

GLOTTO DIDACTICA

GLOTTODIDACTICA

GLOTTODIDACTICA
An International Journal of Applied Linguistics
Founding Editor: Prof. Dr. Ludwik Zabrocki
Honorary Editor: Prof. Dr. Waldemar Pfeiffer

Ausgabe / Issue 48/1

Redaktor naczelna / Herausgeberin / Editor in Chief
prof. UAM dr hab. Sylwia Adamczak-Krzysztofowicz

Zastępca redaktor naczelnej / Mitherausgeberin / Deputy Editor in Chief
prof. UAM dr hab. Anna Szczepaniak-Kozak

Rada Naukowa / Wissenschaftlicher Beirat / Academic Advisory Board

prof. dr Ruth Albert, the Philipps University of Marburg, Germany
prof. dr Bernhard Brehmer, the University of Greifswald, Germany
prof. dr Grace Chen-Hsiu Kuo, the National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan
prof. dr Dmitrij Dobrovolskij, the Russian Language Institute in Moscow, Russia / Austrian
Academy for Sciences in Vienna, Austria
prof. dr Michael Düring, Christian Albrecht University in Kiel, Germany
prof. dr hab. Maria Carmen Fonseca Mora, the University of Huelva, Spain
prof. dr Albert Gouaffo, the University of de Dschang, Cameroon
prof. dr hab. Franciszek Grucza, the University of Social Sciences in Warsaw, Poland
prof. dr Britta Hufeisen, the University of Technical Sciences in Darmstadt, Germany
prof. dr Catalina Jiménez Hurtado, the University of Granada, Spain
prof. dr Limin Jin, Beijing Foreign Studies University in Beijing, China
prof. dr Gabriella Klein, the University of Perugia, Italy
prof. dr Kurt Kohn, Eberhard Karls University in Tübingen, Germany
prof. dr hab. Hanna Komorowska, the University of Warsaw / The University of Social Sciences, Poland
prof. dr Olga Kostrova, the State University in Samara, Russia
prof. dr hab. Hadrian Lankiewicz, the University of Gdańsk, Poland
prof. dr Clare Mar-Molinero, the University of Southampton, Great Britain
prof. dr hab. Paweł Mecner, the University of Szczecin, Poland
prof. dr Bernd Müller-Jacquier, the University of Bayreuth, Germany
prof. dr Norbert Nübler, Christian Albrecht University in Kiel, Germany
prof. dr Gina Oxbrow, the University of Gran Canaria in Las Palmas, Spain
prof. dr Claudia Riemer, the University of Bielefeld, Germany
prof. dr Paul Sars, the Radboud University in Nijmegen, the Netherlands
prof. dr David S. Singleton, the Trinity College Dublin, Ireland
prof. dr Hassan Soleimani, Payame Noor University, Iran
prof. dr hab. Marian Szczodrowski, Ateneum University, Gdańsk, Poland
prof. dr Qiufang Wen, Beijing Foreign Studies University, China
prof. dr Iwar Werlen, the University of Bern, Switzerland

Rada redakcyjna / Redaktionsbeirat / Advisory Board
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland:
prof. Jerzy Bańcerowski, prof. Antoni Markunas, prof. Stanisław Puppel,
prof. Teresa Tomaszewicz, prof. Weronika Wilczyńska, prof. Stephan Wolting

UNIwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu

GŁOTTO DIDACTICA

VOLUME XLVIII/1



POZNAN 2021

Adres redakcji
Instytut Lingwistyki Stosowanej UAM
Collegium Novum, al. Niepodległości 4
60-874 Poznań, Poland
tel. +48 61 829 29 25, tel. / faks +48 61 829 29 26
<https://pressto.amu.edu.pl/index.php/gl> e-mail: glotto@amu.edu.pl

Redaktor naczelna / Herausgeberin / Editor in Chief
prof. UAM dr hab. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz
Zastępca redaktor naczelnej / Mitherausgeberin / Deputy Editor in Chief
prof. UAM dr hab. Anna Szczepaniak-Kozak
Redaktor statystyczny / Statistische Mitarbeit / Statistical Editor
prof. UAM dr hab. Katarzyna Klessa
Sekretarze redakcji / Redaktionssekretärinnen / Secretaries to the Editorial Board
dr Joanna Kic-Drgas (język niemiecki i angielski)
dr Joanna Woźniak (język niemiecki i francuski)
Asystentka redakcji / redaktionelle Mitarbeit / editorial Assistant
mgr Anna Kurzaj
Redaktorzy językowi / Sprachliche Mitarbeit / Language Editors
Graham Knox-Crawford
Johann Görzen

Publikacja finansowana przez
Instytut Lingwistyki Stosowanej Uniwersytetu im. Adama Mickiewicza
w Poznaniu

Czasopismo „Glottodidactica” jest indeksowane w bazach:
EBSCO, ERIH PLUS, ProQuest, Index Copernicus International, PKP Index,
Google Scholar, WorldCat, FRANCIS, PASCAL, Linguistic Bibliography, Linguistics
& Language Behavior Abstracts, Modern Language Association Database (MLA),
CEJSH

© Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu,
Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM, Poznań 2021

ISSN 0072-4769

CONTENTS

I. ARTICLES

GRAHAM BURTON (Bolzano): 'Are you going to go?' Putting a pedagogical grammar rule under the corpus spotlight.....	7
JAN ILUK (Katowice): Methodischer Ansatz zur Simulation wissenschaftlichen Schreibens im Fremdsprachenstudium: Vorgehensweise und Probleme bei Vermittlung und Erwerb wissenschaftlicher Textprozeduren	27
GRZEGORZ LISEK (Greifswald): Über <i>ból</i> und <i>symptomy</i> ... Wortschatz im Polnischunterricht für deutschsprachige Rettungskräfte	45
PAOLO NITTI (Varese) / GIULIO FACCHETTI (Varese): The perception of languages by Italian native speakers.....	63
KATARZYNA ROKOSZEWSKA (Częstochowa): The relationships between the average semester growth rates of lexical sophistication in L2 English writing at secondary school: A learner corpus analysis.....	81
ANTONIO TAGLIALATELA (Viterbo): Authenticity and awareness of English as a lingua franca in English language classrooms	103

II. BOOK REVIEWS

MAŁGORZATA BANACH (Kraków): Przemysław Gębal / Władysław Miodunka. <i>Dydaktyka i metodyka nauczania języka polskiego jako obcego i drugiego / Didactics and methodology of teaching Polish as a foreign and second language</i> . Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN. 2020. Pp. 454	123
BARBARA SKOWRONEK (Poznań): Grażyna Zenderowska-Korpus. <i>Phraseme in Textsorten</i> . Landau: Verlag Empirische Pädagogik. 2020. S. 233	127
MARTA ZAWACKA-NAJGEBURSKA (Poznań): Elżbieta Gajewska, Magdalena Sowa, Joanna Kic-Drgas. <i>Filologia wobec wyzwań komunikacji specjalistycznej. Od współpracy z biznesem po kształcenie nauczycieli</i> . Poznań: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM. 2020. Pp. 238... ..	131

III. REPORTS

MAGDALENA JUREWICZ (Poznań) / PAWEŁ KUBIAK (Poznań): Bericht über die Jubiläumsfeier zum 70. Geburtstag von Prof. Dr. habil. Izabela Prokop	135
---	-----

MAREK KRAWIEC (Środa Wielkopolska): Conference report: Academic conference "Perspektywy kształcenia nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych w Polsce" (Per- spectives on educating LSP teachers in Poland), Institute of Applied Linguistics of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, 20 th October 2020	137
--	-----

I. ARTICLES

GRAHAM BURTON

Facoltà di Scienze della Formazione, Libera Università di Bolzano

‘Are you going to go?’ Putting a pedagogical grammar rule under the corpus spotlight

ABSTRACT. A rule stating that we tend to avoid using *go* and *come* after the future marker *going to* appears again and again in many coursebooks and grammars used in English Language Teaching, and has done for decades. This article attempts to show, using empirical evidence from corpora, why the rule is inaccurate, and different ways that this might be established. As the rule under consideration is typically framed as a tendency (like many other pedagogical grammar rules), an additional aim of the work is to outline the kinds of corpus analyses researchers and materials designers can potentially use in order to investigate the question of (claimed) linguistic tendencies. The article concludes by discussing why a rule that is apparently inaccurate nevertheless appears again and again in print, arguing that the existence of a well-established and widely-accepted ‘canon’ of ELT grammar means that such inaccuracies in descriptions of grammar can be easily perpetuated.

KEYWORDS: English Language Teaching, pedagogical grammar, coursebooks, materials design, corpus linguistics.

1. INTRODUCTION

When learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) study the future form *going to*, they are typically taught that it is used to express two future functions: talking about plans and intentions, and making predictions when there is present evidence. For example, Raymond Murphy’s *English grammar in use* (Murphy 2019: 40) defines these two uses as follows:

I am going to do something = I have already decided to do it, I intend to do it. [...]
When we say that ‘something is going to happen’, the situation now makes this clear.

However, in many pedagogical grammars and coursebooks, an extra rule is often given. It is a rule that is rarely given a great deal of prominence (in the case of coursebooks, it is often included in a grammar reference section at the back of the book, rather than in the main lesson sections). Nevertheless, it appears repeatedly, in many different publications, and, as will be seen later in this article, has been appearing repeatedly for nearly a century. The rule in question is that which states that we do not usually use the verb *go* after the future marker *going to*. This rule, or some variation of it, can be found in both coursebooks and practice grammars.

The aim of this article is twofold. Firstly, it attempts to assess the veracity of the rule, by comparing it to corpus evidence, in order to ascertain whether or not it should be taught to learners of EFL. However, as will be seen, the fact that the rule is typically phrased as a tendency brings complications to this kind of comparison, and the second aim of this article is therefore to explore how a claimed linguistic ‘tendency’ might be confirmed, or refuted, through corpus evidence.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. *Going to go* in English Language Teaching descriptions

In materials used in English Language Teaching (ELT), the rule outlawing *going to go* is diffuse, although not ubiquitous, and can be found in a variety of publications. It appears, for example, in three of the most popular General (British) English coursebook series for adults: *Headway* (Oxford University Press), *New English file* (Oxford University Press) and *Face2face* (Cambridge University Press). It can also be found in a number of recent pedagogical grammars, including *MyGrammarLab advanced* (Foley & Hall 2012a) and *Oxford practice grammar* (Eastwood 2003). It also features in a pedagogical grammar aimed at teachers of EFL, *A concise grammar for English language teachers* (Penston 2009). On the other hand, the rule is absent in three of the most influential pedagogical grammars in the last few decades: Murphy’s *English grammar in use* (2019), Azar and Hagen’s *Fundamentals of English grammar* (2011) and Swan’s *Practical English usage* (2016).

Looking at the rule in more detail, it becomes apparent that there are actually three versions. The first, and most limited version, states that the restriction after *going to* applies only to the verb *go*. The second version says it applies not only to *go* but also to *come*. Finally, the strongest version states that it applies to ‘verbs of movement’ in general. Table 1 summarises the three different versions of the rule, with an example for each version from published ELT materials.

Table 1. The three versions of the *going to* rule

Restriction	Examples
<i>go</i> after <i>going to</i>	“With the verb <i>go</i> , we usually say, <i>I’m going to Italy</i> . not <i>I’m going to go to Italy</i> . but both are correct.” (Redston & Cunningham 2005: 129)
<i>go</i> and <i>come</i> after <i>going to</i>	“We usually avoid <i>be going to</i> with the verbs <i>go</i> and <i>come</i> .” (Foley & Hall 2012a: 124)
verbs of movement after <i>going to</i>	“With verbs of movement, especially <i>go</i> and <i>come</i> , we often use the present continuous rather than <i>going to</i> .” (Eastwood 1994: 97)

One important characteristic of the way that the *going to* rule is expressed is that it is invariably described in relative rather than absolute terms; the claim is that speakers ‘tend not to’ produce or ‘avoid’ producing forms like *going to go* or *going to come*, not that speakers never produce them. This kind of wording is not unusual in pedagogical grammar rules, and it is easy to find similar phrasing in rules relating to other areas of grammar. The following are all examples of similarly worded rules, taken from the titles mentioned at the beginning of this section:

“We don’t usually use *going to* in short answers: *Yes, she is*. NOT *Yes, she’s going to*.” (*Face2face pre-intermediate student’s book*, Redston & Cunningham 2005)

“We usually use the past simple, not the past perfect if the series of actions is clear.” (*MyGrammarLab: intermediate*, Foley & Hall 2012b)

“We don’t usually use activity / state verbs in continuous verb forms.” (*Face2face upper intermediate student’s book*, Redston & Cunningham 2016)

“We don’t usually say *a bike / bag of hers* (unstressed), etc, but we do say *a friend / daughter / student / play of hers*, etc, showing that what is possessed is usually a (indefinite) person or creative work.” (*A concise grammar for English language teachers*, Penston 2009)

“We do not usually say *a milk* or *two soups*.” (*Oxford practice grammar*, Eastwood 2003)

It is perhaps understandable why pedagogical grammar rules for learners of EFL are sometimes framed in this way. Firstly, stating that we ‘don’t usually / normally say X’ is essentially a frequency-based argument: it is equivalent to saying ‘It is infrequent to say X’, with the implication that since native speakers say X infrequently, then learners also ought not to say it frequently, because to do so would be a mistake. Frequency-based arguments in grammar descriptions are well established in ELT pedagogical grammar, going back to at least the first half of the twentieth century; for example, W.S. Allen, in his hugely successful grammar *Living English structure* (1947: vii), speaks of using ‘personal structure counts’ in its construction and this has continued into the present (see, for example, Biber & Reppen’s [2002] frequency-based arguments on how grammar

syllabuses for EFL should be revised in order to reflect usage, as shown by corpus-based frequency studies).

It is also possible to see such wordings as a form of ‘hedge’, that is to say, the use of a linguistic device which allows an author to display a “lack of commitment to the truth of a statement or a desire not to express that commitment categorically” (Richards & Schmidt 2007: 237); in this case, it is the truth of a pedagogical grammar rule to which a materials designer, choosing to word the rule in this way, attempts to withhold complete commitment. The idea that a grammarian might provide a grammar rule that she or he does not believe to be entirely true is not controversial; the ELT grammarian Michael Swan, in discussing ‘design criteria’ for pedagogical grammar rules, states that while it is “desirable to tell learners the truth [...], one will often need to compromise with truth for the sake of clarity, simplicity, conceptual parsimony or relevance” (Swan 1994: 46).

2.2. *Going to* in general grammatical descriptions

The situation in more general grammatical descriptions of English is markedly different. There is no reference to restrictions on verb choice after *going to* in major academic grammars such as *The Cambridge grammar of the English language* (Huddleston & Pullum 2002), *The Cambridge grammar of English* (Carter & McCarthy 2006) and *A comprehensive grammar of the English language* (Quirk, Leech & Greenbaum 1985).

One relatively recent exception is Declerck, Reed and Cappelle (2006) *The grammar of the English tense system: A comprehensive analysis*, which states that “the use of *be going to* sounds rather awkward before *go* and *come*” (2006: 355). Again, the analysis is worded as a tendency, with the authors claiming that “[p]ople therefore tend to use the present progressive form of these verbs instead”. However, later in the very same title the example sentence ‘I was going to go to Cuba this summer’ (2006: 581) is given to illustrate the discussion of a completely different area of grammar, without any reference to awkwardness in the combination of *going to* and *go*.

2.3. Historical references

As shown in the previous sections, the rule outlawing *going to* before *go*, *come* and verbs of movement is often found in contemporary ELT accounts, but not typically found in general grammars. This section will consider the historical

aspect; what, if anything, do older grammars and older ELT materials have to say about restrictions on verbs after *going to*?

A search of the HUGE database – a searchable corpus of English grammars and usage guides for the period 1770–2010 (see huge.ullet.net) – produces only one hit for the phrase *going to go*, from Fitzgerald's (1901) *Word and phrase*. In this grammar, the phrase is mentioned disapprovingly but only in passing, along with the use of *going to* more generally, in a section sub-titled "A group of slovenly phrases":

'Going to go' is plainly inelegant and almost fatuous, however idiomatic and customary it may be; but the use of "I am going to" do this or that, as a habitual mode of expressing purpose to perform an action, is almost as objectionable (Fitzgerald 1901: 333).

That only one title in the HUGE database mentions *going to go* at all shows that little attention has been paid historically to verb choice after *going to* and that the restrictions reported in ELT accounts do not originate in the famously prescriptive older grammars of English (see Locher [2008] for an account of how prescriptivism became rife in English grammars from the 18th century onwards). Further, Fitzgerald's decision to mention *going to go* at all, and the wording of his comment "however idiomatic and customary it may be", very strongly imply that the phrase was widely used, and not avoided at all, despite his personal dislike of it.

The wave of descriptive (sometimes also known as 'scientific') grammars of English that appeared around the turn of the 20th century also have nothing to say about phrases such as *going to go*. A rule stating that it is avoided or should not be used cannot be found in well-known titles such as Nesfield's (1898) *English grammar past and present*, Sweet's (1898) *A new English grammar, logical and historical*, and Kruisinga's (1931) *A handbook of present-day English*. Interestingly, Jespersen's (1933) *Essentials of English grammar* actually refers to the fact that it is possible to say *going to come* and *going to go*, in order to make the point (illustrated with examples from Dickens) that "*going* has become a mere grammatical implement and no longer implies any movement" (Jespersen 1933: 268).

The situation seems to have changed with the publication of Harold Palmer's (1924) *A grammar of spoken English on a strictly phonetic basis*. This was a highly innovative grammar "", intended to be used chiefly (but not exclusively) by foreign adult students of English" (Palmer 1924: xxx), and is explicit in its proscription: the verbs *come* and *go*, states Palmer, are "generally excluded from this category", in other words, excluded from the category of verbs used after *going to* (Palmer 1924: 280). Subsequent to this, versions of the rule can be found in widely used ELT pedagogical grammars such as *A practical English grammar* (Thomson &

Martinet 1960/1969), and *Longman English grammar* (Alexander 1998). On the other hand, the rule is missing from W. Stannard Allen's (1947) *Living English structure*, a hugely successful early pedagogical grammar.

In short, an analysis of historical and contemporary primary literature suggests that the rule outlawing *go*, *come* and other verbs of movement is a relatively recent development, appearing only in the early 20th century. Furthermore, it is almost exclusively associated with accounts provided in ELT materials, and is rarely found in more general accounts of English grammar.

2.4. Corpus-based critiques

As stated, one of the aims of this paper is to provide a critique of the pedagogical grammar rule under examination, with reference to corpus evidence. As Swan (1994) has argued, pedagogical grammar rules are born of a series of often conflicting criteria, and from this point of view, it is therefore perhaps unsurprising that a number of studies have called into question the accuracy of many aspects of grammatical accounts of EFL that appear in print.

There have been few studies dealing specifically with the coverage of future forms in ELT grammar explanations, and none to specifically focus on the *going to* rule. More general examinations of the semantics and pragmatics of *going to* have been carried out, e.g. Brisard (2001). However, Close (1970a, b) reviews the coverage of future forms in older grammars and suggests a possible four-way pedagogical classification system for futurity. Tregidgo (1980) discusses the uses of *will* and *shall* in contemporary English, recommending teaching points up to Intermediate levels; and Locke (1986) discusses three different uses of the future continuous, criticising the coverage of the form in many ELT accounts.

More generally, however, tense and aspect have constituted an area for corpus-based investigation of published ELT materials. For example, Shortall's (2007) study focussed on treatments of the present perfect in coursebooks, comparing them to corpus evidence. Römer (2005) compared coverage of simple and progressive forms in coursebooks with corpus evidence, and Vandenhoeck (2018) examined the representation of the past perfect in coursebooks, again comparing this to evidence from corpora. Other examples of studies to have compared corpus evidence to the presentation of grammar in teaching materials for EFL include those focussing on conditional structures (Frazier 2003; Gabrielatos 2003, 2006; Jones & Waller 2011), reported speech (Barbieri & Eckhardt 2007) and the adverb *though* (Conrad 2004).

The conclusions of such studies are typically that the teaching materials examined misrepresent actual usage identified through corpus analysis; nonetheless,

the grammatical descriptions in coursebooks and pedagogical grammars have remained unchanged. Possible explanations offered for this have related to questions of whether corpus data taken outside its original context is still authentic (Prodromou 2003), or whether non-corpus data might be favoured over corpus data for pedagogical reasons (Carter 1998; Cook 1998; Shortall 2007; Timmis 2015). On the other hand, Burton (2012) found that many coursebook writers simply do not have the time or have not had the training to use corpora, and, in some cases, have little interest in or motivation to use them. The commercial aspect is also likely to be significant; publishers around the world are likely to be hesitant about changing or updating grammatical descriptions, fearing that teachers can be easily alienated (Burton 2012; Littlejohn 1992). We will return to this point later in this article.

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main aim of this article is to assess, by reference to corpus evidence, the validity of the oft-repeated statement, found in many pedagogical grammar treatments for EFL, that we tend to avoid using the verbs *go*, *come* or, more generally, verbs of movement, after the future marker *going to*. Only the behaviour of the verbs *go* and *come* is considered; since these are both 'verbs of movement', any observations made about their behaviour can also logically be applied to the broader version of the rule that includes verbs of movement.

As we have seen, the rule under examination is typically hedged – that is, stated as a tendency. A rule simply stating that the verbs *go* and *come* cannot be used after *going to* would be relatively easy to refute using frequency evidence from corpora; the only difficulty would be in establishing the minimum number of instances of *going to go* or *going to come* in the corpus that could be considered sufficient evidence to disprove it. However, when a rule is expressed as a tendency, the situation becomes more complicated, since it would always predict or allow a certain number of attested incidences without automatically being considered false. This paper will therefore also address the question of which kinds of corpus tests can be employed in order to investigate a (claimed) linguistic tendency. The two research questions under investigation are therefore as follows:

- RQ1: Does corpus evidence show speakers of English tend to avoid using the verbs *go* and *come* after the future marker *going to*?
- RQ2: More generally, how can claims of tendencies of this type be confirmed or refuted with evidence from corpora?

4. METHODOLOGY

Two corpora were selected for the basic assessment of the rule: the British National Corpus (the 'BNC': a 100-million word corpus of British English speech and writing), and the Corpus of Contemporary American English ('COCA': a 560-million word corpus of American English speech and writing). These two relatively large corpora were chosen in order to access a large sample of language, crucial when attempting to address the question of whether or not, and to what extent, a particular structure is attested in real language. Both corpora also contain both spoken and written data, which was felt desirable. The reason for consulting both the American English COCA in addition to the British English BNC was that this writer is not aware of any American English ELT publications to include the *going to* rule; the possibility of different uses in American English and British English could therefore be investigated. Both corpora were accessed through the BYU platform (www.english-corpora.org).

A number of different tests were devised in order to attempt to assess the purported rule. These can be roughly divided into three categories, as follows.

4.1. Test type 1: Raw frequency

The first type of evidence to be collected related to raw frequency. Searches were carried out in both corpora for the multi-word units (O'Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter 2007) *going to go* and *going to come*, to ascertain whether or not they were attested at all. Following this, the fifteen most common *going to* + infinitive chunks and their frequencies in the BNC and COCA were identified, in order to compare – again at the level of raw frequency – the behaviour of *go* and *come* after *going to* with the behaviour of other verbs in the same environment.

4.2. Test type 2: *go* / *come* vs. similarly frequent verbs

One problem with data related to raw frequency is that it does not address the question of a linguistic *tendency*. Information on the frequency of phenomenon X in environment Y cannot tell us alone whether that frequency is lower than might otherwise be expected: in other words, whether speakers *tend to* avoid (although do not completely avoid) X in environment Y. To address this, it was decided to consider the behaviour of two additional verbs in the same environment; the verbs *say* and *take* were selected, as they, as lemmas, have a similar overall frequency in the BNC to *go* and *come* as lemmas [for *go* and *say*,

this is 236,135 and 311,997 respectively, and for *come* and *take* it is 143,137 and 171,684 respectively (Kilgarriff 2006)].

A number of different comparisons were carried out. Firstly, the frequencies of *go* and *come*, and of *say* and *take*, were compared, in order to ascertain whether the verbs *go* and *come* were relatively less frequent after *going to* than the verb which they had been paired with. Since both *say* and *take* have a similar overall frequency to *go* and *come*, should they also have a similar frequency after *going to*, this would suggest that the 'effect' of *going to* applies equally to all four verbs, and that the rule is therefore untrue.

Again, however, there are possible objections to such a test. As Kilgarriff (2005) has argued, language is not random. Differences between the relative frequencies of *go* and *come* after *going to*, compared to those of *say* and *take*, may be influenced by other factors. In particular, given that *going to* is frequently used to talk about actions about which a decision has already been made (Carter & McCarthy 2006), it may simply be more common to talk about decisions about travel in the future (i.e. using the verb *go*) than decisions about *saying* something in the future, which would make interpretations based on the comparison described above potentially problematic. The same speculative logic could also be applied to *come* and *take*: there might be a reason why we use one more than the other – beyond the presence or otherwise of *going to* – when talking about the future.

In order to address this potential objection, a second comparison was carried out. If it is true that speakers generally prefer to talk about *going somewhere* in the future as opposed to *saying something* in the future, then this should also be reflected in the frequencies of the verbs *say* and *go* after another future marker, *will*. The relative frequencies of *will go* and *will say* were therefore established, and compared to the relative frequencies of *going to go* and *going to say*.

However, similar objections can also be raised about this kind of test. Like *going to*, the modal verb *will* is associated with particular functions, for example making offers (Carter & McCarthy 2006), and it may be the case that the frequency figures are influenced by this (we may need to communicate more frequently, for example, an offer to go somewhere as opposed to an offer to say something). The comparison in the previous paragraph was therefore extended to a further three verbs with a similar overall frequency in the BNC to *go* (according to Kilgarriff (2006), namely *get*, *make* and *take*).

4.3. Test 3: Co-occurrence information

The third type of test makes use of corpus data on co-occurrence frequency, that is to say, how frequently two elements co-occur; in the case of this study,

these two elements are a particular verb and the structure *going to*. We are essentially interested in how frequently verb form X appears in the corpus in environment Y (in other words, after *going to*), as a percentage of the total number of times that verb X appears in the corpus.

Co-occurrence information on the verbs *go* and *come* by themselves is not particularly useful and must be contextualised in some way. Two approaches were carried out to address this. Firstly, the analysis was extended to the ten most common lexical verbs in the BNC (retrieved from Leech, Rayson & Wilson 2001); both *go* and *come* are among the verbs in this list. The co-occurrence frequency of each verb after *going to*, as a percentage of overall frequency of the verb in the corpus, was calculated for all ten verbs, in order to provide a broader overall picture of the behaviour of *go* and *come* after *going to*, in comparison with the behaviour of other verbs in the same environment – essentially to ascertain whether *go* and *come* behave any differently from other common verbs when they appear after *going to*.

Following this, two statistical measures of association were employed: Pointwise Mutual Information Score and Odds Ratio (see Gries [in press] for an overview). These measures indicate whether two elements – in the present study, a particular verb, and the structure *going to* – co-occur more often or less often than expected (or at a frequency that would be expected by chance). To carry out these statistical tests, contingency tables were created for the ten verbs, considering the frequency of the verb immediately after *going to*, and its frequency in the corpus overall; following this, the statistical tests were carried out using Microsoft Excel.

5. RESULTS

5.1. Test type 1: Raw frequency

The BNC yields 584 examples of *going to go* (5.84 per million words) and 310 examples of *going to come* (3.1 per million words). Turning to American English, the number of hits in COCA for *going to go* is 13,366 (23.14 per million words), and for *going to come* it is 6,436 (11.14 per million words). Clearly, then, both forms can said to be attested – to a certain extent – in the BNC and COCA. These figures also clearly indicate that both forms are more frequent in American English than British English: *going to go* is almost four times as frequent, and *going to come* is 3.6 times as frequent. However, it should also be noted that *going to* followed by any infinitive is 2.9 times more frequent in COCA compared to the BNC: it appears 772.76 times per million words in the former, compared to 269.04 in the latter, which may go some way to explaining this difference.

As we have said, however, frequency alone cannot address the question of the ‘tendency’ suggested by the hedged rule; the strings *going to go* and *going to come* must be contextualised in some way in order to better judge the raw frequency figures. One way to assess the veracity of this hedged rule is to look at all *going to* + verb combinations, and see if *going to go* and *going to come* are among the most frequent of these combinations.

Table 2 shows the 15 most common *going to* + infinitive chunks and their frequencies in the BNC and COCA. As can be seen, there does not seem to be anything particularly infrequent about *going to go* and *going to come*: the string *going to go* is the eighth most frequent *going to* + infinitive chunk in the BNC, and the fifth most in COCA, while *going to come* is ranked fourteenth and eleventh respectively. Again, both forms are comparatively more frequent in American English, but neither appears to be particularly low in frequency. Furthermore, while both are much less frequent than the combinations at the top of the list, it should be borne in mind that *be* – the most common verb to follow *going to* – can be part of a passive or continuous structure with a different main verb (for example, *going to be finished*, or *going to be watching*), and that *do* and *have* – second and third on the list – can also operate as auxiliaries, meaning that alternative lexical verbs may be found (or be implicit) elsewhere in the clause.

In short, both the raw frequency data for *going to go* and *going to come*, and that same frequency data contextualised, through a comparison with other *going to* + infinitive chunks, suggest that the rule under consideration is inaccurate. Since the data from COCA show that both *going to go* and *going to come* are more frequent in American English than in British English, the rest of the analysis in this paper will consider only data from the BNC.

