weise können Fachwörter im engeren Sinn auch die Funktion der Aufmerksamkeitserregung erfüllen. Mit Fachwörtern wird weiter betont, dass das Unternehmen Produkte auf dem letzten technischen Stand herstellt. Die Marke wirkt dadurch fortschrittlich, kreativ und innovativ, was im Falle der Automobiltechnik Zuverlässigkeit und Sicherheit vermittelt. Darüber hinaus verstärken die fachlichen Elemente die Botschaft der *Magazin*-Texte. Neben ihrer informativen Funktion fungieren sie auch als Persuasionsmittel, da sie rationale Argumente für Entscheidungen liefern.

Die Kfz-Fachsprache ist auch in Textteilen mit ausgeprägtem Marketingcharakter anzutreffen, die im *Magazin* umfangsmäßig überwiegen. Allerdings ist ihre Dichte dort geringer und sie werden häufig mit quasi-fachsprachlichen Ausdrücken abgewechselt, die Fachlichkeit lediglich inszenieren (vgl. Janich, 1998, 2001). Diese Fachwörter im weiteren Sinn dienen primär der Realisierung der persuasiven Textfunktion und tragen auch zur Markenpflege bei. Zu ihnen gehören u.a. englischsprachige Bezeichnungen, mit denen einerseits Aufmerksamkeit gewonnen wird (*Smart City. Smart Mobility; I.D. BUZZ – „Microbus-Feeling"*) und andererseits neue Entwicklungen bezeichnet werden (*Open-Space-Raumkonzept*). Fremdwörter sind allerdings auch unter den Fachwörtern im engeren Sinn anzutreffen (*Zero-Emission-Vehicle (ZEV), Combined Charging System (CCS), Digital Key*). Durch den Gebrauch englischsprachiger Entlehnungen wird die Marke mit technischem Fortschritt und Internationalität assoziiert. Demzufolge trägt sowohl die Fachsprache als auch die Pseudofachsprache in den Texten des *Volkswagen Magazins* zur Verbesserung des Markenimage bei. An der Kategorie der Elektromobilität sind markenpflegerische Maßnahmen besonders sichtbar, da sie als strategisches Handlungsfeld des Unternehmens und neue Markenidentität helfen soll, die Folgen der Image-Krise zu überwinden.

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INVESTIGATING THE USE OF WEB 2.0 TOOLS FOR TOEFL IBT SPEAKING PRACTICE TEST

Abstract

The use of independent and integrated speaking tasks represents a distinctive element of the TOEFL iBT speaking exam. Integrated tasks that involve synthesizing and summarizing information presented in reading and listening materials have the potential to generate new test preparation strategies. Language teachers, whether in schools or colleges, have started using Web 2.0. tools in order to prepare students for language exams. It is asserted that Web 2.0. tools support active and meaningful learning and help students to express themselves on a particular subject. This paper describes the use of Web 2.0. tools to simulate TOEFL iBT-style speaking exercises and improve the students' test taking ability in speaking during a course for kindergarten teachers in Andychów. Web-based activities were also implemented to help students overcome their fear of speaking. Also discussed are the main problems encountered, both pedagogical and technical, and what was done to solve them. Student feedback from an end-of-the-semester survey and from qualitative interviews is shared. The survey study shows that the use of Web 2.0. tools was a key feature of exam preparation on this intensive course. It is agreed that speaking skills of students can be improved through careful implementation of Web 2.0. tools.

Keywords: Web 2.0, TOEFL iBT exam, speaking practice, integrated speaking tasks

Słowa kluczowe: narzędzia Web 2.0, TOEFL iBT, zintegrowane sprawności językowe, doskonalenie mówienia

1. Introduction

In the last 20 years, the world has experienced technological changes in different fields, such as business, health, economics, and education. This is due to the emergence of communication and information technologies (ICTs) (Edwards & Bone, 2012). Kennewell et al. (2008) outlined three main purposes of ICT use:

1) ICT as an object of study;
2) ICT as a tool to obtain an answer;
3) ICT as a communication tool.

With the emergence of Web 2.0 technologies, there has been a shift from 'teacher-centred' to 'student-centred' learning (Greenhow, 2011). As Selwyn (2009) stated, the focus was on students as active producers rather than passive consumers. Web 2.0 technologies help learners create, navigate, and collaborate with other users (Kuh, 2009). Song and Lee (2014) highlighted that Web 2.0 technologies provide learners with the possibility of interacting with people 'anytime' and 'anywhere.' Unlike Web 1.0, Web 2.0 allows individuals 'to contribute as much as they consume' (Anderson, 2007: 4). This interactive and social aspect can be effectively used to help language learners succeed in their learning process.

Web 2.0 tools are argued to be beneficial for students, as they make students responsible for their learning and encourage learners to start a debate or dialogue on societal, political or economic issues. McLoughlin & Lee (2007) mention other benefits of Web 2.0 platforms, such as faster and easier access to knowledge across time and space, immediate feedback and freedom in creating content.

This article describes the use of two Web 2.0 tools, Audacity and Wiziq, to simulate TOEFL iBT-style speaking exercises and improve students' test-taking ability in speaking. This article also outlines some main problems, both pedagogical and technical, and what was done to solve them. Student feedback from an end-of-the-semester survey and qualitative interviews will be discussed.

2. WEB 2.0 tools in education

It cannot be denied that the Internet has been valued by educators as a powerful research and communication tool. It has simplified the way students search, manage and use information. A few years ago, finding information was a lengthy and complicated process. Today, individuals produce a large amount of information rapidly, which becomes easily accessible through a variety of devices (Wesch, 2008). The participatory nature of Web 2.0 gives netizens the possibility to collaborate with new knowledge and to create connections between individuals.

McLoughlin and Lee (2008: 665) define Web 2.0 as 'a second generation, or more personalized, communicative form of the World Wide Web that

emphasizes active participation, connectivity, collaboration (...).' Similarly, Zhao and Kemp (2012: 232) claim that Web 2.0 technologies are 'the second generation of Web technologies which allow users to connect and interact with one another.' In order to capture the essence of Web 2.0 tools, it is necessary to refer to Merchant's (2009) four characteristic features of Web 2.0:

1) *presence*: Web 2.0 tools encourage individuals to actively participate in the creation of an online identity, profile or avatar. Active presence is visible by updating or interacting with other users.

2) *modification*: Web 2.0 tools allow users a degree of personalization through the design of the netizen's personal links or the creation of an avatar.

3) *user-generated content*: Web 2.0 tools provide a user-centred environment, where individuals become the content producers. For instance, YouTube provides a template for its users, but it is netizens who supply the videos, comments and other content.

4) *social participation*: Web 2.0 technologies invite users to participate in developing content, giving feedback, commenting and rating.

On the basis of the four characteristic features above it can be noticed that Web 2.0 tools encourage individuals to construct, develop and take part in global networks where time and place are less relevant. Web 2.0 tools give students the opportunity to become collaborators in the creation of knowledge rather than its passive recipients. By implementing Web 2.0 in English classes educators can make the learning process more enjoyable and useful.

It ought to be stressed that the use of Web 2.0 tools is significant as a way of motivating educators and learners, as an arena for developing knowledge and skills (Bryant, 2007), as well as a medium that promotes new forms of collaborative learning. Web 2.0 tools have caught the attention of universities and colleges around the world which employ them as supplements to conventional forms of the teaching and learning process.

3. TOEFL iBT – overwiev

The TOEFL exam has been described as a test aimed at 'measuring non-native speakers' ability to use English to communicate effectively in college and university settings' (Riley & Wyatt, 2009). Every year people all over the world take the TOEFL exam to gain professional accreditation, apply for visas or win scholarships. The TOEFL exam is used by colleges and universities, as well as government organizations and agencies.

It has been debated whether the TOEFL is an accurate measure of a learner's true command of the English language and what influence it has on the way

in which students are taught (Bailey, 1999). Despite this, students take the TOEFL exam in order to achieve their dream and get into university. It needs to be stressed that the types of skills required in the test, such as reformulating arguments heard in lectures in both written and spoken discourse, might prove useful in their future careers.

The TOEFL iBT appeared in 2005 as an alternative to the TOEFL paper-based and computer-based versions. The tasks in the TOEFL iBT were reformulated to match the skills required of students in an English-speaking setting, e.g. integrated speaking and writing in a task. The TOEFL iBT offers flexibility for candidates, who may take it on a regular basis and make multiple attempts over a short span of time.

4. Statement of the problem

According to the Ordinance issued by the Ministry of Education in Poland, nursery teachers may teach English to pre-school children. One of the requirements they need to meet is to pass an exam at B2 level. A group of 10 nursery teachers in one of the Lesser Poland's kindergartens was expected to pass an English exam in order to become qualified to teach English. Of all the exams available the TOEFL iBT exam was chosen.

The speaking section turned out to be a formidable obstacle for the participants, as it was done by computer. Nursery teachers feared that they would not be able to express their opinions clearly and smoothly in English due to the time pressure. In order to help participants overcome their fear of speaking and raise their motivation, a set of easy-to-use Web 2.0 tools was applied.

4.1. Research questions

The main objective of the study was to learn if Web 2.0 tools might be effectively employed to develop nursery teachers' English oral proficiency in such a way that they would be able to successfully pass the English speaking exam at B2 level. The study was guided by the following research questions:
1) Does the use of Web 2.0 tools improve participants' speaking abilites?
2) How do participants perceive the effectiveness of Web 2.0 tools in improving their English speaking skills?
3) Do participants find using selected Web 2.0 tools for speaking production useful and helpful?

It is believed that Web 2.0 tools, if properly implemented, may improve students' speaking skills. Web 2.0 encourages users to interact and collaborate with each other. The use of Web 2.0 may improve students' communication

skills and self-expression. It is proposed that systematic and careful use of Web 2.0 tools will improve students' oral proficiency. It is claimed that students will find Web 2.0 tools useful and effective as a supplement to the English language learning.

5. Methodology and methods

5.1. Participants

As mentioned above, the participants of the study were nursery teachers who were expected to pass an English exam at B2 level in order to be qualified to teach English to kindergarten children. All of them were female teachers with differing lengths of teaching experience, ranging from 5 to 20 years. As far as age is concerned, 2 nursery teachers were below 35, 3 of them below 40, and 5 of them below 30. Some of the nursery teachers fell under the category of digital immigrants, i.e. people born before the widespread use of technology (Prensky, 2001) and they were fearful of new technologies.

The students undertook four semesters of coursework aimed at developing the language skills needed to attain the required TOEFL iBT score to become teachers of English in the kindergarten. Participants met in class twice a week to practise speaking skills with the use of selected Web 2.0 tools. They were also assigned some homework which required the use of Audacity and Wiziq, which will be described in detail later in the article. At the end of the course, the students took the sample TOEFL iBT speaking exam.

5.2. Methods of collecting data

A pen and paper survey was designed to capture information relating to the way Web 2.0 technologies were perceived and used, and to analyse the effect of the interactivity of Web 2.0 tools on the student's learning. The survey contained 3 open-ended questions, which would serve as guidelines and tips for the use of Web 2.0 tools in speaking practice. The survey questions were written in English, but participants were encouraged to provide their responses in Polish in order to be able to express themselves clearly.

At the end of the course, the participants took part in a guided group interview, which was designed to ask them to reflect on their speaking performance. The interview was recorded, then transcribed, and the data were subjected to further analysis and interpretation.

5.3. WEB 2.0 tools used in the study

One of the main aims of the study was to provide participants with speaking practice outside the classroom. According to Walker and White (2013: 42), 'technology provides exciting opportunities for students to interact with spoken language in ways which allow them to (…) repeat oral language in non-threatening contexts.' Providing students with a safe environment for rehearsing and practising could gradually reduce their fear of speaking, build their confidence in speaking and improve the main skills which are required of them in English language speaking tests, namely:

1) being accurate in their use of English, which involves grammatical and lexical correctness;
2) being fluent and able to keep talk flowing smoothly without any hesitations.

It was believed that the use of Web 2.0 tools would help the participants develop their communicative competence in order to produce accurate language. Four main aspects of speaking skills were planned to be practised by means of selected Web 2.0 tools:

1) pronunciation: using different intonation patterns to communicate information;
2) performing speech acts: knowing how to express opinions;
3) managing interaction: maintaining and ending conversations, clarifying meaning;
4) organizing discourse: being able to construct discourse for different communicative purposes, e.g. giving instructions.

It cannot be denied that accuracy and fluency are difficult elements for second language learners to master. Students are often placed in a position where they are expected to produce spoken language under time pressure, which is very stressful, especially as they do not possess native-speaker compensation strategies for gaining time to think and plan, such as hesitation devices. In order to provide students with useful strategies to plan and rehearse before their final TOEFL iBT speaking exam, some user-friendly Web 2.0 tools have been implemented.

One of the Web 2.0 tools used in the study was Audacity, an audio recorder and editor which allows participants to create recordings offline. This free Web 2.0 tool gives students the opportunity to share content with other participants via e-mail or social media. Audacity proved useful in the study as students could create a dossier of their audio content which was further commented on. The participants used this Web 2.0 tool to record live audio, change the speed or pitch of the recording and create mp3 files for use on the platform.

Wiziq was another Web 2.0 platform used in the study through which participants and the educator connected to share information, exchange ideas and give students immediate feedback. Wiziq provided a virtual classroom facility which allowed teachers and students to participate in real time during online delivery of classes. Students shared and embedded audio recordings into the Wiziq virtual classroom. This platform allowed participants to learn at their own pace to increase their confidence in speaking.

5.4. Implementation of the TOEFL iBT course

During the first day of class participants were asked to register themselves on Wiziq and familiarize themselves with the interface. Next, students received a list of what they were expected to do in the course, along with some examples of TOEFL iBT responses, audio recordings and transcripts. During the course students focused on the following iBT-type exercises:

1) Independent Speaking: students are shown a task on the screen, which is read out by a native speaker. Then, they have 15 seconds to plan their answer and 45 seconds to record their response;

2) Integrated Speaking: students are shown a short reading passage on the screen which is followed by a 1-2 minute spoken response from a native speaker. Students are allowed to take notes while listening to the passage. Then, students are given 30 seconds to plan their response and 60 seconds to deliver it into the microphone.

Students began the course with practising independent speaking tasks as this was the simplest form to assess. After explaining the task to participants and having them practise face-to-face several times, the teacher asked students to record themselves and upload the recording on Wiziq. It was noticed that simulating TOEFL iBT conditions was going to be demanding for technical reasons. The teacher consequently introduced some changes to the course.

First, time setting on the Wiziq speaking assessed tasks was abandoned as it took varying amounts of time for each student to start recording after clicking the icon. These variations in voice recorder load times meant that some participants ran out of time before they managed to complete their recordings. The time limit was abolished and the teacher manually controlled student performances. In this way, students had ample time to load the recorder and check their microphone recording levels.

Second, speaking questions were prepared in a Word document and uploaded on the Wiziq platform. It was more convenient to provide participants with the test questions in a Word document instead of asking them to start a pre-recorded question in the browser. The same quiz procedure as that

used in Wiziq for the independent speaking test, was used for integrated speaking practice. Having read a text in a Word file, participants listened to a native speaker's opinion on a given topic. Then, after 30 seconds, students recorded their 60-second responses using Audacity.

6. Results of the survey

On the final day of the course, a survey was carried out in an attempt to gather feedback on the experience of the students. Participants were asked to provide answers to the following questions:

1) Do you find the selected Web 2.0 tools useful for developing speaking skills?
2) How effective were the chosen Web 2.0 tools in improving your speaking skills?
3) What problems did you face when using Web 2.0 tools?

Respondents' views and their answers to the survey questions are discussed in more detail below.

In response to the first question the majority of participants (80%) agreed that the selected Web 2.0 tools helped them develop their speaking skills. Five participants noted that the use of Audacity and Wiziq boosted their confidence to achieve high scores in the exam. Three participants highlighted that the Web 2.0 tools helped them experience the TOEFL iBT speaking exam environment before they took the real exam. Two respondents stated that speaking in a safe asynchronous environment led to greater production and increased motivation.