Table 2. The 15 most common *going to* + infinitive chunks in the BNC and COCA

Rank	BNC		COCA	
	multi-word unit	frequency	multi-word unit	frequency
1	<i>going to be</i>	5866	<i>going to be</i>	99962
2	<i>going to do</i>	1770	<i>going to have</i>	31037
3	<i>going to have</i>	1594	<i>going to do</i>	23478
4	<i>going to get</i>	1328	<i>going to get</i>	21119
5	<i>going to say</i>	606	<i>going to go</i>	13363
6	<i>going to take</i>	602	<i>going to take</i>	13037
7	<i>going to make</i>	585	<i>going to happen</i>	11039
8	<i>going to go</i>	584	<i>going to make</i>	9544
9	<i>going to happen</i>	530	<i>going to see</i>	7469
10	<i>going to tell</i>	376	<i>going to say</i>	7371

Rank	BNC		COCA	
	multi-word unit	frequency	multi-word unit	frequency
11	<i>going to give</i>	353	<i>going to come</i>	6427
12	<i>going to see</i>	347	<i>going to give</i>	4879
13	<i>going to put</i>	312	<i>going to tell</i>	4238
14	<i>going to come</i>	310	<i>going to try</i>	4014
15	<i>going to ask</i>	261	<i>going to talk</i>	3936

5.2. Test type 2: *go* / *come* vs. similarly frequent verbs

The second type of test sought to compare two additional verbs with a similar overall frequency in the BNC to *go* and *come*: specifically, *say* and *take*. Table 3 shows the overall frequency of all four verbs, and their frequency after *going to* in the BNC.

Table 3. Overall frequency and frequency after *going to* of *go*, *say*, *come* and *take* in the BNC

Verb	Overall frequency	Frequency after <i>going to</i>
<i>Go</i>	236,135	584
<i>Say</i>	311,997	606
<i>Come</i>	143,137	310
<i>Take</i>	171,684	602

The verbs *say* and *go* are the first and second most frequent lexical verbs in the BNC respectively. As can be seen in the table, *say* is slightly more frequent after *going to* than *go*, but the difference is small; for the rule to be true, we would expect to see a much greater difference between the two figures. We might therefore say that the frequency of *going to go* is, based on the behaviour of the verb *say* in the same environment, no lower than expected.

An analysis of *come* and *take*, however, presents a different situation. Like *go* and *say*, *come* and *take* are ranked next to one another in terms of overall frequency (*take* is the 7th most common lexical verb, and *come* the 8th most common), but the frequency of *going to come* is 310, compared to 602 for *going to know*. This is unexpectedly low: that there are only half as many examples of *going to come* as there are of *going to know* might suggest that speakers avoid using *come* after *going to* in a way that they do not do with *say*. However, the rule under examination is never stated this way; in some cases it is said to apply just to *go*, but never just to *come*. Alternative explanations take us into the realm of hypothesis: do we simply have more communicative need to talk about *taking*

rather than *coming* in the future? And might we make similar arguments, but in reverse, about *go* and *say*?

To address such hypotheses, we can also consider the modal verb *will*. Table 4 shows the raw frequencies of *go*, *say*, *get*, *come* and *take*, and their frequencies after *will* (including the contracted form 'll) and *going to*. As we have said, the aim of this comparison is to attempt to get at the question of whether *going to go* – although attested at a similar frequency to *going to say* – should actually be more frequent than it is. Such a claim would be based on the hypothesis that we are likely to have a greater, and more frequent, communicative need to talk about *going* somewhere in the future than *saying* something, and this should be reflected in the frequency data presented. Initially, the analysis suggests that this may indeed be the case: there are a total of 4,649 examples of *will go*, compared to only 1,283 for *will say*. The fact that there are fewer examples of *going to go* than *going to say* (584 vs. 606) is therefore potentially surprising. A further verb with a similar overall frequency to *go* – *get* – seems similarly anomalous: there are 4,578 examples of *will get*, compared to 4,649 for *will go*, but then over double the number of examples of *going to get* compared to *going to go* (1,329 vs. 606). The verbs *say* and *get* therefore appear to offer evidence in support of the rule: going by the data from *will* + infinitive, the string *going to go* appears to be less frequent than we might expect it to be.

The verbs *make* and *take*, however, tell a different story. There are 3,515 examples of *will make*, compared to the 4,649 for *will go*, and then 585 for *going to make*, compared to 606 for *going to go*. For *take*, the figures are 4,880 examples of *will take*, and 602 for *going to take*. These verbs therefore offer counter evidence to the rule, which would predict that there should be more examples of *going to take* and *going to make* than *going to go*, not a similar number, or fewer. Again, it is possible to speculate about the difference between *say* and *get* on the one hand, and *make* and *take* on the other. Perhaps the fact that *will* and *going to* are used to talk about the future in different ways affects which verbs appear more or less frequently after them – it can be speculated that speakers are less likely to make a prediction that somebody or someone will go somewhere than they are to express an intention with *go*.

Table 4. Raw frequency of *go*, *say*, *get*, *come* and *take*, their frequency after *will* (including its contracted form), and their frequency after *going to*

Verb	Overall frequency	Frequency after <i>will</i>	Frequency after <i>going to</i>
<i>Go</i>	236,135	4649	584
<i>Say</i>	311,997	1283	606
<i>Get</i>	211,009	4578	1329
<i>Make</i>	208,322	3515	585
<i>Take</i>	171,684	4880	602

5.3. Test type 3: Co-occurrence information

We now turn to the question of co-occurrence information. Table 5 presents the ten most common lexical verbs in the BNC, showing their overall frequency, their frequency after *going to*, and their frequency after *going to* as a percentage of their overall frequency. Here the figure for 'overall frequency' is based on the lemma of each verb; in other words, the figure of 176,875 for the verb *know* includes all forms of the lemma, i.e. *know*, *knows*, *knowing*, *knew* and *known*.

Of main interest is the percentage figure in the rightmost column, and the table overall is ordered according to these figures. It is not suggested that each percentage value is meaningful in itself; the percentage figure of 0.25% for *go* cannot be said – by itself – to be a lot or a little. However, the values in relation to one another are more revealing. As can be seen, *go* and *come* fall exactly mid-way through the list, meaning that four of the other verbs on the list are found relatively more often, as a percentage of their overall frequency, after *going to* than *go* and *come*, and four are found relatively less often after *going to*. This again seems to suggest that there is nothing special about the behaviour of *go* and *come* after *going to*.

Table 5. Frequency of *going to* + the ten most common lexical verbs in the BNC, presented as a percentage of overall frequency of each verb

Verb	Overall frequency	Frequency after <i>going to</i>	Frequency after <i>going to</i> as % of overall frequency
<i>know</i>	176875	37	0.02
<i>think</i>	142130	40	0.03
<i>say</i>	311997	606	0.19
<i>see</i>	181549	347	0.19
<i>come</i>	143137	310	0.22
<i>go</i>	236135	584	0.25
<i>make</i>	207674	585	0.28
<i>give</i>	123533	353	0.29
<i>take</i>	171684	602	0.35
<i>get</i>	211099	1329	0.63

The two statistical tests – MI score and Odds Ratio – lead one to the same conclusion. Table 6 presents the MI and Odds Ratio scores for the same ten verbs. As can be seen, the MI score for both *come* and *go* is close to zero (0.466 and 0.657 respectively), suggesting a neutral relationship; the figure should be *below* zero in order to suggest that the two elements (*going to* and the verb) 'repel' one

another. The same is true for the Odds Ratio measure; the score for *go* and *come* would (in the case of this statistical measure) be below 1 if the two elements repelled one another, but in both cases it is above 1 (1.386 for *come* and 1.591 for *go*). In short, these statistical measures offer no support for the claim that speakers tend to avoid using *go* or *come* after *going to*, although they do suggest that the strings *going to know* and *going to think* are less common than might be expected.¹ It should nevertheless be acknowledged, however, that even statistical tests such as these cannot really address the question as to whether there might be other reasons (of the type discussed in Section 5.2 above) that make any particular verb more or less common after *going to*.

Table 6. MI and Odds Ratio scores for *going to* + the ten most common lexical verbs in the BNC

Verb	(Pointwise) Mutual Information	Odds Ratio
<i>Know</i>	-2.906	0.132
<i>Think</i>	-2.478	0.178
<i>Say</i>	0.309	1.245
<i>See</i>	0.286	1.222
<i>Come</i>	0.466	1.386
<i>Go</i>	0.657	1.591
<i>Make</i>	0.845	1.816
<i>Give</i>	0.866	1.836
<i>Take</i>	1.161	2.269
<i>Get</i>	2.006	4.194

6. DISCUSSION

Is it possible, based on the corpus evidence presented in the previous section, to make a definitive judgement on the *going to* rule? It may be worthwhile 'inverting' the question by carrying out a thought experiment. If a grammarian were constructing the first ever pedagogical grammar of English, and was therefore not familiar with any descriptions of English grammar (since none existed), but held a suspicion that *go* and *come* are not typically used after *going to*, would they be persuaded that this suspicion was correct by the weight of evidence presented here? It is this writer's belief that they would not be persuaded, as the

¹ As a comparison, MI and Odds Ratio scores were also obtained based on the overall frequency in the corpus of the base form of each verb (i.e. 'bare infinitive') rather than as a lemma. The results for *come* and *go* are very similar (MI for *come* = 0.377, MI for *go* = 0.328; Odds Ratio for *come* = 1.305, Odds Ratio for *go* = 1.264).

evidence supporting the suspicion is scant, and, at best, inconclusive. In short, this commonly given rule should no longer feature in explanations of the use of *going to* used by learners of EFL.

As we saw in Section 2.3, many previous studies to have used evidence from corpora to critique descriptions of grammar in ELT materials have discussed possible reasons why the authors of such pedagogical accounts may sometimes choose to ‘ignore’ empirical evidence. One commonly offered explanation is that pedagogical exigencies may at times be more important for materials designers and teachers than accuracy. Shortall (2007: 179), for example, states that “pedagogic considerations may sometimes override considerations of frequency”, arguing that there should be a role for considering both frequency data and “pedagogic necessity” when designing teaching materials. Similarly, Timmis (2015) asks whether a teacher might choose to spend more time on one area of grammar than another – regardless of which is more frequent in a corpus – because it is problematic for a particular group of learners and / or easy to illustrate in class. It is difficult, however, to be so charitable in the case of the *going to* rule. The rule appears both to be untrue and also to offer no particular pedagogical benefits – it is simply extra information for a learner to internalise, and, if it is inaccurate, this is simply wasted effort.

Why, then, did the rule ever become part of pedagogical grammar explanations of the *going to* future form, at least in British English textbooks and grammars? Figure 1 presents a Google Ngram analysis (Michel et al. 2011) for *going to go*, *going to come*, *going to take* and *going to say* over the period 1850–2008 for British English. The inclusion of the latter two strings allows us to see whether any changes in frequency in *going to go* and *going to come* are simply an indication of an overall increase in the frequency of the future marker *going to*, regardless of the verb that follows it, rather than of anything special about *going to go* and *going to come*. The Ngram suggests that there has been a historical change in usage: there is a steady increase in frequency of both *going to go* and *going to come* in both British English and American English, which becomes particularly marked in the latter half of the twentieth century. While the frequency of both *going to take* and *going to say* also increased in the same period, they both appear to have been established usages before this period.²

² One weakness of Google Ngrams is that they are based on published texts. It is not possible to be sure whether this kind of data reflects actual usage, or whether it reflects more what authors, editors and publishers felt *should* be said rather than what people actually said. If the latter is true, the increase in frequency of *going to go* and *going to say* may represent a loosening in editorial guidelines rather than a change in general usage. However, I have been unable to find any advice or instructions to avoid *go* and *come* after *going to* in any editions of influential style guides from

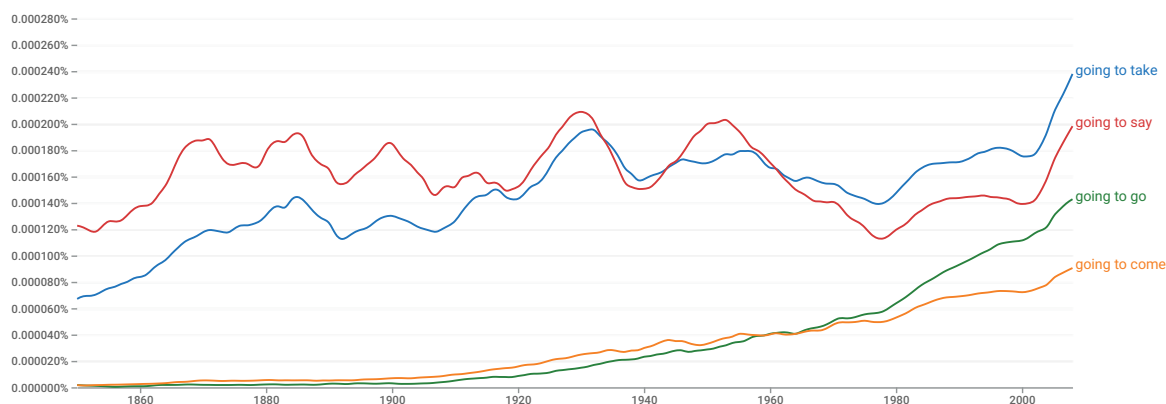


Figure 1. Google Ngram for British English of *going to go/come/take/say* over the period 1850–2008

It is therefore possible that there was once a tendency – perhaps a conscious, style-driven one – to avoid the use of *go* and *come* after *going to*, and that older pedagogical accounts such as Palmer's (1924) reflected this. However, while this tendency apparently no longer exists, ELT materials still suggest that it does. The explanation for this may have more to do with tradition than pedagogical considerations. The catalogue of grammar points typically included in ELT materials has been described as a 'canon' (Ellis 2006; O'Keeffe & Mark 2017); just as over the decades a collective agreement has developed as to which works are the most important in art and literature, it seems that within the ELT profession, an understanding has emerged as to which grammar points need to be taught, and this is well established and rarely examined. The *going to* rule is simply a part of this canon; it is repeated, uncritically, in title after title, perhaps considered true simply by virtue of the fact that it appears so frequently in print.

7. CONCLUSION

This study has attempted to shed light on the oft-repeated pedagogical grammar 'rule' that *going to* is not normally followed by *go* or *come*, assessing its accuracy with corpus evidence. The evidence examined suggests that learners should no longer be taught the rule as it does not appear to reflect actual usage. The study has also attempted to address the question of how claimed 'tenden-

the early part of the 20th century, such as Fowler's *The King's English*, the *Chicago style guide* or Gowers' *Complete plain words*.

cies' in language can be investigated, and the difficulties that can be inherent in this, suggesting different analyses that may be carried out.

The *going to* rule is indicative of what can happen once a 'canon' becomes well established: if a materials designer assumes that previously published explanations are complete and reliable, then the risk is that she or he simply repeats them uncritically. The apparent inaccuracy of the *going to* rule leads us to conclude that there could also be errors elsewhere in the canon, and that materials designers and teachers may benefit from at times taking a more critical approach to the grammatical explanations available to them, and be ready to test them against empirical evidence, such as that offered by language corpora.

As we have seen, testing claimed grammatical tendencies using corpus evidence can be complex but is not impossible. While raw frequency – even if it is low – can arguably be enough by itself to disprove outright claims that a certain structure does not occur, more sophisticated techniques may be required to test any kind of a claim of a linguistic tendency. This paper has argued that statistical tests considering co-occurrence information, and frequency-based comparisons with 'parallel structures' to that under examination (for example comparing the frequencies of *going to go* with *going to say*) can be useful in attempting to prove or disprove such claims.

REFERENCES

- Allen, W.S. (1947). *Living English structure*. Harlow: Longman.
- Azar, S. / Hagen, S. (2019). *Fundamentals of English grammar* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Barbieri, F. / Eckhardt, S.E.B. (2007). Applying corpus-based findings to form-focused instruction: The case of reported speech. *Language Teaching Research* 11 (3), 319–346. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168807077563>.
- Biber, D. / Reppen, R. (2002). What does frequency have to do with grammar teaching? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24 (2), 199–208. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263102002048>.
- Brisard, F. (2001). Be going to: An exercise in grounding. *Journal of Linguistics*, 37 (2), 251–285. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022226701008866>.
- Burton, G. (2012). Corpora and coursebooks: Destined to be strangers forever? *Corpora*, 7 (1), 91–108. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2012.0019>.
- Carter, R. (1998). Orders of reality: CANCODE, communication, and culture. *ELT Journal*, 52 (1), 43–56. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/52.1.43>.
- Carter, R. / McCarthy, M. (2006). *Cambridge grammar of English: A comprehensive guide: spoken and written English grammar and usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Close, R.A. (1970a). Problems of the Future Tense (1). *ELT Journal*, XXIV (3), 225–232. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/XXIV.3.225>.
- Close, R.A. (1970b). Problems of the Future Tense (2). *ELT Journal*, XXV (1), 43–49. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/XXV.1.43>.

- Conrad, S. (2004). Corpus linguistics, language variation, and language teaching. In: J.M. Sinclair (ed.), *How to use corpora in language teaching* (pp. 67–85). Amsterdam: J. Benjamins.
- Cook, G. (1998). The uses of reality: A reply to Ronald Carter. *ELT Journal*, 52 (1), 57–63. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/52.1.57>.
- Declerck, R. / Reed, S. / Cappelle, B. (2006). *The Grammar of the English tense system: A comprehensive analysis* (vol. 1). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110199888>.
- Eastwood, J. (1994). *Oxford guide to English grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Eastwood, J. (2003). *Oxford practice grammar: With answers* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar: An SLA perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40 (1), 83–107. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2307/40264512>.
- Fitzgerald, J. (1901). *Word and phrase: True and false use in English*. Chicago: A.C. McClurg & Co.
- Foley, M. / Hall, D. (2012a). *MyGrammarLab: Advanced C1/C2*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Foley, M. / Hall, D. (2012b). *MyGrammarLab: Intermediate B1/B2*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Frazier, S. (2003). A corpus analysis of *would*-clauses without adjacent *if*-clauses. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37 (3), 443–466. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588399>.
- Gabrielatos, C. (2003, September 4). *Conditional sentences: ELT typology and corpus evidence*. 36th Annual BAAL Meeting. <http://eprints.lancs.ac.uk/140> [access: 23.05.2019].
- Gabrielatos, C. (2006, July 1). *Corpus-based evaluation of pedagogical materials: If-conditionals in ELT coursebooks and the BNC*. 7th Teaching and Language Corpora Conference. http://eprints.lancs.ac.uk/882/1/TALC_2006-CG.pdf [access: 23.05.2019].
- Gries, S. (in press). How to use statistics in quantitative corpus analysis. In: A. O'Keeffe / M. McCarthy (eds.), *"The Routledge handbook of corpus linguistics"* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Routledge.
- Huddleston, R.D. / Pullum, G.K. (2002). *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jespersen, O. (1933). *Essentials of English grammar*. London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd.
- Jones, C. / Waller, D. (2011). If only it were true: The problem with the four conditionals. *ELT Journal*, 65 (1), 24–32. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccp101>.
- Kilgariff, A. (2005). Language is never, ever, ever, random. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory*, 1 (2). DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1515/clt.2005.1.2.263>.
- Kilgariff, A. (2006). *BNC database and word frequency lists*. <https://www.kilgariff.co.uk/bnc-readme.html> [access: 21.01.2018].
- Kruisinga, E. (1931). *A handbook of present-day English* (vol. II, 5th ed.). Groningen: P. Noordhoff.
- Leech, G.N. / Rayson, P. / Wilson, A. (2001). *Word frequencies in written and spoken English: Based on the British National Corpus* (1st ed.). Harlow: Longman.
- Littlejohn, A. (1992). "Why are English language teaching materials the way they are?" [Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Lancaster]. www.andrewlittlejohn.net/website/books/phd.html [access: 01.11.2018].
- Locher, M.A. (2008). The rise of prescriptive grammars on English in the 18th century. In: M.A. Locher / J. Strässler (eds.), *Standards and norms in the English language* (vol. 95, pp. 127–148). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110206982.1.127>.
- Locke, M. (1986). The Future progressive. *ELT Journal*, 40 (4), 323–325. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/40.4.323>.
- Michel, J.-B. / Shen, Y.K. / Aiden, A.P. / Veres, A. / Gray, M.K. / The Google Books Team: Pickett, J.P. / Hoiberg, D. / Clancy, D. / Norvig, P. / Orwant, J. / Pinker, S. / Nowak, M.A. / Aiden, E.L. (2011). Quantitative analysis of culture using millions of digitized books. *Science*, 331 (6014), 176–182. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1199644>.

- Murphy, R. (2019). *English grammar in use: A self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nesfield, J.C. (1898). *English grammar past and present*. London: Macmillan & Co., Limited.
- O'Keeffe, A. / Mark, G. (2017). The English grammar profile of learner competence: Methodology and key findings. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 22 (4), 457–489. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.14086.oke>.
- O'Keeffe, A. / McCarthy, M. / Carter, R. (2007). *From corpus to classroom: Language use and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Palmer, H. (1924). *A Grammar of spoken English on a strictly phonetic basis*. Cambridge: W. Heffer & Sons Ltd.
- Penston, T. (2009). *A concise grammar for English language teachers*. Wicklow: TP Publications.
- Prodromou, L. (2003). In search of the successful user of English. *Modern English Teacher*, 12 (2), 5–14.
- Quirk, R. / Leech, G. / Greenbaum, S. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. Harlow: Longman.
- Redston, C. / Cunningham, G. (2005). *Face2face pre-intermediate student's book*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Redston, C. / Cunningham, G. (2016). *Face2face upper Intermediate student's book*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. / Schmidt, R.W. (eds.). (2007). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics* (3rd ed.). Harlow: Longman.
- Römer, U. (2005). *Progressives, patterns, pedagogy: A corpus-driven approach to English progressive forms, functions, contexts, and didactics*. Amsterdam: J. Benjamins.
- Shortall, T. (2007). The L2 syllabus: Corpus or contrivance? *Corpora*, 2 (2), 157–185. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2007.2.2.157>.
- Swan, M. (1994). Design criteria for pedagogic language rules. In: M. Bygate / A. Tonkyn / E. Williams (eds.), *Grammar and the language teacher* (pp. 44–55). New York: Prentice Hall.
- Swan, M. (2016). *Practical English usage* (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sweet, H. (1898). *A new English grammar logical and historical* (vol. II: *Syntax*). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Thomson, A.J. / Martinet, A.V. (1960/1969). *A practical English grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Timmis, I. (2015). *Corpus linguistics for ELT: Research and practice*. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Tregidgo, P.S. (1980). 'Shall', 'will', and the Future. *ELT Journal*, 34 (4), 265–269. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/34.4.265>.
- Vandenhoeck, T. (2018). The Past perfect in corpora and EFL / ESL materials. *Research in Language*, 16 (1), 113–133. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2478/rela-2018-0005>.

Received: 04.08.2020; **revised:** 15.03.2021

GRAHAM BURTON

Facoltà di Scienze della Formazione, Libera Università di Bolzano

grahamfrancis.burton@unibz.it

ORCID: 0000-0002-8501-9207

JAN ILUK

Uniwersytet Śląski w Katowicach

Methodischer Ansatz zur Simulation wissenschaftlichen Schreibens im Fremdsprachenstudium: Vorgehensweise und Probleme bei Vermittlung und Erwerb wissenschaftlicher Textprozeduren

Simulating academic writing:
Didactic assumptions and problems in teaching
and following academic text procedures

ABSTRACT. The preparation of a written diploma work is often a prerequisite for completion of one's academic studies. The requirements that it must comply with, require targeted and systematic instruction in developing academic writing skills. This article introduces the concept of academic writing and effects of developing it, based on the simulation of the editing processes of a scholarly text.

KEYWORDS: methodology of teaching writing, academic writing, a process-oriented approach, text procedures, title functions.

SCHLÜSSELWÖRTER: universitäres Schreiben, Schreibmethodik, Prozessorientierung, Textprozeduren, Titelfunktionen.

1. HINFÜHRUNG ZUM THEMA UND ZIELSETZUNG

Das Verfassen von Haus-, Seminar- oder Abschlussarbeiten stellt an vielen Universitäten weltweit einen obligatorischen Qualifikationsnachweis dar. Studierende müssen sich dabei an den Konventionen wissenschaftlicher Abhandlungen orientieren. In den zu produzierenden Texten haben Studierende unter Beweis zu stellen, dass sie sich mit einer Fragestellung reflektiert auseinandersetzen, ein bestimmtes Thema argumentativ entfalten und die formalen Standards wissenschaftlichen Arbeitens einhalten können (Steinhoff 2003: 39). Dazu gehören u.a. die Titelgebung, Textgliederung und deren Erläuterung, das Formulieren problemorientierter Leitfragen, ihre Einbettung in ein breiteres Forschungsgebiet, das Verfassen der Einleitung und des Schlussteils u.v.m. (Sandig 1997).

Wegen des hohen kognitiven und sprachlichen Anspruchs gilt das wissenschaftliche Schreiben als die drittgrößte Schwierigkeit im Studium (Grieshammer 2011: 29). Daher ist es naheliegend, dass das wissenschaftliche Schreiben wegen dieser spezifischen Ansprüche einer gezielten und systematischen Unterstützung bedarf. Damit die Schreibkompetenz auf einem entsprechenden Niveau erworben werden kann, bietet man an den meisten Hochschulen Schreibkurse und entsprechende Lernmaterialien sowie Ratgeber mit praktischen Anleitungen an¹. Deren Menge und Ausführlichkeit zeugt von der Relevanz und Komplexität des Problems. Es werden auch methodische Konzepte zu Entwicklung wissenschaftlichen Schreibens publiziert oder Aspekte fremdsprachlicher Textproduktion in der Wissenschaftssprache Deutsch eingehender diskutiert².

Das Problem spitzt sich im Falle nichtmuttersprachlicher Studierender wegen ihrer nicht hinreichenden Sprach- und Schreibkompetenz sowie kultureller Unterschiede noch mehr zu³. Wie Analysen deutscher Lehrwerke für den Deutschunterricht als Fremdsprache von Thonhauser-Jursnick (2000: 197) und Fischer-Kania (2008: 492) zeigen, liegen die Ursachen für die defizitäre Schreibkompetenz u.a. darin, dass

- das kommunikativ-funktionale Schreiben im Fremdsprachenunterricht anhand einer stark beschränkten Anzahl von Textmodellen vermittelt,
- auf Vermittlung metakognitiver Schreibstrategien weitgehend verzichtet,
- und das textlinguistische Basiswissen zu Aspekten der grammatischen und semantischen Textkohärenz und Textsorten nicht gezielt aufgebaut wird (Iluk 2010: 24).

Folglich fehlt es den Studierenden an prozeduralem Wissen über die Gestaltung der einzelnen Textteile. Gleiches gilt für entsprechende Textroutinen. Zusammengestellte Listen mit Routineausdrücken, wie sie im Internet und auch Schreibratgebern zur Verfügung gestellt werden, erweisen sich als wenig hilfreich, da sie dekontextualisiert angeboten werden. Ihre produktive und angemessene Verwendung in zusammenhängenden Texten bedarf systematischer Übungen. Ohne diese bleiben wichtige Schreibstrategien und -fertigkeiten unterentwickelt (Iluk 2015: 102). Wenn dem so ist, so sollte es uns nicht verwundern, dass Schreiben zu den am wenigsten beliebten Lernhandlungen im Sprachstudium gezählt wird (Wysocka 1989: 106).

¹ Z.B. Pospiech 2004, Universität Essen; Rettig 2014, Campus Koblenz; Tipps zu Studientechniken und Lernmethoden 2011, Universität Bielefeld.

² Exemplarisch seien hier die Publikationen von G. Ruhmann (1997) und E. Venohr (2009, 2013) zu nennen.

³ Aspekte eigenkulturellen Textsortenwissens und dessen interferierender Einfluss auf die Anfertigung schriftlicher Arbeiten in der Fremdsprache behandelt E. Venohr (2013) am Sprachenpaar Deutsch-Französisch.

Im Folgenden soll ein methodischer Ansatz vorgestellt werden, mit dem man Studierende auf die Anfertigung ihrer Abschlussarbeit vorbereiten kann. Dem Ansatz liegt die Idee zugrunde, dass man das Verfassen einer wissenschaftlichen Arbeit zu Übungszwecken modellhaft und schrittweise nachbilden kann. Zunächst werden die Voraussetzungen erläutert, die eine solche Vorgehensweise begründen. Danach werden die Ergebnisse einer im Germanistikstudium der Schlesischen Universität in Katowice durchgeführten Schreibübung vorgestellt und eingehend diskutiert⁴.

2. VORAUSSETZUNGEN FÜR EINE GELUNGENE SCHREIBSIMULATION

In der Schreibsimulation geht es generell darum, einem vorgegebenen, kurzen Text die Struktur und die Merkmale einer wissenschaftlichen Arbeit zu geben⁵. Bei dem hier konzipierten Schreibansatz ist Folgendes zu beachten:

- Im Sinne einer prozessorientierten Schreibdidaktik sollen schriftliche Aufgabenstellungen die Lerner weder kognitiv noch sprachlich überfordern. Ist das der Fall, so besteht die Gefahr, dass sich negative Emotionen und somit eine negative Einstellung zur Schreibaufgabe entwickeln. Diese binden bekanntlich kognitive Kapazitäten, so dass sie dann bei einer Aufgabebearbeitung nicht mehr im ausreichenden Maß vorhanden sind. Sie wirken sich auch demotivierend auf die Bereitschaft zur aktiven Teilnahme an einer Aufgabe aus und folglich schmälern sie die zu erbringende Leistung.
- Schreibhandlungen in der Fremdsprache stellen besonders hohe Anforderungen, deshalb ist es sinnvoller, sie schrittweise vollziehen zu lassen. Die Kapazität des Arbeitsgedächtnisses setzt nämlich Grenzen, jenseits derer die kognitiven Prozesse bei der Textverarbeitung und -produktion sehr beeinträchtigt werden. Nach dem Prinzip des limitierten Aufmerksamkeitsquantums ist die optimale Aufmerksamkeitslenkung nur dann möglich, wenn sie auf nur einen Aktionsbereich fokussiert ist. Bei der Aufteilung der Aufmerksamkeit auf mehrere Aktionsebenen, z.B. Dekodierungspro-

⁴ An dem Schreibseminar nahmen Studierende des Masterstudiums an der Germanistik mit dem Schwerpunkt Translatork (Filologia germańska) teil, in dem sie auch ihre Abschlussarbeit zu verfassen hatten. Ihre Sprachkompetenz entsprach etwa dem Niveau B2 und darüber.