The majority of participants (80%) noted that they had no prior experience of use of Audacity or Wiziq before the course. Thanks to the course, they gained extensive knowledge and experience of these Web 2.0 tools. They learned how to distribute information, create and record their opinions and share them with other participants. Without exception, the participants agreed that the selected Web 2.0 tools provided a modern mode of communication.

When it comes to the second question, the majority of respondents (90%) agreed that use of the Web 2.0 tools improved their speaking skills. The participants reported that their level of speaking competence rose. They increased their confidence in speaking and became aware of new ways of learning offered by Web 2.0 technologies. The respondents noted that Web 2.0 tools provided a language learning environment and experience where participants could discuss topics relevant to the TOEFL iBT format at the click of a mouse. Apart from improving their speaking skills, three respondents noticed that they became more proficient in the application of technology. One respondent stated that the selected Web 2.0 tools did not help them improve their speaking skills. This lack of enthusiasm may stem from the fact that the

participant did not attend classes regularly and might have fallen behind with speaking assignments.

Participants faced some problems when using Web 2.0 tools during the course. 70% of the respondents agreed that at the beginning it was difficult for them to learn and manage new technologies. The participants feared they would not be able to master new technologies and complete the speaking tasks successfully. 60% of the participants faced some technical problems. They were not able to log in to Wiziq as their computer system did not work well with the course management system. Another minor disadvantage of the course was time investment. Biweekly meetings at school were not enough to improve students' speaking skills. The participants devoted their leisure time to studying the material covered in the classroom and to completing their assignments. In order to perform well in the TOEFL iBT exam, the students had to devote their free time to studying English at home.

7. Conclusion

The course implemented showed that Web 2.0 tools can be used effectively in speaking exam preparation. Web 2.0 tools offer an intriguing and unparalleled wealth of functionality at high level. The exploitation of this functionality offers considerable potential for the future technology-enhanced learning.

The results of the study reveal that the participants were positive towards the use of Web 2.0 tools in exam preparation. Web 2.0 tools enhanced the nursery teachers' learning experience and helped them to improve their speaking abilities. The use of Web 2.0 tools encouraged engagement and promoted active learning by helping participants work with the course material both inside and outside the classroom. The findings of the study confirmed the hypothesis that use of Web 2.0 tools improve students' communication and speaking skills as well as boost their self-confidence.

To sum up, the exploitation of Web 2.0 tools opens the classroom to the real world experiences. Voice tools, in particular, are essential prerequisites for any foreign language learning, as they allow students to enhance their speaking skills. Through voice tools students use the language communicatively and are exposed to it in diverse settings. It is believed that careful selection of voice tools and appropriately designed activities which students do outside the classroom may help them improve their speaking competence.

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SEVERAL PURPOSES WITH ONE COURSE – THE CHALLENGE OF TEACHING TERMINOLOGY AS PART OF A PRACTICAL TRANSLATOR TRAINING PROGRAMME

Abstract

Within the field of Translation Studies, terminology plays an important role, as does the study of Terminology. This paper investigates the possibilities available within the constraints of a single course aiming to achieve multiple aims. A brief overview of how terminology is studied is followed by a presentation of the context, looking at the position of the course in relation to other courses in the same programme, and at the broader context of Translation Studies in Europe. The case study is of a Terminology course, as part of a post-graduate, two-semester, part-time programme in Translation, at Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences in Hungary. The question of why terminology has a course to itself is likewise placed in the context of Terminology Studies and theoretical issues related to what terminology is. Finally, the course is also placed within the context of training students to become professionals in translation and related fields.

Keywords: terminology, translation training, higher education, technical vocabulary, transferable skills, curriculum

Słowa kluczowe: terminologia, kształcenie tłumaczy, szkolnictwo wyższe, terminologia fachowa, uniwersalne umiejętności, program nauczania

1. Introduction

Within the field of Translation Studies, terminology plays in important role, as does the study of Terminology. This paper investigates how various aims can be fruitfully targeted with a single course. In what follows, two strands are examined: the academic strand focusing on the study of Terminology and the pedagogic strand focusing on what can be taught and learnt in one language-oriented course in terminology. The case study is of a Terminology course, which forms an integral part of a post-graduate, two-semester, part-time programme in Translation, offered in Budapest, Hungary, by Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences.

On the one hand, the position of the course in relation to other courses in the same programme, and in the broader context of Translation Studies in Europe is, presented, as is the approach to the teaching of the course content. On the other hand, the pertinent question of why terminology has a course to itself is discussed against the backdrop of a brief introduction to Terminology Studies and theoretical issues related to what terminology is. Finally, the course is also placed within the context of training students to become professionals in translation and related fields. Beyond introducing the students to the field of terminology and developing their knowledge of the terminology related to their specialisation, the course offers them the opportunity of dealing with challenging texts and acquaints them with ways of approaching these challenges.

2. Theoretical background to the study of terminology

From the perspective of the practising translator, a large majority of documents (including business and commercial texts) today are produced as specialist communication and are thus written in the language used by specialists. The degree to which specialist language is composed of terminology (including non-linguistic items) is dependent on the domain and on the type of text, but it is typically significant. It follows that the quality of specialist communication is dependent on the quality of the terminology used. Appropriate and accurate use of terminology contributes to effective communication, increasing clarity and reducing ambiguity or vagueness. (POINTER Final Report, 1997) Clearly, any writer using technical terms or specialised languages has to be proficient in the use of the relevant terminology. This is doubly true for translators, as any weaknesses of usage in the source text or the translation are compounded by the need in translation to use terminology across languages.

2.1. Brief overview of terminology as a field of study

As a field of study, terminology is relevant to both linguistics and the domain of the individual subject area. It can be approached as the systematised concepts of a specific subject area or as the designations themselves. As an academic discipline, Terminology supports effective knowledge representation and transfer. The field owes a great debt to the seminal work of Wüster (see Wüster, 1979), who promoted the view that a concept is universal and independent of cultural differences, and was a strong advocate of standardisation which he saw as a way of eliminating ambiguity from technical languages. As an engineer schooled in languages but not a student of formal linguistics, Wüster himself represented a professional approach rather than a linguistic orientation (Antia, Budin, Picht, Rogers, Schmitz & Wright, 2005). After many years as the dominant General Theory of Terminology, or Vienna School (based on Wüster's approach), critiques of Wüster's ideas and contradictions between principles and real data have led to innovative theoretical initiatives (see Budin, 2001, Cabré Castellvi, 2003). Amongst others, Cabré (1999 and 2003) advocates for a Communicative Theory of Terminology, Temmerman (1997, 2007) favours a sociocognitive approach, whilst Faber Benitez (2009) proposes Frame-based Terminology.

   The pervasiveness of indeterminacy, which has been underscored in the past half century, has been researched focusing on all three aspects of the traditional semiotic triangle, namely, concept, object and symbol as related to the mind, the world and the language. Indeterminacy highlights the danger of trying to achieve a one-to-one view of translational lexical relations and helps to clarify some aspects of terminology management systems which need to follow the principle of term autonomy (as a consequence of synonymy) and the principle of concept orientation (as a consequence of homonymy), in both monolingual and multilingual data models (Budin et al., 2006). There is, at present, a lively debate going on about whether there is a theory of terminology, whether Terminology is a discipline, and what an improved or new theory of terminology is or could be. The ideal classical concept, with necessary and sufficient conditions and clear-cut boundaries, denoted by one term only (and therefore only one term for a concept) has become contentious; prototypically structured categories present features such as polysemy, synonymy, and figurative language, and methods and structures have to be found to incorporate these in meaning description (Temmermans, 2001, Zawada & Swanepoel, 1994). Over time it has become clear that the phenomena of variation and evolution need to be dealt with. Variation can occur vertically, due to the existence of various, differing registers, or horizontally within one register, due to various, differing expressive purposes

or preferences (Peruzzo, 2013). Peruzzo adds that the evolution of a knowledge domain can also lead to diachronic changes in terminology.

Temmerman (2007) explores the possibility of alternative approaches to traditional Terminology. Rather than starting from the concept, language can be seen as a means for conceiving categories and communicating about them. Furthermore, categories are fuzzy, that is they cannot be "absolutely classified by logical and ontological means" (Temmerman, 2007: 29). Variability occurs and polysemy, synonymy and figurative language can be functional, contributing to coherence and text cohesion (Temmerman 2007, after Collet 2005). Furthermore, categories are not fixed, they evolve over time with ensuing changes in meaning.

2.2. Discipline specific examples

All of this has extensive consequences in the day-to-day use of terminology. To take an example from close to home, let us consider a qualitative analysis of a random selection of problematic terms in translation research collected by Pym (Pasin, Delgao & Fischer, 2015, after Pym, 2011) The authors investigated 15 terms, analysing their ambiguity. Other than the case where the "Term fits perfectly", all the other criteria indicated polysemy, synonymy, evolution, variation depending on collocation or being a misnomer, or having fallen into disuse (Pasin et al., 2015: 34). At the heart of translation studies, terminology is concerned with "compiling, describing, processing and presenting" the terms of specialised subject areas (Pasin et al., 2015: 33) and yet the field itself indicates the limitations of the Wüsterian ideal of unambiguous, standardised terms.

Questioning the applicability of univocity underlies the discussion in Chiocchetii and Ralli (2009) of the difficulties of drafting terminological definitions for legal terms, what legal definitions are and how legal terms should be defined. The authors point out that there is no common understanding of what definitions should be and that definitions vary. However, there seems to be more agreement as to their purpose, which is seen as placing a term within a system and specifying what delimits it from other terms in a communication situation. In the field of the law, definitions are important for the reduction of vagueness and ambiguity. Nevertheless, legal terms need to fit within a legal system and are subject to interpretation. These qualities are in fact functional, in that they allow the further development of the law. They are context-dependent, and the context can determine how a term is to be interpreted. Chiocchetii and Ralli (2009) investigate the structure and form of definitions of legal terms by analysing examples from a multilingual terminological data bank and they conclude that a generally valid model for terminological definitions is unlikely to be developed since the situation and the purpose determine the way terms are described. Furthermore, it is significant to

note that their analyses look at the German versions of the definitions. A similar analysis of these terms across several languages would show the multiplier effect of differences in language, in context, in legal systems and of the placement of the legal terms within a system. All this serves to support the need for alternatives to the Wüsterian approach.

Terminology work need not necessarily be carried out with translators in mind. If it is, then the specific requirements of translators must be an integral part of the process and contribute to a functional and reliable outcome. With this thought we can move on to approach the topic of this paper from a different angle by shifting to the context of the translator training course in the focus of our case study. First of all, the institution itself will be introduced. This will be followed by a presentation of the translator training programme for "Translator in Economics and Social Sciences" (referred to in what follows as "TTP–Ec&SocSc")

3. The institution and the programme

Kodolányi János University of Applied Sciences (KJUAS) is a foundation university in Hungary with state accreditation and campuses in Budapest, Szekesferhévár and Orosháza. It offers a range of academic programmes in the fields of tourism and hospitality, business management, mass media and communication, social sciences and history, as well as the language and cultural studies relevant to this paper. The translator training programme for "Translator in Economics and Social Sciences" (TTP–Ec&SocSc) has been offered since 2005, originally in both Szekesferhévár and Budapest, but currently only in Budapest. The programme duration is two semesters and it is offered part-time (60 credits, 90 contact periods/semester). As this is a post-graduate programme, the latter point is important for many of the students, who are likely to be employed, or at home on maternity benefits. Over time, the particulars of what courses are offered, the number of contact hours and the pedagogical details have been modified in line with market expectations – both on the side of potential employers and on the side of potential students – and in line with trends and developments Europe-wide in the area of translator training. On the other hand, the pedagogical approach has remained constant: KJUAS is committed to being a centre of excellence, with highly qualified staff dedicated to helping the students become competent professionals.

3.1. Need for and value of the TTP–Ec&SocSc

With regard to the positioning of the translator programme: the translation industry is interesting in that a qualification from an institution of higher education

is not in all cases a prerequisite for practising as a translator. It is, however, an advantage, especially for newcomers to the field. In the OPTIMALE employer survey (covering representatives of the very diverse European translation industry), a relevant university degree in translation or related areas was amongst the most important competences classified as being essential or important, with the support of 77%. There was general consensus that the quality of the translator is decisive for the quality of translations, however, "Whether this should be achieved by academic translator training programmes, by experience and in-house training within translation service providers, by continuing professional development or by a combination of all three, was a moot point discussed in a number of workshops" (OPTIMALE Progress Report: Public Part, 2012: 17). Beyond the informed debate on this topic, local solutions to the issue of requirements are varied. In Hungary, self-employed specialised translators can take an accreditation exam (offered nationwide by ELTE-FTT) without taking part in a course, whilst a diploma from an accredited course serves a similar purpose.

The general title of "translator" is – in line with common practice throughout Europe – still unprotected (Pym, 2009). This, coupled with the fact that certification is not essential, puts the onus on institutions and accreditation examination providers to promote the professional standing of the translators they endorse. Indeed, the status of translators continues to be in a state of flux, with modifications of regulations nationally (for example, as regards taxation or provision of authorised translations), the proliferation of associations (for translators, agencies, language service providers, academics), and translator-client on-line portals. For Terminology courses, this sets the task of sampling the existing vocabulary knowledge of the students and insisting on their giving evidence of minimum standards; as offering them opportunity under guided circumstances to improve their knowledge, and as providing direction for continuous, life-long maintenance and further learning.

3.2. Situation as regards KJUAS

The courses offered at KJUAS for the TTP are in line with the general approach common in Europe since the first schools of translation/interpreting were founded in Heidelberg (1930), Geneva (1941) and Vienna (1943), stressing the traditions of master-apprentice instruction and institutionalised training (Pym, 2009). Degree programmes in foreign languages often include translation courses, partly as a continuation of the traditional pedagogical approach using translation as a way of checking language acquisition and grammatical/lexical knowledge, and partly as a way of meeting societal needs for translators. The

trend, however, has been to offer independent training programmes for translators, with two versions dominating: a long-term model with extensive language (often more than one foreign language), culture and communication training as its core and a specialisation phase in the final years; and more intensive, Master's level programmes that are often more skills-based, or offer specialisations (Pym, 2009). The KJUAS programme is in this stream, but – as a consequence of the particular way in which the Bologna process was implemented in Hungary – it is a not a fully-fledged Masters, but a post-graduate diploma requiring a Bachelor's degree (or higher, of course) for admission. As is the case in most of the states of the ex-Soviet bloc, translation in both directions is required. KJUAS offers the course with one foreign language, with students having the choice of English or German. Their existing degree can be in any discipline. As the focus of the programme is on Business Studies and Social Sciences, applicants tend to self-select: engineers and natural scientists tend not to apply, although students have come to us with backgrounds in information technology, or food sciences. The usual group includes a large proportion of language or business-related graduates, with varying degrees of work experience. Although no prior experience of translating is required, the course does attract many practising translators who would like to broaden their perspectives or need a formal qualification for some reason. Interestingly enough, the requirements do not actually specify a level of language proficiency. On the output side, the final diploma is legally considered to be the equivalent of a complex specialised CEFR C1 language proficiency certificate. Prior work experience is not recognised and a placement period or internship is not included. In all aspects, these characteristics fall within the normal range of what is offered in Europe (based on information collected, collated and analysed by OPTIMALE, see Gambier, 2013, Valeró-Garcés, 2013).