⁵ Unter *simulieren* verstehen wir mit Duden: Vorgänge [...] modellhaft zu Übungs-, Erkenntniszwecken nachbilden, wirklichkeitsgetreu nachahmen. <https://www.duden.de/rechtschreibung/simulieren> [Zugriff am: 10.10.2020]. Demzufolge bedeutet Schreibsimulation eine Übungsform, in der die einzelnen Etappen der Anfertigung einer wissenschaftlichen Arbeit an einem vorgegebenen Text geübt werden, der keine Merkmale eines wissenschaftlichen Textes hat.

zesse auf der Wortebene und Bildung von Makrooperationen (wie etwa bei der Umformung von Mikropropositionen in Makropropositionen) ist eine Qualitätsminderung der einzelnen Leistungen zu beobachten. Je mehr Gedächtniskapazitäten auf hierarchieniedrigeren Texterschließungsebenen in Anspruch genommen werden, umso weniger Aufmerksamkeit bleibt zur Ausführung von kognitiven Prozessen auf höheren Ebenen zur Verfügung (Karcher 1988: 215). Darüber hinaus verlaufen der lexikalische Zugriff wegen der intensiven Suchprozesse in der Fremdsprache sowie die Textproduktionsprozesse mühsamer und mit Verzögerung⁶. Die Folge ist, dass Studierende für kognitive Prozesse, wie etwa Analyse, Elaboration, Inferenzziehung, Generalisierung, Satzbildung, Evaluation in der Regel keine hinreichenden Ressourcen mehr übrig haben. Demzufolge schafft die Aufteilung einer Lernhandlung in einzelne Arbeitsschritte günstigere Voraussetzungen dafür, dass der kognitive Aufwand maximal auf die jeweils zu erbringende Teilleistung fokussiert werden kann. Auf diese Weise lassen sich das Risiko der Überforderung und die Überbelastung der kognitiven Ressourcen der Schreibenden minimieren.

- Wichtig für das Gelingen einer Schreibaufgabe ist deren kognitives und sprachliches Schwierigkeitsniveau. Wenn nötig, kann man dieses reduzieren, indem die zu erlernenden Teilfertigkeiten des wissenschaftlichen Schreibens an einem vorgegebenen fremdsprachlichen Ausgangstext erworben werden. Solch ein Text sollte inhaltlich und sprachlich relativ einfach und eher kurz sein, damit die Texterschließungsprozesse auf lexikalischer und syntaktischer Ebene die Aufmerksamkeit für die jeweiligen Formulierungshandlungen nicht beeinträchtigen. Die Arbeit an einem vorgegebenen Text hat also den Vorteil, dass sich Schreibende ausschließlich auf die zu vollziehenden, im folgenden Kapitel genannten Textprozeduren konzentrieren können.

3. ZUM METHODISCHEN VORGEHEN

Textprozeduren, wie Titelgebung, Textgliederung, Formulieren von Einleitung usw. lassen sich wirklichkeitstreu und modelhaft simulierend üben, wenn man, wie weiter unten gezeigt wird, kurze, ungegliederte, titellose,

⁶ Die Ursachen für Leistungsgrenzen werden u.a. in den Merkmalen des kognitiven Systems und der ablaufenden Prozesse gesehen. Darauf haben direkten Einfluss die Menge an Einheiten, die ein individuelles System aufnehmen kann, ihre Haltedauer und Geschwindigkeit der Teilprozesse (Rummer, Mohr & Zimmer 1988: 134). Die Auswirkungen der individuellen Leistungsbegrenzungen stehen auch im Zusammenhang mit dem Kompetenzniveau der jeweiligen Fremdsprache der Schreibenden einher.

leicht verständliche Texte einsetzt. Dadurch entfällt die Belastung, einen Text zu einem vorgegebenen Thema selbst zu verfassen. Diese Bedingungen erfüllt der dem Lehrwerk *Deutsch 2000* (Schäpers, Luscher & Glück 1978: 63) entnommene Text:

Köln. Polizei rückte zum Schutz des Lufthansabüros an – und rückte wieder ab, als die Demonstrantinnen gar keinen Versuch machten, das Gebäude zu besetzen. Sie verteilten nur Flugblätter und diskutierten mit Passanten. Auf ihren Spruchbändern stand „Männer fliegen – Frauen fliegen raus!“ „Verfassungsfeinde in der Lufthansa!“ und „Wir fordern Gleichberechtigung!“ Die Frauenorganisationen waren auf die Straße gegangen, um gegen die Haltung der Deutschen Lufthansa zu protestieren, die es wieder einmal abgelehnt hatte, Frauen als Piloten einzuteilen. Konkreter Anlaß war die Absage an Rita Maiburg, die 40000 Mark in ihre Ausbildung als Pilotin gesteckt hatte und dann von der Lufthansa abgelehnt wurde. Nach Auffassung der Fluggesellschaft sind Frauen zu anfällig, halten der Belastung nicht stand und sind im Hinblick auf die hohen Ausbildungskosten unrentabel, weil sie bald heiraten und dann ihren Beruf aufgeben.

Die dargestellte Geschichte ist nach dem Prinzip Folge-Ursache durchgehend entfaltet. Der rote Faden ist gut erkennbar, die logischen Beziehungen werden durch Konjunktionen ausgedrückt. Der Text besteht zum größten Teil aus dem Grundwortschatz. Allerdings gehören die Verben *an-* und *abrücken* zur Militärsprache und haben den Studierenden daher Verstehensprobleme bereitet⁷. Unbekannt waren auch die Ausdrücke *anfällig* und *standhalten*. Entscheidend für die Wahl des vorliegenden Textes war die Tatsache, dass man dessen thematische Entfaltung relativ leicht in eine chronologische Abfolge umwandeln kann. Durch diese Maßnahme begünstigt sollten die Schreibenden dafür sensibilisiert werden, dass man in einem Text Geschehnisse, Fakten, Handlungen nach einem bestimmten Prinzip ordnen und darstellen kann.

Die Studierenden konnten die jeweilige Teilaufgabe in Paaren realisieren. Die interaktive Arbeitsform ermöglichte es ihnen, sich frei auszutauschen und ihre Entscheidungen bzw. Formulierungsvorschläge miteinander zu diskutieren. Die Möglichkeit zur Interaktion zielt auf ein vertieftes Textverstehen und zugleich auf gegenseitige Animation zum Vollzug der jeweiligen Schreibhandlung sowie gemeinsame Evaluation. Die Übungsform hatte also einen stark prozessorientierten Ansatz. Die Erledigung der Schreibaufgaben in einzelnen, nacheinander zu vollziehenden Schritten bewahrte die Seminarteilnehmer vor kognitiver und sprachlicher Überforderung, die dann zustande kommt, wenn kognitive und sprachliche Entscheidungen simultan und ohne jegliche Hilfe zu treffen und zu vollziehen sind.

⁷ Beide Verben begegnen uns auch häufig im Pressestil.

3.1. Arbeitsschritte

Zum gezielten Übungsgegenstand wurden vier grundlegende Teilaufgaben gewählt:

- a) chronologische Themenentfaltung,
- b) Textgliederung,
- c) Titelgebung,
- d) Formulierung der Einleitung und des Schlussteils.

Nach der Erklärung der einzelnen Arbeitsschritte der Schreibaufgabe und deren Zielsetzungen im Schreibseminar begannen die Studierenden die jeweilige Teilaufgabe zu realisieren. Im Folgenden werden die einzelnen Schritte und ihre Zielsetzungen näher charakterisiert.

Schritt 1: Umwandlung des vorgegebenen Textes nach der chronologischen Abfolge der darin dargestellten Ereignisse und Fakten

Zunächst ging es darum, den Inhalt des Originaltextes nach seinem zeitlichen Verlauf umzustrukturieren. Mit der neuen Gliederung sollten die Ereignisse chronologisch dargestellt werden. Mit diesen Arbeitsschritt waren zwei Ziele verknüpft: Zum einen sollte den Studierenden klar werden, dass über ein und denselben Sachverhalt unterschiedlich berichtet werden kann. Die sich dabei ergebenden Differenzen in der Anordnung der Textinhalte gehen auf die angewandte Themenentfaltungsstrategie zurück. Damit die Studierenden bei der Textumwandlung nicht überfordert wurden, durften sie den Wortlaut des Ausgangstextes, soweit es möglich war, unverändert übernehmen. Zum anderen sollte den Seminarteilnehmern bewusst werden, dass bei der neuen Anordnung der Inhalte die gewählte Beschreibungsperspektive, die Zielsetzung, die logischen Relationen und Kohärenzprinzipien stets zu beachten sind. Die Bewusstmachung dieser Probleme ist wichtig, da Studierende bei der Anfertigung ihrer Abschlussarbeiten Informationen aus unterschiedlichen Quellen beziehen, die sie dann an ihre Themenentfaltungsstrategie anpassen und in den Text integrieren müssen.

Schritt 2: Textgliederung

Im nächsten Schritt sollte der umgewandelte Text in Sinneinheiten eingeteilt werden. Wegen der Textkürze haben die ausgesonderten Textteile den Umfang eines knappen Absatzes, manchmal sogar eines einzigen Satzes. Man kann sie daher als Quasi-Kapitel betrachten, denn in dieser Übung ging es nicht

um die Einhaltung der üblichen Proportionen einzelner Textteile, sondern um die Entwicklung einer entsprechenden Sensibilität für eine kohärente Textgliederung.

Schritt 3: Titelgebung und Formulierung von Überschriften

Zu jedem ausgesonderten Textteil war in dieser Arbeitsphase eine passende Überschrift sowie zum gesamten Text der Haupttitel zu formulieren. In diesem Arbeitsschritt sollten die Studierenden ihre Titelgebungskompetenz zeigen, wie sie die Gliederungsfunktion der Überschriften im Text nachvollziehen.

Schritt 4: Verfassen von Einleitung und Schlussteil zum Text

In der letzten Übungsphase waren die Einleitung und der Schlussteil zu dem so entstandenen Text zu formulieren. Zu diesem Zweck erhielten die Studierenden vom Seminarleiter entsprechende Information über deren Funktion und Struktur sowie entsprechende Routineformeln⁸. Damit der in Kapitel gegliederte Text die Regeln der Kohärenz nicht verletzt, mussten notwendige Ergänzungen hinzugefügt werden. In diesem Arbeitsschritt ging es darum, die Fähigkeit zu bestätigen, in einem Text das theoretische Wissen über die Funktionen einer Einleitung und des Schlussteils in die Praxis umzusetzen und die hierfür benötigten Routineformel produktiv zu gebrauchen⁹.

Aus der Beschreibung der Aufgabenstellung und der einzelnen Arbeitsschritte sollte für die Leser ersichtlich werden, dass es das generelle Lernziel war, an einem kurzen Text die Schreibetappen einer wesentlich längeren Arbeit, wie etwa einer Haus- oder Abschlussarbeit, und die dabei zu treffenden Entscheidungen aktiv und ohne größere Belastung nachzuvollziehen.

4. EVALUATION DER ERGEBNISSE DER EINZELNEN ARBEITSSCHRITTE

4.1. Umwandlung der Themenentfaltungsstrategie

Aufgrund der gewählten Themenentfaltungsstrategie der Originalfassung beginnt die Geschichte mit dem chronologisch letzten Ereignis, und zwar mit

⁸ Diese Informationen wurden dem Leitfaden von Rettig (2004: 26–28) entnommen.

⁹ Die Funktion und die Struktur der Einleitung und des Schlussteils in einem wissenschaftlichen Text wurden davor separat in einem anderen Seminar behandelt.

dem Polizeieinsatz vor dem Lufthansa Büro in Köln, und endet mit der Begründung der Absage auf eine Bewerbung um eine Pilotenstelle durch die Fluggesellschaft.

Im umgewandelten Text waren dieselben Ereignisse in ihre chronologische Abfolge zu bringen. Zu diesem Zweck mussten die Studierenden die Episode identifizieren, mit der die erzählte Geschichte begann. Es erwies sich, dass das keine einfache Aufgabe war. Nach der Meinung fast aller Seminarteilnehmer war die Absage auf Bewerbung von R. Maiburg das primäre Ereignis. Dabei haben sie übersehen, dass die Protagonistin davor den Wunsch hatte, Pilotin zu werden, und deswegen eine entsprechende Ausbildung abschloss, für die sie eine hohe Gebühr bezahlte. Erst dann bewarb sie sich um eine Pilotenstelle bei der Lufthansa. Die Studierenden hatten also Probleme, das ursprüngliche Ereignis korrekt zu identifizieren. Daher wurde diese Aufgabe nicht ganz zufriedenstellend gelöst. Diese Arbeitsphase zeigte, dass die korrekte Themenentfaltung eine echte kognitive Herausforderung darstellt.

4.2. Einteilung des Textes in Sinneinheiten

Die Struktur wissenschaftlicher Arbeiten ist stark konventionalisiert. Ein wichtiges Element der Textkonventionen ist die Untergliederung in Kapitel und Unterkapitel, die durch Überschriften voneinander getrennt werden. Der Sinn der Textgliederung besteht darin, dass ein Thema in geordnete Einzelteile zerlegt wird, um so deren Sinnabschnitte zu verdeutlichen. Sie bilden die Grundlage für den Aufbau der Textstruktur. Die ausgewiesenen Einzelteile, wie etwa Kapitel, Unterkapitel, aber auch Absätze, müssen eine logische Einheit bilden und das behandelte Thema repräsentieren (Püschel 1997: 197). Deshalb ist die Textgliederung kein mechanischer, sondern ein analytischer und zugleich kreativer Prozess.

In dieser Schreibetappe bestand die Aufgabe darin, den umgewandelten Text in sachlogische Sinnabschnitte zu gliedern. Bei der Ausführung der Aufgabe wurden verschiedene Probleme erkennbar. Eine Ursache für die Schwierigkeit, den umgewandelten Text in selbständige Sinneinheiten zu gliedern, sah eine Seminarteilnehmerin in der Stringenz des Ausgangstextes.

Die Sätze sind u.a. wegen der Anwesenheit der Konjunktionen eng miteinander verbunden. Deswegen ist es schwierig, diesen Text in Abschnitte zu teilen.¹⁰

¹⁰ Die Kommentare formulierte die Studentin spontan am Ende ihrer Schreibaufgabe.

Es scheint also, dass in diesem Bereich ein latenter Übungsbedarf vorhanden ist. Die Seminarteilnehmerin erkannte aber gleichzeitig die Vorteile der vollzogenen Textgliederung für die Formulierung von Überschriften. Ihre Meinung begründete sie wie folgt:

Aber wenn man den Text schon eingeteilt hat, ist es einfach, die Überschriften für diese Abschnitte zu wählen, weil die Inhalte sehr konkret sind.

4.3. Titelgebung

Titel wissenschaftlicher Arbeiten sind keine bloßen Textbenennungen, sondern in der Regel eine Text- oder Textteilzusammenfassung. Sie sind das Ergebnis anspruchsvoller kognitiver und sprachlicher Verdichtungsprozesse (Gnutzmann 1988: 26). Die besondere Schwierigkeit bei deren Formulierung ergibt sich daraus, dass man mit relativ wenigen Wörtern und aufgrund struktureller Textraumbegrenzungen möglichst prägnant, viele Einzelheiten präzise mitteilen muss. Ähnliches gilt für die Formulierung von Einleitungen und Schlussfolgerungen. Die Funktionen der Haupttitel in wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten bestehen darin, dass sie

- als eine namensähnliche Kennzeichnung zu Identifikation und Wiedererkennung eines Textes fungieren,
- das Thema der Arbeit vorgeben,
- den Inhalt des Textes sachbezogen und prägnant wiedergeben oder auf einen besonderen Aspekt hindeuten,
- das Genre des Textes bezeichnen,
- das Leseinteresse wecken,
- als wichtige Lese- und Interpretationshilfe fungieren (Hellwig 1984: 6; Lüger 1987: 90-95; Gnutzmann 1988: 25; Dietz 1998: 618).

Die Zwischenüberschriften in einem Fließtext informieren dagegen über den nachfolgenden Textteil, verdeutlichen die Struktur und den thematischen Aufbau eines Textes. Haupttitel und vor allem Zwischen- und Untertitel erleichtern die Textverarbeitung, indem sie entsprechende Informationserwartungen evozieren und einen Zugriff zu bestimmten Inhalten ermöglichen (Iluk 2021: 9).

In der Fachliteratur wird zwischen thematischen und nicht-thematischen Titeln unterschieden. Die ersten repräsentieren Makropropositionen des Textes (Ballstaedt et al. 1981: 171). Nicht-thematische Überschriften in wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten beziehen sich auf die Superstruktur des Textes. Ihre Rolle besteht darin, dass sie den Zugang zu bestimmten Textteilen erleichtern. Beispiele für solche Titel sind:

Einleitung, Zielsetzung, Fazit, Forschungsstand

Analysiert man die Titel in den umstrukturierten Texten, so fällt zunächst auf, dass die meisten die Form einer schwach attribuierten Nominalphrase aufweist, was dem Standard in wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten durchaus entspricht¹¹. Gelegentlich begegnen uns auch satzförmige Titel. Dann haben sie die Form einer Frage, seltener eines Aussagesatzes.

Wie lief der Protest ab?

Wie haben die Frauen reagiert?

Gab es eine Konfliktlösung?

Die Frauen kämpfen für die Gleichberechtigung

Frauen protestieren

Nur wenige Texte wurden mit einem treffenden, vollthematischen Titel überschrieben.

Mangelnde Gleichberechtigung bei der Lufthansa als Grund für die feministische Demonstration

Frauendemonstration gegen Lufthansa in Köln

Formen des Kampfes um Gleichberechtigung von Frauen

In den meisten Texten wurden keine nichtthematischen Überschriften verwendet, obwohl sie eine Art Hinführung zum Thema, eine Information zum Textinhalt oder verbale Hinweise auf ein zu ziehendes Fazit enthalten. Daraus ist zu schließen, dass den Studierenden das Wissen über deren Funktion in einer wissenschaftlichen Arbeit fehlt oder beim Verfassen der Texte nicht darauf zugegriffen wurde. Wie zu erwarten war, zeigen die Haupttitel und Überschriften der einzelnen Textabschnitte typische Mängel, die generell darin bestehen, dass der Titelinhalt nicht mit dem Textinhalt übereinstimmt, d.h. der formulierte Titel ist thematisch umfangreicher als der Textinhalt, wie etwa:

Proteste wegen der Frauendiskriminierung bei Lufthansa

Das Problem des ungerechten Umgangs mit Frauen in der Deutschen Lufthansa

Demonstrationen in der Lufthansagesellschaft

Protest gegen die mangelnde Wertschätzung der Frauenrechte

oder Inhalte suggeriert, von denen im Ausgangstext nicht die Rede war, wie etwa

¹¹ Nach Ermittlungen von Kohrs (2010: 65) besteht fast die Hälfte deutscher eingliedriger Titel aus einer schwach attribuierten Nominalphrase.

Misslungene Polizeiaktion in Köln
Staatsbehörden im Kampf gegen Sexismus
Formen des Kampfes um Gleichberechtigung von Frauen
Demonstrationsmethoden der Lufthansamitarbeiterinnen
Protestform der Pilotinnen
Können die Frauen wirklich über ihr Leben entscheiden?

Ein weiterer Mangel vieler Überschriften besteht darin, dass sie inhaltlich zu vage sind. Dieser Einwand gilt für Ein-Wort-Titel und semantisch elliptische Formulierungen.

Spruchbänder
Demonstration
Der Verlauf
Die Meinung der Lufthansa
Frauen protestieren

Zahlreiche Titel und Überschriften haben die Form einer Schlagzeile. Man kann hier den Einfluss der charakteristischen Titelgebung der Presse vermuten. An sich sind diese nicht falsch. Sie motivieren stärker zum Weiterlesen, aber sie informieren weniger über den eigentlichen Textinhalt. In dem Sinne sind sie keine Textparaphrasen, die in wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten zu erwarten sind.

Pilot – Traumberuf für alle?
Fliegen nicht für alle
Vergeudetes Geld für einen unerfüllbaren Traum
Die Geschichte von Rita Maiburg, die um Gleichberechtigung der Frauen und eigene Träume kämpfte

4.4. Mängel in den Einleitungen

Zunächst fällt auf, dass die Studierenden die Hinführung zum Thema mit einer Einleitung gleichsetzten, denn in diesem Textteil beschränkten sich die meisten auf die Andeutung des darzustellenden Themas.

Jeder weiß, dass Frauen früher um Gleichberechtigung kämpfen mussten, aber nicht alle kennen einzelne Geschichten von verschiedenen Revolutionärinnen. Eine von diesen und ihr Kampf wollte ich in dieser Arbeit vorstellen.

Die Folge ist, dass andere wesentliche Teile einer Einleitung unberücksichtigt geblieben sind. Es fehlen Angaben zu folgenden Aspekten:

- Fragestellung und Zielsetzung der Arbeit,
- Abgrenzung / Eingrenzung des Themas,
- angewandte Methode / Vorgehensweise,
- Aufbau der Arbeit (Rettig 2004: 26).

Es ist naheliegend, dass bei einer derart konzipierten Schreibsimulation nicht alle Elemente einer wohlgeformten Einleitung vorkommen können. Dennoch wäre es zu erwarten gewesen, dass die genannten Bestandteile in der Einleitung in Ansätzen Erwähnung finden, wie etwa im folgenden Beleg.

Im Vordergrund der vorliegenden Arbeit steht das Problem des ungerechten Umgangs mit Frauen bei der Deutschen Lufthansa. Das Ziel der folgenden Arbeit ist es, die Ursachen und Folgen eines Konflikts darzulegen.

Es ist aber durchaus denkbar, dass zu Übungszwecken das Schreiben einer Einleitung mit allen wichtigen Elementen geübt werden kann.

4.5. Typische Fehler

Auf die sprachliche Korrektheit wird hier nicht eingegangen, da sie einem anderen Kompetenzbereich angehört und bei der Schreibübung nicht im Vordergrund stand. Außerdem könnte ein starker Fokus darauf die inhaltliche Formulierungskreativität wesentlich beeinträchtigen. Dennoch wollen wir auf zwei typische Fehler hinweisen, die regelmäßig in den von den Studierenden angefertigten Texten vorkommen. Die Titel und Überschriften stehen in einer sog. freistehenden Zeile. Daher darf hinter den Titel kein Punkt gesetzt werden (Grammis, § 62)¹². Diese Interpunktionsregel wird jedoch auch von den polnischen Studierenden häufig verletzt. Ein weiterer hochfrequenter Fehler ist der Artikelgebrauch. Haben die Titel und Überschriften eine nominale Form, so wird das einleitende Nomen in der Regel ohne Artikel gebraucht. In den umgewandelten Texten scheint diese Konvention (textueller Usus) unbekannt zu sein.

4.6. Präsentation ausgewählter Texte

Um sich ein vollständigeres Bild über die Ergebnisse der Schreibsimulation zu machen, werden im Folgenden zwei ausgewählte Texte präsentiert, die

¹² Siehe Grammis § 68. <https://grammis.ids-mannheim.de/rechtschreibung/6200#par68> [Zugriff am: 2.09.2020].

u. E. die gesetzten und erreichten Lernziele gut illustrieren. Bei der Beurteilung dieser Schreibprodukte muss jedoch von den sprachlichen Fehlern abgesehen werden, denn – wie weiter oben bereits erwähnt wurde – stand die lexikalische und grammatische Korrektheit nicht im Vordergrund der Schreibsimulation.

Text 1

Das Problem des ungerechten Umgangs mit Frauen in der Deutschen Lufthansa

Im Vordergrund der vorliegenden Arbeit steht das Problem des ungerechten Umgangs mit Frauen in der Deutschen Lufthansa. Das Ziel der folgenden Arbeit ist es, die Ursachen und Folgen des Konflikts darzulegen.

1. Ursprung des Konflikts

Es soll im Folgenden veranschaulicht werden, woran die Ursache der Auseinandersetzung zwischen der Deutschen Lufthansa und der Pilotin Rita Maiburg liegt. Ein grundsätzliches Problem stellt die Arbeitsverweigerung der deutschen Fluglinien gegenüber Rita Maiburg. Unerlässlich in diesem Zusammenhang ist die Frage, ob eine Frau wegen ihres Geschlechts als Pilotin nicht eingestellt werden soll? Im Hinblick darauf muss allerdings hinzugefügt werden, dass Rita Maiburg für ihre Ausbildung als Pilotin 40 000 Mark ausgegeben hat. Sie hat dieselbe Prüfung wie alle anderen Teilnehmer bestanden. Warum hat die Lufthansa trotz dessen so eine Entscheidung getroffen? Die Deutsche Lufthansa äußert sich hierzu folgendermaßen: Frauen sind zu anfällig, halten der Belastung nicht stand und sind im Hinblick auf die hohen Ausbildungskosten unrentabel, weil sie bald heiraten und dann ihren Beruf aufgeben (Deutsche Lufthansa).

Der Auffassung der Fluglinie ist zu entnehmen, dass keine Frau arbeiten sollte, weil sie dazu nicht fähig ist, das Privatleben mit dem Berufsleben zu verbinden. Dementsprechend ist nicht nur die Betroffene, sondern alle anderen Frauen sind benachteiligt.

2. Entwicklung des Konflikts

Nachdem der Grund der Zwietracht erläutert wurde, möchten wir nun auf die Reaktion der Frauenorganisation eingehen. Wie schon vorher erwähnt wurde, haben sich alle Frauen in der Situation diskriminiert gefühlt. Daraus resultierte der Protest, der auf den Straßen von Köln stattgefunden hat. Die Frauenorganisationen haben ihre Rechte manifestiert und gegen die Haltung der Deutschen Lufthansa protestiert. Die Demonstration beruhte darauf, dass die Frauen mit den Passanten gesprochen und Flugblätter verteilt haben. Hierzu einige Slogans: ‚Männer fliegen – Frauen fliegen raus!‘; ‚Verfassungsfeinde in der Lufthansa!‘; ‚Wir fordern Gleichberechtigung!‘.

Es ist natürlich nachvollziehbar, dass Frauen um ihre Rechte kämpfen wollen. Ob sie aber damit einen Kompromiss erzielten, ist im Moment unklar.

3. Gab es eine Konfliktlösung?

In erster Linie ist zu fragen, ob die Fluglinie sich tatsächlich zu dem Protest der Frauen geäußert hat? Die Tatsache ist, dass die Lufthansa die Polizei über die Demonstration informiert hat. Wegen Verdacht gegenüber den Frauen, das Gebäude zu besetzen, rückte die Polizei zur Verteidigung des Lufthansabüros an. Letztendlich rückte sie wieder ab, da kein Eingriff seitens der Polizei nötig war.

Aus den gemachten Beobachtungen lässt sich folgendes Resümee ziehen: Den Ausgangspunkt für diese Auseinandersetzung war die Absage an Rita Maiburg, als Pilotin bei Lufthansa eingestellt zu werden. Die Begründung der Lufthansa war, die Frauen seien nicht imstande die Arbeitsbedingungen u. a. wegen der Mutterschaft, zu erfüllen. Meiner Meinung nach ist es ein Unsinn, da viele andere Frauen die Rolle der Mutter mit den Arbeitspflichten in Einklang bringen können. Daraus resultierte der Protest der Frauenorganisation, die gezwungen waren, um ihre Rechte auf den Straßen von Köln zu kämpfen. Über eine Einigung zwischen den Konfliktparteien haben wir dennoch keine genaue Information.

Text 2

Frauen kämpfen um die Gleichberechtigung Einleitung

Mit der vorliegenden Arbeit wird die Absicht verfolgt, die Demonstration in Köln zu beschreiben. Im ersten Kapitel werden die Gründe für die Absage der Fluggesellschaft beschrieben. Ein weiterer Arbeitsschritt beschäftigt sich mit der Reaktion der Frauen auf die Anstellungsabsage. Im weiteren Verlauf der Arbeit widme ich mich der Kölner Polizei und ihrem Einsatz im Zentrum von Köln. Darüber hinaus wird die Entwicklung der Situation und ihre Beendigung beschrieben. Zunächst soll erklärt werden wie, es zu Protesten der Frauenorganisationen kam.

1. Absagegründe

Dieser Teil der Arbeit wird den Absagegründen gewidmet. Die Fluggesellschaft Lufthansa hat Rita Maiburg als zukünftige Pilotin abgelehnt. Die Vorsitzenden der Gesellschaft sind der Meinung, die Frauen seien anfällig und würden der Belastung nicht standhalten. Sie heiraten und werden oft schwanger kurz nach dem Arbeitsvertragsabschluss. Das könnte dann mit der Berufsausübung und den Aufgaben der Fluggesellschaft in Konflikt stehen.

2. Reaktion der Frauen auf die Anstellungsabsage

In diesem Teil werde ich mich mit den Reaktionen der Frauen auf die Anstellungsabsage befassen. Die Frauenorganisationen waren mit der Absage höchst empört und haben fast sofort mit der Demonstration reagiert. Sie versammelten sich vor dem Sitz der Lufthansa, d.h. im Zentrum Kölns. Sie führten Diskussionen mit Passanten, verteilten Flugblätter

und spazierten mit den Spruchbändern, auf denen es solche Sprüche gab wie z.B. „Männer fliegen, Frauen fliegen raus“. Hierauf verwiesen die Frauen mit dem Spruch: „Verfassungsfeinde in der Lufthansa“ darauf, dass die Lufthansa gegen die Verfassung verstößt. Damit wollten die Frauen die Haltung der Lufthansa ans Tagelicht bringen und den Menschen das bewusst machen.

3. Polizei im Einsatz

Das dritte Kapitel stellt den durch Polizei durchgeführten Einsatz dar. Die Polizei rückte zum Schutz des Lufthansabüros an, aber nachdem sie sich orientiert hatten, dass es kein aggressives Verhalten gegeben hatte, rückte die Polizei wieder ab. Es stellte sich heraus, dass die Demonstrantinnen keine Absicht hatten, das Gebäude zu besetzen.

4. Eskalation des Konflikts

Im letzten Teil der Arbeit werde ich mich mit der Eskalation des Konflikts und dessen Ende beschäftigen. Es kam zur Eskalation des Konflikts, denn die Gewerkschaften haben sich eingemischt und in großem Ausmaß demonstriert. Die Lufthansa hat nach einiger Zeit eine offizielle Erklärung abgegeben, dass sie einen großen Fehler begann, indem sie Rita Maiburg ablehnten. Sie gaben zu, dass die Person, die Frau Rita Maiburg nicht eingestellt hat, disziplinar entlassen wurde und dass Frau Rita Maiburg eine Stelle als Pilotin bekommen wird, wenn sie nur die weitere Absicht hat, dort eine Arbeitsstelle aufzunehmen.