It is clear from the above that admission to the programme is based on the individual's self-assessment in several ways. This entails an obligation for level checks within the programme and a strictly applied, criterion-based evaluation of ability at the end. At KJUAS, the final examination consists of two parts: a written 4-hour translation examination with an English (or German) to Hungarian and a Hungarian to English (or German) component; and a degree paper. (The situation in Europe according to the OPTIMALE research was somewhat hard to interpret: 39 of 91 programmes have such a requirement, 32 stated they did not and 20 did not mention it – indicating an ambiguity in the framing of the question. (Gambier, 2013)). The degree paper as required by KJUAS, which has to be defended *viva voce,* consists of two translations, with introductory commentaries (related to text, audience analysis and context), and also a commentary on challenges and difficulties presented by the

translations, a glossary (identifying the source and allowing for further commentary) and a set of examples of translational transfer operations, according to the typology developed by Klaudy (2003). The guiding principle here is that the degree paper comprises not only the product, i.e. the actual translations that are evaluated, but demonstrates the student's insight into translation issues and problems, processes and strategies. Thus, for example, the glossary is a compilation of source terms and also other lexical items with definitions. The lexical items are linked to their co-text, which is itself placed in context in the pre-analysis, whilst the source that the translator found reliable needs to be specified for the definitions, and comments, such as why the particular source was chosen, what other choices were considered, what the challenge presented was, or whether usage had changed over time are allowed/encouraged. The descriptor-based evaluation criteria for the degree paper and the examination translations are:

- use of language,
- style, register,
- fidelity,
- coherence,
- use of terminology, and
- grammatical accuracy.

The examiner functions in two roles as reader: on the one hand as a simulated member of the target audience and, on the other hand, as a professional, considering the various aspects of the translation. The mark is a combination of a global mark and an analytical mark based on the criteria. The exam translations and degree papers are both marked by two independent markers. The need for both forms of evaluation is justified by the differing challenges presented by the exam and the writing of the degree paper. In the latter case, the situation is close to real life, with the students able to work according to their own habitus and habits, with the same resources and settings available to them that they would have in executing professional commissions. These include their own opportunities to reflect, consult and revise, as well as their own access to specialised sources, be they human, virtual, or paper-based. They can dedicate as much time as they wish to this process and benefit from the guidance of and feedback from their supervisor and class-mates. In the exam, the conditions are levelled, with all students subject to the same physical conditions (exam hall, strange computer, temperature and noise in the room) and time constraints. This is a more artificial environment, and the task itself is unusual in that the source text is short, the time available to access parallel texts and to revise is limited, and there is a need to translate in both language directions within a short

time span. The two approaches contribute to making the evaluation process overall as even-handed as possible – individual differences, preferences and limitations will tend to balance each other out.

3.2.1. The programme

This brings us to the curriculum for the programme of studies. Once again using the OPTIMALE analyses as point of reference (Valero-Garcés, 2013), the KJUAS programme does not have a cultural or linguistic focus but does include courses in CAT tools (Trados and MemoQ in particular). Although these cannot be considered in-depth, they are supported by other courses incorporating aspects of ICT. Together with the other practical translation courses, these form the overwhelming majority of the programme. In previous versions, when more contact hours were required, the language/linguistic, cultural and areas studies aspects received more focused attention. Of these, it is only Terminology and Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation courses that have been retained. Including a theoretical aspect is a subject of debate, with professional translators often complaining that formal, academic training programmes are too academic, or are too theoretical (Pym, 2009). Pym adds that a theoretical component remains frequent, with varying content. In our view, higher education is progressively being perceived as being about professional excellence and preparing students for later professional life; however, the fundamental objective of enquiry and research must not be lost sight of. Students can make practical use of their knowledge of what is understood as translation theory in a wider sense, but may also find their curiosity awakened and even choose to study further and/or engage in research (Richter, 2008).

In part-time courses, the onus is on the students to complement their existing knowledge – whether related to language, culture, technology or domain – as needed, whilst it is the responsibility of the teachers to guide them in this endeavour, taking into account the very mixed levels of knowledge, which also vary in terms of point of focus. For example, the graduates of language programmes will have prior knowledge of linguistics, a major advantage for the theoretical content, whilst the graduates of courses related to business will have an advantage in terms of their understanding of business processes, issues and terms. The domain area (and by implication some cultural content) is covered extensively in the task- and text-based translation classes and is further targeted with the electives, which vary, but almost always include a course on the European Union. In view of the above, the challenges and opportunities presented by the course on Terminology will be considered, focusing on the overt and covert aims and objectives, as well as how these are targeted in practice.

4. Why a course in terminology should be included

Teaching terminology, in the sense of specialised vocabulary or an inventory of terms, may seem an obvious requirement, but it is worth asking why we offer such a course in a compact, practice-oriented, two-semester part-time course. Other options, from the ethics of translation, through courses on language or culture, to a course (sometimes offered as an elective) on professional practice, all compete for inclusion. The guiding principle of economic use of time and re-sources requires that this question be answered. Part of the solution lies in the incorporation of multiple purposes in the terminology course, as indicated in the title of this paper. Some of these purposes can only be touched upon, but their inclusion is important as a point of orientation for the students, who get to see aspects of the field that may have escaped their notice. In what follows, T/termi-nology, (both spelt with lower case and with an upper-case initial letter), will be examined and related to the need for it being taught in the TTP–Ec&SocSc.

The theoretical aspects discussed above are less directly relevant for those students who already are, or who are going to become, commercial translators of specialised texts. Some of them, however, may be attracted to academic inquiry into translation. In line with industry and employer's expec-tations, the trend in translation studies has been towards the development of transferable skills in addition to skills related to translation (Horbačauskiené, Kasperavičiené & Saulé, 2017). Academics do, however, deal with the identi-fication and explanation of problems related to professional communication and practitioners do benefit from the applied aspect of their work. And there may be those amongst the students who are drawn to the study of Terminol-ogy, or to a career as a terminologist.

4.1. The case for a course in terminology

To return to the original question, terminology has its place in our translation train-ing programme because our graduates will need to produce texts in specialist lan-guage, based on a generally accepted level of prior knowledge (linguistic, socio-cul-tural and domain-related), recognising terminological challenges when they occur, and able to apply the appropriate strategies/use the available resources needed to resolve their difficulties in their particular communicative situation.

As such, the course provides an excellent opportunity for adding infor-mation on topics related to terminology and translation (as mentioned above), as well as multi-faceted opportunities to ascertain whether the back-ground knowledge and training of the students are adequate for their future practice. It is not possible and is not necessary to actually fill knowledge or

skill gaps as it is enough for students to know what it is that they have to pay attention to, and to give pointers on how to acquire what is missing. A mindset of awareness and a schema for accessing whatever needs to be supplemented can be actively developed in the course. Furthermore, there is clearly a case for training terminologists, just as there is a case for developing terminological resources and infrastructure within a system of adequate information and efficient administration. Opportunities for making students aware of these potential career paths arise naturally in a terminology course. The same is true for academic research directions, or even teaching careers.

'Prior knowledge' can cover an almost infinitely wide range if we consider both business studies and social sciences. Furthermore, there is the cultural knowledge associated with the target audience, since language goes beyond exchanging information and expressing cultural reality, it creates socially shared realities. Primarily, the requirement of prior knowledge refers to the cultures associated with the languages, bearing in mind that this may cover multiple languages and multiple (sub-)cultures. Accepting Kramsch's (1998) understanding of culture as "membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and common imaginings", specifying further that "Even after they have left that community, its members may retain a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting" (Kramsch, 1998: 10), the case of English is unusually complex. The default requirement would be a knowledge of British or American Studies, but the cultures of other anglophone areas of the world are likewise relevant, whether they are what could be called peripheral standards (such as Canadian or Australian English) or New Englishes. Indeed, the English spoken as a lingua franca or language of international communication can be seen to have its own cultural background. Furthermore, the occupational cultures of the business world (finance, production, marketing, logistics and so on) are likely to be pertinent.

The degree to which such needs can be met in any particular programme is dependent on various factors, not the least of which are time and competing, even conflicting, needs. Suggestions for what should be covered – with what level of importance attributed to it – in a fully-fledged course on terminology are rather hard to find, but a well-thought-out and comprehensive programme dealing with the role of terminology in the translation process, and including both theoretical and practical aspects, is outlined by Martinez and Faber (2009) in their article on terminological competence in translation. The KJUAS programme allocates 6 contact classes, spread over 2 semesters. These are exploited to the full to allow for many seemingly disparate purposes to be included. In the past few semesters, a two-pronged approach has evolved: the actual classes are dedicated to tasks, discussions and 'theorising' about terms

and terminology, as well as testing, whilst the periods of intensive autonomous studying are spent learning the words they need to know and use.

4.1.2. Raising students' awareness

Given the complexity of Terminology, in a brief course it is unrealistic to do more than raise students' appreciation of the issues and sensitise them to the need for realistic expectations. The course is directly practice-oriented, therefore, the primary need is to ensure fluent comprehension and use of the appropriate level of terminology (and the associated general English expressions, style and register) within the subject-domain. As indicated above, the KJUAS programme offers specialisation in Business Studies and Social Sciences. In the field of business studies, a proficiency standard has, therefore, to be set, opportunities to reach that standard given, and tested. For this, a selection of the excellent Business English books (CEFR level C1) available on the market is used, and the students are expected to reach the set standard largely based on autonomous study at home. The tests serve not only to document their abilities, but also as feedback. On the input side, the level of proficiency is very mixed and the two semesters allow sufficient time for the playing field to be levelled – for some this is a stretch objective, for others, it is an opportunity to revise existing knowledge. As far as the social sciences are concerned, they immediately confront us with an unachievable teaching objective: each of the social sciences has its own terms, indeed branches and individual schools of thought within the social sciences may and do have their own sets of terms. The best that can be done with regard to the social sciences, therefore, it to treat the field of business studies and its associated terminology in such a way that the students have a model that they can use as a way of setting about recognising, researching and using the terms that appear in the texts from the social sciences that they translate. Time in the contact classes is allocated to discussing two crucial questions:

(1) "What does it mean to *not* understand a text?" An answer is sought through looking at texts which the students find hard to understand and dealing with grammatical, lexical and extra-linguistic factors.

(2) "What does it mean to know a word?" To answer this question, the students embark on a journey of self-reflection and find out that the following are all relevant: register, meaning, formation, etymology, connotations, pronunciation, spelling, grammatical patterns of use, collocations, frequency and domain. These approaches to both challenging texts and to investigating words from diverse perspectives can be seen as transferable skills that they will be able to continue using in the future.

4.1.3. Generic and specific transferable skills

A short digression here will clarify what is meant by 'transferable skills' and why these are important when we consider how best to teach translation. Traditionally, they referred loosely to those mostly positively viewed skills complementing academic knowledge that are learnt in the course of studying at a university and then applied to employment. As the environment in which we live and work becomes more global, more multicultural, and integrative of a wide range of technological tools, the need for such skills has been increasingly recognised and there has been considerable discussion of the value of overtly teaching them. For higher education objectives, the emphasis has generally shifted progressively from academic competence to operational competence. The value of adaptability has risen with the perception that it is likely that graduates will be expected to change roles within their careers and that their career opportunities are likely to be impacted by fast and fundamental changes beyond their control. The expectation, on the part of both students and employers, is that graduates will be able to make an immediate contribution on being hired, and this expectation includes both subject-related competence and (inter-)personal skills. Research has looked at employers' expectations (see for example, Diamond, Walkley, Forbes, Hughes & Sheen, 2011; Bennett, 2002 or the British Council's study on the topic, 2011), and it has become clear that higher education has a responsibility in this regard. In Jones (2013), the focus is on internationalisation and two categories are considered. The list, we suggest, resonates with our expectations for our graduates (Jones, 2013: 8):

Self-sufficiency/self-efficacy skills:
- self-awareness,
- initiative and enterprise,
- willingness to learn,
- planning and organizing,
- integrity,
- commitment/motivation,
- problem-solving,
- flexibility, and
- self-management.

People skills:
- team working,
- communication skills,
- foreign language,
- networking,
- leadership,

      – customer service,
      – interpersonal skill, and
      – intercultural skills.

Research specific to the translation industry and the institutions of higher education teaching it has also been undertaken. Horbačauskienė (2017) placed her study in the context of official documents which prescribe quality standards (European Quality Standard for Translation Services EN-15038 (2006), European Reference Framework for a Master's in Translation (EMT) (2009) and Translation Services – Requirements for Translation Services ISO 17100 (2015)). From these, she identifies and specifies the five different competences required: translating competence, linguistic and textual competence, research competence, cultural competence and technical competence. The transferable skills which employers (both agencies and large companies with in-house translators) considered important were: creativity in problem-solving, lifelong learning, responsibility for performance results, independent work skills, skills of teamwork, effective communication skills, assessment and planning of necessary resources, ability to use databases, skill in computer-aided programs and skills of file formatting (Horbačauskienė, 2017: 154-155). Some of these bear the characteristics of the profession (in particular, the technical skills associated with ICT); whilst some reflect a change in the way translators work (the rise in the importance of teamwork and communication). So beyond generic personal and inter-personal skills, there is also a need for the development of discipline-specific professional employability skills.

At KJUAS there is course time devoted to using ICT and also a dedicated course for CAT tools (we introduce the students to Trados and MemoQ). These courses complement the course in Terminology, moving some content that could be included there into a separate focal point. Within the course, the aim of increasing their actual knowledge of business studies-related terms is put into a framework in which they develop functional *modus operandi* for identifying, researching and using technical terms in the course of translating. This is done through text-based tasks. The texts, which are specifically chosen to provide comprehension challenges, also include ones related to the social sciences of the students' choice, depending on their actual interests and background.

While translating, one of the challenges is to recognise when a technical term is being used and to treat it as such. Robinson (2003), in his book suggesting ways of approaching translation theory and practice, introduces the idea of the "shuttle" (drawing on the work of Charles Sanders Peirce), that is, the process in which translators move between novel situations and more 'habitual' ones, where they can work subliminally. Translators are most effective

when they shuttle appropriately between fast, 'subliminal', flow-like processing and conscious, analytical experience, aroused by some trigger signalling the need for full awareness. The hard to pin down sensitivity to recognising that something needs to be investigated is one of the long-term characteristics of a good translator. Without it, experienced and self-confident translators can find out that a solution to a recurrent translation dilemma that they have been applying for years without questioning it, is flawed. A similar sensitivity needs to develop for a translator to recognise that a word which is common in general English is used in a way that suggests it is a technical term. The situation where the term is unknown to the translator in simpler. In this case, the alarm bells ring immediately. Good translators are those who are able, in a way consistent with their experience, to switch to conscious mode, what Kahneman (2011) calls "slow thinking" or "System 2 thinking", which is slow, more reasonable and analytical, and requires deliberate cognitive effort, to check or research the word in question.

Teaching and learning could be aided by being able to reliably identify technical terms. Chung and Nation (2004) look at and compare four approaches. One way of identifying terms in a text which has become prevalent is by using term extraction software. This works best when it is conducted on a large technical text with a non-technical corpus or text for comparison, as technical terms are those that are found mostly in technical texts. Dictionaries and terminological databases are based on specialists choosing the terms they include. Another way of accessing specialist knowledge is within texts themselves, where the writer of the text may provide information about what should be seen as a technical term, for example by labelling drawings or figures, overt definitions and by use of typographical signals, such as boldface or italics. The fourth approach is using a rating scale based on the judgement of reliable raters, who are experts able to indicate how closely words are related to a particular subject area and other associated terms. Chung and Nation set out to find the "reliable, valid and practical approach" with the intention of providing support for a number of endeavours, including teaching and development of further resources (Chung, Nation, 2004: 262). The incorporation of such research into the development of reference works and teaching materials can help the learners and facilitate teaching of technical vocabulary in the translation studies classroom, as well as other learners of English for Specific Purposes.

5. Conclusion

In the KJUAS Translator Training Programme in Economics and Social Sciences, and in particular in the Terminology course, students have time and guidance

to reflect on the language mediation process, leading naturally to the realization that in order to effectively translate specialized texts, a translator must be aware of how to identify and resolve terminology problems, in addition to having a suitable knowledge base of subject-relevant terms and a broad and accurate command of the languages concerned. This paper has described in some detail the aims and assumptions of the Terminology course and how it fits into the TTP–Ec&SocSc programme, which is in turn aligned with other European translator training programmes. Within the course itself, theory and practice come together for the benefit of the students, and – albeit indirectly – for the benefit of the users of translations.

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MELIC TRANSLATION

Abstract

In the following paper the author presents selected theories and approaches related to the translation of songs. She believes that these are crucial in understanding the melic translation process. Some aspects of the melic translation process itself, especially those connected with the translator's decision, are also mentioned. They are described in order to show the need for an interdisciplinary perspective when approaching the topic. The main aim of the article is to present a possible solution for song translation with reference to the theories presented. The solution proposed involves the need to keep in mind not only 'the message' of the song, semantic dominant, harmonic dominant, and 'the sound' but also the fact that children are the main recipients.

Keywords: translation, melic translation, translation of songs, music theory

Słowa kluczowe: tłumaczenie, tłumaczenie meliczne, tłumaczenie piosenek, teoria muzyki

1. Introduction

Melic translation may be considered as a lesser known topic in the field of the humanities as well as among translators specialising in particular areas. Reasons for such a *status quo* might derive from a general tendency to depreciate melic translation. It can be perceived as less valuable, or less worth exploring, due to the translator's inclination toward music rather than to a text. Also, it is generally

accepted that the text should take priority. This tendency may be reflected by the fact that there are a relatively small number of publications on the subject. A closer insight is presented in analyses of melic translations made by different critics or authors. To mention Bednarczyk (1995: 13) (author's translation): 'Not only did Wysocki change the way of interpretation (guitar chords, some words, intonation) but sometimes he also changed the words of a song in a way that changed the semantics of the work' and also Bryll (2006: 94) (author's translation) 'even a cursory reading of the translation shows what kind of compromises, consisting mainly in semantic transformations, the melic translator had to decide on, seeking to maintain the melodic line of the song'. The above citations are quoted in order to show, at least partially, the essence of melic translation. The author aims to present a possible solution for song translation with regard to several factors which determine the end result and individual decisions taken.

2. Theoretical considerations

In the analysis of melic translation or the melic translation process, various kinds of corpora can be used. According to a generally accepted classification, vocal forms comprise: a song which consists of one part, two parts, etc., a song with one stanza or more, variation song, through-composed song, ballad, Gregorian chant, the Protestant chorale, aria, arietta, elegy, recitative, motet, madrigal, and cantata. Undoubtedly, the type of analysis which is most often described in the field of translation research concerns the translation of songs. The problem of melic translation with songs as the corpus has been studied mostly by Bednarczyk (1993, 1995, 2005), Osadnik (2006, 2006a), and Bryll (2006, 2012) (among others). Supposedly, the selection of songs, motivated mainly by the popularity of song as a genre, is also the most natural.

In the case of song translation, the process itself may be perceived by many as very difficult, arguably due to its multi-faceted nature. Two layers of transfer can be differentiated: semantic transfer, which, according to Bristiger (1986), is based on verbal means, and melic transfer. In melic transfer sounds constitute the means of expression. A translation of a song includes the translation of words, but it also includes the sounds and, in a sense, their translation. This in turn raises the question of the need to adopt a multidisciplinary perspective in this area. The multidisciplinary perspective is understood here as the merging of linguistics and musicology. While with reference to melic translation the linguistics perspective is debated rather extensively, the musicological perspective appears to be neglected in some areas. The history of music, psychology of music, aesthetics, philosophy of music, sociology of music, ethnomusicology, and organology are usually applied to assess melic translation

analyses. Music theory, including harmony, ear training, music notation or others, which could be helpful in analysing mutual relationships between words and sounds, are not necessarily applied.

Song perception takes place on two levels: the literary level and the musical level. Both are perceived in two phases. Bristiger (1986) differentiates the 'surface phase' and the 'deepened phase'. In the surface phase, the most crucial issue is the recognition of meaning, as well as connotations and denotations, and also the awareness of the poetic picture and general understanding of the work. On the musical level, in the first phase the most crucial issue is the recognition of pitch, register (if it is minor or major), the harmony of chords and music types (classical, jazz, etc.). The perception of the literary and musical level in the deepened phase shifts in the direction of in-depth awareness of the phenomena occurring. The receiver begins to become aware of the linguistic structure of the text, the means of expression, poetic language, musical figures, the logic of harmony and musical artistry. The levels of cognition regarding vocal forms defined by Bristiger (1986) could be adopted, or even could have already been recognised in the process of deciphering the original text and its music by a melic translator. Naturally, in the melic translation process, a translator recognises these structures gradually while he/she is listening to the recording. It may additionally emphasise the necessity to apply musical theory, especially harmony, rhythm, and melody more extensively in melic translation analyses.

Krysztofiak (2011) describes three levels, or three codes, of translation: lexical and semantic, cultural, and aesthetic. The relationship between the codes has an influence on the quality of the translation. In literary translation, all three codes coexist and interpenetrate. In song translation, aside from the three aforementioned codes, there is also a code called melic or musical. Therefore, it is vital to ensure a suitable balance between all four codes in the melic translation process. Practically, recreating the sound of music and the musicality of the text in melic translation may pose problems. Since the lyrics of the song impose their own rules, which should be respected, a translator departs from the main senses of the text, while striving to keep the melody and the rhythm.

Bristiger's theories might be perceived as a milestone for considerations concerning mutual relations between words and sound. Tomaszewski (2003) is another theorist, linguist, and musicologist who analyzes relations between music and poetry, mutual relations between text and melody, relations of text content and its musicality, or relations between the phoneme and sound using terminology derived from linguistics. The main concern of Kolago (1997), who studies structures which are shared by music and literature, is the question whether musical forms can actually be transferred to the field of literature.

Undoubtedly, one of the most prominent figures interested in the translation of songs and also focusing on melic translation was Barańczak (1974, 1992, 2004). He primarily drew the attention of translators to such elements as word accent, which should fall on pitch accent, syntax, which should be analogous to musical phrases, or masculine rhymes, which should not be replaced by feminine rhymes. Whereas in the case of Barańczak the main area of interest as regards vocal forms were songs, Jerzy Zagórski (1995) analysed the translation of opera. Several of his findings can be adopted in the translation of songs as well. The compromises a translator must make, which stem from the need to preserve melody and rhythm, have been studied by Zazula (1999). So far, probably the most extensive studies concerning song translation are those by Bednarczyk (1993, 1995, 2005), who has devoted several works to this topic. She has defined different types of dominants in reference to the semantic dominant introduced by Barańczak (2004).

3. Music and sound

Sound, as the most basic concept in music, features several characteristics. As an indispensable element of melic translation, it should be found by a translator or researcher, rendered and reflected in the melic translation process. Written representation of sounds, notes, forming phrases and other distinctive structures are similar to letters forming words and the longer sentences. They serve here as the tool for compilation and comparison. In physics, sounds possess features such as direction, speed, amplitude, wave number, frequency, wavelength, and sound intensity. In music, sounds are analysed in terms of duration, colours, pitch, and volume. Duration is the time during which the recipient hears the sound. Colours are determined by the source of sound, which mainly refers to the instrument. The number of oscillations per second determines pitch, A1 sound has 880Hz while a1 440Hz. Volume, which can be understood as sound amplitude, is measured in decibels. The distance between two sounds is called an interval.

In the case of melic translation analyses, in analysing music (melody, rhythm, harmony etc.) sound, which has the characteristics described above is a basic concept. It is also the basic media carrying musical sense. The analysis begins with concepts such as semitone and tone. These intervals constitute the main point of reference. In other words, there are minor second and major second intervals. On the piano, the distance between the sounds of two ivory keys which are the closest is called a semitone. It is often the distance between white and black ivory keys. The tone is a distance where there is another ivory key between two. Further intervals are minor third, which contains three semitones and major third involving four semitones. They are followed by fourth and fifth, which contain five and seven semitones respectively. Between

them there is the so called tritone, which has six semitones and is considered to be a specific interval, not very "pleasant" to the ear. A minor sixth is the next interval consisting of eight semitones, which is followed by major sixth, consisting of nine semitones. Next, there are the minor seventh and major seventh, which have ten semitones and eleven semitones respectively. Twelve semitones, constituting the octave, are another concept which serves to identify a melody. Melody is formed by intervals following one after another. A specific organisation of intervals forms a particular kind of a melodic line. This is important insofar as in melody analysis the researcher can use the concepts presented as well as many others used in the theory of music, and in the context of not only musical analysis but also melic translation analysis.

4. Practical considerations

In terms of word content, including their meaning, and with respect to the precision of their translation or the arbitrariness of interpretation, the lyrics of the song are governed by inherent rules, which give a particular weight to certain words, layers or structures. With regard to the musical layer, which in melic translation should be retained, in practice some allowances must be made, if only out of necessity to preserve the core meaning of the lyrics and their semantic dominant in particular.

The concept of a dominant was first introduced in the field of linguistics by Roman Jakobson in 1935. Jakobson (1978) understood a dominant as an ingredient which conferred homogeneity and affected other elements of a text. The same term, or idea, was used much earlier and employed by Russian formalists, with the philosopher Christiansen (1914) among them, when describing art where the concept was not confined to literary art alone. Later, this concept was transferred to the field of literary theory and translation study research from the field of aesthetics and philosophy. It is important to note at this point that the concept of a dominant is present in a number of disciplines, including musicology and the theory of music. In the context of music, a dominant is understood as the main element of the work. Therefore, the entirety of the musical layer strives for it. Only then, as it is in most cases, does a dominant revert to tone, which is the starting point. Typically, a harmonic dominant, which in very technical terms could be put as a V degree of the given scale, often coincides with the melodic dominant. It seems that the concept of a dominant in music, as well as its designation, seem to be much clearer and less controversial than the concept or designation of a dominant in translation. A dominant in translation, specifically a semantic dominant, is understood by its creator, Barańczak (2004), as the most important and irreplaceable semantic or formal

element of a poem. Such an approach to the above concept of a dominant assumes that the text can be deciphered only in one way.

The issue here lies not in the fact that Barańczak's (2004) concept is inadequate, but in the fact that the translator is required to find one particular key or solution for a given poem or song. The subject of a dominant in translation in terms of the possibility of choices receives a more in-depth analysis from Bednarczyk, who adopts the assumption of multiple interpretations or definitions.

The Polish author and translator Barańczak (1992) stated that children are not fully able to appreciate all the functions of a song due to the fact that the world in which children perceive or meet with the work may differ totally from the world they experience. Therefore, the best solution for a translator according to Barańczak (1992: 67-68) is to adapt the work to the recipient. The so-called 'childishness' of the work, understood here as the quality of being childlike, i.e. interactive, experimental, dynamic, unstable etc., is believed by the author to take precedence over other aspects. Theories formed by Puurtinen 1995, who analysed the acceptability of translation for children, could shed light on the importance of the sound and resonance of a song, especially when it is written or translated for a child. Puurtinen's notions of 'readability or speakability' of the text may serve as the point of reference for understanding of the role of the text's musicality. Differentiating four stages of child development Jean Piaget (1956) indicated that the child starts to see abstract concepts at around the age of eleven. Therefore, a song should be 'tangible' in the musical sense, catchy and at the same time of artistic value. Additionally, when it is written for younger children a song, as material, can constitute a great challenge for a translator. Possible solutions for keeping the semantic dominant, the harmonic dominant, generally 'the sound', and the main senses of the text in particular, are presented on the basis of the following song.

A song composed by Grabowska-Wacławek, working under the pseudonym 'Bovska'. Melic translation by Weronika Szota.

KTOŚ COŚ

1.
Prosta piosenka raz i dwa
Idzie żyrafa klapu klap
Tam stąpa cichutko jakiś ktoś
Za plecami chowa coś

Ktoś coś chowa przed żyrafą
Ktoś coś srebrzystego wziął
Kto to taki jest niegrzeczny
Kto no kto ——> refren

2.
Gdy to żyrafa zobaczyła
Zaraz tego ktosia zaczepiła
A był to nieduży szary kret
Który w kieszeni schował flet

wariant refrenu:
Kret flet chowa przed Żyrafą
Kret coś srebrzystego wziął
Kto to taki jest niegrzeczny
Kto no kto

Figure 1: Music notation by Bovska.

WHO SOMETHING

A simple song one and two
A giraffe is going clap and clap
There's stepping silently kind of who
Behind his back who's hiding something

Who something's hiding from giraffe
Who something (of) silver took away
Who is so rude today
Who tell who

When the giraffe got something see
She hooked the who right away

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Who was a little (and) grey mole
Who hid the flute in his bay

Flute, mole is hiding from giraffe
Mole something (of) silver took away
Who is so rude today
Who tell who

The translator recognised the word play between words *ktoś* and *coś* as the most crucial element of the song. The title itself constitutes the reference to the content and reveals core meanings and the main message of the song. Word play between the words *ktoś* and *coś* could therefore be recognised as the semantic dominant. Having looked at the content, the translator decided on the translation: *who* and *something*. This combination of words in the song carries a multiplicity of interpretations; it is also the answer to the needs of the recipients. In several places *Who* can be understood as a person kind of *who* (a kind of man) or an animal or generally some creature possessing the name *who* (who something (of) silver took away), which is probably the closest interpretation for a child (which also depends on the child's age). It can also be understood as the interrogative pronoun *who*. Due to the fact that the word 'something' has one more syllable than the Polish word *coś* deviations from the melody were unavoidable. Hopefully, the additional syllable, in the present musical context, may be interpreted as an additional note, which could serve as a preceding note, auxiliary note, etc. The word *something*, with the accent on the first sound and the second syllable *thing*, makes an impression of echo or more precisely an impression of sound reflection. Additionally, the word *something*, having one syllable more than the original word *coś*, strengthens the harmonic dominant in the refrain.

The translator's objective was to keep the imaginary language and to transfer poetic pictures depicting different scenes. Puurtinen's (1995) approach to translation for children was followed. There was also an attempt to illustrate the model of the world. The translator decided on a possibly faithful translation with simple syntax, one of the exceptions is a translation of *kto no kto* as *who tell who*, which is the invitation for children to imitate and repeat. In reference to semantic transfers (referential, pragmatic and intralingual) it can be stated that, in this particular example, pragmatic transfer had priority.

5. Conclusion

The procedure which is postulated in Barańczak's studies (2004) assumes finding a modus operandi when translating a particular song. It results directly from the postulate to convey 'all its senses'. In practice, it imposes the finding of key

words and the 'spirit' of the message of the song. Therefore, a designation of different elements as more or less important and the establishing of a so called hierarchy of structural elements etc. is indispensable. As in the short example presented above, analysing melic translation without reference to the musical notation, recording or to musical theory may pose problems, especially when the analysis is more extensive or detailed. An absence of this reference seems not to reflect the whole picture or the reasons for a translator to make a particular decision or choice. In the example presented above it was necessary to preserve 'the sound', the semantic dominant, the harmonic dominant and the main senses of the text in particular. Striving to keep coherence between all four translation codes, the translator presents a result where subtle differences in the sound of the material appear to be unavoidable. In this context, it is important to stress an interdisciplinary approach, since as Bristiger (1986: 25) (author's translation) wrote: 'For the verbal texts of musical works, a research procedure has not yet been established. It can only be created under a new branch of stylistics within an interdisciplinary studium involving music theory'.

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LOGISTIK AN DER GERMANISTIK – WARUM NICHT? EIN PLÄDOYER FÜR DEN FACHSPRACHENUNTERRICHT AN DER UNIVERSITÄT

Teaching logistics in German Studies – why not? A request for specialized languages at university

Not often do we encounter a specialized foreign language course at a university humanities department. However, why should foreign language students not be provided with practical knowledge which may be useful in future professional life? The article presents an experiment conducted with the participation of MA students of German studies at Warsaw University. The aim is to teach language skills, as well as convey professional knowledge in the CLIL formula, which is becoming more and more popular. It is consistent with requests of students themselves. Logistics is a useful introduction to various branches of the economy. Considering that the German language is becoming more and more important in business-related professions, the topics discussed in this course may be required in logistics, forwarding and other areas. In addition to traditional logistics topics, such as transport, storage and waste disposal, we also discuss topics such as business correspondence or negotiations and practice translations.