Zusammenfassung

Es lässt sich resümieren, dass es einen Fall gab, in dem die Lufthansa einer sich um die Stelle der Pilotin bewerbenden Frau abgesagt hat. Der Grund dafür war die Tatsache, dass der Bewerber eine Frau war. Die Frauen sind schwach, sie halten die Belastung nicht aus, heiraten schnell und folglich bekommen Kinder, was dazu führt, dass sie bald die Arbeit aufgeben. Diese Haltung der Fluggesellschaft war für die Frauenorganisationen unannehmbar, deshalb haben sie mit Demonstrationen geantwortet. Letztendlich kann man sagen, dass die ganze Sache sich so sehr verbreitet hat, dass sich die Lufthansa schnell zurückziehen musste, denn es konnte ihrem Image große Schäden bringen. Die Bewerberin hat ihre Traumstelle bekommen.

Bei der holistischen Evaluation fällt zunächst auf, dass die von den Studierenden angefertigten Texte fast vier Mal länger als der Ausgangstext sind¹³. Das bestätigt, dass manche Studierenden mit dem Ausgangstext kreativ und vor allem elaborativ umgegangen sind¹⁴. Die im Haupttitel und in den Überschriften

¹³ Der Originaltext enthält 130 Wörter (Lexeme, Artikel, Präpositionen), die zitierten Texte 487 und 519 Vokabeln.

¹⁴ Der Begriff *elaborativ* bezeichnet in der Psychologie die vertiefte Informationsverarbeitung. Durch Elaboration wird vorhandenes Vorwissen über einen Gegenstandsbereich aktiviert und neues Wissen mit diese [verknüpft (Irwin 1991: 89–108)].

angedeuteten Thesen wurden im Text entsprechend entwickelt und begründet. Die einzelnen Kapitel wurden mit einer kurzen Zielangabe eingeleitet. Die Schreibergebnisse sind in dieser Hinsicht positiv zu bewerten.

Die große Fehleranzahl in den hier präsentierten Texten signalisiert, dass Studierende unbedingt auch Hinweise für die eigene, erfolgreiche Korrektur ihrer Arbeiten brauchen¹⁵. Die auffallenden Unsicherheiten machen deutlich, welche Kompetenzbereiche bei den Studierenden noch defizitär sind und einer gezielten Übung und Wissensvermittlung bedürfen. Somit hat sich die Schreibsimulation auch als ein zuverlässiges Mittel zur Erhebung des Kompetenzstandes im Bereich wissenschaftlichen Schreibens erwiesen. Die zitierten Texte eignen sich gut für die Einübung der Textkorrektur in einem Schreibseminar.

5. FAZIT

Der prozessorientierte Ansatz machte kognitive Ressourcen frei für Kreativität, Elaborationen und zusätzliche Textproduktion. Die dabei entstehende Belastung des kognitiven Systems schränkt jedoch die Aufmerksamkeit auf die Korrektheit der sprachlichen Formulierungen ein.

Ein systematischer Einsatz des hier vorgestellten Ansatzes kann zum erfolgreichen Erwerb von wissenschaftlichen Textprozeduren erheblich beitragen. Es ist auch denkbar, dass andere Teilfertigkeiten des wissenschaftlichen Schreibens auf ähnliche Weise vermittelt und eingeübt werden können. Die Diskussion der bei Schreibsimulationen entstehenden Probleme sowie der eigenen Schreibprodukte im Seminar kann das Interesse und Sensibilität für die hier behandelte Problematik unter den Studierenden steigern.

LITERATURVERZEICHNIS

- Ballstaedt, S.-P. / Mandl, H. / Schnotz, W. / Tergan, S.-O. (1981). *Texte verstehen, Texte gestalten*. München / Wien / Baltimore: Urban & Schwarzenberg.
- Dietz, G. (1998). Titel in wissenschaftlichen Texten. In: L. Hoffmann / H. Kalverkämper / H.E. Wiegand / Ch. Galinski (Hrsg.), *Fachsprachen. Languages for Special Purposes. Ein internationales Handbuch zur Fachsprachenforschung und Terminologiewissenschaft* (S. 617–624). Berlin / New York: de Gruyter.

¹⁵ Zu Überarbeitungsstrategien des eigenen Textes gibt es für Studierende an deutschen Hochschulen bereits eine große Anzahl von Ratgeberliteratur (a.u. Edelmann 1995; Kruse 2014). Siehe auch UHH Tipps zum Schreiben. Überarbeiten. <https://www.slm.uni-hamburg.de/studium/projekte/fremdsprachen-lernen/start-b/2-b-scr/b04.html#3875117> [Zugriff am: 27.03.2021].

- Edelmann, H. (1995). *Textüberarbeitung. Revisionen in fremdsprachlichen Lerner-Texten (DaF). Prozesse der Überarbeitung narrativer, deskriptiver und argumentativer Texte in Lerner-Paaren*. Frankfurt (a. M.): Lang.
- Fischer-Kania, S. (2008). Die Förderung der Schreibfertigkeit in den DaF-Lehrwerken Delfin, ein neu-Hauptkurs und Auf neuen Wegen. *Info DaF*, 35 (5), 481–517.
- Gnutzmann, K. (1988). Aufsatztitel in englischsprachigen Fachzeitschriften. Linguistische Strukturen und kommunikative Funktionen. In: K. Gnutzmann (Hrsg.), *Fachbezogener Fremdsprachenunterricht* (S. 23–38). Tübingen: Narr.
- Grammis. *Deutsche Rechtschreibung*. <https://grammis.ids-mannheim.de/rechtschreibung> [Zugriff am: 02.09.2020].
- Grieshammer, E. (2011). *Der Schreibprozess beim wissenschaftlichen Schreiben in der Fremdsprache Deutsch und Möglichkeiten seiner Unterstützung*. Frankfurt (O.). https://opus4.kobv.de/opus4-euv/frontdoor/deliver/index/docId/49/file/Schreiben_im_Zentrum_3_Ella_Grieshammer.pdf [Zugriff am: 08.10.2020].
- Hellwig, P. (1984). Titulus oder Über den Zusammenhang von Titeln und Texten. Titel sind ein Schlüssel zur Textkonstitution. *ZGL*, 12, 1–20.
- Iluk, J. (2010). Empirische Befunde zur Auswirkung systematischer Schreibhandlungen im fortgeschrittenen FSU auf den Spracherwerb. *Studia Germanica Gedanensia*, 23, 23–37.
- Iluk, J. (2015). Textorganisierende Redemittel als Forschungs-, Verwendungs-, und Lernproblem. In: R. Opilowski / W. Czachur (Hrsg.), *Sprache – Wissen – Medien. Festschrift für Professor Gerd Antos* (S. 101–116). Wrocław / Dresden: Atut.
- Iluk, J. (2021). Titel und Überschriften von Diplomarbeiten im ausländischen Germanistikstudium: Hintergrundwissen und Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten einer Titelgebungscompetenz. *Beiträge zur Fremdsprachenvermittlung*, 64, 6–20.
- Irwin, J.W. (1991). *Teaching Reading Comprehension Processes*. Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Karcher, G. (1988). *Das Lesen in der Erst- und Fremdsprache. Dimensionen und Aspekte einer Fremdsprachenlektik*. Heidelberg: J. Gross.
- Kohrs, J. (2010). In der Kürze liegt die Würze? Strategien der Informationsdarbietung in deutschen und litauischen Fachtiteln. *Kolbatyra*, 62 (3), 58–74.
- Kruse, O. (2014). *Lesen und Schreiben. Der richtige Umgang mit Texten im Studium*. Konstanz: UVK.
- Lüger, H.H. (1987). Titel und Textverstehen. Zur Rezeptionssteuerung in italienischen Gebrauchstexten. *Italienisch*, 17, 88–98.
- Pospiech, U. (2004). *Schreibend schreiben lernen – über die Schreibhandlung zum Text als Schreibwerk. Zur Begründung und Unsetzung eines feedbackorientierten Lehrgangs zur Einführung in das wissenschaftliche Schreiben*. ELiSe, Beiheft 1. Essen: Universität Essen. https://www.uni-due.de/imperia/md/content/elise/beiheft_01_2004.pdf [Zugriff am: 10.10.2020].
- Püschel, U. (1997). Überlegungen zu einer Anleitung zum Schreiben von Hausarbeiten. In: E.-M. Jakobs / D. Knorr (Hrsg.), *Schreiben in den Wissenschaften* (S. 193–200). Frankfurt (a. M.): Lang.
- Rettig, H. (2014). *Leitfaden zur Erstellung von wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten am Institut für Germanistik*. Koblenz: Campus Koblenz. <https://www.uni-koblenz-landau.de/de/koblenz/fb2/inst-germanistik/mitarbeiter/arend/infos/leitfadenha> [Zugriff am: 10.10.2020].
- Ruhmann, G. (1997). Ein paar Gedanken darüber, wie man wissenschaftliches Schreiben lernen kann. In: E.-M. Jakobs / D. Knorr (Hrsg.), *Schreiben in den Wissenschaften* (S. 125–139). Frankfurt (a. M.): UVK.
- Rummer, R. / Mohr, G. / Zimmer, H. (1998). Leistungsbegrenzungen im verbalen Arbeitsgedächtnis: Argumente gegen energetische Ressourcenkonzepte. *Kognitionswissenschaft*, 7, 134–140.

- Sandig, B. (1997). Formulieren und Textmuster. Am Beispiel von Wissenschaftstexten. In: E.-M. Jakobs (Hrsg.), *Schreiben in der Wissenschaft* (S. 25–44). Frankfurt (a. M.): UVK.
- Schäpers, R. / Luscher, R. / Glück, M. (1978). *Deutsch 2000: eine Einführung in die moderne Umgangssprache*. München: Huber.
- Steinhoff, T. (2003). Wie entwickelt sich die wissenschaftliche Textkompetenz? *Der Deutschunterricht*, 3, 38–47.
- Thonhauser-Jurnick, I. (2000). Wozu Schreiben im Fremdsprachenunterricht? Eine Analyse neuerer DaF-Lehrwerke. *DaF*, 4, 195–198.
- Tipps zu Studientechniken und Lernmethoden* (2011). Universität Bielefeld – Zentrale Studienberatung. <https://www.uni-bielefeld.de/studium/studierende/information-studienberatung/studientechniken/literatur-links-angebote/Studientechniken.pdf> [Zugriff am: 10.10.2020].
- Venohr, E. (2009). Wissenschaftstraditionen, Stil und Bewerten bei der Vermittlung des Deutschen als Wissenschaftssprache. Didaktische Überlegungen im deutsch-französischen universitären Kontext. In: M. Dalmas / M. Foschi / E. Neuland (Hrsg.), *Wissenschaftliche Textsorten im Germanistikstudium deutsch-italienisch-französisch kontrastiv. Trilaterales Forschungsprojekt in der Villa Vigoni 2007–2008*, Band 2 (S. 294–306). Frankfurt (a. M.): Lang.
- Venohr, E. (2013). Didaktische Aspekte fremdsprachlicher Textproduktion in der Wissenschaftssprache Deutsch. In: F. Gucza et al. (Hrsg.), Band 16: *Akten des XII. Internationalen Germanistenkongresses, Warschau 2010. Germanistische Textlinguistik. Digitalität und Textkulturen. Vormoderne Textualität. Diskurslinguistik im Spannungsfeld von Diskription und Kritik* (S. 175–181). Frankfurt (a. M.): Lang.
- Wysocka, M. (1989). *Rozwój umiejętności mówienia i pisanie w języku angielskim*. Katowice: Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Received: 20.10.2020; **revised:** 09.04.2021

JAN ILUK
Uniwersytet Śląski w Katowicach
jan.iluk@us.edu.pl
ORCID: 0000-0003-2539-1936

GRZEGORZ LISEK
Universität Greifswald

Über *ból* und *symptomy*... Wortschatz im Polnischunterricht für deutschsprachige Rettungskräfte

About *ból* and *symptomy*...
Lexical analysis in Polish as a foreign language classes
for German paramedics

ABSTRACT. This paper focuses on the lexical side of the emergency communication of German paramedics who are learning Polish as a foreign language for professional purposes. The aim of the study is to find out which lexical units arise during language courses and how often. To what extent can the acquired vocabulary be used to develop dedicated programmes for foreign language acquisition in medical emergency communication? The analysis shows that the vocabulary collected here depends on the subject, such as *ból* (pain) or *leki* (medicines). According to the participants, *symptomy* (symptoms) and *duszności* (shortness of breath) are also part of the common vocabulary. Emergency medical communication can be carried out with the question pronouns *kiedy* (when) and *gdzie* (where). Among the most frequently repeated lexical units of vital parameters during patient transfer are *saturacja* (oxygen saturation) and *puls* (pulse). The vocabulary collected here should help in preparing a description of the competences which should form part of a language course for professional purposes.

KEYWORDS: Emergency medical communication, Polish as a foreign language, vocabulary.

SCHLÜSSELWÖRTER: Medizinische Notfallkommunikation, Polnisch als Fremdsprache, Wortschatz.

Fremdsprachendidaktiker und Linguisten¹ wissen, wie wichtig eine gezielte Zusammenstellung der Inhalte eines Fremdsprachenkurses für berufliche Zwecke ist. In der Forschungsgemeinschaft werden Stimmen laut, die nach einer einheitlichen Beschreibung der Fertigkeiten bei Sprachkursen für berufliche

¹ Aus Gründen der besseren Lesbarkeit wird im Text verallgemeinernd das generische Maskulinum verwendet. Diese Formulierungen umfassen gleichermaßen weibliche, männliche oder diverse Personen. Alle sind damit gleichermaßen angesprochen.

Zwecke plädieren (Gajewska 2011: 19). Die Wortschatztiefe und -breite spielt bei einer solchen Beschreibung eine wichtige Rolle. Erste bedeutende Schritte in diese Richtung wurden bereits getan (Gębal & Kołsut 2019: 67), wobei die notfallmedizinische Kommunikation auf Polnisch noch Aufarbeitung bedarf.

Dieser Artikel thematisiert daher das Programm des Polnischunterrichts für Rettungskräfte (Ärzte und Notfallsanitäter) im Rahmen des aus den Mitteln des Fonds für Regionale Entwicklung (EFRE) finanzierten Projekts InGRiP². Im Fokus des Beitrags steht der Wortschatz im Fremdsprachenunterricht für deutschsprachige Rettungskräfte. Unabhängig von dem Sprachkurstyp weisen Forscher im Kontext der Fremdsprachendidaktik auf die Rolle des Wortschatzes hin: „Wortschatzkenntnisse, die nicht nur zum Verstehen fremdsprachlicher Kommunikate, sondern auch zum korrekten Gebrauch der lexikalischen Einheiten [...] und zur Realisierung der kommunikativen Ziele unentbehrlich sind, spielen eine große Rolle im Fremdsprachenlernprozess“ (Targońska 2014: 171).

Da Gespräche mit Patienten in einer vor kurzem gelernten Sprache (hier: Polnisch) herausfordernd sind und ein Zusammenspiel der Fertigkeiten wie Hören und Sprechen darstellen, besteht in der Beschreibung der Fertigkeiten mit dem dazugehörigen Wortschatz ein besonderer Mehrwert für diesen Text. Dabei konzentriert sich die vorliegende Untersuchung auf Frequenzerscheinungen, um nach möglichen Rückschlüssen für weitere Sprachkurse und Programme für Fremdspracherwerb zu suchen. Dazu wird auf Daten aus dem Projekt InGRiP zurückgegriffen.

Mit Blick auf notfallmedizinische Kommunikation sowie gezielter Wortschatzerwerb im Fremdsprachenunterricht stellen sich folgende Fragen: Welche lexikalischen Einheiten kommen während der Sprachkurse für berufliche Zwecke wie häufig vor? Inwiefern kann der erfasste Wortschatz genutzt werden, zielgerichtete Programme für den Fremdspracherwerb in der medizinischen Notfallkommunikation zu entwickeln?³

Aus so konzipierter Fragestellung resultiert die Gliederung des Textes: Im ersten Teil wird das Projekt vorgestellt und auf die Spezifika notfallmedizinischer Kommunikation kurz eingegangen. Darüber hinaus werden das Lehrkonzept sowie die Bedeutung der Lexik im Fachsprachenunterricht nachgezeichnet. Im Hauptteil des Beitrags werden die Daten und das Forschungsdesign vorge-

² Nähere Informationen zum Projekt *Integrierter grenzüberschreitender Rettungsdienst Pomerania / Brandenburg* (InGRiP), das in den Jahren 2018-2021 realisiert wird, sowie zu den beteiligten Partnern finden Sie unter <https://www.medizin.uni-greifswald.de/ingrip/de/home/> [Zugriff am: 20.08.2020].

³ Die hier auf Lehrprogramme ausgerichtete Untersuchung resultiert aus der Multiperspektivität der Begrifflichkeit *Fremdsprachendidaktik*, die hier sowohl im Sinne von Fluck (vgl. 1992: 16) als auch von Gruzca (vgl. 2010: 42) verstanden wird.

stellt, um dann die Forschungsfragen aufzugreifen und anhand des gesammelten Materials zu beantworten. Im letzten Teil des Artikels werden die Ergebnisse zusammengefasst und mit einem Ausblick versehen.

1. DAS PROJEKT INGRIP UND DIE NOTFALLMEDIZINISCHE KOMMUNIKATION

Das Projekt InGRiP ist ein multiinstitutionelles und grenzüberschreitendes Vorhaben, dessen fremdsprachenbezogene Module am Institut für Slawistik der Universität Greifswald verankert wurde. Im Projekt geht es um die transnationale notfallmedizinische Versorgung der Patienten im deutschpolnischen Grenzraum. Somit gehören die fremdsprachliche Kommunikation mit den Patienten sowie die Arbeit in mehrsprachigen Notfallteams zu den zentralen Themen des Vorhabens. Daher wurden berufsbezogene Sprachschulungen sowohl auf Polnisch (für deutsche Rettungskräfte) als auch auf Deutsch (für ihre polnischen Kollegen) konzipiert und Lehr und Lernmaterialien entwickelt⁴. Des Weiteren nahmen Rettungskräfte aus beiden Ländern gemeinsam an einem abschließenden Simulationstraining teil. Dabei lag der Schwerpunkt auf der Erfassung und Auswertung von Problemen in der deutschpolnischen notfallmedizinischen Kommunikation⁵.

Die im Projekt untersuchte Notfallkommunikation gehört zur medizinischen FacetoFace Kommunikation, an der Patienten und ein Rettungsteam beteiligt sind. Darüber hinaus können bei der Kommunikation Familienangehörige oder Unfallzeugen vorkommen. Nicht nur die Rollenwahrnehmung, sondern auch der Erwerb elementarer kommunikativer Äußerungsmuster auf Polnisch sind im fremdsprachigen Kommunikationsgefüge von Bedeutung. Rettungsschemata, die für die Notfallmedizin typisch sind, beinhalten die elementaren Äußerungsmuster und können somit produktiv im Fremdsprachenunterricht genutzt werden. Die medizinischen Schemata, die während der Notfallanamnese angewandt werden und vor allem auf Akronymen⁶ aufbauen, können nicht nur für eine schnelle Übersicht sorgen, sondern auch für Sachlichkeit und Genauigkeit (Stemmler & Hecker 2017: 100), die das A und O gelungener notfallmedizinischen

⁴ In der weiteren Beschreibung des Schulungskonzepts sowie bei der Datensammlung wird nur auf Polnisch als Fremdsprache eingegangen.

⁵ Die Begriffe *notfallmedizinische Kommunikation* und *Notfallkommunikation* werden hier synonym verwendet.

⁶ Mit Schemata der Notfallanamnese, die als Akronyme vorkommen, sind Fragehandlungen gemeint, dank derer gezielt Informationen eingeholt werden können. Mehr zu den konkreten Schemata finden Sie bei Stemmler und Hecker (2017).

Kommunikation, auch auf Polnisch, sind. Deswegen lassen sich die Schemata gut im Rahmen der kommunikativen oder Aufgaben orientierten Methode auch als ChunkingSequenzen⁷ realisieren, insbesondere als fertige dialogische notfallmedizinische FrageAntwortSequenzen.

Da sich notfallmedizinische Kommunikation aus konkreten Sprechhandlungen zusammensetzt, die in verschiedene Sprechakte gegliedert werden (Searle 1997: 39), spielen assertive, direktive, erotetische und expressive Sprechakte und die damit verbundenen Fragehandlungen⁸ auch im Unterricht eine wichtige Rolle (Lisek 2020: 193). Um sowohl die ChunkingSequenzen als auch spontane Äußerungen produzieren zu können, benötigen die Teilnehmenden Wortschatzkenntnisse. Wobei nach Targońska (2011: 117) hervorzuheben ist:

Wortschatzkenntnisse bilden nur eine Grundlage für die Fähigkeit, mit dem Wortschatz richtig umzugehen. Seit der kommunikativen Wende ist klar, dass beim Fremdsprachenlernen nicht Sprachwissen, sondern Sprachfertigkeiten bzw. Kompetenzen eine viel wichtigere Rolle spielen.

Mehr zu den Herausforderungen in Bezug auf den Wortschatzerwerb und seine Stellung in Kursen für berufliche Zwecke findet sich im nächsten Kapitel.

2. FREMDSPRACHENUNTERRICHT FÜR BERUFLICHE ZWECKE UND LEHRKONZEPTE FÜR DIE NOTFALLMEDIZINISCHE KOMMUNIKATION AUF POLNISCH

Der folgende Abschnitt wird in zwei Unterkapitel gegliedert, um einzeln auf die Schwerpunkte einzugehen: allgemein auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht für berufliche Zwecke für Polnisch und speziell auf die Rolle des Wortschatzerwerbs⁹. Darüber hinaus wird die Konzeption des Unterrichts thematisiert.

⁷ Chunking ist in Anlehnung an Roche (vgl. 2013: 116) als automatisierte Wiedergabe von festen Formeln oder Redewendungen zu verstehen.

⁸ Diese sind dahingehend unterrichtsrelevant, dass bei der Notfallkommunikation beispielsweise konkrete Beschwerden thematisiert werden.

⁹ Es wird hier bewusst von *Wortschatz* und nicht von *Vokabeln* oder *Lexemen* geschrieben. *Wortschatz* wird hier als eine Gesamtheit verstanden, als ein Netz von Wechselwirkungen der *Wortarten*, die nicht separat im Lernprozess zu betrachten sind. Jegliche Ausdifferenzierungen oder Darstellung, die die *Wortarten* oder einzelne *Wortartgruppen* fokussieren, dienen einer Veranschaulichung der Inhalte und stellen dann *Wortschatz* auf eine vereinfachte Art und Weise dar, was jedoch nicht den Sinn der Untersuchung in Frage stellt, da durch den Wortschatz eine umfängliche Beschreibung der Sprachkompetenzen ermöglicht wird. Daher wird hier neben Wortschatz auch die Bezeichnung *lexikalische Einheit* benutzt, die nicht mit *Lexem* gleichzusetzen ist.

2.1. Fremdsprachenunterricht und Wortschatz für berufliche Zwecke

Am Anfang des Unterkapitels wird die in der polonistischen Fremdsprachendidaktik in Polen dominierende Differenzierung der Sprachkurse in Kurse für akademische Zwecke und Kurse für berufliche Zwecke (Zarzycka 2017: 137; Seretny 2017: 150) in den Vordergrund gestellt. Mit dieser Perspektive fällt es wesentlich leichter, den Status des Wortschatzes in den Fremdsprachenkursen für deutschsprachige Rettungskräfte einzuordnen. Kurse für akademische Zwecke haben nämlich einen eher allgemeinen Charakter und richten sich an angehende Experten und nicht an einen Personenkreis der bereits beruflich tätigen. Dabei ist auch die Stellung des Wortschatzes dahingehend zu den Kursen für berufliche Zwecke unterschiedlich, dass Kurse für akademische Zwecke prinzipiell nicht nur alle Fertigkeiten fokussieren, sondern auch alle systemlinguistisch relevanten Bereiche didaktisch aufgreifen, d.h. der Stellenwert der Aufarbeitung von grammatischen Phänomenen ist der Wortschatzarbeit gleich. Bei den Kursen für berufliche Zwecke muss es nicht der Fall sein, da auch in der Regel bereits die systemsprachliche Kompetenz vorliegt.

Der Sprachkurs für Rettungskräfte aus den Rettungswachen in den Landkreisen VorpommernGreifswald und MärkischOderland betrifft einen sehr komplexen Bereich der Medizin, nämlich die Notfallmedizin. Die Vorbereitung eines solchen Kurses ist, wie GębkaWolak (2011: 39) zurecht über Sprachkurse für berufliche Zwecke behauptet, wie eine Einzelanfertigung. In diesem Fall ist es vor allem Pionierarbeit, da bislang ein Sprachkurs speziell für deutsche Rettungskräfte weder konzipiert noch durchgeführt wurde. Daher existieren auch keine profilierten notfallmedizinischen Lehrmaterialien für das Polnische. Diese sind eher für das Sprachniveau B1 typisch, worauf GębkaWolak (2016: 11) hinweist¹⁰.

Ein besonderes Augenmerk gilt auch den betroffenen Berufsgruppen: Laut Seretny (2017: 157) ist es wichtig, zwischen berufserfahrenen Teilnehmenden und erst in den Beruf einsteigenden Absolventen zu differenzieren. An den Sprachkursen im InGRiPProjekt nahmen tatsächlich Rettungskräfte mit 20jähriger Erfahrung im Beruf sowie Rettungssanitäter gleich nach der Berufsschule teil. Die Teilnehmenden verband die Tatsache, dass die Mehrheit noch nie Polnisch gelernt hat, was eine verkürzte Bedarfsanalyse aus dem Jahr

¹⁰ Es existierten zwar Lehrbücher, die medizinische Themen betreffen (z. B. „Co Panu dolega?“ von Chłopicka-Wielgos, Pukas-Palińska & Turek-Fornelska 2015) oder sich explizit dem Rettungswesen (z. B. *Dwujęzyczny podręcznik komunikacji językowej dla służb ratowniczych pogranicza polsko-słowackiego* von Majewska-Wójcik, Račáková, Smoleń-Wawrzusiszyn & Olchowa 2016) widmen, jedoch keine von denen ist für medizinische Rettungskräfte explizit gedacht und somit nicht auf sprachliche notfallmedizinische Vorgänge fokussiert.

2018 zeigte: „Die Befragten meinten bei einer weiteren Frage bezüglich des Polnischen, zu ca. 97%, diese Sprache nicht zu beherrschen“ (Lisek 2019: 22). Dies erleichterte nicht unbedingt die Zusammensetzung der Inhalte für den Sprachkurs und insbesondere nicht die Wahl des Wortschatzes, zumal diese prinzipiell als schwierig in der Fachliteratur (Seretny 2017: 159) eingestuft wird. Zugleich wird darauf hingewiesen, dass von dem Bekanntheitsgrad des Wortschatzes der Kommunikationserfolg unter den Lernenden abhängig ist (Seretny 2010: 547).

Dabei ist der Standpunkt von Kósa (2019:32) zu berücksichtigen: „Eines der Hauptziele des Fremdsprachenunterrichts ist die Entfaltung der lexikalischen Kompetenz, weil die Schüler die Lexeme nicht nur verstehen müssen, sondern sie sollten im Stande sein die gelernten Wörter zielgerecht und möglichst geläufig anzuwenden“. Somit tritt der produktive Wortschatz in den Vordergrund. Dies geschieht zurecht, denn, wie Kósa (2019: 32) weiter ausführt, der Wortschatz sowohl für rezeptive als auch produktive Fertigkeiten eine Bedeutung hat. Der hier thematisierte Fremdsprachenkurs fokussiert sowohl die produktive Fertigkeit (Sprechen) als auch die rezeptive Fertigkeit (Hören). Erfolgreiche Umsetzung beider hängt mit dem Wortschatzerwerb zusammen.

2.2. Lehrkonzept für notfallmedizinisches Polnisch im InGRiPProjekt

Die auf drei Wochen verteilten Lernmodule sind dem Hauptziel des Projekts untergeordnet, also „den Teilnehmenden effiziente Strategien der Kommunikation in der Fach und Nachbarsprache Polnisch beizubringen“ (Lisek 2019: 23). Demzufolge wurde der Unterricht der jeweils vier Gruppen strukturiert und die Inhalte auf Präsenzveranstaltungen und ELearningPhasen verteilt. Die Präsenzveranstaltungen dauerten jeweils eine Woche pro Modul und wurden über das Jahr 2019 verteilt¹¹ (Januar bis April sowie August bis Oktober) und behandelten folgende Schwerpunkte: (1) sprachliche Strukturen des Polnischen, (2) medizinische Kommunikation sowie (3) notfallmedizinische Sprechhandlungen in der Fremdsprache. Um eine kontinuierliche und nachhaltige Beschäftigung der Kursteilnehmenden mit der polnischen Sprache zu ermöglichen, wurden Elemente des Blended Learnings in das Schulungsprogramm integriert. Es wurden

¹¹ Die Corona-Pandemie hat eine bedeutende Auswirkung auf die Realisierung des Projekts. Außer den geplanten Online-Modulen wurden auch Auffrischkurse konzipiert und seit Dezember 2019 vor den jeweiligen Simulationstrainings (teils als Präsenzveranstaltung, teils als Online-Veranstaltung) durchgeführt.

ELearningModule vorgesehen, die in der Zeit zwischen den Präsenzs Schulungen und vor den Simulationstrainings von den Kursteilnehmenden selbstständig bearbeitet werden konnten¹².

3. DATEN UND FORSCHUNGSDESIGN

Um die Frequenz des Vorkommens notfallmedizinisch relevanten Wortschatzes deutschsprachiger Rettungskräfte im Polnischunterricht analysieren zu können, wurden Sprachdaten gesammelt. Die vorliegenden Sprachdaten wurden im Rahmen einer schriftlichen Aufgabe erhoben, die als Test mit offener Frage konzipiert und während der dritten Woche des Polnischunterrichts zwischen August und Oktober 2019 in Greifswald realisiert wurde.