Keywords: logistics, German studies, languages for specific purposes, university, CLIL

Słowa kluczowe: logistyka, filologia germańska, język specjalistyczny, uniwersytet, CLIL

1. Einleitung

Fachsprachen im Fremdsprachenunterricht waren bis vor kurzer Zeit an geisteswissenschaftlichen Fakultäten eine Seltenheit. Doch auch an einer Philologie kann praktisches fachliches Wissen zusammen mit der Fremdsprache vermittelt werden: In dem Beitrag wird ein experimenteller Logistikunterricht in deutscher Sprache an der Warschauer Germanistik geschildert[1]. Die Logistik ist als Einstieg in diverse Bereiche des Wirtschaftslebens sehr gut geeignet: Es wird hier auf Themen aus dem Bereich Logistik und Spedition eingegangen sowie auf solche, die in vielen anderen beruflichen Bereichen, mit denen Absolventen der Germanistik in Berührung kommen, von Vorteil sein können. Neben typisch logistischer Thematik wie Transport, Lagerung und Entsorgung werden auch Themen wie Informationsmanagement, Management und Controlling sowie im schriftlichen Bereich die Geschäftskorrespondenz und Übersetzung behandelt. Diese Thematik kommt den Wünschen der Studierenden entgegen, da Deutsch als Fremdsprache in wirtschaftsorientierten Berufen immer mehr an Bedeutung gewinnt. So haben Inhalte, die im späteren beruflichen Leben praktisch eingesetzt werden können, für die Studierenden auch eine motivierende Funktion.

Eine von der Autorin in einer angehenden Logistikergruppe, die aus GermanistikstudentInnen im Aufbaustudium bestand, durchgeführte Umfrage ergab, dass das Wissen der Philologen über die Aufgaben der Logistik nicht umfangreich ist und die Definitionen, die sie jeweils angaben, sehr eingeschränkt. Die meisten behaupteten, die Logistik sei vor allem eine Transportaufgabe oder die Logistik bedeute schlicht den Transport von Gütern von einem zum anderen Ort. Die wenigsten hatten eine Vorstellung darüber, wie viele Aufgaben im Rahmen der Logistik bewältigt werden und wie oft man im Berufsleben mit ihr in Berührung kommt.

Nach bereits einem Semester Logistikunterricht, in dem Inhalt und Sprache (*content and language*) vermittelt wurden, waren die Antworten auf dieselben Fragen weit ausführlicher und zeugten nicht nur davon, dass die Studierenden sich Elemente einer Fachsprache angeeignet hatten, sondern auch, dass sie gewisse Fachinhalte gelernt und behalten haben. Diese lernten sie, wie sie angaben, „ganz nebenbei" und sie hatten nicht den Eindruck, dass sie ihnen schwerfielen. Auf der anderen Seite lernten sie auch die Fremdsprache „irgendwie nebenbei", da sie sich hauptsächlich auf die ihnen bis dato unbekannten Fachinhalte konzentrierten. Das Ergebnis war: Sprache und Inhalt, also CLIL (*Content-and-Language-Integrated-Learning*).

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[1] Die erste Logistikgruppe wurde im Semester 2017/2018 unterrichtet. Zum Zeitpunkt der Fertigstellung des Beitrags konnten lediglich die Erfahrungen des Wintersemesters ausgewertet werden.

2. Was ist Logistik, was macht Logistik?

Das Grundverständnis der Logistik als wissenschaftlicher Disziplin hat im Jahr 2010 der wissenschaftliche Beirat der Bundesvereinigung Logistik (BVL) in Form eines Positionspapiers erarbeitet. Logistik ist danach eine anwendungsorientierte Wissenschaftsdisziplin; es ist die ganzheitliche Planung, Steuerung, Koordination, Durchführung und Kontrolle aller unternehmensinternen und unternehmensübergreifenden Informations- und Güterflüsse. Synonym wird die Bezeichnung SCM (*Supply Chain Management*, also die intelligente Planung und Steuerung von Wertschöpfungsketten) verwendet.

Logistik analysiert und modelliert Wirtschaftssysteme als Flüsse von Objekten, Gütern und Personen in Netzwerken durch Zeit und Raum. Sie liefert Handlungsempfehlungen zu ihrer Gestaltung. Die Fragestellungen der Logistik beziehen sich auf die Konfiguration, Organisation, Steuerung oder Regelung dieser Netzwerke und Flüsse mit dem Anspruch, dadurch Fortschritte in der Erfüllung ökonomischer, ökologischer und sozialer Zielsetzungen zu ermöglichen. Logistik organisiert und steuert Lieferprozesse – vom Rohstoffabbau bis zur Ablieferung an den Endverbraucher.

Die vollständige Logistikdefinition der Bundesvereinigung Logistik (www.bvl.de, 26.10.2017) lautet:

> Logistik ist ein System, das im Unternehmen, aber auch unternehmensübergreifend mit Lieferanten und Kunden, eine optimale Versorgung mit Materialien, Informationen, Teilen und Modulen für die Produktion – und auf der anderen Seite natürlich der Märkte bedeutet.

Eine der historischen Definitionen der Logistik, die besonders bekannt ist, ist die des amerikanischen Wirtschaftswissenschaftlers Edward Grosvenor Plowman: Die Logistik ist die Lieferung des richtigen Gutes, in der richtigen Menge, im richtigen Zustand, an den richtigen Ort, zur richtigen Zeit, für den richtigen Kunden und zu den richtigen Kosten. Diese Definition ist in die Wirtschaftsgeschichte als die „6 R der Logistik" eingegangen (www.bvl.de, 26.10.2017).

Lehrbücher geben zahlreiche Definitionen an, die mit den oben genannten übereinstimmen, wobei die Akzente unterschiedlich gesetzt werden. Fortmann und Kallweit (2007: 36) betonen die planenden, gestaltenden, abwickelnden und kontrollierenden Aufgaben:

> Logistik ist die integrierte Planung, Gestaltung, Abwicklung und Kontrolle von Lagerungs- und Transportprozessen innerhalb und zwischen Unternehmen, oder vom Unternehmen zum Kunden, sowie der Entsorgungswege. Das Ziel der Logistik ist diese einzelnen Aufgaben optimal zu verknüpfen.

In der Logistik geht es um Steuerung eines materiellen und immateriellen Warenstroms innerhalb eines Unternehmens sowie zwischen Unternehmen, Lieferanten und Endkunden. Während zu materiellen Dingen Rohstoffe, Zwischenprodukte, Endprodukte sowie Strom, Wasser, Schmiermittel, auch Maschinen, Transport- oder Lagermittel zählen, so werden zu immateriellen Dingen, die zur Bewältigung der Logistik-Aufgaben notwendig sind, prozessorientiertes Denken, Kommunikation und Information oder die Informationsübertragung gerechnet. Spätestens an diesem Punkt ergibt sich eine Schnittstelle zu den Sprachen, insbesondere zu den Fremdsprachen und ihrem Einsatz für die Kommunikation in der Wirtschaft. Um logistische Aufgaben zu bewältigen, ist beides notwendig: Fachkenntnis und Sprachkenntnis. Diese Bereiche sind eng miteinander verflochten. Erst wenn beides vorhanden ist, kommt eine gute fachliche Kommunikation zustande. Eine solche Kommunikation können einerseits Fachleute, andererseits aber auch Philologen verwirklichen.

3. Warum Logistik?

3.1. Karrierestart in der Logistikbranche

Die Logistik zeigt einen Querschnitt durch die Aktivitäten eines Unternehmens und seine Beziehungen zur Außenwelt: Der Einstieg in die Logistik ist für Studierende an geisteswissenschaftlichen Fakultäten zunächst nicht einfach, doch er bietet sowohl eine sehr gute sachliche als auch eine sprachliche Vorbereitung für berufliche Tätigkeiten in unterschiedlichen Positionen. Logistik zeigt auch Berufsfelder, die der eine oder andere Lerner tatsächlich später wählen kann, denn gerade Philologen sind es, die nach ihrem Studium sehr unterschiedliche Berufe ergreifen und in unerwarteten Positionen arbeiten.

Das Arbeitsfeld für Logistiker ist sehr breitgefächert. Nach den Logistik-Tipps der Absolventa (www.absolventa.de, 10.11.2017) legt man als Student den Grundstein für die Logistik-Karriere am besten mit einem Logistik-Praktikum. So erhält man frühzeitig Einblicke beispielsweise in Lagerlogistik-Aufgaben oder man lernt, was es bei Transport-Jobs zu beachten gilt. Wer nach dem wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Studium auf den Arbeitsmarkt kommt, kann in den Logistik-Stellenangeboten nach attraktiven Jobs suchen. Auch viele Absolventen der philologischen Fakultäten werden an Unternehmen beschäftigt, in denen logistische Prozesse tagtäglich vor sich gehen. Sie zu verstehen und in der Fremdsprache richtig benennen zu können, wird ihre Chancen auf dem Arbeitsmarkt steigern, denn sie werden jedem Arbeitgeber willkommen sein. Deshalb ist Logistik ein sehr geeigneter Wirtschaftsbereich, um Studierende auf ihren Einstieg in den Arbeitsmarkt vorzubereiten. Logistische Prozesse bereits im

Studium verstehen zu lernen, wird das Verstehen der Arbeitswelt – so wie sie nach dem Abschluss vor zu finden sein wird – fördern. Wer später möglicherweise andere Wirtschaftsbereiche zu seinem Berufsfeld zählt, wird nach einem Logistikkurs für viele davon bestens vorbereitet sein.

3.2. Wünsche der Arbeitgeber und der Arbeitnehmer

Mehrere Wissenschaftler erforschten die Wünsche der Arbeitgeber hinsichtlich der Fremdsprachenkenntnisse und kommunikativen Fähigkeiten ihrer zukünftigen Arbeitnehmer (Held, 2015: 71–80). Dabei erwähnten die Arbeitgeber vor allem drei Bereiche, in denen die idealen Arbeitnehmer in der Fremdsprache bewandert sein sollten:
1. Kommunikation,
2. Geschäftskorrespondenz,
3. Verhandlungen.

Die Studierenden ihrerseits erwähnten folgende Bereiche, die sie in der Fremdprache gerne vermittelt bekommen würden:
1. Sachwissen,
2. Fachkenntnisse,
3. Kommunikation.

Anhand der Untersuchungen kann man feststellen, dass die Wünsche der Studierenden mit den Wünschen der Arbeitgeber weitgehend übereinstimmen; die Ergebnisse weisen auch auf die erwünschte Richtung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts in der Zukunft hin. Die Logistik als Fach wird den Wünschen der Arbeitgeber und der zukünftigen Arbeitnehmer bezüglich der Fremdsprachenkenntnisse mehr als gerecht.

3.3. Wirtschaftsdeutsch

Eine Frage, die oft aufkommt, wenn man zur praktischen Verwirklichung der Wunschlisten der Arbeitgeber und Arbeitnehmer übergeht, ist: Können wir Fachsprachen an der Germanistik unterrichten? Welche Fachsprachen sollen es sein? Wir wissen nicht, welche Berufe unsere Absolventen letztendlich ergreifen. Viele gehen in die Wirtschaft oder in den öffentlichen Sektor und bekleiden dort unterschiedliche Ämter. Andere werden Lehrer, Übersetzer und Dolmetscher. Die grundsätzliche Frage ist also: Was können wir ihnen auf ihren beruflichen Weg mitgeben? Abhängig von der bekleideten Position braucht jeder einen anderen Fremdsprachenunterricht, denn er wird andere Fähigkeiten und Kenntnisse in seinem Berufsleben einsetzen müssen (Buhlmann, Fearns: 2000: 305) Welche Grundlagen für ihre unterschiedlichen zukünftigen

Berufe können wir den Studierenden im Fremdsprachenunterricht bieten? Hinsichtlich des Fremdsprachenunterrichts an Universitäten ist der Begriff Wirtschaftsdeutsch ein Schlüsselwort. Nach Buhlmann und Fearns (2000: 306) ist es ein Sammelbegriff für mehrere Fachsprachen und Bereiche:

> Wirtschaftsdeutsch ist ein Sammelbegriff für diverse Fachsprachen, die von Personengruppen mit unterschiedlicher Vorbildung, unterschiedlichen Tätigkeiten und unterschiedlichen Kommunikationszielen und –formen in einem beruflichen, akademischen und/oder ausbildungsbedingten Umfeld benutzt werden, das irgendwie mit Wirtschaft zu tun hat.

Im Rahmen des Faches Wirtschaftsdeutsch gibt es unterschiedliche Sprachverwendungsbereiche, zwischen denen nicht unbedingt Gemeinsamkeiten bestehen. In Bezug auf Personen, die im Wirtschaftsleben agieren, wird festgestellt, dass sie je nach dem von ihnen ausgeübten Beruf, über unterschiedliche Kenntnisse und Fähigkeiten verfügen müssen. Auch diesbezüglich bietet das Fach Logistik ein breites Spektrum an Möglichkeiten.

Mehrere Forscher und Fremdsprachendidaktiker in Polen beschäftigen sich seit Jahren mit dem Begriff „Wirtschaftsdeutsch" und widmen zahlreiche Veröffentlichungen der Fachsprachendidaktik. Diesbezüglich gibt es mehrere Veröffentlichungen von der Romanistin Magdalena Sowa, die insbesondere die Anpassung der Lehrprogramme an den Hochschulen an die aktuellen Erfordernisse des Arbeitsmarktes betont (Sowa:2015: 117). Ein wichtiges Werk, das in den letzten Jahren erschienen ist, ist die Monographie von Elżbieta Gajewska und Magdalena Sowa unter dem Titel „LSP, FOS, Fachsprache. Dydaktyka Języków Specjalistycznych" (Gajewska, Sowa: 2014), ein Kompendium, das die Gedanken und Bestrebungen zum Fachsprachenunterricht insbesondere an Fachhochschulen und Universitäten zusammenfasst. Es werden dort auch die Methoden und Instrumente zum Fachsprachenunterricht erfasst und beschrieben. Betont wird dabei der aufgabenorientierte Fremdsprachenunterricht. (Sowa, Gajewska: 2014: 168), der die Eigenkreativität der Lernenden fördert und somit ihre Autonomie und Aktivität steigert. Dies knüpft an die bereits in den 80-iger Jahren des 20. Jahrhunderts bekannte Methode TBLT (*Task Based Language Teaching*) an.

In Übereinstimmung damit betonen mehrere Fachsprachenlehrer an wirtschaftsorientierten Universitäten in Polen den sich langsam vollziehenden Übergang vom allgemeinsprachlichen Unterricht zum Fachsprachenunterricht (Zielińska, 2015: 53). Dies ist überdies in den größeren Kontext der Diskussion um die allgemeine Gestalt des Hochschulwesens und der Frage nach dem praxisorientierten Hochschulwesen eingebettet (Parczewski, 2015: 81). Anlässlich

des Jubiläumsjahres der Warschauer Universität fand eine eigens zu dieser Frage organisierte Konferenz statt[2].

Einige Hochschullehrer führen detaillierte Umfragen unter den Studierenden an ihren Hochschulen durch, um in Erfahrung zu bringen, was ihre Wünsche und Bedürfnisse bezüglich des Fremdsprachenunterrichts an ihrer Hochschule sind. Für die englische Sprache führten dies beispielsweise die Autorinnen Anna Żebrowska und Jolanta Idźkowska durch. Aufgrund der durchgeführten Analysen kamen sie zu dem Schluss, dass Fachsprachenkurse gerade im Aufbaustudium sehr motivierend wirken (Żebrowska, Idźkowska: 2016:187). Sie wiesen dabei darauf hin, dass die große Anzahl von Fachbereichen eine Quelle der Schwierigkeiten für den Fachsprachenunterricht und die Fachsprachenlehrer darstelle (Żebrowska, Idźkowska: 2016:188). In der Umfrage bestätigten dies über 90% der Lehrbeauftragen. Dies knüpft an die These des Fachsprachenforschers Hans Rüdiger Fluck an, dass heutzutage die Zahl der Spezialisierungen nicht mehr zu überblicken ist. Universale Kenntnisse zu erwerben ist nicht mehr möglich, und der Einzelne hat über die einzelnen Wissensbereiche keinen Überblick mehr. Der Fachwortschatz zahlreicher Disziplinen nimmt schnell zu und zeigt dabei wie die Gebiete selbst eine zunehmende Spezialisierung. Schon im 20. Jahrhundert musste so viel Neues benannt werden wie noch nie zuvor (Fluck, 1998:31). Diese Beschreibung trifft auf die Sprache der Wirtschaft zu und auch das ist ein Argument für den Logistikunterricht, da die Logistik wie keine andere Fachdisziplin einen Querschnitt durch mehrere Fachbereiche bietet.

3.4. Wirtschaftsdeutsch an der Warschauer Germanistik

Das Fach „Wirtschaftsdeutsch" wurde an der Warschauer Germanistik unter dem Namen „Spezialthema" bereits in den 90-er Jahren eingeführt, zum Zeitpunkt der politischen und wirtschaftlichen Umwälzungen. Mehrere Unternehmen aus Deutschland und Österreich stürzten auf den polnischen Markt und eröffneten nacheinander ihre Büros in der Hauptstadt: Bosch (1991), Siemens (1991), Bayer (1991), Henkel (1991) MAN (1993), Metro (1994), Mercedes (1996), danach Media Markt, Saturn und viele weitere. Man suchte Mitarbeiter mit guten Deutschkenntnissen und stellte Germanistikabsolventen an, deren „literarisches" Deutsch aber nicht immer zu der Sprache passte, die man in den Unternehmen sprach. So wurde nach und nach der Themenbereich des Wirtschaftsdeutschunterrichts an der Germanistik um immer neue

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[2] Humanistyka a praktyczny profil kształcenia uniwersyteckiego w nauczaniu języka, literatury i kultury w warunkach obcokulturowych, Uniwersytet Warszawski , 2015

Themen erweitert: Es waren: Export, Import, Werbung, Handel, Marketing, Banken, Börse, Finanzen sowie Geschäftskorrespondenz und Verhandlungen. Heute wird an der Germanistik Wirtschaftsdeutschunterricht mit mehreren Schwerpunkten in der CLIL-Formel (integriertes Lernen von Fremdsprachen und Fachinhalten) realisiert. Die Anknüpfung an CLIL bedeutet, dass es im praktischen Deutschunterricht nicht allein um Sprache, sondern auch um Inhalte aus verschiedenen Bereichen geht, die hier vermittelt werden. Aktuelle Themenbereiche an der Warschauer Germanistik sind: Werbung, Tourismus, Marketing, Business und Management, Logistik sowie Spezialthemen von außerhalb des Wirtschaftsbereiches, wie Pressesprache und Amtsdeutsch.

3.5. Wirtschaftshochschule versus Universität

Für den Wirtschaftsdeutschunterricht ist der Unterschied zwischen den Studierenden an einer Wirtschaftshochschule und den Studierenfen an einer Universität, bzw. den Studierenden an einer Wirtschaftsfakultät und den an einer geisteswissenschaftlichen Studienrichtung gravierend: Die einen besitzen das erforderliche wirtschaftliche Basisfachwissen und die anderen nicht. Der/die Studierende an einer Fakultät an der Wirtschaftshochschule SGH (*Szkoła Główna Handlowa*) in Warschau wird über grundsätzliches Wirtschaftsfachwissen verfügen; dieses muss ihm/ihr im Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht mehr vermittelt werden. Der/die Studierende an der philologischen Fakultät der Warschauer Universität wird höchstwahrscheinlich darüber nicht verfügen. Der Dozent/die Dozentin wird es auch nicht verlangen können, sondern er/sie wird es im Unterricht selbst vermitteln müssen. Dies ist ein völlig anderer Ausgangspunkt, der den Lernprozess und die Motivation zum Erlernen einer Fremdsprache mit fachsprachlichen Aspekten beeinflusst (Strzelecka, 2018). Gerade die Motivation, neben der Fremdsprache auch fachliche Inhalte vermittelt zu bekommen, spielt im Fremdsprachenunterricht für Philologen eine nicht zu unterschätzende Rolle.

3.6. Motivation

Das Erlernen der Fachsprache anhand realer Situationen aus dem Berufsalltag gestaltet den Lernprozess interessanter, attraktiver und „benutzerfreundlicher" als im allgemeinsprachigen Unterricht. Dies war das Ergebnis der erwähnten Umfrage nach einem Semester Logistikunterricht. Das Berufsleben bietet viele Situationen, die im Unterricht in Form von Dialogen, spontanen Rollenspielen oder Fallstudien (*case studies*) eingesetzt werden können. Bei Studierenden an geisteswissenschaftlich orientierten Fakultäten kann nicht

davon ausgegangen werden, dass sie Kenntnisse im Bereich Logistik verfügen. Sie müssen hier und jetzt die logistischen Schlüsselbegriffe auf Deutsch lernen und sie später anwenden können. Sie üben es unter anderem, indem sie die Schlüsselbegriffe aus einem Text erklären und sie übersetzen, logistische Aufgaben in Form von Fallstudien in der Fremdsprache lösen oder verschiedene Rollen in Wirtschaftsgesprächen übernehmen. Die für den Unterricht gewählten Texte und Dialoge stammen aus originellen Materialien zur Logistik bzw. aus der deutschsprachigen Presse oder sind dem authentischen Wirtschaftsleben entnommen/nachgestellt[3]. Das alles fördert die Motivation zum Lernen und den Willen, sich „nebenbei" auch Wirtschaftswissen anzueignen.

3.7. Ziele der Berufsbildung

An dieser Stelle sollte kurz auf das Ziel der Berufsbildung eingegangen werden, die Lerner auf die sich verändernde Wirtschafts- und Berufswelt vorzubereiten, damit sie ihren Beruf so gut wie möglich ausüben und auf dem sich immer weiter entwickelnden Arbeitsmarkt lange aktiv bleiben. Die spezifischen Berufsziele der Branche Logistik an einer Schule bzw. Hochschule mit Spezialfach Logistik sind (Suszczyńska, 2018):

- Organisationarbeit und Verladung der Waren planen,
- Dokumentation der Transportprozesse führen,
- Dokumentation über Verrechnungen mit Kunden und ausländischen Partnern führen,
- Transportprozesse überwachen,
- Lagerungsprozesse organisieren und überwachen,
- Distribution der Waren planen und kontrollieren,
- technische Mittel im Transport verwalten und sie für die Abwicklung der Transportprozesse organisieren.

Die Kenntnis dieser Ziele gibt dem Fremdsprachenlehrer wichtige Hinweise dafür, was er im Fremdsprachenunterricht einführen kann und auf welche Aspekte er sich konzentrieren soll. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht erwirbt der Lernende nämlich weitere Qualifikationen, so dass er nach Kursabschluss Folgendes kann: die Sprachmittel (lexikalische, grammatische, orthografische und phonetische) für die Abwicklung der beruflichen Aufgaben anwenden, typische Aussagen über Berufstätigkeiten formulieren und interpretieren, kurze Texte über typische Berufstätigkeiten analysieren sowie kurze, verständliche

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[3] Für den an der Germanistik neu eingeführten Logistikunterricht gibt es kein Lehrbuch. Der Lehrbeauftragte stellt die Materialien zusammen, dabei können auch Wünsche der Studierenden berücksichtigt werden.

berufsbezogene Texte selbst formulieren, darüber hinaus fremdsprachige Informationsquellen auswerten (Suszczyńska, 2018).

Auch der Sprachunterricht im Studium, so auch an der Germanistik, sollte diesen Zielen gerecht werden. Der Absolvent der Germanistik, der meistens vor Aufnahme des Hochschulstudiums ein Allgemeinbildendes Lyzeum besuchte (Absolventen von technischen Oberschulen sind an philologischen Fakultäten äußerst selten), kann hier in der CLIL-Formel das notwendige Fachwissen erwerben und gleichzeitig seine Fremdsprachenkenntnisse erweitern und vervollkommnen.

4. Logistik an der Warschauer Germanistik

4.1. Ziel und Inhalt

Das Ziel der Lehrveranstaltung Logistik an der Warschauer Germanistik ist die Studierenden mit der Fachsprache vertraut zu machen, die in Dienstleistungssektoren wie Logistik und Spedition verwendet wird sowie das Kennenlernen des Fachwortschatzes und der Wendungen, die eine erfolgreiche Kommunikation in Wort und Schrift ermöglichen. In der Lehrveranstaltung lernen die Studierenden Wendungen kennen, die notwendig sind, um erfolgreich in verschiedenen Bereichen der Logistik und Spedition zu kommunizieren. Dies ermöglicht ihnen Texte und Briefe zu verfassen, den Weg eines Produktes vom Produzenten zum Konsumenten zu verfolgen und zu beschreiben, Statistiken, Berichte und Diagramme zu lesen und zu interpretieren sowie Dokumente auszufüllen und selbst herzustellen. Das Programm umfasst Elemente des Marketings und des Engagements der Logistik in die Verantwortung für die Umwelt (Grüne Logistik), einen praktisch angelegten Kurs der Geschäftskorrespondenz und diverse Übersetzungsübungen, die der Aneignung des Fachwortschatzes dienen.

Die Studierenden lernen aktuelle Themen aus der Presse kennen, üben die Durchführung von Telefongesprächen und die Zusammenstellung von logistischen Wegen in Form von *case studies*. Bestandteil der Lehrveranstaltung sind ausgewählte Fragen aus dem Bereich der Kontaktpflege mit Vertretern von Ämtern (Zollamt, Polizei, Konsulat).

4.2. Bildungseffekte

Die erwarteten Bildungseffekte, die mit den Europäischen Rahmenbedingungen übereinstimmen, sind:
- die gehörte oder gelesene Aussage samt Fachwortschatz (aus der logistischen Branche) aus dem betreffenden Bereich zu verstehen,

- eine Analyse des Textes, die Interpretation eines Diagramms oder einer Aussage vorzunehmen und die gewonnenen Informationen für die Erstellung eigener Texte zu nutzen sowie Informationen aus verschiedenen Quellen zu selektieren,
- statistische Angaben zur Logistik zu interpretieren und die gehörten oder gelesenen Aussagen aus verschiedenen Quellen zu vergleichen,
- in einem Telefongespräch spontan zu reagieren sowie schriftlich Inhalte auszudrücken, die der Promotion von Produkten und (logistischen) Dienstleistungen dienen,
- die Kenntnis des Fachwortschatzes und diverser Bedeutungsnuancen zu zeigen. Wörter und Wendungen zu kennen, die in der Logistik anwendbar sind,
- beim Verfassen von Texten entsprechende stilistische und formelle Mittel anzuwenden und einen Text mit Berücksichtigung entsprechender Stilebenen übersetzen zu können,
- in Wort und Schrift eine Aussage zu verfassen, die auf das Erreichen eines ganz bestimmten, angestrebten (logistischen) Ziels zielt.

Diese Effekte wurden aus Sicht der Autorin bereits in dem ersten an der Germanistik durchgeführten Kurs zur Logistik größtenteils erreicht. Insbesondere im Bereich der Eigenproduktion von Texten und Aussagen mit logistischen Inhalten konnten weitgehende Erfolge verzeichnet werden. Die Studierenden hatten auch sichtlich Spaß am Einsatz von Fachwortschatz, was andernorts meistens als „schwierig" bezeichnet wird. Da zum Zeitpunkt, zu dem dieser Beitrag erscheint, noch keine langfristigen Resultate messbar sind, bleibt zu hoffen, dass sie auch langfristig erreicht werden und die erworbenen Kenntnisse von den Studierenden im späterren Berufsleben eingesetzt werden können, was den Sinn dieser Veranstaltung ergibt.

5. Zusammenfassung und Ausblick

Die Logistik ist ein weiter, fachübergreifender Bereich, der für den Fremdsprachenunterricht an einer geisteswissenschaftlichen Fakultät sehr gut geeignet ist. Am Beispiel der Logistik wurde hier gezeigt, dass man an der Philologie erfolgreich sachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterricht in der *Content-and-Language*-Formel einsetzen kann. Aufgabe des Dozenten ist, neben der Fremdsprache auch Wirtschaftswissen, über das seine Studentinnen nicht verfügen, zu vermitteln. Die Einführung von Fachsprachen an geisteswissenschaftlichen Fakultäten (hier am Beispiel der Logistik) fördert den Fremdprachenunterricht, denn:

- Sachinhalte, die im Unterricht vermittelt werden können, bieten Anreize dazu, das erworbene Wissen selbständig zu vertiefen und zu erweitern; Kritisches und kreatives Denken wird gefördert,

- Logistik kommt den Erwartungen der Arbeitgeber entgegen, die von einem neuen Mitarbeiter in einem Großunternehmen erwarten, dass er die grundlegenden Abteilungen des Betriebs und ihre Aufgaben sowie die Zusammenhänge des Unternehmens mit der Außenwelt erkennt,
- Logistikspezifische Themen sind für die Studierenden neue Felder, die auf die Spezifik diverser Jobs in großen und kleinen Unternehmen vorbereiten,
- Die über die Logistik hinausgehenden Themen sind eine allgemeine praktische Vorbereitung für die Übernahme diverser schriftlicher und mündlicher Aufgaben durch den Absolventen, der einen der Berufe in der Wirtschaft ergreift,
- Der Erwerb sachbezogener Inhalte ist eine motivierende Herausforderung,
- Die kommunikativen Fähigkeiten in einem bestimmten Fachbereich (hier: Logistik) eröffnen neue berufliche Perspektiven,
- Die praktischen Kenntnisse im Umgang mit den Unternehmen und Geschäftspartnern sind von großem Wert im späteren Berufsleben, auch wenn der Absolvent einen anderen Dienstleistungsbereich oder Wirtschaftszweig wählt.

Daher sollten Fachsprachen aus weiten, durchgreifenden Bereichen wie die Logistik in Fremdsprachenprogramme einziehen und Bestrebungen, im Fremdsprachenunterricht Fachinhalte aus verschiedenen Wirtschaftsbereichen zu vermitteln und die Fremdsprache berufsorientiert zu unterrichten, sollten seitens der Hochschulbehörden Unterstützung finden. Dies soll ein Hinweis auch darauf sein, dass Schulungen für CLIL-Lehrkräfte wünschenswert wären, damit sie Kompetenzen erwerben und weiterentwickeln können, um in der CLIL-Formel erfolgreich zu unterrichten. Im Kontext des Qualifikationsrahmenprogramms der EU wird Kompetenz als Verantwortung einerseits und und Autonomie andererseits beschrieben (Europäische Komission, 2008). Das heisst, dass der Dozent/die Dozentin auch eigene Ideen einsetzen und eigene Unterrichtspraktiken verwirklichen kann, doch neben diesem Selbstmanagement braucht er/sie auch institutionelle Unterstützung.

Für die Forschung ergeben sich aus der Thematik mehrere Forschungsbereiche, die den Einsatz von Fachsprachen im Fremdsprachenunterricht betreffen, u.a. die Rolle der Motivation bei Studierenden an geisteswisseschaftlichen Fakultäten, die in der CLIL-Formel neben der Fremdsprache Fachinhalte erlernen.

Für den zukünftigen Fremdsprachenunterricht an geisteswissenschaftlichen Fakultäten, darunter an Philologien, wäre es wünschenswert, breitgefächert fachsprachlichen Unterricht einzuführen. Entgegen dem verbreiteten Vorurteil, dass die fachlich orientierten Inhalte im Gegensatz zum allgemeinsprachlichen Unterricht stünden, ergänzen sie ihn und erweitern um neue,

motivierende Aspekte. Für die Universität ist die Ausarbeitung eines Bildungssystems, das neben dem Wissenstransfer und der intellektuellen Entwicklung auch die Entwicklung der Fähigkeit berücksichtigt, das erworbene Wissen nach dem Studium praktisch im Beruf umzusetzen (auch und eben in der Fremdsprache), eine zukünftige Herausforderung. Der Sprachunterricht an den philologischen Fakultäten kann und muss neu orientiert werden: Der Beitrag ist eine Stimme für den Fachsprachenunterricht an der Universität.