Für die Umsetzung der Aufgabe im Unterricht wurden drei thematische Bereiche ausgemacht: notfallmedizinische Anamnese, Schmerzuntersuchung sowie Patientenübergabe. Die Wahl resultiert aus der alltagspraktischen Relevanz der Sprechhandlungen für die Teilnehmenden, d. h. im Fokus stehen die den Rettungskräften wichtigen Situationen, in denen die fremdsprachliche Kompetenz insbesondere zur Geltung kommt.

Für alle drei Themenbereiche sollten die Kursteilnehmenden vor der Ausstrahlung eines Lehrfilmes bis zu zehn Worte¹³ auf das Aufgabenblatt¹⁴ notieren. Die Lehrperson gewährte den Probanden eine Bearbeitungszeit von maximal fünf Minuten. Die Aufgabe sollte ohne Hilfsmittel als Einzelarbeit realisiert werden.

Die folgende Abbildung ist ein beispielhafter Beleg zum Themenbereich „Patientenübergabe“ und zeigt, wie die Teilnehmenden die Aufgabe verstanden haben: Zu erkennen ist folgender Wortschatz: *drogi oddechowe* (Atemwege), *ból* (Schmerz), *puls* (Puls), *saturacja* (Sauerstoffsättigung), *podaliśmy leki* (wir haben Medikamente verabreicht), *szmer oddechowy* (Atmungsgeräusch), *niezagrożone* (nicht gefährdet), *przytomnie* (bewusst).

¹² Eine ausführliche Beschreibung der Präsenz- und Online-Module sowie des Kursverlaufs finden Sie u. a. bei Lisek (2018) oder Hryniewicz und Lisek (2019).

¹³ Die Bezeichnung *Wort* wurde aus forschungspraktischen Gründen als ein Kompromiss auf dem Arbeitsblatt für Teilnehmende benutzt, um den Teilnehmenden einen guten Zugang zum Test zu erleichtern und eine zeitschonende Durchführung der Untersuchung zu gewährleisten.

¹⁴ Die Aufgabenstellung war für alle Themenbereiche gleich formuliert und hat sich nur durch die Benennung des Themenbereichs unterschieden und lautete beispielsweise für „notfallmedizinische Anamnese“ wie folgt: „Sie sehen gleich einen Film zum Thema SAMPLE(R). Ohne den Film gesehen zu haben, welche Worte erwarten Sie in der Aufnahme zu hören.“

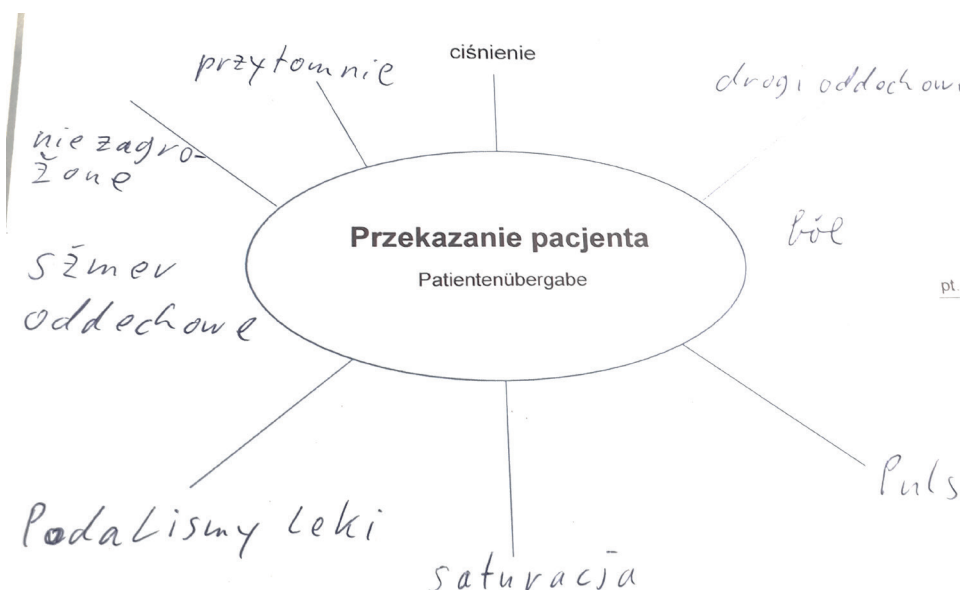


Abbildung 1. Beispielhafte Lösung der Aufgabe aus dem Themenbereich „Patientenübergabe“

Bei der Methode der Auswertung des Datenmaterials handelt es sich um ein quantitatives Verfahren (Albert & Marx 2016: 12), das typisch für die traditionelle und theoretische Linguistik ist. Es wird nach Häufigkeiten im Wortschatz gesucht, um daraus Regularitäten für zukünftige Sprachkursprogramme abzuleiten.

Als Grundlage der Untersuchung fungieren auch orthografisch falsch dargestellte Lexeme, solange diese das korrekt geschriebene Wort erkennen lassen.

Zum Themenbereich „notfallmedizinische Anamnese“ wurden 38 Einheiten ausgemacht, die sowohl einzeln als auch als Phrasen vorkommen. Kursteilnehmende haben im zweiten Themenbereich „Schmerzuntersuchung“ 43 lexikalische Einheiten genannt. Zum letzten Themenbereich also „Patientenübergabe“ wurden 43 Einheiten festgestellt. Insgesamt wurden in den drei Themenbereichen 113 lexikalische Einheiten gesammelt. Diese wurden erneut auf Wiederholungen überprüft, was eine endgültige Anzahl von 93 Untersuchungseinheiten ergab. Das so entstandene Korpus kann nach Bedarf sowohl nach Wortarten als auch nach thematischen Kategorien gruppiert werden.

Der Abbildung ist zu entnehmen, dass Substantive zusammen mit Pronomen in der gesammelten Sprachdatenprobe dominieren, sie machen nämlich 58% aus. Die zweitgrößte Gruppe lexikalischer Einheiten repräsentieren Verben (12%). Der dritte Platz gehört den Adjektiven, die 11% des gesammelten Datenmaterials

bilden. Die hier präsentierte Verteilung¹⁵ überrascht nicht, wenn angenommen wird, dass ein Fremdsprachenkurs für berufliche Zwecke eine hohe nominale Last hat.

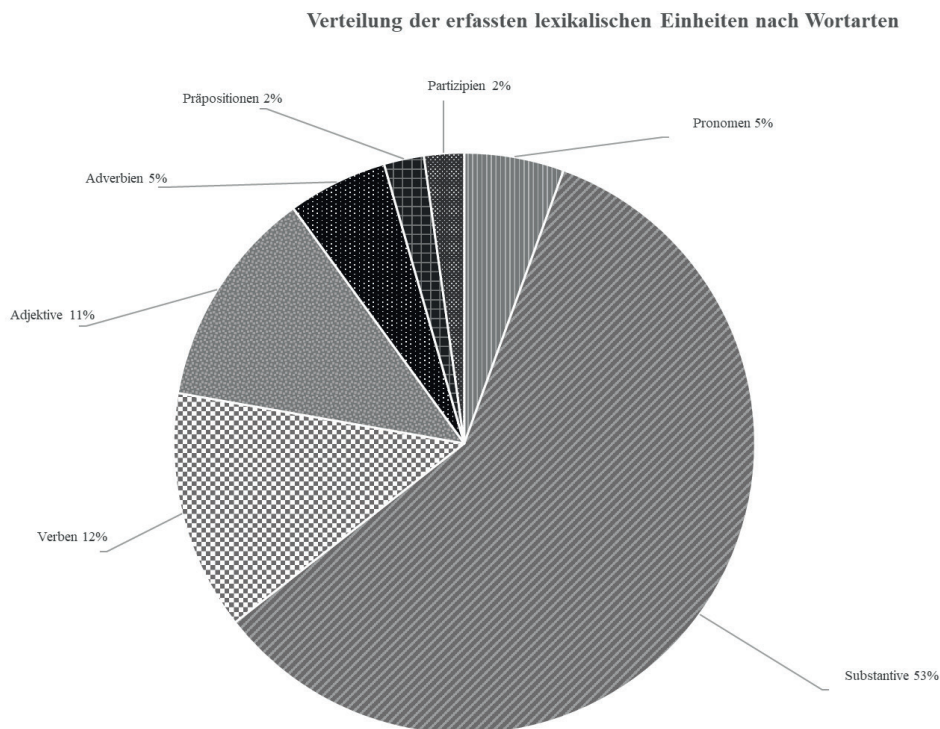


Abbildung 2. Gesammelte lexikalische Einheiten nach Wortarten

4. ANALYSE DES WORTSCHATZES

Die Untersuchung richtet sich nach den drei festgelegten Themenbereichen. Es wird der während des Tests gesammelte Wortschatz auf seine Häufigkeit analysiert. Aus forschungspraktischen Gründen werden in der Auswertung drei sich am häufigsten wiederholende lexikalische Einheiten thematisiert. Der Vergleich des gesammelten Wortschatzes zwischen den Gruppen erfolgt nicht

¹⁵ Da unter den Wortarten auch einzelne Präpositionen oder Partizipien vorgekommen sind, wird auf die exemplarisch eingegangen. Zu den Partizipien gehörte vor allem *promieniujący* (ausstrahlend). Die Präpositionen kamen vor allem in Phrasen, wie z. B. *od kiedy* (seit wann) oder *od 0 do 10* (von 0 bis 10).

in Bezug auf die Häufigkeit der ausgemachten Einheiten, sondern auf das Vorkommen einer konkreten lexikalischen Einheit überhaupt¹⁶.

4.1. Wortschatz im Themenbereich „notfallmedizinische Anamnese“

Allgemein ist festzuhalten, dass im Bereich der notfallmedizinischen Anamnese fast 40 sich nicht wiederholende lexikalische Einheiten ausgemacht wurden. Die Frequenzanalyse ergab, dass Folgendes am häufigsten genannt wurde:

Tabelle 1. Am häufigsten genannte lexikalische Einheiten im Themenbereich „notfallmedizinischen Anamnese“

Lexikalische Einheit	Häufigkeit	Lexikalische Einheit	Häufigkeit
ból (Schmerz)	14	co (was)	4
leki (Medikamente)	14	duszności (Atemnot)	4
kiedy (wann)	5	symptomy (Symptome)	4

Ból und *leki* sind somit lexikalische Einheiten, die von der Frequenz her am häufigsten vorkommen. Des Weiteren gehört zu den von den Kursteilnehmenden häufig genannten Einheiten auch *kiedy*. In allen vier Gruppen kommen sowohl *ból* als auch *leki* vor. Auch *kiedy* wird von den Teilnehmenden aller Gruppen genannt.

Im gesamten Themenbereich setzt sich der ausgemachte Wortschatz anhand von Wortarten wie folgt zusammen: Fast zu 60% überwiegen Substantive, gefolgt von Pronomen (21%). Verben machen nur 13% des hiesigen Wortschatzes aus. Mit 6% sind Adverbien am wenigsten repräsentiert. Eine detaillierte Zusammensetzung des Wortschatzes nach Wortarten ist der Tabelle zu entnehmen.

Tabelle 2. Wortschatz zum Thema „notfallmedizinische Anamnese“ nach Wortarten (n=38)

Wortart	Adverb	Pronomen	Substantiv	Verb
Anzahl	3	8	22	5

Um die Realisierung weiterer notfallmedizinischen Sprachkurse des Polnischen für berufliche Zwecke zu ermöglichen, dient der substantivische Wortschatz als Exemplifikation der unter den Wortarten am zahlreichsten vorkommenden lexikalischen Einheiten.

¹⁶ Dieses Vorgehen ist der Situation geschuldet, dass die vier Gruppen in der letzten Kursphase eine unterschiedliche Anzahl an Teilnehmenden aufweisen. Darüber hinaus erfolgte der Sprachunterricht in der zweiten Gruppe in Form von Einzelunterricht, somit sind mögliche Vergleiche bezüglich der Frequenz der lexikalischen Einheiten zwischen den Gruppen hinfällig.

Zu der Kategorie gehört folgender Wortschatz: *alergia* (Allergie), *astma* (Asthma), *ból* (Schmerz), *choroba* (Krankheit), *cukrzyca* (Diabetes), *duszności* (Atemnot), *głowa* (Kopf), *gorączka* (Fieber), *kaszel* (Husten), *klatka piersiowa* (Brustkorb), *krew* (Blut), *lat*¹⁷ (Jahre), *leki* (Medikamente), *nadciśnienie* (Bluthochdruck), *operacja* (Operation), *pan* (Herr / Sie), *serce* (Herz), *symptomy* (Symptome), *szpital* (Krankenhaus), *temperatura* (Temperatur), *wymioty* (Erbrechen), *zawał* (Herzinfarkt).

Auch wenn Verben nicht zu den am stärksten repräsentierten Gruppen gehören, werden hier die ausgemachten Einheiten beispielhaft genannt: *boli*, *dolega*, *jadła*, *ma*, *stało się*. Um Sprachkurse für notfallmedizinische Kommunikation realisieren zu können, werden die Verben in Infinitivform erneut herangezogen, d.h. von den Teilnehmenden wurden folgende Einheiten aufgelistet: *boleć* (schmerzen, wehtun), *dolegać* (fehlen), *jeść* (essen), *mieć* (haben), *stać się* (passieren, sich ereignen).

4.2. Wortschatz im Themenbereich „Schmerzuntersuchung“

Im Bereich der Schmerzuntersuchung konnten 43 sich nicht wiederholende Einheiten ausgemacht werden. Am häufigsten wurden von den Teilnehmenden, wie es der Tabelle zu entnehmen ist, folgende lexikalische Einheiten genannt:

Tabelle 3. Am häufigsten genannte lexikalische Einheiten im Themenbereich „Schmerzuntersuchung“

Lexem	Häufigkeit
kiedy (wann)	12
gdzie (wo)	10
od (seit)	9

Die Tabelle zeigt, dass Fragehandlungen in diesem thematischen Bereich einen sehr hohen Stellenwert haben. Dies ist insbesondere sichtbar durch die Frequenz von *kiedy* und *gdzie*. Die Gruppen vergleichend kommt *kiedy* nur in drei Gruppen vor, dagegen *gdzie* wird von Teilnehmenden in allen vier Gruppen genannt.

Die hier aufgeführten Einheiten – Pronomen (19%) und Präposition (7%) – dienen vor allem der zeitlichen und räumlichen Schmerzbestimmung. Sie reprä-

¹⁷ Da bei den anderen Einheiten des Wortschatzes diese mehrheitlich in Nominativ vorkommen, ist es mir ein Anliegen die Konstruktion *Wie alt sind Sie?*, also *Ile ma pan(i) lat?*, zu thematisieren, da *lat* hier genitivisch nachgestellt als Substantiv benutzt wird, was im Deutschen adjektivisch realisiert wird.

sentieren nicht die größte Wortartgruppe, d.h. Substantive (38%). Sie werden aber gleich nach diesen und noch vor den Verben (14%) aufgelistet, was der unteren Zusammenstellung zu entnehmen ist.

Tabelle 4. Wortschatz zum Thema „Schmerzuntersuchung“ nach Wortarten (n=43)

Wortart	Adjektiv	Adverb	Partizip	Präposition	Pro-nomen	Substan-tiv	Verb
Anzahl	6	2	2	3	8	16	6

Die Exemplifikation der unter den Wortarten am zahlreichsten vorkommenden lexikalischen Einheiten speist sich aus dem substantivischen Wortschatz und soll vor allem die Realisierung weiterer notfallmedizinischen Sprachkurse des Polnischen für berufliche Zwecke erleichtern. In dieser Kategorie werden folgende Einheiten von den Teilnehmenden aufgeführt: *badanie* (Untersuchung), *ból* (Schmerz), *brzuch* (Bauch), *głos* (Stimme), *głowa* (Kopf), *klatka piersiowa* (Brustkorb), *kolka* (Kolik), *lek* (Medikament), *nadbrzusze* (Oberbauch), *norma* (Norm), *pan* (Herr / Sie), *papierosy* (Zigaretten), *podbrzusze* (Unterbauch), *rana kęsana* (Bisswunde), *skala* (Skala), *szpital* (Krankenhaus).

Verben stellen gleichermaßen ein wichtiges Element des Wortschatzes dar und somit wurden folgende Formen ausgemacht: *boli*, *czuje*, *jadł*, *kłuć*, *opisać*, *promieniuje*. Um Sprachunterricht für notfallmedizinische Kommunikation erfolgreich zu gestalten, werden die Verben in Infinitivform erneut aufgelistet, d.h. von den Teilnehmenden wurden folgende Einheiten verzeichnet: *boleć* (schmerzen, wehtun), *czuć* (fühlen), *jeść* (essen), *kłuć* (stechen), *opisać* (beschreiben), *promieniować* (ausstrahlen).

4.3. Wortschatz im Themenbereich „Patientenübergabe“

Im Rahmen des thematischen Bereichs „Patientenübergabe“ wurden 43 sich nicht wiederholende Einheiten verzeichnet. Die lexikalischen Einheiten, die sich in der Frequenzanalyse am häufigsten wiederholen, werden in der Tabelle aufgelistet.

Tabelle 5. Am häufigsten genannte lexikalische Einheiten im Themenbereich „Patientenübergabe“

Lexem	Häufigkeit
puls (Puls)	12
saturacja (Sauerstoffsättigung)	12
drogi oddechowe (Atemwege)	10

In allen vier Gruppen werden von den Teilnehmenden die lexikalischen Einheiten *puls* und *saturacja* genannt. Wiederum *drogi oddechowe* werden von den Teilnehmenden in drei Gruppen verzeichnet.

In diesem Themenbereich setzt sich der Wortschatz anhand von Wortarten wie folgt zusammen: Die Mehrheit machen Substantive (77%) aus, gefolgt von Adjektiven (9%). Verben kommen nur zu 7% vor. Eine detaillierte Zusammensetzung des Wortschatzes zum Thema „Patientenübergabe“ ist der Tabelle zu entnehmen.

Tabelle 6. Wortschatz zum Thema „Patientenübergabe“ nach Wortarten (n=43)

Wortart	Adjektiv	Adverb	Pronomen	Präposition	Substantiv	Verb
Anzahl	4	1	1	1	33	3

Ähnlich wie in den Themenbereichen „Anamnese“ und „Schmerzuntersuchung“ soll hier die Exemplifikation der unter den Wortarten am zahlreichsten vorkommenden lexikalischen Einheiten vor allem die Konzeption und Realisierung weiterer notfallmedizinischen Sprachkurse des Polnischen für berufliche Zwecke vereinfachen. Es wurden von den Teilnehmenden folgende substantivische lexikalische Einheiten genannt: *alergia* (Allergie), *anamneza* (Anamnese), *badanie* (Untersuchung), *ból* (Schmerz), *choroba* (Krankheit), *cukier* (Zucker), *częstość* (Frequenz), *drogi oddechowe* (Atemwege), *glukoza* (Glukose), *lat* (Jahre), *leki* (Medikamente), *objętość* (Volumen), *obrażenia* (Verletzung), *oddech* (Atmung), *otarcia* (Abschürfungen), *pacjent* (Patient), *puls* (Puls), *rana* (Wunde), *saturacja* (Sauerstoffsättigung), *serce* (Herz), *skala* (Skala), *szmer* (Atmungsgeräusch), *temperatura* (Temperatur), *tętno* (Puls), *tlen* (Sauerstoff), *uraz* (Trauma), *wypadek* (Unfall), *zawał* (Herzinfarkt), *źrenica* (Pupille). Zu der Auflistung gehören auch Abkürzungen: ABCDE, ATMIST, EKG, GCS.

Des Weiteren wurden von den Teilnehmenden folgende Verbformen genannt: *boli*, *choruje*, *podaliśmy*. Um Sprachunterricht für notfallmedizinische Kommunikation durchzuführen, werden die Verben in Infinitivform erneut aufgelistet, d.h. von den Teilnehmenden wurden folgende Einheiten genannt: *boleć* (schmerzen, wehtun), *chorować* (krank sein), *podawać* (verabreichen).

4.4. Grundwortschatz für die Notfallkommunikation

Bei der Analyse des Wortschatzes der drei festgelegten Themenbereiche ist aufgefallen, dass sich einige lexikalische Einheiten in mindestens zwei Bereichen wiederholen. Dies verleitet dazu, von einer Art von Grundwortschatz

für die Notfallkommunikation zu sprechen und diesen festzuhalten, um die Konzipierung und die Realisierung von Sprachkursen zu unterstützen. Folgende lexikalische Einheiten wurden als substantivischer Grundwortschatz dank den Teilnehmenden ausgemacht: *alergia* (Allergie), *badanie* (Untersuchung), *ból* (Schmerz), *choroba* (Krankheit), *głowa* (Kopf), *klatka piersiowa* (Brustkorb), *lat* (Jahre), *leki* (Medikamente), *pan* (Herr / Sie), *rana* (Wunde), *serce* (Herz), *skala* (Skala), *szpital* (Krankenhaus), *temperatura* (Temperatur), *zawał* (Herzinfarkt). Dieser Grundwortschatz lässt sich in eine größere Art thematische Grundwortschatzliste zusammenfassen, die Körperteile, Wundarten, Medikamente, Symptome, Allergien und Krankheitsbilder notfallmedizinischer Kommunikation. Auf Grund derer könnten kommunikative Aufgaben entwickelt werden, die im Kern dann auf den Rettungsschemata basieren würden. Der gesammelte Wortschatz ist zur Entwicklung eines Lehrprogramms dahingehend nützlich, dass zu einem eine Eingrenzung des Stoffs möglich ist, was für basale notfallmedizinische Kommunikation von besonderer Relevanz ist, zu anderem wäre dies prinzipiell wichtig, um Erfordernisse an die Teilnehmenden anzupassen und unter den Fremdsprachendidaktikern eine Standardisierung im Sinne eines Referenzrahmens für notfallmedizinische Kommunikation vorzunehmen.

Auch die Verben lassen sich zu einem Grundwortschatz zusammenfassen. Die Auflistung ist kurz, sie umfasst zwei Verben: *boleć* (schmerzen, wehtun) und *jeść* (essen).

4.5. Hören und Sprechen als Fertigkeiten bei der Notfallkommunikation

Bei fremdsprachlichen Kursen sind Wortschatzkenntnisse üblicherweise an eine fremdsprachliche Konzeption gekoppelt, die ihren Inhalt anhand des Gemeinsamen Europäischen Referenzrahmens (GER) ausrichtet. Ähnlich ist es bei diesem besonderen Sprachkurs, auch wenn für das Polnische kein Referenzrahmen für Fachsprachenunterricht vorliegt.

Ein erster Entwurf eines solchen Referenzrahmen wurde bereits im Rahmen von methodischen Überlegungen erstellt (Lisek 2019: 23) und im Laufe der Erprobung der Lehrmaterialien analysiert, reflektiert und ergänzt. Des Weiteren hat die hiesige Untersuchung gezeigt, welche lexikalischen Einheiten bei welchen thematischen Schwerpunkten zu erwarten sind. Durch die Frequenzanalyse des gesammelten Wortschatzes konnte darüber hinaus gezeigt werden, welche Relevanz die Rettungskräfte einzelnen Sprechhandlungen, die sich in dem Wortschatz materialisieren, zuschreiben.

Betrachtet man die Erkenntnisse der Untersuchung, könnte die Beschreibung des Referenzrahmens für Hören und Sprechen (dabei spielt der Wortschatz eine wichtige Rolle) in Anlehnung an den durchgeführten Sprachkurs wie folgt aussehen:

Tabelle 7. Beschreibung ausgewählter Fertigkeiten auf dem basalen Niveau des Polnischen als Fremdsprache im Rahmen der medizinischen Fachkommunikation für den Rettungsdienst

Hören	Kursteilnehmende können vertraute Wörter und elliptische (nominale und / oder verbale) Äußerungen oder ganz einfache Sätze verstehen, die sich auf die Patienten (Körperteile, Symptome, Krankheiten), sie selbst, das Rettungsteam oder auf konkrete Gegenstände im Krankenhaus, im Rettungswagen oder (sehr eingeschränkt) am Einsatzort (z. B. bei der Zugangslegung oder Reanimation) beziehen, vorausgesetzt es wird auf Polnisch langsam und deutlich genug gesprochen.
Sprechen	Kursteilnehmende können sich auf eine sehr einfache Art (mittels elliptischer nominaler oder verbaler Äußerungen oder einfacher Sätze) verständigen, wenn ihre Gesprächspartner bereit sind, sich langsam zu artikulieren oder Gesagtes zu wiederholen. Kursteilnehmende können die für die notfallmedizinische Situation typischen und einfachen Fragenhandlungen realisieren (z. B. Fragen oder Aufforderungen beim Anamnesegespräch im Rahmen der Schemata: SAMPLE(R) und OPQRST und beantworten (z. B. bei der Patientenübergabe im Rahmen des Schemas ABCDE, SBAR oder ATMIST), sofern es sich um vertraute Themen (z. B. Körperteile, Krankheitssymptome, Medikamentenverabreichung, Rettungswagenausstattung) handelt.

5. ZUSAMMENFASSENDE BEMERKUNGEN UND AUSBLICK

Der hier gesammelte Wortschatz, der mittels einer Frequenzanalyse überprüft wurde, zeigt, dass im Vordergrund des analysierten Unterrichts abhängig von Themenbereichen, beispielsweise „notfallmedizinische Anamnese“, *ból* (Schmerz) und *leki* (Medikamente) stehen.

Auch *symptom* (Symptome) und *uszczności* (Atemnot) gehören, laut Teilnehmenden, dem häufig vorkommenden Wortschatz an. Die zeitliche und räumliche Dimension in der notfallmedizinischen Kommunikation können, so die Teilnehmenden, mit den Fragepronomen *kiedy* (wann) und *gdzie* (wo) realisiert werden. Die Fragepronomen werden hier ergänzt mit einem weiteren Pronomen – *od* (seit), das in Verbindung mit *kiedy*, die Frage *od kiedy* (seit wann) ergibt. Zu der sich am häufigsten bei der Patientenübergabe wiederholenden VitalparameterLexik gehören *saturation* (Sauerstoffsättigung) und *puls* (Puls).

Dank des gesammelten Wortschatzes wurde nicht nur die Themenrelevanz überprüft, sondern auch eine Grundlage für ein fachsprachliches zielgerichtetes Kursangebot für Polnisch für Rettungskräfte geschaffen, in Form eines zusammengefassten substantivischverbaler Grundwortschatzes.

Die hier gewonnenen Erkenntnisse könnten in die Beschreibung der Fertigkeiten Hören und Sprechen einfließen, die sich an GER orientiert. Dies wäre ein praktischer und produktiver Weg die Ergebnisse der vorliegenden Untersuchung didaktisch aufzubereiten und aufzuwerten.

LITERATURVERZEICHNIS

- Albert, R. / Marx, N. (2016). *Empirisches Arbeiten in Linguistik und Sprachlehrforschung. Anleitung zu quantitativen Studien von der Planung bis zum Forschungsbericht*. Tübingen: Narr.
- Chłopicka-Wielgos, M. / Pukas-Palińska, D. / Turek-Fornelska, K. (2015). *Co Panu dolega? Podręcznik rekomendowany przez Centrum Języka i Kultury Polskiej w Świecie Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego do nauczania cudzoziemców języka polskiego na studiach medycznych*. Kraków: FWKiJP im. Mikołaja Reja.
- Fluck, H.R. (1992). *Didaktik der Fachsprachen: Aufgaben und Arbeitsfelder, Konzepte und Perspektiven im Sprachbereich Deutsch*. Tübingen: Narr.
- Gajewska, E. (2015). Poziomy biegłości a nauczanie języków specjalistycznych. In: S. Piotrowski (Hrsg.), *O nauczaniu i uczeniu się języka obcego dla potrzeb zawodowych* (S. 10–21). Lublin: Werset.
- Gębal, P.E. / Kolsut, S. (2019). Zur Berufsorientierung des Fachsprachenunterrichts im mitteleuropäischen Kontext. von den Arbeitsmarkterwartungen zu den berufsspezifischen Sprachkompetenzprofilen. *Studia Neofilologiczne*, XV, 61–71. <http://dx.doi.org/10.16926/sn.2019.15.05> [Zugriff am: 25.10.2020].
- Gębka-Wolak, M. (2011). Przygotowanie lektorów do nauczania języka specjalistycznego. In: K. Pluskota / K. Taczyńska (Hrsg.), *Nowe perspektywy w nauczaniu języka polskiego jako obcego II* (S. 303–320). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UMK.
- Gębka-Wolak, M. (2016). Gramatyka w nauczaniu języka polskiego do celów specjalistycznych. In: E. Baglajewska-Miglus / T. Vogel (Hrsg.), *Fachsprachenunterricht: Lernen und Lehren am Beispiel des Polnischen als Fremdsprache / Nauczanie języka specjalistycznego: Nauczanie i uczenie się na przykładzie języka polskiego jako obcego* (S. 9–24). Aachen: Shaker Verlag.
- Grucza, S. (2010). Sprache(n) – Fachsprache(n) – Fachsprachendidaktik. *Studia Germanica Gedanensia*, 22, 31–46.
- Hryniewicz, J. / Lisek, G. (2019). Nauka języka sąsiada: od kształcenia przedszkolnego do zawodowego. Rozwiązania dydaktyczne i organizacyjne na Pomorzu Przednim. In: K. Ziolo-Pużuk (Hrsg.), *Panorama glottodydaktyki polonistycznej. Wyzwania, pytania, kierunki* (S. 149–162). Warszawa: Wydawnictwo UKSW.
- Kósa, G. (2019). Lexikalische Kompetenz im schulischen Fremdsprachenunterricht. *Werkstatt*, 14, 30–42.
- Lisek, G. (2018). Wie motiviere ich Teilnehmer bei einem ELearningFachsprachenkurs? Reflexionen zum ELearning für einen PolnischFachsprachenkurs für Rettungskräfte. In: E. Baglajewska-Miglus / T. Vogel (Hrsg.), *Polnisch als Fremd und Zweitsprache*, Band 4: *Fachsprache Polnisch – Sprache mit Zukunft. Spezialistyczny język polski – język z przyszłością* (S. 106–112). Aachen: Shaker Verlag.
- Lisek, G. (2019). Fachkommunikation und regionale Vernetzung am Beispiel des Projekts Integrierter grenzüberschreitender Rettungsdienst Pomerania / Brandenburg (InGRiP). *Greifswalder Beiträge zur Hochschullehre. Perspektiven der Lehre im 21. Jahrhundert*, 10, 21–32.