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STUDENT-GENERATED COMMUNICATION ACTIVITIES IN AN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES COURSE

Abstract

Designing English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses is a challenging task. The teacher often has to cope with time constraints, shortage of resources as well as his or her insufficient knowledge of a given field of study. Students enrolled in a course are often consulted about the source of materials for instruction. The process of developing ESP tasks can be made easier and less time-consuming by means of employing student-generated communication activities which draw on learner-based approaches to teaching. The paper contains a collection of student-generated tasks that can be successfully used at the preparatory, follow-up or main stage of an ESP class. In the author's teaching context on numerous occasions they have triggered lively exchanges between students: discussion, brainstorming, or negotiation. Student-generated activities naturally develop collaboration and autonomy, which are essential in the workplace environment. Just like communication skills, they have to be taught explicitly due to the fact that in the area of soft skills there exist considerable differences at the personal and culture-specific level. Finally, since students' specialist knowledge is usually much better than that of the teacher, student-generated activities tend to be to the point, up-to date, or more precise with respect to the course objectives.

Keywords: course design, authentic materials, student-generated activities, communication, collaboration, autonomy

Słowa kluczowe: planowanie kursu, autentyczne materiały, ćwiczenia tworzone przez uczniów, komunikacja, współpraca, autonomia

1. Introduction

Teachers of English at the university level face the challenge of designing courses and developing tasks and materials for teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to students who represent different professional groups. This is a challenge for the teacher's creativity which often has to face some limitations. Firstly, there are time constraints as the teacher often teaches concurrently many groups with different academic/professional profiles. Secondly, designing courses and developing teaching materials constitute only a fragment of the teaching methodology course offered to students of English studies and may prove insufficient for the purposes of creating language courses for specialist professional groups. The teacher may need to develop his or her skills further in this area on his or her own. What is more, there is a shortage of ready-made ESP resources by leading publishing houses specifically designed for narrowly specialised professional groups at higher language levels and with considerable expertise in their areas of interest. Even if an ESP teacher happens to find suitable resources, the information they provide becomes quickly outdated, especially in technical English courses (Gajewska-Skrzypczak, 2016). Finally, the teacher's limited knowledge of a given field of study might be an obstacle in course planning. Very often "ESP teachers are also just students of the target field" (Anthony, 2007: 3).

In view of these limitations, teachers of English at the university level look for ways which could help them design, plan and implement English for Specific Purposes courses, especially those dedicated to graduate level students who have considerable experience in language learning and should take an active part in planning a syllabus which is to be tailored to their needs.

At the basic level of instruction materials and classroom activities, limitations in course design related to time constraints, lack of ready-made materials and insufficient knowledge of a given field of study on the teacher's part may be overcome by means of student-generated communication tasks and activities based on authentic materials of students' choice which are relevant to their experience and thus to the course objectives. The idea is obviously not new. It originated at the time when there was a shortage of instructional materials, there was no internet and the use of modern technology in education was expensive and not widely available. In the last decade of the 20th century Sheelagh Deller published *Lessons from the Learner* (1990), the educational context in Poland inspired the book entitled *Learner-Based Teaching* (Campbell & Kryszewska, 1992) and later Luke Meddings and Scott Thornbury developed a teaching method and philosophy called Teaching Unplugged. Teaching Unplugged (Meddings, 2011; Thornbury, 2017) implies that

lessons are conversation-driven, printed materials-light and focused on the language that emerges from communication.

The following paper contains a collection of student-generated communication activities that can be successfully used at the preparatory, follow-up or main stage of an ESP lesson. According to *Skills for Today*, a paper published by Pearson together with the Partnership for 21st Century Learning (Metusalem, Belenky & DiCerbo, 2017), the most important communication skills include interpersonal communication, active listening and oral presentation/public speaking. The majority of the tasks presented in this paper have been inspired by teaching methods which try to cope with the problem of limited resources and draw on the learner as a resource. Despite the fact that some of them date back to the 1990s, the task scenarios they recommend may inspire teachers today and make the process of developing ESP activities easier and less time-consuming.

In her ESP courses the author has used most of the student-generated activities as collaborative digital tasks in order to reflect the collaborative nature of the present-day workplace. English is used as the lingua franca in the present-day workplace due to globalization and globalization itself "has been driven by advances in technological and communications innovations" (Flowerdew, 2013: 340). English for Specific Purposes classes are a perfect opportunity to engage students in tasks such as meetings, negotiations, suggestion making, as well as speaking in public. All these social events require group members to use and develop the basic subskills of collaboration and teamwork and they may be enhanced by digital communication tools. In *Skills for Today* (2017:6) Lai, DiCerbo and Foltz remark that "there is a long-standing concern that institutions of higher education are not producing graduates with the collaboration skills needed to succeed on the job." That is why collaboration skills may become an element of the continuous evaluation of students in communication activities. Planning student-generated communication activities in an ESP course begins at the needs analysis stage which, according to Flowerdew (2013), should take into account technologization and transnationalization.

2. Needs analysis – the first student-generated activity in an ESP course

The basic tool which can make designing such a course easier is the needs analysis conducted at the beginning of the course in a given academic/professional group. The needs analysis is the starting point for determining the aims, and the content, the methods and techniques which lead to the achievement of these aims. Students may not be aware of all their language needs relating to taking part in academic and professional life, hence it is advisable that the

teacher asks specific questions in the needs analysis which will lead students to reflect on various aspects of the course. The teacher should ask for students' suggestions about the aims and the content of the course, the skills they would like to develop, the types of language tasks they would like to do, or relevant sources and authentic materials on which the coursework will be based. The teacher is advised to adopt an active role at the needs analysis stage by not only suggesting the elements indispensable in successful syllabus design, but also by recommending specific aims, tasks, skills and materials, for example, those useful in academic life, or those useful for employability purposes. These include, among others, clear communication, collaboration and teamwork. The active role of the instructor is strongly recommended due to the fact that students have insufficient knowledge of the process of syllabus design or evaluation of achievement of aims. It is the teacher who determines, on the basis of a placement test, the grammatical elements useful for students' academic and professional purposes. On the other hand, it is easier for students to specify the situations, the content, language functions, means of communication and tasks which they will encounter in a given professional context. It is often the case that the syllabus of a foreign language for specific purposes course contains the various elements mentioned above and is mixed in character, as it tries to meet the needs and expectations of the majority of participants. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) stress the advantages of such course design by referring to its eclectic and flexible nature. However, the teacher also needs to understand the limitations of planning a course with a mixed syllabus. Susan Feez remarks that it may be difficult to design an appropriate sequence of elements in such a syllabus, which may have a negative influence on the course progression and coherence (Feez, 1998). Taking this into consideration Dubin and Olshtain (1986) suggest that it may be necessary to make corrections to the syllabus while the course is in progress.

Conducting the needs analysis can naturally become one of the first communication activities in the language course. Due to its collaborative nature, this task lends itself to developing meeting and negotiation skills. A well-structured needs analysis is guided by the instructor who may feed in language for discussion, negotiation and suggestion giving. Remembering useful phrases may be easier for students, as is the case with any "sequence of words which native speakers feel is the natural and preferred way of expressing a particular idea or purpose" (Lindstromberg & Boers, 2008: 7), if they reflect on the grammatical or lexical patterns used in them and if they use them meaningfully and creatively many times throughout the course. The results of students' negotiations might be recorded instantaneously with the help of a digital tool called flask.io which enables students to create to-do lists and to save

them for further reference. Needs analysis is a perfect opportunity for the teacher to stress the importance of communication skills in English for employability and announce how they will be systematically developed, reviewed and continuously assessed throughout the course.

3. Student-generated communication activity for the pre-reading or pre-listening stage of an English for Specific Purposes class

Before reading or watching authentic instructional material, students may be asked to generate content-related questions and discussion questions. In pairs they formulate questions to which they expect to get answers while reading a text or watching a video. The results of collaboration can be stored in the virtual chatroom open for this purpose, such as todaysmeet.com, and displayed on the screen. Only well formulated questions should be accepted by the teacher. The reasons behind the rejection of incorrectly formulated questions need to be discussed with the class before they are eventually deleted from the chatroom. In this way some questions are eliminated at the beginning of the activity. After the first listening, watching or reading, students check how many of their questions were answered in the video/recording/text. The students who have generated the largest number of questions which are answered in the audio or visual material win the competition. After the second listening, watching or reading the whole group is asked to answer the winners' questions first and, if time allows, other useful questions generated by the rest of the group. The questions which are not answered in the authentic material chosen for the lesson but are relevant to the topic of the lesson might be discussed in a follow-up discussion.

Generating questions seems to be a more challenging task than brainstorming single words as it is easier to predict words than formulate ideas/questions. On the other hand, it is more difficult to record which words have been used, e.g. in an authentic video material if the tapescript is not available. It is definitely easier to keep track of ideas which have been presented in the recording.

To make generating questions easier, the teacher may present students with examples of effective and diverse questions, which will prompt longer responses than yes/no responses. Questions may be divided into factual questions (who? what? where? when? how much?), questions about causes or consequences (why? what are the consequences of…?), questions about the main idea (what is the text/recording about?), questions about the context (what circumstances was the text/recording created in?), questions about the author's reader's/viewer's opinion (what is his/her opinion about..?), speculation questions (what would the author/reader/viewer do if…?) or questions which require

reading between the lines. In the author's teaching context undergraduate or graduate students represent B2 or higher levels, which enables them to formulate and answer basic as well as complex questions. One of the rules of the activity might be to create only indirect questions. More examples of effective questioning techniques have been listed in one of a series of articles on teaching English with minimal resources (Maley).

Student-generated questions may be an effective springboard for several-minute long discussions on topics related to the students' field of study. The students, who are experts in the field, take care of the factual aspects of the discussion. On the other hand, the teacher who monitors language accuracy and appropriateness may use the discussion time for feeding in language functions useful in the given context and for rewarding those participants who have used such expressions correctly.

4. Student-generated communication activity for the pre-writing stage of an English for Specific Purposes class

The following activity can precede the writing of a for/against essay. Group members generate arguments related to a given topic using the online chatroom called www.tricider.com. The chatroom offers space for generating pros and cons next to the main idea of the essay and for voting for those which are most relevant to the topic. In the course of the lesson, students are able to see and evaluate all the ideas their classmates have generated by ranking the most effective arguments. The teacher may ask them to discuss the ideas further by giving examples. These days many students confuse causes with results or advantages with disadvantages, so the activity gives the teacher an opportunity to ensure that the ideas are logical and coherent with the purpose of the writing task. At the end of the class, the teacher sends the link to the generated pros and cons via email so that students can have some input ready when they start composing their essays.

5. Student-generated communication activities for the follow-up stage of an English for Specific Purposes class

5.1. Translation task

The following task requires pairs of students to translate key sentences from an authentic text or recording into Polish on a piece of paper. Each pair gets a different sentence to translate printed out at the bottom of an A4 piece of paper. Their translation should appear at the top of the page. When it is ready,

learners are asked to fold the paper in such a way that their translation cannot be seen. The pieces of paper are passed on to another pair, who translate the sentence located at the bottom of the page from English into Polish again (without looking at the previous pair's version). The activity continues until there are at least 5 Polish versions of the original English sentence. At the end of the activity students compare different translations. By that time they are not only familiar with the key vocabulary related to a given topic, but are also able to select the best translation and discuss the way the translation process changes the original sentence as well as potential pitfalls of word-by-word translation. This activity was inspired by Campbell and Kryszewska (1992: 84).

5.2. Defining task

At the follow up stage of an ESP lesson, students may also be asked to revise the key words related to the topic of the class by generating 15-20 such words with the help of the collaborative digital tool answergarden.ch. At the generating stage students can immediately see the words on the screen. Next, students are divided into pairs. At this stage one person in a pair sits with his or her back to the screen. The partner who can see the screen provides the definition of one of the key words in such a way that the other person is able to guess which word he or she has in mind. In the next round of the activity students swap roles. The game gets even more interesting if learners compete in groups. The task is a variation of a popular activity called *back to the board*, described in one of a series of articles on teaching English with minimal resources (Tennant, n.d.). Its major advantage is the fact that students practise formulating ideas related to their field of study in a precise manner.

5.3. Collaborative mind maps

Another step in developing clear communication skills and teamwork might require students to role-play a meeting in which they contribute to generating a mind map of the text they have read. They are assigned the roles of the chairperson, mind map creators and ideas contributors. The mind map is generated by means of bubbl.us, a digital online mind map generating tool. The tool offers an opportunity to generate mind maps in the form of grids, trees and circles. Students can suggest not only the ideas which could be included, but also can negotiate whether theirs is the main idea or a subordinate one as well as where it should be placed on the map.

6. Student-generated presentations

Giving a presentation is a popular task used in English for Specific Purposes classes, often planned as the main part of the lesson. Even at the graduate level students still experience difficulties when speaking in public. Both the planning and the delivery stages of a presentation need polishing. Sooner or later in their professional life students will be asked to speak in front of fellow students or employees. The needs analysis helps determine the topics students would like to give presentations about. Since it is necessary to ensure smooth progression and internal coherence in an ESP course, the plan of students' presentations should be established as early as the course programme is agreed upon. Questions generated by fellow students relating to the topic of the presentation may be a complementary element to the presentation in the form of either a starting point for the presentation by a student-expert in a given field, or in the form of a follow-up question and answer session. In this way the process of preparing the presentation becomes collaborative, as the presenter-expert can anticipate fellow students' expectations, or potential questions, and make sure the communication between him or her and the audience is effective.

7. Feedback on and assessment of students' performance in student-generated communication activities

Communication activities generated by students may be successfully employed in ESP classes as a regular classroom routine. As such they should also become opportunities for students' continuous assessment. It seems logical that student-generated tasks naturally promote peer feedback, not only feedback from the teacher. In fact, like needs analysis, peer feedback is another element in the cycle of developing active listening and collaboration.

Rubrics for assessing presentation skills are widely available and a lot of them take into account peer evaluation (de Chazal & Moore, 2013). It is advisable that peer evaluation is included in online customized surveys such as the ones offered by surveyplanet.com, which can provide the speaker with immediate feedback after his or her presentation. Collaborative feedback lets the presenter see if he or she has been able "to model the mind of the receiver in order to produce a message that the receiver is likely to interpret as intended" (Metusalem, Belenky & DiCerbo, 2017: 11). In other words, the author of the presentation has a chance to reflect whether the message has been structured in a way which effectively addresses the audience's knowledge, beliefs and culture.

Other student-generated communication activities presented in this paper require the teacher to create his or her own students' assessment rubrics. For

example, for the task of generating content-related questions and discussion questions the instructor may assign a specific number of points for every correctly formulated question, variety in question formation and students' contributions to discussing the content of the authentic material and topic-related problems. In brainstorming tasks the teacher's assessment procedure should counteract the common student strategy of using sentence fragments, or unfinished affirmative sentences for the purpose of asking questions, or making suggestions. Very often students neglect social conventions and do not take the time or the effort to formulate polite or tentative, well-pronounced queries or proposals. Students ought to be rewarded for meaningful and appropriately formulated contributions to collaborative brainstorming sessions. The teacher's task of remembering student's contributions is easy these days, as students can not only take part in a conversation, but can also be made responsible for keeping a record of their own proposals, or suggestions in real time with the help of collaborative digital tools such as *pl.padlet.com, or conceptboard.com, both of which are most convenient to use if an ESP class happens to be scheduled in a computer room.*

    In the translation tasks, apart from the feedback given by fellow students who select the best translation, the teacher should assess students' contributions in terms of accuracy and use of natural lexical combinations by assigning points for task achievement, word order, grammar, vocabulary choice and range.