- Lisek, G. (2020). Notfallmedizinische Kommunikation im Unterricht Polnisch als Fremdsprache. Analyse von Gesprächsverhalten deutschsprachiger Rettungskräfte. *Glottodidactica. An International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, XLVII (2), 171–195.
- Majewska-Wójcik, A. / Račáková, A. / Smoleń-Wawrzusiszyn, M. / Olchowa, G. (2016). *Dwujęzyczny podręcznik komunikacji językowej dla służb ratowniczych pogranicza polskostowackiego*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo KUL.
- Roche, J. (2013). *Fremdsprachenerwerb – Fremdsprachendidaktik*. Tübingen, Basel: Francke.
- Searle, J.R. (1997). *Sprechakte: ein sprachphilosophischer Essay*. Frankfurt (a. M.): Suhrkamp.
- Seretny, A. (2010). Rozwijanie kompetencji leksykalnej uczących się poprzez obcowanie z tekstem. *Acta Universitatis Lodzensis. Kształcenie Polonistyczne Cudzoziemców*, 17, 547–579.
- Seretny, A. (2017). Leksyka w nauczaniu języka specjalistycznego – potrzeby akademickie a potrzeby zawodowe. *Acta Universitatis Lodzensis. Kształcenie Polonistyczne Cudzoziemców*, 24, 149–166.
- Stemmler, J. / Hecker, U. (2017). *Notfallkommando Kommunikation in Notfallsituationen für Gesundheitsberufe*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer.
- Targońska, J. (2011). Lexikalische Kompetenz – ein Plädoyer für eine breitere Auffassung des Begriffs. *Glottodidactica. An International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, XXXVII, 117–127.
- Targońska, J. (2014). Lexikalische Strategien der Germanistikstudierenden zu ihrem Studienbeginn. *Lingwistyka Stosowana*, 9, 171–200.

Received: 20.11.2020; **revised:** 11.03.2021

GRZEGORZ LISEK
Universität Greifswald
grzegorz.lisek@unigreifswald.de
ORCID: 0000000316133855

PAOLO NITTI

Università degli Studi dell'Insubria

GIULIO FACCHETTI

Università degli Studi dell'Insubria

The perception of languages by Italian native speakers*

ABSTRACT. This essay showcases the results of a survey conducted on a sample of Italian speakers which focused on their perception of languages. The research, carried out in the second half of 2019, has enabled corroborating the initial hypothesis about the existence of preconceptions and stereotypes associated with the perception of foreign languages and cultures (Elman & McClelland 1986) by Italian people. In particular, a questionnaire was used to clarify which adjectives are commonly associated with selected foreign languages, in order to identify certain trends and stereotypes. The survey is based on ethnolinguistic and language education studies (Cardona 2006), and was performed through data collection techniques used in ethnography and sociolinguistics (Tagliamonte 2006).

KEYWORDS: Language education, language perception, ethnolinguistics, educational linguistics, language and culture.

1. INTRODUCTION

This perception-based work is aimed at gaining insight into an ethnolinguistic issue, which has not yet been the subject of academic study: the perception of selected languages by Italian native speakers. The fact of the matter is that “the cultural aspect of language usage has been the most overlooked in linguistics” (Cardona 2006: 4).

Our analysis is focused on a sample of individuals with different socio-cultural characteristics (gender, age, occupation, education level). The survey was performed by means of a sociolinguistic questionnaire (Nitti 2018b), with the purpose of assessing the survey respondents’ perception of languages, as well as the existence of possible historical-cultural preconceptions (Wierzbicka 1999).

* This is a two-author paper, it has been conceived by the two authors together. Giulio Facchetti wrote the abstract together with Section 3. Paolo Nitti wrote Sections 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7.

The choice of the questionnaire has been, to some extent, problematic, as “the infinite complexity of linguistic phenomena cannot be the object of research; yet, researchers can attempt bringing out some fragments of reality, and therefore of linguistic data, in order to make them the subjects of their questions” (Nitti 2020: 128). The complexity of the linguistic data gathered by means of questionnaires is, in fact, an issue that is well-known and documented in scientific literature: the “data, collected by means of surveys in which speakers are asked to report on how they behave linguistically in given situations [...] require a certain degree of caution, as they are derived from self-declarations” (Berruto 2020: 23). However, the items in our questionnaire enabled us to examining value judgments, stereotypes and personal interpretations held by the respondents (Berruto 2015), regarding each of the considered languages. We offered the participants two options: multiple choice, based on adjectives, and an open field where they could add an extra evaluation (Marello 1999).

The preliminary phase, prior to the data analysis, was devoted to shedding light on the concept of perception, its meaning and on different theories which discuss its relation to the spoken language: “language is the foremost element in the life of any community, the key instrument for facilitating interaction between man and man; it is simply impossible to imagine a social group that does not use at least one language variety in daily exchanges” (Cardona 2006: 3). With the aim of formulating value judgments for the questionnaire, subjective criteria were used, as defined by a pre-questionnaire carried out on a sample of ten speakers, randomly selected.

2. METHODOLOGICAL PREMISES: THE PERCEPTION OF LANGUAGES

Perception is a complex process. It enables attributing a meaning to the sensations coming from the real world. The disciplines which deal with perception are traditionally associated with psychology, with the medical and health-related fields and with philosophy. Furthermore, interest in perception has been manifested also by linguists, with particular regard to semantic studies (Volli 2003). This is an extremely interesting and challenging topic, because our perceptions are a representation of what happens in reality, and are a direct source from which the working of the human brain can be investigated (Bazzanella 2019).

In scientific literature, the most important theories regarding perception are:

- a) the Empiricist theory, put forward by Hermann von Helmholtz (De Kock 2014), according to which the perception of objects / phenomena surrounding us takes place through experience and learning, which, in turn, derive from the contact we have with the outside world. The sensations

transmitted to the brain, therefore, represent our total acquired knowledge (after Turner 1994);

- b) the Gestalt theory, which holds that the meaning of perceptions depends essentially on the organization of the perceived phenomena. Thus, the stimuli are represented by a number of elements which lead to their organization in a subjective fashion, to the point of developing a context based on personal feelings and perceptions. Such phenomena then enable us to fully perceive all the elements surrounding us (Kanizsa 1980);
- c) the New Look theory, the elaboration of which is based on the fact that perception stems from the confrontation between an individual's personal expectations and the surrounding world. In this way, everyone builds their own perception of a particular event or object (Cooper & Fazio 1984);
- d) Neisser's theory, which revolves around the effects which thought patterns exert on attention, which, in turn, allows us to explore the environment surrounding us (Neisser 1993). The individual, in fact, receives information coming from the outside, and highlights the most important features of the objects in order to achieve specific, personal goals.

The above mentioned theories clearly show that what is perceived needs to be organized in such a way as to allow the brain to process and manage all the information, according to the context surrounding the individual (Nitti 2019). Moreover, the presence of a particular object, especially if it represents something new for the mind, triggers another process which requires conscious attention (Burani & Laudanna 1993). This, in turn, determines the elements that the human brain is able to select, by means of the "focusing and excluding" mechanisms. Applying these concepts to our research, we wish to point out that the perception of languages may be regarded as a result of several mental processes: "these combinations of acoustic and articulatory patterns are based on the physics of sound generation in the vocal tract, including theories of coupled resonators, the influence of vocal-tract walls on sound generation, and discontinuities or stabilities in the behavior of sound sources" (Stevens 2002: 1872). There are a number of sensations, stimuli, expectations, social and cultural premises, and personal experiences, based on which individuals, more or less unconsciously, are able to put forth their own interpretation or judgment about any given language (Nitti 2018a). Furthermore, an individual's personal considerations, together with the perception of the information they received, result in different points of view.

In the Italian context, research on the perception of languages, unfortunately, is limited and lacking in both descriptive and exploratory terms. This contribution, therefore, aims to explore the perception of languages by Italian speakers, in order to recognize tendencies and identify the main implications for general language teaching. This aim was achieved by means of a questionnaire study.

3. GLOBALIZATION AND LANGUAGE: ANALYSIS AND CONSEQUENCES

Globalization is a process which has radically changed our society over the past few decades, with a predominant focus on the Western culture (Tolbert 2001). This phenomenon, as documented in scientific literature, may lead to the weakening of local communities and, in turn, to the possible lack of integration between them. Analyzing the concept of globalization in more depth, however, it is possible to identify an opposing trend, represented by the blossoming of interculturality (Dervin, Gajardo & Lavanchy 2012). Linguistic contact is par excellence one of the most striking phenomena of interculturality (Dietz 2009). If language is something that has always highlighted the differences between various peoples and cultures, it is equally true that it has represented the “glue” that has kept several communities together (Vedovelli 2003). Furthermore, from a more pragmatic perspective, language has always been, and continues to remain, a key element of communication between people, capable of creating and shaping a common vision of the world (Blommaert 2012). It should also be considered that languages are not spread evenly across the globe and it is often possible to notice striking differences in their distribution worldwide. This is attested to by the fact that only ten languages are widely spread across the world and no more than fifty are spoken by at least five million people (Ostler 2005).

The English language has acquired a significant role, particularly from the economic, scientific and social points of view, and nowadays it is considered to be the world's *lingua franca* (Seidlholfer 2011). Considering, for example, today's work environment, it is worth highlighting that all companies and businesses, as well as training agencies, consider the knowledge of English a basic requirement for employees and job seekers (De Martino & Maraschio 2013). In addition to the spread of English as a *lingua franca*, well documented in scientific literature (Hynninen 2011), we need to take into account aspects such as the vitality of native languages, the ways in which people come into contact with one another, as well as other socio-ethnolinguistic factors (Björkman 2011). These are based on the peoples' cultural history, and lead to the activation of prestige mechanisms, which can be unveiled mainly due to their most common effects: linguistic calques and loans (Cardona 2006).

Another factor which is closely connected with globalization is the steady development and progress of new technologies, the Internet and social media. Such advancements have undoubtedly affected and revolutionized the way people live, think and speak (Hudson 1996). With regard to the nature of this contribution, it is worth highlighting that technology can accelerate the speed of information transmission and foster cultural and linguistic contacts (Underhill 2012). The spread

of technology also leads to a more diffuse knowledge of linguistic systems, partly compensating for the cultural preconceptions related to language value judgments.

4. THE SAMPLE

The sample subjected to the analysis is composed of survey results offered by 153 native Italian-speakers. They responded to a questionnaire which dealt with their personal perception of different languages (Patel 2008). There were 53% female respondents and 47% males in the group. However, in the analysis there is no reference to gender difference in the answers collected. With regard to age, the sample covers relatively young participants. More specifically, 19% were between 19 and 20, 43% were between 21 and 40, 34% between 41 and 60, and 4% were over 61 years of age¹. As regards occupation, 36% were university students, 36% were primary and middle school teachers, 8% were freelancers and the remaining 20% were company employees and clerks. The origin of the sample is not relevant in terms of their differing judgments, but the group comprises residents in the Northern (84%) and the Southern (26%) parts of Italy. Particularly worthy of mention is the fact that 75% of the respondents stated that they knew English, at least at an intermediate level (B1–B2, according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*). This seems to be one of the consequences of the above mentioned globalization process. Furthermore, almost 45% of the participants in the survey claimed to be bilingual, being fluent in another European language in addition to English. There was a meaningful presence (29%) of Italian dialect speakers, though they represented a minority; 71% of the respondents claimed to speak only Italian (Telmon 1990). 64% of the sample had a tertiary education background, while the rest of the informants had a secondary school education background. Their academic fields of specialization were human sciences (63%), technology (22%), architecture (6%), other (9%). Each social and cultural difference was used in order to interpret the answers and to establish significant correlations, but few of these data types demonstrated a valid correlation, because of the consistency of stereotypes functioning in the culture (Yule 2020: 311–329).

5. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The analysis of language choices requires, at times, the adoption of specific tools to frame extraordinarily complex phenomena (Loewen & Plonsky 2016). The closest discipline to which educational linguistics refers in the analysis of linguistic

¹ The grouping of age was made up according to sociolinguistic practice (Rapallo 1994).

phenomena is sociolinguistics (Nitti 2020). In general, sociolinguistics deals with the study of the main axes of language variation (Wardhaugh 2006). Language may change depending on space (diatopy), time (diachrony), channel (diamesia), the communicative event (diaphasia), and the social groups involved in the interactional social context (diastatia). These dimensions are not easily separated, to the extent that some theorists have questioned their segmentation, especially with regard to diastatia and diaphasia. The variables, in fact, appear as a very thick network of relationships and characterize discursive and textual practices with respect to communicative events (Garrett 2012). Sociolinguistics, however, in addition to the dimensions of variation, also deals with privileged research methods in linguistics (Berruto 2015), focusing especially on the collection of data, questionnaires, and interviews (Kanizsa 1980). Indeed, the questionnaire, in a narrow sense, is a debt that sociolinguistics itself owes to other social sciences, in particular sociology and ethnology. The linguistic survey, however, deals with the description and classification of linguistic uses in relation to communities or groups of speakers:

a sociolinguistic interview is a particular kind of social occasion: it is a naturally bracketed space of activity in which particular kinds of actions and behavior are expected [...]. Those expectations provide a framework for Interpreting what is said, e.g., for Interpreting a question as seeking a particular kind of information. Furthermore, the relationship of those expectations to the interpretive processes guiding all social interaction can be made more or less explicit within an utterance. It seems clear that what those being interviewed by a sociolinguist expect (at least initially) is an agenda in which one person (thought of as 'the interviewer') asks questions that they are to answer. Awareness of this agenda provides a dominant frame within which what is said is understood, and specific utterances may display their relevance to this frame (Schiffrin 1993: 249-250).

Generally, regarding language choice surveys, "Sociolinguistic questionnaires are used to analyze interlanguage or the languages of learners and teachers, the perception of language use and the practices for teaching the language" (Nitti 2018b: 34).

As with any research-related tool, the questionnaire is dependable on the characteristics of the survey and the phenomena to be studied:

the preliminary, and often most complex, phase of each investigation will have to clarify its objectives and formulate the questions to which it proposes to respond. It is at this moment that the general questions and the articulation of the questions of a more specific nature, which constitute what is commonly called the outline of research, must be explained as clearly and in detail as possible (Nitti 2020: 128).

Since in this contribution our aim is to identify the main stereotypes attributed to modern foreign languages by Italian speakers, the questions which guided our research were:

- what consideration do Italian individuals have of foreign languages?
- what are the most common adjectives related to how Italian people perceive languages?
- are there any stereotypes associated to the perception of foreign languages for Italian people?
- what is the role of language education in preventing and contrasting these stereotypes?

However, one needs to bear in mind that opinions expressed by our informants are free from problems. Instead,

- the informant can be insincere or not objective in her / his answers;
- the informant can be concerned about the judgment of the researcher;
- the informant does not respond or responds in an irrelevant manner.

Beyond the highlighted problems, there is also “a question of setting certain parameters on what can be used as empirical evidence, that is, on what, in the context of that survey, linguistic data is. Whatever the choice made, linguistic data must therefore be sought and produced (rather than simply collected), or more precisely constructed, through a series of procedures that, if necessary, must be declared and made explicit each time” (Nitti 2020: 128).

It was decided to divide the questionnaire into different sections in order to prove aspects related to the perception of foreign languages (Cooper & Fazio 1984). In order to facilitate the analysis, it was chosen to insert close-ended questions and a space for free notes at the end of each section, so that informants could insert their non-explicit considerations within the pre-established answers (Nitti 2018b). A semi-structured questionnaire would have taken longer to complete and generated a higher difficulty of analysis, caused by the referral of the answers in definite taxonomies, and a higher risk of misinterpretation, during the analysis phase. In fact, a free survey needs more time to process the data because it will be necessary to consider all the answers and index them according to large-scale descriptors (Nitti 2018b).

The questionnaire completion was planned to take place around 15 minutes. A more detailed questionnaire would have implied a longer completion time, with the risk of affecting the validity of the data: “generally speaking, a questionnaire should never be too long, as the informants would tend to produce random and false answers; a range of 20–30 questions seems to be reasonable, as well as the time of 15–20 minutes needed for the compilation” (Nitti 2018b: 36).

As to the content of the research tool itself, its first section, following the title page, is constituted by a set of five questions related to general information, including the level of education, age, profession, and gender of the informant (Neisser 1993). The second section, consisting of 12 questions, focuses specifically on the perception of foreign languages. This part requires the choice of an adjective referring to each language investigated. With respect to the languages surveyed,

preference was given to those most frequently taught in Italian educational contexts (Vedovelli 2003). In addition, each question includes the “I don’t know / I cannot answer” field to avoid the distortion of the answers and allow the informant to express her / his own thoughts without resorting to the proposed labels.

6. DATA ANALYSIS

Data processing, as mentioned above, is based on the description and personal perception of languages² by a sample composed of Italian native speakers. Our survey shows that the opinions we collected vary from respondent to respondent, according to their gender, age, nationality and other aspects pertaining to their identity. We also wish to highlight that the above reported sociolinguistic factors have proven to be significant and relevant.

Most study participants defined the Italian language as musical, lively, sweet, lyrical and artistic. Some subjects, as shown in Pie Chart 1, reported that the Italian language is complicated and difficult. Those who associated this language with the alleged difficulty tend to possess a higher educational level (MA degree – 89%, in human sciences 45%, in scientific and technological fields 42%, other 2%), while those who opted for the artistic and lyrical aspects of the language hold a lower educational degree (BA degree – 95%, in human sciences 67%, in scientific and technological fields 22%, other 1%).

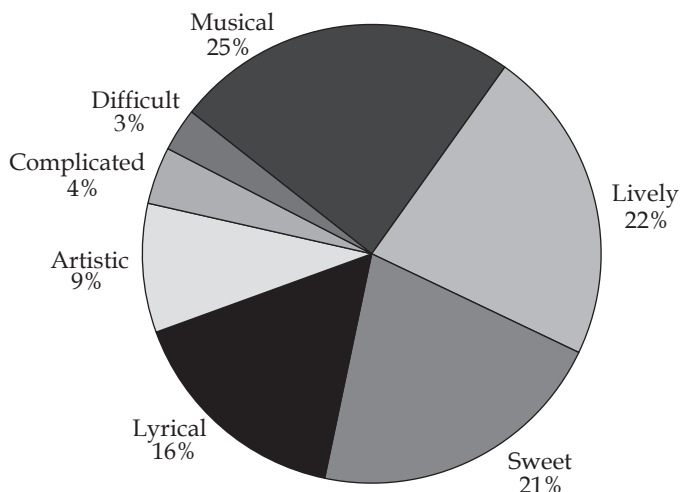


Figure 1. Perception of the Italian language

² The selected languages, according to the most studied in Italy are Arabic, Chinese, English, French, German, Russian and Spanish, https://ec.europa.eu/italy/news/20170925_insegnamento_lingue_straniere_scuola_primaria_it [access: 20.01.2021].

The description of the English language provided by our respondents are fairly homogeneous, regardless of their level of proficiency in English: the majority describe it as being a contemporary, pragmatic and commercial language (85%). Few of the participants consider English to be a difficult (7%), ancient (6%) or inexpressive / aseptic (2%) language. The most plausible interpretation of these results can be made with regard to the role of English as a *lingua franca* in today's work environment (Hynninen 2011), as mentioned above.

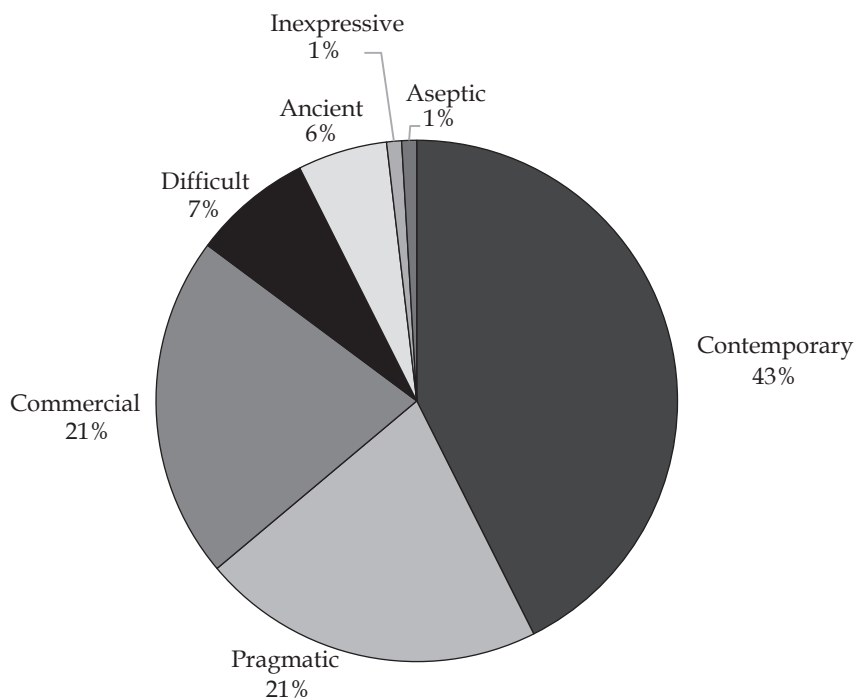


Figure 2. Perception of the English language

The perception of the German language, on the other hand, is remarkably similar among all respondents, regardless of their social or educational status. The participants in the survey consider German to be an angry (45%), rigid (31%), philosophical (15%), precise (6%) and difficult (3%) language. Such value judgments have unavoidable effects on the choice of German as a study subject, on the attitude towards multicultural contact and on the development of nationality-related stereotypes and stigma (Trabant 2008). The idea of the “angry German”, in fact, may be considered a legacy of the Second World War and the spread of films and war novels that feature stereotypical bad German soldiers, screaming and giving orders. The description of German as being

difficult, on the other hand, is most likely due to the linguistic differences, at a typological level, existing between the German and Italian languages (Konig & Gast 2009). The perception of German as being “philosophical” (prevalent in the students’ answers) may be interpreted by taking into account that philosophy is a subject of study in several Italian school programs. In fact, the respondents who gave this definition of the German language hold a tertiary education diploma, so philosophy was a significant part of their curriculum (Beutner & Pechuel 2017).

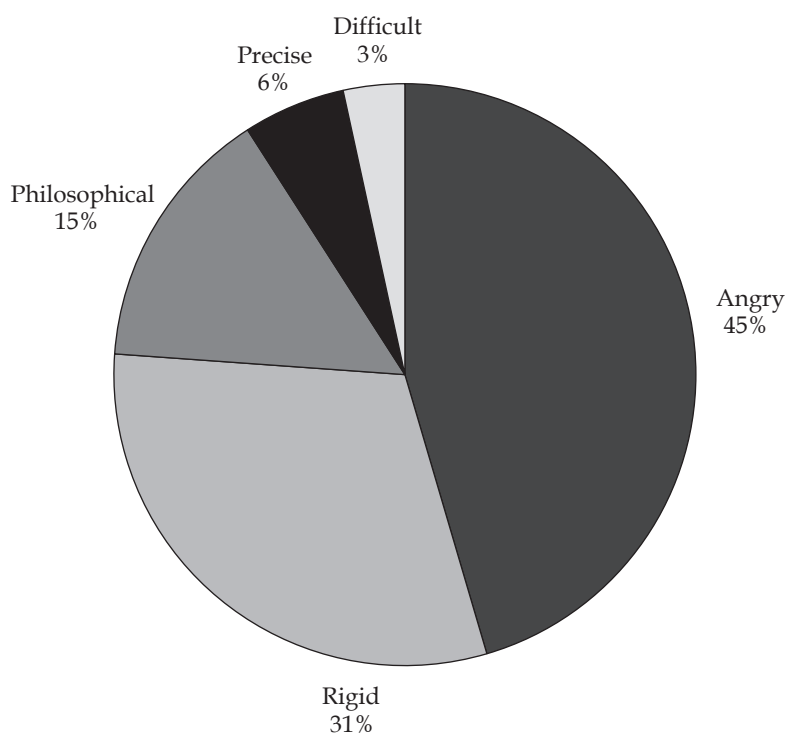


Figure 3. Perception of the German language

With regard to the perception of the Chinese language, it is worth noting that the conglomerate of Sinic languages, commonly labeled as “Chinese”, are regarded as ancient (39%), difficult (23%), philosophical (22%) and incomprehensible (16%). These adjectives may reflect the existing preconceptions that arise in the case of languages with fundamentally different writing systems (Sampson 1985) and the *communis opinio* about Chinese philosophy and culture.

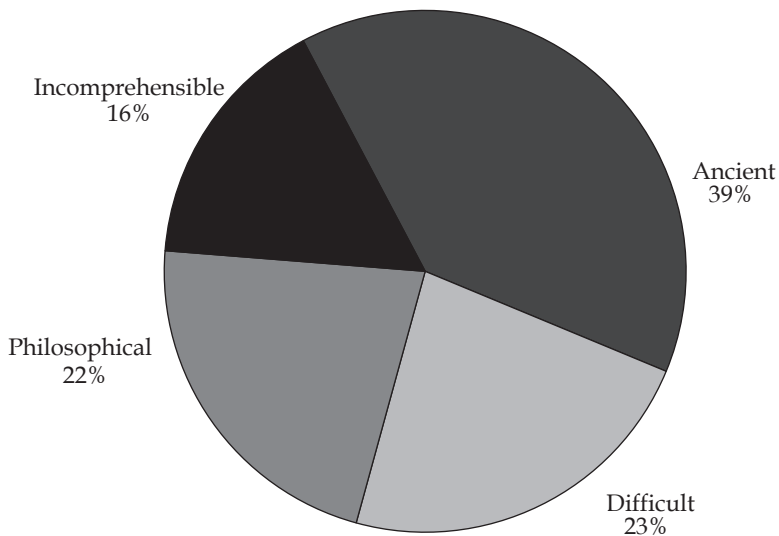


Figure 4. Perception of the Chinese language

With regard to the Russian language, different opinions are reported. In fact, the respondents regard it as controversial (33%), angry (32%), difficult to learn (24%) and artistic (11%). Again, languages that feature an alphabet that is different to the Latin seem to cause perceptual difficulty. Furthermore, examining the first two adjectives above, it is interesting to bear in mind that war and spy films set in Russia, or with Russian characters, have always been popular in Italy.

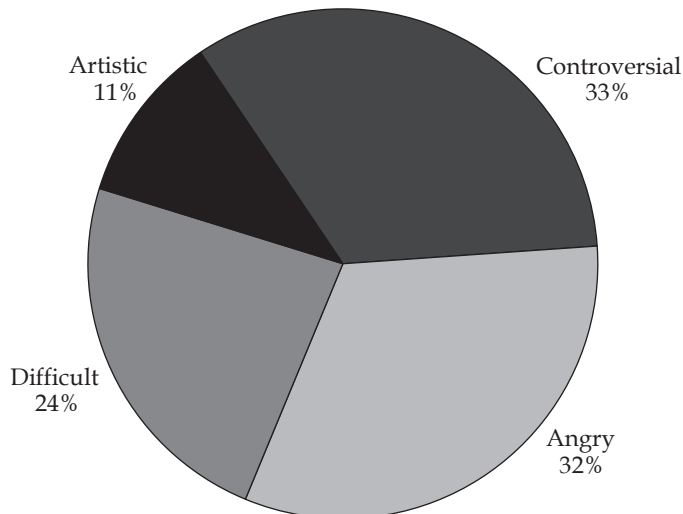


Figure 5. Perception of the Russian language

Similarly to German, the perception of the French language is very homogenous among all of the questionnaire respondents. Almost 87% define French as being “romantic”, whereas 12% see it as an artistic language. The most plausible interpretation of these data may be made by taking into account the cultural debt of the Italian artistic and literary traditions to the French, dating back to the Romantic period. The stereotypical *Paris, ville d’amour*, thus, represents both the symbol of the French as a dominant language and culture and the embodiment of the related preconception at the cultural level (Williams, Burden & Lanvers 2002).

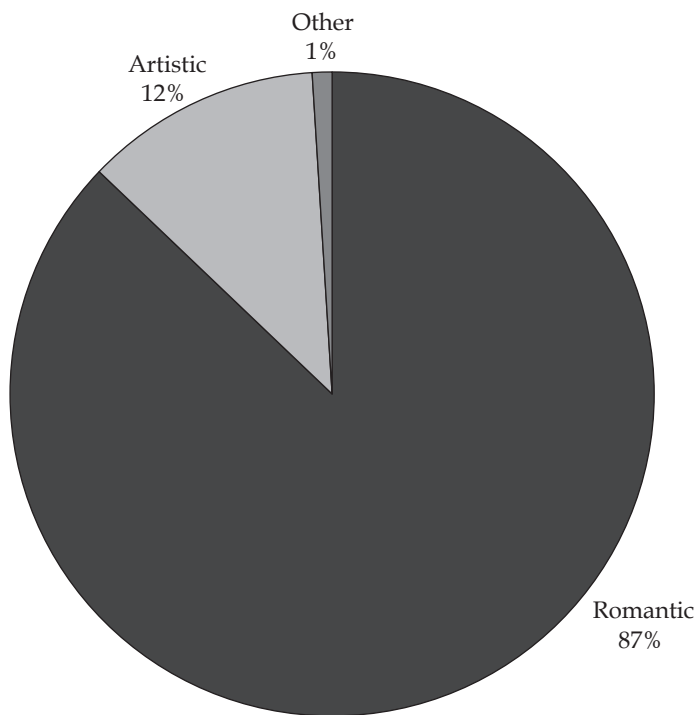


Figure 6. Perception of the French language

The perception of the Spanish language is also fairly uniform among all the questionnaire respondents. In fact, 70% of the sample define it as a passionate language, while 25% claim they could learn it easily. These two significant results can be interpreted in terms of the typological proximity of the Spanish and Italian language (Face & D’Imperio 2005). Indeed, there are several references in Italian cultural history that present love and passion as elements of the Spanish tradition (Barrón 1999).