    For collaborative tasks such as the translation task described above, a hybrid assessment procedure is recommended by Lai, DiCerbo and Foltz (2017: 20) since apart from "task demands, there are other considerations in designing assessment tasks such as group size, identifiability of individual contributions, and group composition." A hybrid assessment combines evaluation of group performance as well as individual participation in collaboration. Gathering evidence of individual contribution to a collaborative task may be based on the teacher's observation and, if time allows, students' own reflections on their involvement in the teamwork. Indicators of successful collaborative behaviour include, depending on the type of communication task, readiness to share ideas, turn-taking, asking for other people's points of view, handling miscommunication, identifying elements of problem-solving, or willingness to negotiate win-win solutions and reach consensus. The list of behaviour types which foster collaboration is much longer and has been compiled by Lai, DiCerbo and Foltz (2017) on the basis of recent studies in this field. It seems easier to assess selected collaboration indicators if students work in one big group and have the clearly defined roles of a meeting/discussion chairperson, a note-taking person, or meeting/discussion participants, etc.

8. Conclusion

The author of this article has frequently used student-generated communication activities in her coursework. The preparations for these tasks include, firstly, the choice of an authentic text, recording or video. The choice is guided by the syllabus negotiated with the students at the beginning of the course. Secondly, the planning stage involves making a list of useful expressions students will need during an activity. The truth is that these expressions need to be reviewed systematically if the participants' communication abilities are to resemble those of native speakers of English. Thirdly, the teacher needs to plan in advance how individual students' performance and group performance are going to be evaluated. Different collaboration and communication subskills require different assessment rubrics, which have to be announced to students in advance. If learners are aware how their contributions are going to be evaluated and how often this is going to take place, they tend to put more effort into performing the tasks and eventually in developing skills useful for employability. In the author's teaching context, on numerous occasions, well planned student-generated communication activities inspired pair and group collaboration as well as lively exchanges between students. Activities based on questions, suggestions or proposals produced by students are particularly highly recommended as they offer practice in effective direct or indirect question formation, which may be a challenging task both in the mother tongue and in the foreign language. Apart from interpersonal and collaboration skills, student-generated communication activities also develop autonomy, another essential skill in the workplace environment. Since students' specialist knowledge is usually much better than that of the teacher, student-generated activities tend to be to the point, up-to-date, or simply more pertinent to course or lesson objectives.

The student-generated oral communication tasks described in this paper might be naturally followed by collaborative written communication tasks, for example, writing email exchanges, memos or essays. Thanks to collaborative digital tools, the outcomes of student-generated communication activities can be saved for further reference and used as starting points for designing new tasks with clear assessment criteria.

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JOLANTA SUJECKA-ZAJĄC

KOMPETENTNY UCZEŃ NA LEKCJI JĘZYKA OBCEGO. WYZWANIA DLA GLOTTODYDAKTYKI MEDIACYJNEJ

LUBLIN: WERSET, 2016, 350 PP.

Keywords: mediation in language learning, learner autonomy, mediation dialogue

Słowa kluczowe: mediacja w glottodydaktyce, autonomia ucznia, dialog mediacyjny

The monograph by Jolanta Sujecka-Zając, *A competent learner in the language classroom. Challenges for the mediation approach to language teaching* focuses on the mediation approach to foreign language teaching, which is the author's own construct rooted both in mediation theory, which has been gaining ground in pedagogy, and the results of the author's own research. The author puts forward the model of a competent language learner based on Manager, Artist and Researcher profiles, which serves as a starting point for developing an individual learner profile in order to develop learner autonomy in language learning with the help of teaching and formative mediation. The model underwent a preliminary evaluation in a group of 17 high school students learning French as a foreign language.

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[1] The original text of the review was in Polish and was later translated by M. Zawacka-Najgeburska and authorized by the author of the review.

Autonomy in the language classroom has been studied and discussed by researchers since the 1980s after the individualization approach, popular in the 1970s, came in for a lot of criticism. However, despite wide interest in the topic of autonomy, most discussions are of purely theoretical nature, while empirical studies indicate that the principles are hard to follow in everyday teaching practice. This is why attempts to operationalize learner autonomy are well worth popularizing in academic circles so that the model can be further verified, also for other languages. It may be useful also in teacher training, first to develop trainees' own language skills, so that they can use them later when they become teachers.

The book, published by the Werset publishing house in 2016, comprises an introduction, three theoretical chapters, two chapters on the author's own research, final conclusions and 13 appendices with the tasks used in the research and transcripts of a mediation dialogue between a learner and the researcher, documenting the individual approach and the development of the participants' autonomy. The reference section is very comprehensive, comprising Polish, French and English resources. Two abstracts, one in French and the other in English, are also included. The book follows a typical academic structure and each chapter is closed with a summary.

The introduction offers a clear presentation of the author's reasons for studying how a competent learner develops through teaching and formative mediation, which is followed by a description of the topic of each chapter.

The first chapter (*The theory and practice of learning*) opens a discussion on the theory and practice of learning, starting from a presentation of models of various theorists, both psychologists and pedagogues, pointing to the characteristic features or to components of the process (1.1). Then the discussion moves on to the topic of setting objectives for the learning process itself, referring to recommendations from the "Delors Report" for UNESCO, which set out the "pillars of education" (1.2.1.). This is followed by a discussion of objectives in foreign language teaching. Relations between needs, tasks and competences are presented on a simple diagram from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR 2003). Sujecka-Zając provides more detail on the components of multilingual and multicultural competence and points to mutual relations between individual components (1.2.2.). Then the author singles out adaptive competence as a teaching objective, which, although not defined in the document, is still the overarching objective of education, as pointed out by the researchers cited by Sujecka-Zając (1.2.3.). In the next section (1.3.) the author characterizes conditions for effective learning, both in the context of older models (e.g. those where memory plays a key role), pointing out their limitations, and the recent models

put forward by researchers who opt for a different model of education and who represent various research domains, including brain-based learning which draws on results of neurological studies. Sujecka-Zając's critical remarks are supported with references to the empirical section of the book. As a result we get acquainted with an interesting perspective on theories of education. The author also analyzes the learning process in the context of contemporary theories and describes it on the basis of attributes she believes to be the most important, such as active construction of knowledge, cooperation, self-regulation and placement (1.4.). Each attribute is discussed in a separate section. The analysis extends to informal and non-formal learning (1.5.). The chapter ends with a summary. The first chapter gives the reader an in-depth analysis of the complex process of learning in the light of contemporary theories and studies, which is both accessible and well-supported by different sources.

The second chapter, entitled *From learning to knowing how to learn (savoir-apprendre)*, is devoted to the competences involved in the process of learning. Sujecka-Zając analyzes concepts such as knowledge and competence, which are close in meaning and thus often confused (2.1.); she classifies the ability to learn as a general competence (2.2.) and shows its place among other general competences, drawing on other researchers and referring to the constructs of CEFR. The author believes that the description of the ability to learn as presented in the CEFR document resembles more a description of the so-called "good learner" than learning competences, which she aptly demonstrates in the tables listing learning competences and other general competences alongside results of studies on the features of a good learner listed by various researchers (2.2.1. and 2.2.2.). The next two sections are devoted to different projects or models of the learning competence used in Europe and across the world. All information provided in these sections is firmly rooted in relevant sources, which makes them a valuable resource for other researchers. In the following sections the author touches on the topic of learning how to learn in the light of different European studies, with considerable attention devoted to the PISA project (2.3.). She also presents the results of a Polish research project on the development of the ability to learn in primary school and middle school students, pointing out that the results of the evaluation of Polish students in the PISA project were too optimistic (2.4.). She discusses the effectiveness of teaching languages in Poland, drawing on annual research reports by the Educational Research Institute, which include data on the state of education itself with reference to different levels (2.5.1.). Sujecka-Zając provides a more detailed analysis of the outcomes of research on language learning, placing them in the context of the PISA project, which pointed to Polish students' weak competence in deep cognitive processing. The author is right in

concluding that it may be the deficiency in that ability that is the cause of difficulties in language learning. She also emphasizes the possibilities that the theory of learning can bring to foreign language teaching methodology (2.5.2.).

In the third chapter (*The MAN model of a competent learner profile (…): the case of foreign language learning*) the author puts forward a model of a competent language learner profile, based on her own and other researchers' ideas (3.1.). Sujecka-Zając presents the results of her research on learner self-evaluation in the context of a number of factors which influence the development of competences, such as motivation, planning of learning, or self-efficacy (3.2.). The analysis and interpretation of the studies serve as a starting point for the development of a model of the profile of a competent learner: Manager-Artist-Researcher. The MAN acronym also has a metaphorical function (3.3.). The model includes the conceptions discussed in the theoretical chapters, and the description of individual components of the model, enriched with references to the conceptions of other researchers, in order to provide a convincing justification for the selection of its components. The description of the model is summarized in a table, where detailed aspects of each profile, along with references to relevant theories, are set out for each component of the MAN profile. The author emphasizes the need for a comprehensive view of the learner self-actualization process and the teacher involvement in developing language learning competence in learners. The MAN model is an interesting proposal of how to approach this, shedding a new light on learners' needs in terms of their ability to learn and difficulties they have to face when learning a language. This chapter sets the ground for Sujecka-Zając's research on the possibilities of directing the development of a competent learner, which is described in the fourth chapter and analyzed in detail in the fifth chapter.

The author points to *Dialogue as a tool of mediation in the teaching process* in the fourth chapter; she emphasizes the role of the teacher as an initiator of the dialogue, whose ultimate aim is to develop an open mind in the learner. Drawing on researchers both from Poland and abroad, she discusses frequent mistakes made by teachers and presents desirable conducts (4.1.). She refers to the pedagogical approaches of Vygotsky, Freinet and Feuerstein, which she believes may provide the remedies needed to improve school dialogue (4.2.). Sujecka-Zając compares teaching discourse and interactive discourse, studied by a number of researchers of the communication process. She considers the former to be a type of the latter and points out weaknesses of the interactive discourse in the classroom environment (4.3.). The author highlights the role of the teaching dialogue in eliciting intrapsychic processes, while at the same time claiming that the dialogue should go beyond purely cognitive objectives, and emphasizing the intersubjectivity of the process where two individuals

meet, or even clash. This process is exactly the thing that enables the desirable change in the intrasubjective dimension (4.4.). Next, Sujecka-Zając describes the features of the teaching dialogue in the context of La Garanderi's pedagogical approach (4.5.), Vermersch's explanatory interview (4.6.) and Perrudeau and Pagonia's cognitive interview for learning purposes. She highlights the points of convergence of these conceptions and considers teaching dialogue and explanatory interview as examples of possible cognitive mediation. The chapter ends with a description of the premises of her research project focusing on the use of teaching and formative dialogue and applied in her research methodology (4.8.). The study was carried out in the first and second grade of a Warsaw high school. The researcher conducted and recorded individual mediation dialogues with learners who had difficulties in learning French as a foreign language. The students had to solve a task in the language, which was followed by a mediation dialogue with the researcher. The dialogue was introspective and was conducted in Polish. The author characterizes the criteria for constructing a teaching and formative dialogue on the basis of the criteria of validity, reliability and internal consistency, used by her while conducting the mediation dialogue with the participants of the study. At this point the author also formulates her research questions concerning the role of this dialogue in teaching.

The fifth chapter, *The teaching and formative dialogue in the development of the competent learner profile. Research report (part II)*, is made up of three parts in which the author presents the details of her study and summarizes the results. Section 5.1 presents an analysis of sample dialogues with four participants. The dialogues were selected to illustrate the possibilities afforded by the teaching and formative dialogue in developing learner awareness of their own cognitive activity and of the competent learner profile. The selected dialogues were presented in the order determined by the learner's individual code, description of the task and transcription of each episode. This is followed by the author's commentary and summary information on each participant (in the form of a table), including information on the stage of the dialogue to which a given episode belongs, the outcome of the introspection emerging in the dialogue and which activities within the MAN profile were stimulated by the dialogue. Next, the author reflects on the roles adopted by the dialogue participants, problems which appeared during their task solving as well as possible activities which could help to remove the obstacles (5.2). Next (5.3.), the data for all the participants (n=17) are analyzed and presented in a table (including the learner code, cognitive profile, its strengths and weaknesses, mediation activities following from the introspection and dialogues, and the ways of developing the components of the MAN profile in a given case). Then, the author uses the data from the study to answer the research questions. She

discusses learners' ability to look into their cognitive processes, reflection on those processes and its impact on the subject matter elicited, possibilities of observing the introspection process which led to knowledge restructuring, other observable effects with respect to the MAN model, and the type of areas where the effects are visible, and finally, the possibility of using the teaching and formative dialogue in the language classroom. The author refers to specific dialogues in the data analysis, pointing out both difficulties and opportunities generated by the dialogue. She also shares with the reader her reflections on her actions in the mediating dialogue in the dual role of researcher and participant. From the viewpoint of future researchers this chapter is the most valuable, as the MAN model certainly needs further studies due to the small number of participants, the possibility that some difficulties might be specific to the French language, and finally, the possible impact of her academic background.

The last chapter of the book, *Mediation approach to language teaching and the development of a competent learner*, focuses on the mediation process. Sujecka-Zając discusses the role of mediation in the educational process as a reconciliatory measure taken in the event of conflict, which has been studied and used as part of remedial measures both in Poland and abroad. She also points to the need to take up issues which are rarely investigated by researchers, namely mediation in the psychological and cognitive conflict present in the learner. The author observes that while differences between cultures, value systems, social norms, etc. have been studied by multilingualism and multiculturalism researchers, cognitive dissonance related to the language system itself has drawn considerably less attention. The author highlights that the teacher who simply informs the learner of the conflict is less effective than the teacher who also acts as a mediator. Habits that a learner uses when applying learning strategies which hamper the development of learning styles, or conflicts between the individual components of the MAN model may be a good starting point for such a mediation. For this reason the author believes that both teaching and cognitive mediation are closely intertwined components of the educational process, with the teacher-mediator playing a key role (6.1.). The two parts of this section focus on mediation in two opposing paradigms (normative and relational) and on the place of the mediator in the mediation space. Then the author provides a detailed description of mediation activities of a teacher in a language classroom (6.2.), taking as the starting point the three stages distinguished in studies on strategic activity, i.e.: preparation for execution of a task (anticipation), content presentation (activity) and implementation and transfer of the message (self-reflection). A description of each stage also includes a discussion of subsequent substages. The mediation activity of the teacher during individual lesson stages is also presented in a table broken down into its stage, the individual steps in it, and mediation

activities within the MAN model. Reflections on mediation itself and the teacher's mediation activities lead Sujecka-Zając to conclude that the concepts should become part of the epistemology of teaching as a logical consequence of normative and relational paradigms. The need for this change has also been made evident from the historical perspective because of the shift of emphasis in the configuration of individual elements of the teaching system, i.e. the teacher-learner relationship. The author observes that the mediation approach is compatible with the principles of language education as presented in the CEFR. Then sample challenges for the mediation approach to language teaching are presented and placed in the context of learner cognitive, emotional and decisive potential, as well as personal social skills. The mediation approach to language teaching treats the learner as an agent of the learning process and triggers qualitative changes in understanding how learners learn and perceive themselves in the learning process. As Sujecka-Zając emphasizes, this approach is not just a reaction to a conflict and a remedial measure, "but an intentional activity of the teacher aiming at implementing teaching mediation practice, which is initiated by the teacher herself and then followed by the implementation of cognitive and affective mediation by the learner" (p. 249). The mediation approach to language teaching changes not only our perception of knowledge, but also of the learner. At the end of the chapter, the author cites other sources to show the benefits of applying the mediation approach (6.3.).

The monograph ends with short *Final conclusions*, providing a summary of the relevant literature review and the author's own research.

Sujecka-Zając's book is a valuable addition to the library of anyone involved in teacher training or in research, either when doing their own research, or when supervising other people's research projects. The book provides the reader with a view of the teaching and learning process from a less common-perspective, which is especially interesting in the light of oft-repeated calls for a reflexive approach to teaching. The model proposed in the book certainly needs to be studied more. For example, the perspective of the outside researcher, employed in this study, may be replaced with a perspective of a participating researcher. Group tasks, embracing current trends in language teaching, may allow researchers to temporarily exclude one learner from the group so as to include him/her in the mediation activities suggested by the author. As teachers are usually creative, a range of other possibilities is certain to develop.

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LIST OF REVIEWERS

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