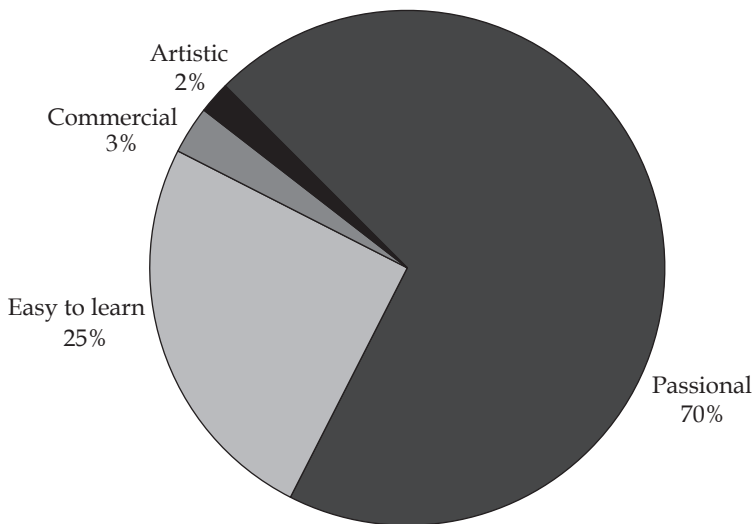


Figure 7. Perception of the Spanish language

The perception of the Arabic language by Italian speakers has some highly significant implications. Our respondents regard Arabic as complicated (41%), ancient (21%), mysterious (20%) and nonsensical (18%). The feeling of meaninglessness and mystery associated with Arabic is tightly related to the perception of this language as being complicated and ancient; in fact, it is considerably different from Italian in terms of its linguistic typology (Bickford 1998).

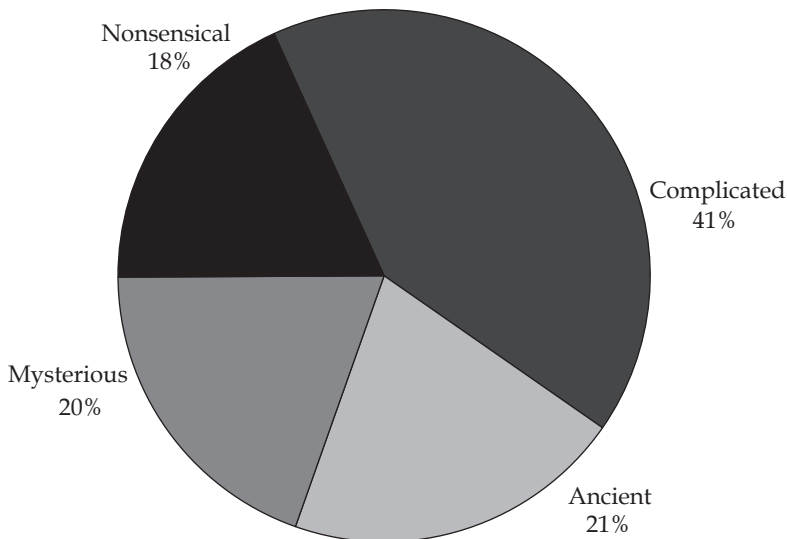


Figure 8. Perception of the Arabic language

7. CONCLUSIONS

This contribution has provided a selection of value judgments regarding selected languages, as collected from a sample of native Italian speakers. The data analysis enabled us to ascertain that the perception of languages is independent of prosodic features but is, on the other hand, strongly affected by cultural preconceptions (O'Callaghan 2010). Our research clearly demonstrates that the languages that are typologically closer to Italian, in terms of genetic relationship, tend to be associated with positive value judgments, whereas more "distant" ones are perceived with greater suspicion and detachment (Stevens 2002). The examination of such preconceptions is useful for identifying the effects of linguistic contact vs. cultural prestige and, from a linguistic-educational standpoint (Vedovelli 2003). It also constitutes the key to understanding the different choices made when selecting foreign languages to be studied at school: "The education of children develops through language; in learning the language (or languages) of their community, they gradually acquire organizational criteria, as well as the rules of behavior, acting and thinking" (Cardona 2006: 3).

The aim of this essay is not to offer suggestions to counteract prejudice since the research is essentially aimed at exploring and detecting the most frequent preconceptions regarding language. The aim is therefore to demonstrate these trends within the Italian context and to identify the main implications for language teaching (Schneider 2004). Learners "are bound to come across stereotypes (a) for the simple reason that they are part of the lexical inventory of the language they are learning, and (b) teachers do not have control over the input their students get exposed to" (Popovic 2004: 9). Therefore, the choice of foreign languages in the Italian school curriculum (apart from English which is compulsory in almost all training courses), is determined by cultural and economic reasons (Warschauer 2000) and, in part, precisely by the perception of diverse languages.

Teachers can intervene, with the aim of challenging these perceptions, only up to a certain point, since the *communis opinio* can only be changed within limits (Kramsch 1993). However, teachers should ideally be able to work on raising the awareness of language choices, in relation to a broader intercultural competence (Byram & Kramsch 2008). As a matter of fact, in educational linguistics, the perception of modern foreign languages plays a fundamental role in the choice of the languages included in curricula (Brumfit 2001) because "the environment in which teaching takes place can also impact the learning process in general, and the learner's attitude in particular. As for stereotypes, there are several dimensions to the learning situation that have to be taken into account,

the main being the nature of the learner's contact with L2 native speakers and culture" (Popovic 2004: 8).

One course of action to combat the stereotypes associated with foreign languages and cultures is to work on intercultural communication, by facilitating the understanding of the role of foreign languages in the Italian-speaking context because "the prejudice literature has largely overlooked the role of intercultural communication in determining people's evaluative orientation toward ethnolinguistic outgroups. Intercultural communication emotions (negative affect associated with perceived linguistic and cultural barriers) were investigated as determinants of prejudice, in conjunction with causal factors that are widely recognized as central to intergroup judgments" (Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern 2002: 609). Our research results, therefore, implicitly move towards an intercultural perspective, "contributing to the fulfillment of (sometimes seemingly abstract) curricular aims that emphasize the significance of intercultural communication, awareness of cultural variety, and intercultural sensitivity" (Stopar 2015: 105).

Further research could take into consideration a larger sample, including different informant profiles, and the exploration of linguistic-educational strategies in order to address prejudices and stereotypes (Deutscher 2011). This could include a more in-depth examination of the implications of stereotypes (Hilton & Von Hippel 1996), both on an educational and communicative level and from a sociological point of view, because "cultural value orientations drive language usage in everyday lives. [...] World-view refers to our larger philosophical outlook or ways of perceiving the world and how this outlook, in turn, affects our thinking and reasoning patterns" (Ting-Toomey & Chung 2012: 118–119).

The survey study undertaken by the present authors, therefore, has allowed assessing the presence of stereotypes, which can undoubtedly be attributed to the relationships between cultures and speakers (Hay & Drager 2010). The research presented is not free from criticalities, which are mainly due to the limited number of questionnaire respondents. A more numerous sample could certainly lead to more robust results. Another important factor to consider is the need for a mixed-methods study, incorporating methods originating in the fields of sociology and anthropology.

REFERENCES

- Barrón, A. / Martínez-Iñigo, D. / De Paul, P. / Yela, C. (1999). Romantic beliefs and myths in Spain. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 2 (1), 64–73. DOI: 10.1017/S1138741600005461.
- Bazzanella, C. (2019). *Linguistica cognitiva*. Roma-Bari: Editori Laterza.
- Berruto, G. (2015). *Manuale di sociolinguistica*. Novara: UTET.

- Berruto, G. (2020). *Prima lezione di sociolinguistica*. Roma-Bari: Editori Laterza.
- Beutner, M. / Pechuel, R. (2017). Education and educational policy in Germany. A focus on core developments since 1944. *Italian Journal of Sociology of Education*, 9 (2), 9–24. <http://ijse.padovauniversitypress.it/2017/2/2> [access: 29.01.2021].
- Bickford, J.A. (1998). *Tools for analyzing the world's languages: Morphology and syntax*. Dallas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Björkman, B. (2011). English as a lingua franca in higher education: Implications for EAP. *Ibérica*, 22, 79–100.
- Blommaert, J. (2012). *The sociolinguistics of globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI: 10.1017/CBO9780511845307.
- Brumfit, C. (2001). *Individual freedom in language teaching: Helping learners to develop a dialect of their own*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. DOI: 10.1017/S0272263103230187.
- Burani, C. / Laudanna, A. (1993). *Il lessico: processi e rappresentazioni*. Roma: Carocci editore.
- Byram, K. / Kramsch, C. (2008). Why is it so difficult to teach language as culture? *The German Quarterly*, 81 (1), 20–34.
- Cardona, G.R. (2006). *Introduzione all'etnolinguistica*. Novara: UTET.
- Cooper, J. / Fazio, R.H. (1984). A new look at dissonance theory. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 17 (C), 229–266. DOI: 10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60121-5.
- De Kock, L. (2014). Hermann von Helmholtz's empirico-transcendentalism reconsidered: Construction and constitution in Helmholtz's psychology of the object. *Science in Context*, 27, 709–744. DOI: 10.1017/S026988971400026X.
- De Martino, D. / Maraschio, N. (eds.) (2013). *Fuori l'italiano dall'università? Inglese, internazionalizzazione, politica linguistica*. Roma-Bari: Editori Laterza.
- Dervin, F. / Gajardo, A. / Lavanchy, A. (eds.) (2012). *Politics of interculturality*. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars.
- Deutscher, G. (2011). *Through the language glass: Why the world looks different in other languages*. London: Arrow Books.
- Dietz, G. (2009). *Multiculturalism, interculturality and diversity in education: An anthropological approach*. Münster: Waxmann.
- Elman, J.L. / McClelland, J.L. (1986). The TRACE model of speech perception. *Cognitive Psychology*, 18 (1), 1–86. DOI: 10.1016/0010-0285(86)90015-0.
- Face, T. / D'Imperio, M. (2005). Reconsidering a focal typology: Evidence from Spanish and Italian. *Italian Journal of Linguistics*, 17, 271–289.
- Garrett, P. (2012). *Attitudes to language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI: 10.1017/CBO9780511844713.
- Hay, J. / Drager, K. (2010). Stuffed toys and speech perception. *Linguistics*, 48 (4), 865–892. DOI: 10.1515/LING.2010.027.
- Hilton, J.L. / Von Hippel, W. (1996). Stereotypes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47 (1), 237–71.
- Hudson, R. (1996). *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI: 10.1017/CBO9781139166843.
- Hynninen, N. (2011). The practice of 'mediation' in English as a lingua franca interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 965–977. DOI: 10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.034.
- Kanizsa, G. (1980). *La grammatica del vedere*. Bologna: Il Mulino.
- König, E. / Gast, V. (2009). *Understanding English-German contrasts*. Berlin: Erich Schmidt Verlag.
- Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Loewen, S. / Plonsky, L. (2016). *An A-Z of applied linguistics research methods*. London-New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Marello, C. (1999). *Riflettere sulla lingua*. Firenze: La Nuova Italia.
- Neisser, U. (1993). *The perceived self: Ecological and interpersonal sources of self-knowledge*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nitti, P. (2018a). *Didattica della lingua italiana per gruppi disomogenei*. Brescia: Editrice La Scuola.
- Nitti, P. (2018b). La costruzione di un questionario sociolinguistico. *Scuola e Didattica*, 4, 34–36.
- Nitti, P. (2019). *Didattica dell'italiano L2. Dall'alfabetizzazione allo sviluppo della competenza testuale*. Brescia: Editrice La Scuola.
- Nitti, P. (2020). *L'alfabetizzazione in italiano L2 per apprendenti adulti non nativi*. Milano / Udine: Mimesis.
- O'Callaghan, C. (2010). Experiencing speech. *Philosophical Issues*, 20, 305–327.
- Ostler, N. (2005). *Empires of the world. A language history of the world*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Patel, A. (2008). *Music, language and brain*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Popovic, R. (2004). National stereotypes in teaching English as a foreign language. *MA TESOL Collection*, 142, 1–118.
- Rapallo, U. (1994). *La ricerca in linguistica*. Roma: Carocci editore.
- Sampson, G. (1985). *Writing systems: A linguistic introduction*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Schiffrin, D. (1993). "Speaking for another" in sociolinguistic interviews: Alignments, identities, and frames. In: D. Tannen (ed.), *Framing in discourse* (pp. 231–263). New York: Oxford University Press. DOI: 10.1016/j.pragma.2007.03.005.
- Schneider, D.J. (2004). *The psychology of stereotyping*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Seidholfer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Spencer-Rodgers, J. / McGovern, T. (2002). Attitudes toward the culturally different: The role of intercultural communication barriers, affective responses, consensual stereotypes, and perceived threat. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 26, 609–631. DOI: 10.1016/S0147-1767(02)00038-X.
- Stevens, K.N. (2002). Toward a model of lexical access based on acoustic landmarks and distinctive features. *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 111 (4), 1872–1891. DOI: 10.1121/1.1458026.
- Stopar, A. (2015). Encounters with national stereotypes in foreign language teaching: Adjectives describing Americans. *ELOPE: English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries*, 12 (1), 105–118. DOI: 10.4312/elope.12.1.105-118.
- Tagliamonte, S. (2006). *Analysing sociolinguistic variation*. Cambridge: CUP. DOI: 10.1017/CBO9780511801624.
- Telmon, T. (1990). *Guida allo studio degli italiani regionali*. Alessandria: Edizioni dell'Orso.
- Ting-Toomey, S. / Chung, L.C. (2012). *Understanding intercultural communication*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tolbert, E. (2001). Music and meaning. An evolutionary story. *Psychology of Music*, 29, 89–94. DOI: 10.1177/0305735601291007.
- Trabant, J. (2008). *Was ist Sprache?* München: Beck.
- Turner, S. (1994). *In the eye's mind. Vision and the Helmholtz-Hering controversy*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Underhill, J.W. (2012). *Ethnolinguistics and cultural concepts: Love, truth, hate & war*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vedovelli, M. (2003). Note sulla glottodidattica italiana oggi: problemi e prospettive. *Studi Italiani di Linguistica Teorica e Applicata*, 32, 173–197.
- Volli, U. (2003). *Manuale di semiotica*. Roma: Editori Laterza.
- Wardhaugh, R. (2006). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. New York: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Warschauer, M. (2000). The changing global economy and the future of English teaching. *Tesol Quarterly*, 34 (3), 511–535. DOI: 10.2307/3587741.

- Wierzbicka, A. (1999). *Emotions across languages and cultures*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI: 10.1017/CBO9780511521256.
- Williams, M. / Burden, R. / Lanvers, U. (2002). 'French is the language of love and stuff': Student perceptions of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language. *British Educational Research Journal*, 28 (4), 503–528. DOI: 10.1080/0141192022000005805.
- Yule, G. (2020). *Language and culture. In the study of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI: 10.1017/CBO9780511757754.

Received: 20.04.2020; **revised:** 04.02.2021

PAOLO NITTI

Università degli Studi dell'Insubria

paolo.nitti@uninsubria.it

ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0003-1263-7482

GIULIO FACCHETTI

Università degli Studi dell'Insubria

giulio.facchetti@uninsubria.it

ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0001-9532-673X

KATARZYNA ROKOSZEWSKA

Uniwersytet Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie

The relationships between the average semester growth rates of lexical sophistication in L2 English writing at secondary school: A learner corpus analysis

ABSTRACT. In line with Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST), the aim of the paper is to examine dynamics and causality among the growth rates of lexical sophistication in L2 writing development. The study was based on The Written English Developmental Corpus of Polish Learners (WED-CPL) which consists of over 1,900 essays composed during 21 repeated measurements by 100 learners over three years (2014–2017) at secondary school. Lexical sophistication, operationalised as different frequency levels, was analysed with the Lextutor software (Cobb 2014). The results indicated that the learners relied on the first frequency level. The monthly growth rates (MGRs) of the frequency levels were variable but no significant peaks were registered. The relationships between the average semester growth rates (ASGRs) revealed competition between the first and higher frequency levels, and some support between the higher levels. Thus, developing learners' lexis beyond the first level counteracts the production of lexically unsophisticated texts and supports the use of more advanced words.

KEYWORDS: Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST), lexical sophistication, the average semester growth rate (ASGR), L2 English writing, learner corpus.

1. INTRODUCTION

According to Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST), language development is an emergent, non-linear, and variable process in which internally complex language subsystems progress simultaneously at different rates (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron 2008; Verspoor, deBot & Lowie 2011; de Bot 2017). In line with the CDST principles, complexity, accuracy, and fluency, which form the so called CAF triad, are construed as "a dynamic and inter-related set of constantly changing subsystems" (Housen, Kuiken & Vedder 2012: 9). In contrast to many CAF studies which focus on "the synchronic manifestation of CAF in task performance", CDST focuses on "their diachronic development in the course of L2 acquisition" (Housen et al. 2012: 5) adopting a more organic approach to investigating CAF (Norris & Ortega 2009). In this sense, complexity, accuracy,

and fluency are not only measures of L2 performance and proficiency but also indexes of L2 development. Investigating the diachronic development of CAF also allows for the analysis of the rate at which various language subsystems develop. In mainstream SLA, studies on the rate of development conducted in the 1980s reported differences between age groups with respect to selected language features on the basis of initial and final language tests (Ellis 2007). In the CDST framework, the rate of language development is construed as a dynamic construct, whose fluctuations should be studied over a longer period of time on the basis of repeated observations conducted with respect to the whole language subsystems (Larsen-Freeman 2006). It may be assumed that emergence, non-linearity, and variability observed in the learning trajectories of different language subsystems will be reflected in the trajectories of the growth rates of these subsystems over a longer period of time.

CAF studies conducted within the CDST framework focus on the development of different language subsystems (de Bot, Lowie & Verspoor 2007; Caspi 2010; Spoelman & Verspoor 2010; Baba & Nita 2014; Baba 2020), inter- and intra-individual variability (Larsen-Freeman 2006; Verspoor, Lowie & van Dijk 2008; Rokoszewska 2019a, 2019b, 2020a) as well as the competition and coordination among variables (van Geert & Verspoor 2015; Hou, Loerts & Verspoor 2020; Rokoszewska 2020b, 2021). So far hardly any quantitative studies on the growth rates of various language subsystems have been conducted within the CDST framework. The present paper focuses on one of the subsystems, namely lexical complexity, which is defined as the size and depth of lexical repertoire in the target language. It consists of such components as density, sophistication, diversion, and compositionality (Bulté & Housen 2012). More precisely, it focuses on one of these components, namely lexical sophistication, and analyses the dynamics of the growth rates of different frequency levels as well as the causal relationships between them on the basis of The Written English Developmental Corpus of Polish Learners (WEDCPL) (cf. 3.4).

2. LEXICAL SOPHISTICATION IN CDST

Lexical sophistication refers to the depth of lexis in terms of rare, academic, or advanced words (Read 2000). At the observational level, it is quantified on the basis of various frequency-based type / token ratios. It is typically computed as the ratio of sophisticated lexical words to all lexical words in a text (Linnarud 1986; Hyldenstam 1988), with sophisticated words being defined as those which go beyond the first 2,000 most frequently used words (Wolfe-Quintero, Ingaki & Kim 1998) as in the case of Lexical Complexity Analyser (Ai & Lu 2010). An alternative way of examining lexical sophistication is to create the Lexical Fre-

quency Profile (LFP) (Laufer & Nation 1995) which shows the percentage of words from different frequency lists generated from language corpora, such as the British National Corpus (BNC), whose total size is ca. 100 000 words, and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) (Davis 2012), whose size amounts to ca. 1.1 billion words. Using the software called Lextutor (Cobb 2014) various lexical profiles may be created. Profiles which specify either 20 frequency levels on the basis of the lists generated from the BNC (Nation 2004) or 25 levels on the basis of the integrated BNC and COCA lists (Nation 2012), with each level consisting of ca. 1,000 word families or lemmas, are suitable to examine language produced by native speakers or proficient L2 learners.

In the case of less proficient L2 learners, it is useful to plot lexical profiles on the basis of fewer frequency levels. The first possibility is to examine lexical sophistication in terms of four levels. In the original version, the LFP was based on the General Service List (GSL) (West 1953) and the Academic Word List (AWL), also called the University Word List (UWL) (Xue & Nation 1984; Coxhead 2000), generated from the BNC. It indicated the proportion of words covered by the list of the first 1,000 most frequent words (GSL-1k), the list of the second 1,000 most frequent words (GSL-2k), the university word list (AWL), and none of these lists (Off-list) (Laufer & Nation 1995). In the face of criticism of the two lists (Eldridge 2008), alternative versions of this profile were created. At present, such a profile may be based on the BNC-COCA Core-4 lists which come from the Common Core List (CCL) (Gardner 2013), created on the basis of the first 4,000 word families in the BNC and the first 4,000 lemmas in the COCA. Alternatively, such a profile may be based on the New General Service List (NGSL) and the New Academic Word List (NAWL) generated from the Cambridge English Corpus (CEC) (Browne, Culligan & Phillips 2013). What is more, the New Academic Word List (NAWL) may be replaced by the TSL or TOEIC service list or the Business Service List (BSL) (Browne & Culligan 2016).

The second possibility is to analyse learners' lexical sophistication only in terms of two levels. Such a profile may be created in terms of two Common European Framework for Languages (CEFR) levels, namely level one based on the Waystage wordlist (van Ek & Trim 1998a) and level two based on the Threshold wordlist (van Ek & Trim 1998b). Alternatively, the Lambda value may be calculated by means of lognostics tools (Meara & Miralpeix 2016). This value is based on the analysis of texts divided into 10-word-long segments and scrutinised in terms of words from the first 1,000 frequent words and words beyond this level (Meara & Bell 2001).

The third possibility is to create a profile based on shorter frequency lists which do not consist of 1,000 but 100 word families. This can be done by the use of BNC-COCA Core 1-25 'c-series', i.e. lists which provide 25 levels, each

consisting of 100 heads. This kind of profile is useful to measure progress in terms of lexical frequency at the early stages of language learning for which 1k level is too general to capture minor changes. It is important to add that lexical sophistication may also be examined by other computer programmes, such as CLAN (McWhinney 2000), Range (Nation & Heatley 2002), AntWord Profiler (Anthony 2014), or Text Inspector (2018). However, it is crucial to check what lexical frequency lists are used in a given programme.

Studies on lexical complexity conducted within the CDST framework typically analyse the co-development of lexical density, sophistication, and variation over a longer period of time at the university level. Some studies reported an increase in the development of sophistication and variation at the cost of density (Duran, Malvern, Richards & Chipere 2004; Storch & Tapper 2009; Zheng 2016), whereas other studies revealed no statistically significant gains in the development of these measures (Bulté & Housen 2014; Knoch, Rouhshad & Storch 2015). The present paper focuses on the co-development of different frequency levels within lexical sophistication in L2 English writing at secondary school. More precisely, it describes the dynamics and causality of the growth rates of these frequency levels providing dense quantitative data.

3. METHOD

3.1. Research aims

The general aim of the present study was to examine the average semester growth rates (ASGR) of lexical sophistication in the development of L2 English writing at secondary school. More specifically, the aim of the study was to examine the development of lexical sophistication in terms of different frequency levels, the dynamics of the growth rates of different frequency levels on the monthly basis, i.e. the monthly growth rates (MGR), as well as the average semester growth rates of these levels (ASGR) and the relationships between them. With respect to the aims of the study, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What results do learners obtain on lexical sophistication in terms of different frequency levels in the development of L2 English writing at secondary school?
2. What is the monthly growth rate (MGR) of lexical sophistication in terms of different frequency levels in the development of L2 English writing at secondary school?
3. What are the average semester growth rates (ASGR) of lexical sophistication in terms of different frequency levels in the development of L2 English writing at secondary school?

4. What relationships take place between the average semester growth rates (ASGR) of lexical sophistication in terms of different frequency levels in the development of L2 English writing at secondary school?

3.2. Research method

The present study was a corpus-based quantitative type of study. It provided both cross-sectional and longitudinal data in a time developmental series. The study combined focused description, used to analyse causality between selected variables, with some CDST procedures, implemented to analyse the dynamics of their development. It was based on The Written English Developmental Corpus of Polish Learners (WEDCPL) which included over 1900 written texts.

As for the research variables, lexical sophistication was operationalised as the proportion of words from different frequency levels in a written text (cf. 3.5). The monthly growth rate (MGR) was operationalised as the change of a given variable in the period of one month in relation to the level of this variable in the previous period, whereas the average semester growth rate (ASGR) as the average difference between the tests conducted in a given semester (cf. 3.5). Taking into consideration a relatively slow process of language development, the learners' progress was calculated in terms of semesters (cf. 4.3).

3.3. Research participants

The research sample was based on existing language groups at secondary school whose language development was traced for three school years, i.e. six semesters. A random sampling technique was not used as it was assumed that the sample should fulfil such criteria as the same language level, coursebook, and number of lessons per week within an extended English programme. The sample included 100 Polish secondary school learners, i.e. 45 girls and 55 boys, who were at the age of 16 in the first grade. They were taught by five different teachers in seven language groups. Prior to the study, they had been learning English for about nine years. At secondary school, they had from 4 to 6 lessons per week depending on the grade. In the first grade, they were at the intermediate level (B1), whereas in the second and third grades – at the upper-intermediate level (B2). Their grade point average (GPA) of all school subjects and English per three grades was 4.0 on the 1–6 grading scale. At the final exam, the learners obtained 91.8% and 72.1% for the written part at the basic (B1) and extended (B2) levels, respectively, and 72.1% for the oral part.

3.4. Data collection

The Written English Developmental Corpus of Polish Learners (WEDCPL) was created on the basis of 21 data waves (Hiver & Al-Hoorie 2020) during which the samples of L2 English writing, in the form of timed essays, were collected from 100 learners over the period of three years. The corpus includes 1924 per 2100 texts, with the return rate equal to 91.6%. The size of the corpus analysed on the basis of the written samples was 393 202 words, with the average length of the samples being 204 words. The procedure of building the corpus consisted of the following stages: writing compositions without reference materials during English lessons every month, storing the scans of the essays in computer files, marking the essays and storing them in regular files, preparing electronic transcripts by means of the speech recognition program called Dragon Naturally Speaking (Nuance® 2014), verifying the transcripts and preserving the learners’ errors, and preparing appropriate text samples. The procedure of lexical sophistication analysis involved two stages, namely pre-processing the written samples so that the words in these samples would be recognized by the computer programme (Rokoszewska 2020b), and analysing the samples by means of the programme called Lextutor (Cobb 2014).

Table 1. Research design in a time series

RESEARCH DESIGN IN TIME SERIES										
DATA	SEMESTER 1					SEMESTER 2				
	Sept	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June
GRADE 1	Org.	Test 1 Fashion	Test 2 Internet	Test 3 Music	Test 4 Education	Winter break	Test 5 Ecology	Test 6 Pets	Test 7 Work	Test 8 Holidays
GRADE 2	Org.	Test 9 Books & films	Test 10 Shopping	Test 11 Friendship	Test 12 Christmas	Winter break	Test 13 Family	Test 14 Health	Test 15 Fame	Test 16 Home & living
GRADE 3	Org.	Test 17 Love	Test 18 TV	Test 19 Crime	Winter break	Test 20 Terror- ism	Test 21 Toler- ance	End of school- year	Mat- ura exam	-

Source: Rokoszewska 2019a, 2019b, 2020a, 2020b

3.5. Data analysis

Data analysis involved a number of procedures. Lexical sophistication was calculated in the form of the Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP), based on the BNC-COCA Core-4 frequency lists by means of the Lextutor software (Cobb 2014). The profile consisted of four frequency levels, namely the first 1,000 most frequent words (1k words), the second 1,000 most frequent words (2k words),

the third 1,000 most frequent words (3k words), and the off-list words. The monthly growth rate (MGR) was calculated on the basis of standardised scores, i.e. z scores, according to the formula below, in which R stands for the growth rate and $\bar{X}$ – for the mean on a given test, and the first measurement is set with the 0 value as the baseline (Larsen-Freeman, 2006)¹.

$$MGR = (\bar{X}_{i+1} - \bar{X}_i) / \bar{X}_i$$

The average semester growth rate (ASGR) was computed according to the formula below, in which n stands for the number of scores, Π – for the product, and x_i – for the i -th score.

$$AMGR = \left(\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=2}^n \frac{x_i}{x_{i-1}}} - 1 \right) \cdot 100\%$$

What is more, the probability test was conducted to calculate the probability with which other learners would obtain similar results on the average semester growth rates of lexical sophistication in a similar context in the future.

In addition, data analysis involved some CDST procedures, such as delineating general trends in a time series by means of the 2nd degree polynomials, standardising the data to analyse the dynamics of the growth rate in time, and using a Monte Carlo Analysis (5,000 iterations, $\alpha = 0.05$) to check the significance of peaks in the trajectories of the growth rates (Larsen-Freeman 2006; Verspoor, Lowie, van Geert, van Dijk & Schmid 2011). A significant peak was defined as “the distance between the minimum and maximum observation in a given data set” (van Dijk, Verspoor & Lowie 2011: 80) as opposed to one isolated jump resulting from temporary fluctuations.

4. RESULTS

4.1. The development of lexical frequency levels

In general, the results of the study indicated that the learners, on average, used 89.8% (SD = 2.56) of 1k words, 4.3% of 2k words (SD = 1.51), 2.0% of 3k words (SD = 1.28), and 3.2% of the off-list words (SD = 1.21) in L2 English writing at secondary school (cf. Table 2, Figures 1–4). The trend in the development of 1k words showed some increase in the middle of the observation period, but it was generally decreasing (Figure 1). The trend in the development of 2k words

¹ In order to express the rate in percentages, the final result may be multiplied by 100%. However, for the clarity of the graphs, the dynamics of the monthly growth rates was calculated in points.

illustrated some increase over time (Figure 2). The trend in the development of 3k words was a mirror reflection of the trend in the development of 1k words – it revealed some decrease in the middle of the observation period, but it was generally increasing (cf. Figure 3). The trend in the development of the off-list words was the so-called damped trend (Hiver & Al-Hoorie 2020) – it revealed a systematic decrease over the whole learning period (cf. Figure 4).

Table 2. The development of lexical frequency levels

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEXICAL FREQUENCY LEVELS				
DATA	1K WORDS	2K WORDS	3K WORDS	OFF-LIST WORDS
X	89.8	4.3	2.0	3.2
SD	2.56	1.51	1.28	1.21
Min	85.1	2.6	0.9	1.7
Max	93.3	8.2	6.1	6.7

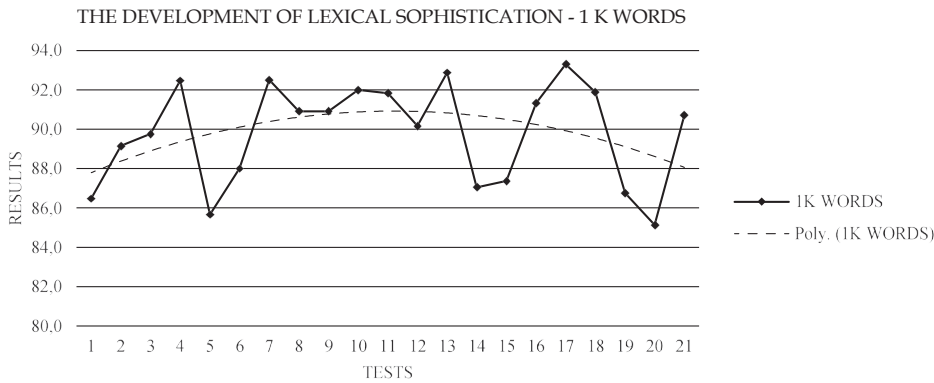


Figure 1. The development of lexical sophistication – 1k words (raw data)

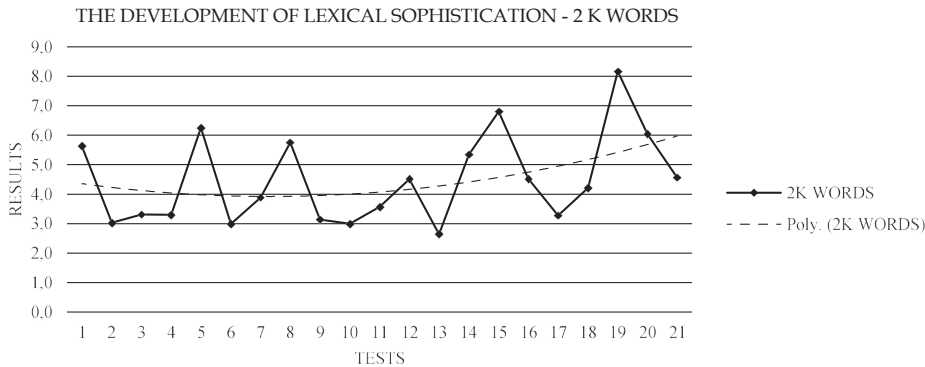


Figure 2. The development of lexical sophistication – 2k words (raw data)

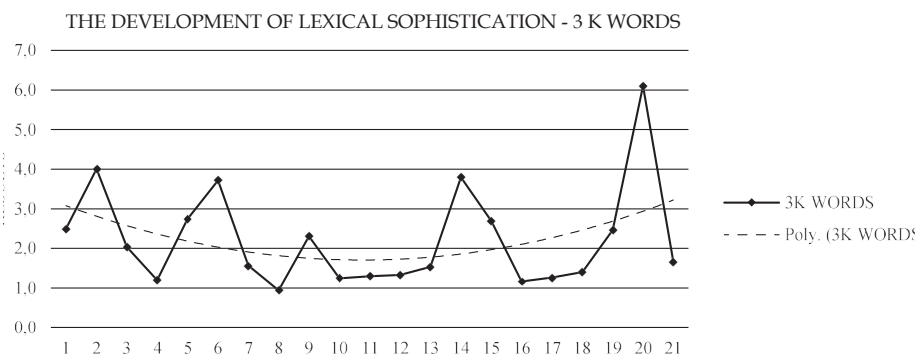


Figure 3. The development of lexical sophistication – 3k words (raw data)

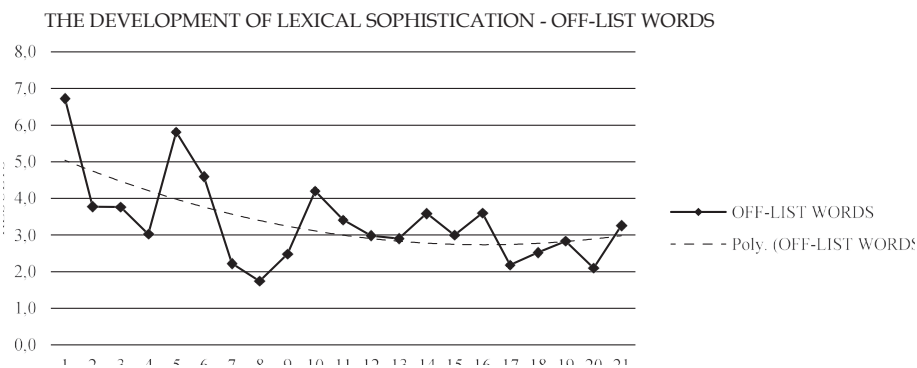


Figure 4. The development of lexical sophistication – the off-list words (raw data)

The statistical analysis, based on the U-Mann Whitney Test, indicated that the proportion of 1k words was the highest, the proportion of 2k words was higher than the proportion of 3k words and the off-list words, but the proportion of 3k words was lower than the proportion of the off-list words (cf. Table 3).

Table 3. The differences between vocabulary use from different frequency levels

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE AVERAGE RESULTS ON DIFFERENT FREQUENCY LEVELS				
DATA	1K WORDS	2K WORDS	3K WORDS	OFF-LIST WORDS
1K WORDS	–	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*
2K WORDS	–	–	0.00*	0.01*
3K WORDS	–	–	–	0.00*
OFF-LIST WORDS	–	–	–	–

Note: An asterisk indicates statistically significant differences – U-Mann Whitney test ($\alpha = 0.05$, $N = 100$).

4.2. The monthly growth rates of lexical frequency levels

With respect to the monthly growth rates (MGR) of lexical frequency levels (cf. Table 4, Figure 5), the results of the present study indicated that the rate of the first frequency level increased by 7.9 points on test 13 but decreased by 51.5 points on test 4 with respect to the preceding test. The rate of the second frequency level increased by 1.7 points on test 15, but it decreased by 54.7 points on test 13 and by 29.4 points on test 17. Furthermore, the monthly growth rate of the third frequency level went up by 5.9 points on test 2, by 4.2 points on test 4, and by 15.9 points on test 20, but it went down by 15.4 points on test 10. Finally, the rate of the fourth frequency level went up by 1.4 points on test 20, but it went down by 8.1 points on test 5, by 9.0 points on test 12, and by 6.1 points on test 17.

Table 4. The monthly growth rates of lexical frequency

THE MONTHLY GROWTH RATES OF LEXICAL FREQUENCY											
1K WORDS											
TESTS	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11
Rate	0.0	-0.8	-0.9	-51.5	-2.6	-0.6	-2.5	-0.6	0.0	1.0	-0.1
TESTS	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	T21	-
Rate	-0.8	7.9	-1.9	-0.1	-1.6	1.3	-0.4	-2.5	0.5	-1.2	
2K WORDS											
TESTS	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11
Rate	0.0	-2.2	-0.2	0.0	-2.5	-1.8	-0.6	-3.2	-2.0	0.1	-0.4
TESTS	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	T21	-
Rate	-1.0	-54.7	-1.5	1.7	-1.0	-29.4	-0.8	-15.4	-0.6	-0.9	
3K WORDS											
TESTS	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11
Rate	0.0	5.9	-1.1	4.2	-1.5	1.9	-1.5	0.9	-1.1	-15.4	-0.1
TESTS	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	T21	-
Rate	0.0	-0.2	-3.2	-0.7	-3.4	-0.1	-0.1	-1.3	15.9	-1.1	
OFF-LIST WORDS											
TESTS	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11
Rate	0.0	-0.9	0.0	-1.9	-8.1	-0.5	-1.9	0.4	-0.5	-1.9	-0.9
TESTS	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	T21	-
Rate	-9.0	0.2	-1.5	-2.7	-1.6	-6.1	-0.3	-0.4	1.4	-0.9	

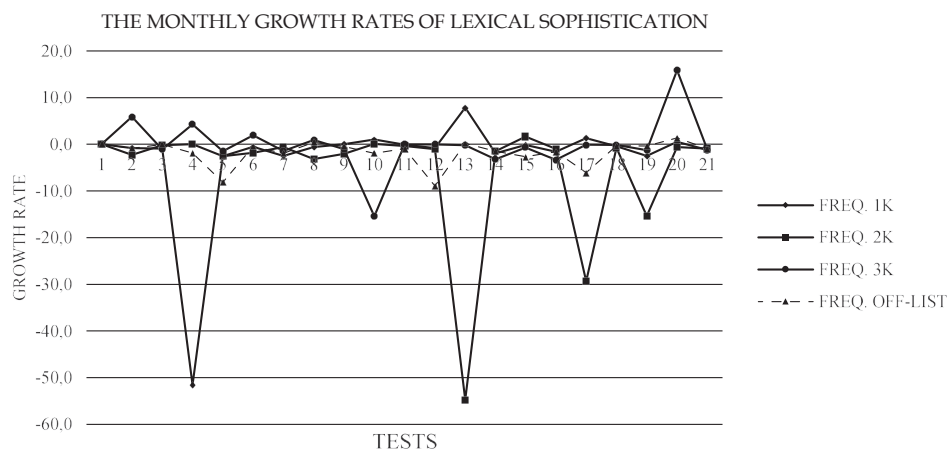


Figure 5. The monthly growth rates of lexical sophistication

As far as the significance of peaks in the trajectories of the monthly growth rates of different frequency levels is concerned, a Monte Carlo analysis, conducted with 5,000 iterations at the level of significance α equal 0.05, revealed insignificant peaks in the rates of all frequency levels, i.e. 1k words ($p = 0.23$), 2k words ($p = 0.28$), 3k words ($p = 0.62$), and the off-list words ($p = 0.54$) (cf. Table 5).

Table 5. The significance of peaks in the monthly growth rates of lexical sophistication

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PEAKS IN THE MONTHLY GROWTH RATES OF LEXICAL SOPHISTICATION			
1K WORDS	2K WORDS	3K WORDS	OFF-LIST WORDS
0.23	0.28	0.62	0.54

Note: An asterisk indicates statistically significant correlations – a Monte Carlo analysis ($\alpha = 0.05$, $N = 21$).

4.3. The average semester growth rates of lexical sophistication

In order to provide a more general picture of the tempo at which lexical sophistication developed, the average semester growth rates (ASGR) of the selected frequency levels were calculated. It was established that the average semester growth rate of 1k words was equal to 0.06% (SD = 0.70), whereas this kind of rate of 2k words equalled 8.12% (SD = 8.22). Furthermore, the average semester growth rate of 3k words was 0.73% (SD = 10.02) while such rate of the off-list words was -11.31% (SD = 8.31) (Table 6).

Table 6. The average semester growth rates in lexical sophistication

THE AVERAGE SEMESTER GROWTH RATES OF LEXICAL SOPHISTICATION				
DATA	1K WORDS	2K WORDS	3K WORDS	OFF-LIST WORDS
ASGR	0.06	8.12	0.73	-11.31
SD	0.70	8.22	10.02	8.31
Min	-2.22	-9.55	-22.38	-34.15
Max	1.72	35.42	23.04	20.21

The statistical analysis conducted on the basis of the U-Mann Whitney test indicated that the average growth rate of 2k words was the highest, whereas the growth rates of 1k words and 3k words were the same, but at the same time, they were higher than the rate of the off-list words (Table 7).

Table 7. The differences between the average semester growth rates of lexical sophistication

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE AVERAGE SEMESTER GROWTH RATES OF LEXICAL SOPHISTICATION				
DATA	1K WORDS	2K WORDS	3K WORDS	OFF-LIST WORDS
1K WORDS	-	0.00*	0.32	0.00
2K WORDS	-	-	0.00	0.00
3K WORDS	-	-	-	0.00
OFF-LIST WORDS	-	-	-	-

Note: An asterisk indicates statistically significant differences – a Monte Carlo analysis ($\alpha = 0.05$, $N = 100$).

In addition, the probability that in the case of other learners, the average semester growth rates of 2k words would be higher than the rates of all other levels, and that the rates of all levels would be higher than the rates of off-list words was quite high (cf. Table 8).

Table 8. The differences between the average semester growth rates – the hypothetical probability level

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE AVERAGE SEMESTER GROWTH RATES OF LEXICAL SOPHISTICATION – THE HYPOTHETICAL PROBABILITY LEVEL			
ASGR	2k words	1k words	74.0%
	2k words	3k words	65.0%
	3k words	1k words	46.0%
	1k words	off-list words	85.0%
	2k words	off-list words	94.0%
	3k words	off-list words	82.0%

4.4. The relationships between the semester growth rates of lexical frequency levels

The analysis of the relationships between the average semester growth rates of lexical frequency levels revealed a number of statistically significant relationships (cf. Table 9). The correlations were statistically significant if the linear correlation coefficient r was equal to or greater than the critical value (r^*) which was equal to 0.20 at the 0.05 alpha significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The analysis revealed that the relationships between the average semester growth rate of 1k words and the rates of other frequency bands was negative. More precisely, it was quite strong in the case of 1k and 2k words ($r = -0.72^*$) and moderate in the case of 1k and 3k words ($r = -0.56^*$) as well as in the case of 3k words and the off-list words ($r = -0.64^*$). Furthermore, the relationship between the rates of 2k words and the off-list words ($r = 0.31^*$) as well as the relationship between the rates of 3k words and the off-list words ($r = 0.22^*$) were weak and positive. However, the relationship between the rates of 2k and 3k words was insignificant ($r = 0.09$).

Table 9. The relationships between the average semester growth rates of lexical sophistication

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE AVERAGE SEMESTER GROWTH RATES (ASGR) OF LEXICAL SOPHISTICATION				
DATA	ASGR 1k words	ASGR 2k words	ASGR 3k words	ASGR off-list words
ASGR 1k words	–	-0.72*	-0.56*	-0.64*
ASGR 2k words	–	–	0.09	0.31*
ASGR 3k words	–	–	–	0.22*
ASGR off-list words	–	–	–	–

Note: An asterisk indicates statistically significant correlations ($\alpha = 0.05$, $N = 100$).

In addition, the linear regression models revealed that the increase in the average rate of growth of 1k words by 1% would cause a decrease of such a rate of 2k words on average by 8.39%. In this model, the amount of variance in the rate of 2k words was explained by the rate of 1k words in 51.2% (cf. Figure 6). Furthermore, the increase in the average rate of growth of 1k words by 1% would lead to a decrease in the rate of 3k words on average by 7.94%, with shared variance between the variables equal to 30.81% (cf. Figure 7). Finally, such an increase in the rate of 1k words would result in the decreasing rate of the off-list words by 7.55%, with shared variance of 40.59% (cf. Figure 8).

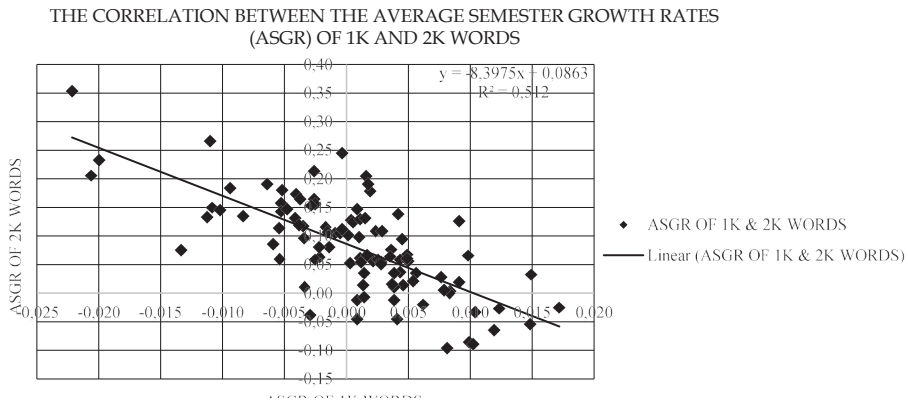


Figure 6. The correlation between the rates of 1k and 2k words – the linear regression model

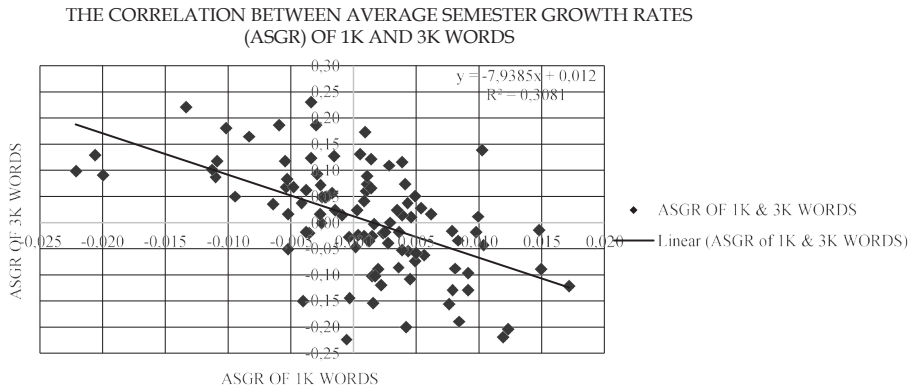


Figure 7. The correlation between the rates of 1k and 3k words – the linear regression model

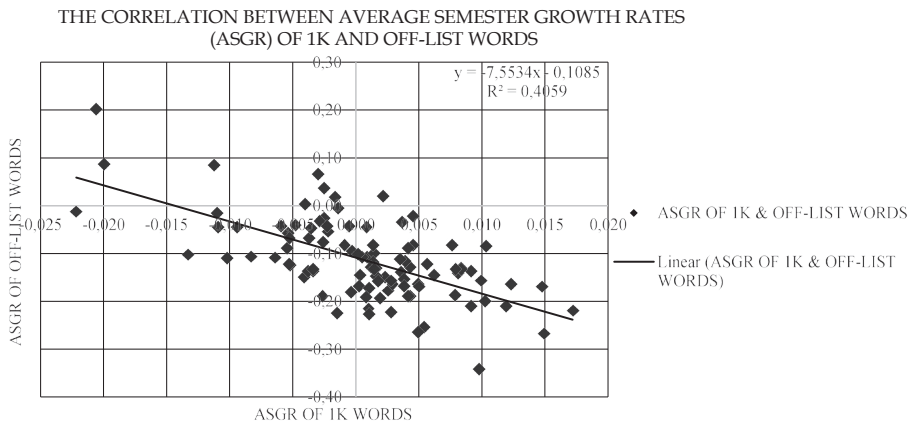


Figure 8. The correlation between the rates of 1k and the off-list words – the linear regression mode

5. DISCUSSION

The aim of the present paper was to examine the dynamics of the growth rates of lexical sophistication in terms of different frequency levels and the relationships between them in the development of L2 English writing at the level of secondary school. With respect to the first research question, which focused on the learners' results on the development of lexical sophistication, it was found out that the learners relied mainly on the first frequency level at the cost of further frequency levels. This indicates that the learners' texts were characterised with communicative efficiency, as opposed to lexical sophistication, since the learners were able to discuss a variety of topics in writing using rather simple lexis. What is more, they automatically accessed words from the most basic level in writing in contrast to words from the further frequency levels introduced during the inter-mediate and upper-intermediate courses at school, which signals that the quality and quantity of vocabulary practice might have been insufficient to foster the use of more sophisticated lexis. More precisely, the implementation of formal practice and the use of controlled vocabulary activities to the disadvantage of more naturalistic language practice and the use of free activities might have made it difficult to narrow the gap between controlled and free vocabulary use. Nevertheless, the results showed some progress in that the general trend in the first frequency level was decreasing, whereas the trends in the second and third frequency levels were increasing.

With respect to the second research question, which refers to the dynamics of the growth rates of lexical sophistication, it was observed that the monthly growth rates of lexical sophistication were not linear, incremental, and systematic but non-linear, dynamic, and variable. They did not progress from the lowest to the highest rate but involved peaks and lows over time, which is consistent with the CDST view of language as a complex system. The rates of all frequency levels fluctuated to some extent, but it seems that the rate of the second level fluctuated the most, which might indicate some activity in this subcomponent of lexical sophistication and reflect the learners' increasing ability to use more sophisticated words. Furthermore, analysing the fluctuations in the monthly growth rates with respect to the topics of the essays, it was observed that the growth rate of 1k words decreased substantially on the topic about ecology (test 4) but increased to some extent on one of the most common topics, namely 'Family' (test 13). The growth rate of 2k words decreased on the topics connected with family (test 13), love (test 17), and crime (19), whereas the growth rate of 3k words decreased on the topic about shopping (test 10) but increased on the topic connected with terrorism (test 20). Thus, despite the iterative research pro-

cedure, a variety of topics might have influenced the dynamics of the monthly growth rates. Nevertheless, it is vital to point out that the Monte Carlo analysis showed that all these fluctuations were statistically insignificant, which means that the learners taught in the formal EFL context did not achieve a significant peak in the monthly growth rates of lexical frequency levels. On the one hand, it might be caused by developing other language subsystems at the cost of lexical sophistication due to intrinsic trade-offs in their development caused by the learners' inability to allocate their linguistic and cognitive resources to all subsystems at once. On the other hand, it might be due to insufficient language practice mentioned above.

With respect to the third research question, which refers to the average semester growth rates of lexical sophistication, it was calculated that the second frequency level developed at the highest rate and that the growth rates of the first and third frequency levels, which did not differ, were higher than the rate of the off-list level. What is more, the probability that other learners would obtain similar results was relatively high. Taking into consideration the fact that the increase in the second frequency level was most substantial and the growth rate was the highest, it may be concluded that the learners at B1 and B2 level were ready to focus on the second frequency level and would hopefully continue to do so in their further language development. In general, these results provide some evidence for the CDST claim that different components of the same language subsystem may develop at different rates.

With respect to the last research question, which focused on the relationships between the average semester growth rates of the selected frequency levels, it was established that the relationship between the rate of the first frequency level had a rather strong negative influence on the rates of the second, third, and off-list frequency levels. Indeed, an increase in the growth rate of the words from the most basic level caused a decrease in the growth rates of the words from more advanced levels. In contrast, the relationship between the growth rates of the second frequency level and the off-list words as well as the relationship between the third frequency level and the off-list words were positive. However, the relationship between the rates of the second and third frequency levels was insignificant. Nevertheless, it may be concluded that there exists strong competition between the growth rate of the most basic frequency level and the rates of the higher levels, which contrasts with some support between the rates of higher levels. This means that supporting learners' development of lexis beyond the first level counteracts the production of lexically unsophisticated texts and supports the use of more advanced words.

6. CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The present study has provided some insight into the dynamics and development of lexical sophistication in L2 English writing at secondary school. The results of the study indicated significant differences between different frequency levels but insignificant fluctuations in the trajectories of the monthly growth rates of these levels. More importantly, however, the study revealed significant differences between the average semester growth rates (ASGR) of the selected frequency bands and significant relationships between them, which points to high competition between the lower and higher frequency levels and some support between the higher levels. Nevertheless, the present study is not free from some limitations. In the face of the results which showed that the learners used mostly words from the first frequency level, it would be advisable to investigate this level in more detail using frequency lists which divide it into subcategories. It is also important to point out that the learners' results on lexical sophistication might have been influenced by the topics of the essays. Although the study design was based on the reiterative procedure of timed essay writing under the same conditions, the topics differed from one measurement to another. Despite the fact that they were based on the learners' coursebooks and covered during English lessons at school, they might have presented the learners with different levels of difficulty.

Despite some limitations, the study offers important implications for English teachers. Firstly, teachers should realize that language development does not involve only accuracy and fluency but also complexity at the syntactic and lexical level. What is more, they should be aware of the fact that the development of lexical complexity, including the development of lexical sophistication, is a long and complex process in which vocabulary introduced and practised in controlled lexical exercises is not easily accessible either in free speech or writing. Secondly, to develop lexical sophistication, teachers should be familiar with lexical frequency lists, especially with the list of 1k words. Only if equipped with lexical frequency lists, would they be able to diagnose the level of lexical sophistication in their learners' language production and take steps to help their learners develop this aspect of language performance so that they become not only communicatively efficient but also advanced and precise language users. Thirdly, the teachers should realize that the more 1k words learners use, the fewer advanced words they will produce, not to mention the fact that the reliance on 1k words slows down the rate of growth of more sophisticated words. Thus, expending time and effort on the development of words beyond the first

level will foster the development of words from further levels. This, however, calls for the implementation of efficient teaching techniques and learning strategies which would lead to greater complexification and automatization of lexical knowledge.

REFERENCES

- Ai, H. / Lu, X. (2010). *A web-based system for automatic measurement of lexical complexity*. Paper presented at the 27th Annual Symposium of the Computer-Assisted Language Consortium (CALICO-10). Amherst, MA. June 8–12.
- Anthony, L. (2014). *AntWordProfiler* (Version 1.4.1) [computer software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University. <https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Baba, K. (2020). Exploring dynamic developmental trajectories of writing fluency: Who benefited from the writing task? In: G. Fogal / M. Verspoor (eds.), *Complex dynamic systems theory and L2 writing development* (pp. 3–26). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/llt.54.01bab> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Baba, K. / Nita, R. (2014). Phase transitions in the development of writing fluency from a complex dynamic systems perspective. *Language Learning*, 64 (1), 1–35. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259553956> [access: 20.10.2020].
- de Bot, K. (2017). Complexity theory and Dynamic systems theory: Same or different? In: L. Ortega / Z. Han (eds.), *Complexity theory and language development. In celebration of Diane Larsen-Freeman* (pp. 51–58). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- de Bot, K. / Lowie, W. / Verspoor, M. (2007). A dynamic systems theory approach to second language acquisition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 10 (1), 7–21. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/231787985> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Browne, Ch. / Culligan, B. (2016). *The TOEIC service list (TSL) and Business service Lists (BSL)*. <http://www.newgeneralservicelist.org> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Browne, Ch. / Culligan, B. / Phillips, J. (2013). *The new general service list (NGSL) – The most important words for second language learners*. <http://www.newgeneralservicelist.org/> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Bulté, B. / Housen, A. (2012). Defining and operationalizing L2 complexity. In: A. Housen / F. Kuiken / I. Vedder (eds.), *Dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency: Complexity, accuracy and fluency in SLA* (pp. 23–46). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins. <https://www.academia.edu/27458664/> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Bulté, B. / Housen, A. (2014). Conceptualizing and measuring short-term changes in L2 writing complexity. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 26 (4), 42–65. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/280256988> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Caspi, T. (2010). “A dynamic perspective on second language development”. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Groningen, the Netherlands.
- Cobb, T. (2012). *The Compleat lexical tutor for data-driven learning on the Web (v.6.2)*. Montreal University of Quebec [computer software]. <https://www.lexxtutor.ca/vp/> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34, 213–38. https://www.wgtn.ac.nz/__data/assets/pdf_file/0020/1626131/Coxhead-2000.pdf [access: 20.10.2020].
- Davis, M. (2012). Corpus of contemporary American English (1990–2012). <http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/> [access: 20.10.2020].

- van Dijk, M. / Verspoor, M. / Lowie, W. (2011). Variability and DST. In: M. Verspoor / K. de Bot / W. Lowie (eds.), *A dynamic approach to second language development* (pp. 55–84). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Durán, P. / Malvern, D. / Richards, B. / Chipere, N. (2004). Developmental trends in lexical diversity. *Applied Linguistics*, 25 (2), 220–242. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.2.220> [access: 20.10.2020].
- van Ek, J. / Trim, J. (1998a). *Threshold 1990*. Council of Europe. Cambridge: CUP. https://www.ealta.eu.org/documents/resources/Threshold-Level_CUP.pdf [access: 20.10.2020].
- van Ek, J. / Trim, J. (1998b). *Waystage 1990*. Cambridge: CUP. https://www.ealta.eu.org/documents/resources/Waystage_CUP.pdf [access: 20.10.2020].
- Eldridge, J. (2008). No, there isn't an 'academic vocabulary', but... A reader responds to K. Hyland and P. Tse's "Is there an 'academic vocabulary'?", *TESOL Quarterly*, 42 (1), 109–113. <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00210.x>. [access: 20.10.2020].
- Ellis, R. (2007). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gardner, D. (2013). *Exploring vocabulary. Language in action*. New York: Routledge <http://www.routledge.com/books/details/9780415585453/> [access: 20.10.2020].
- van Geert, P. / Dijk, M. (2002). Focus on variability: New tools to study intra-individual variability in developmental data. *Infant Behaviour and Development*, 25, 340–375. https://www.paulvan-geert.nl/publications_files/vangeert_variability.pdf [access: 20.10.2020].
- van Geert, P. / Verspoor, M. (2015). Dynamic systems and language development. In: B. MacWhinney / W. O'Grady (eds.), *The handbook of language emergence* (pp. 537–556). New York: Wiley and Sons. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/314003688> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Hiver, P. / Al-Hoorie, A. (2020). *Research methods for Complexity theory in applied linguistics*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Hou, J. / Loerts, H. / Verspoor, M. (2020). Coordination of linguistic subsystems as a sign of automatization? In: G. Fogal / M. Verspoor (eds.), *Complex dynamic systems theory and L2 writing development*. Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.54.02hou>. [access: 20.10.2020].
- Housen, A. / Kuiken, F. / Vedder, I. (2012). Complexity, accuracy and fluency. Definitions, measurement and research. In: A. Housen / F. Kuiken / I. Vedder (eds.), *Dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency: Complexity, accuracy and fluency in SLA* (pp. 1–20). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Hyltenstam, K. (1988). Lexical characteristics of near-native second-language learners of Swedish. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 9 (1/2), 67–84. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/01434632.1988.9994320> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Knoch, U. / Rouhshad, A. / Storch, N. (2014). Does the writing of undergraduate ESL students develop after one year of study in an English-medium university? *Assessing Writing*, 21 (1), 1–17. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1075293514000026> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). The emergence of complexity, fluency and accuracy in the oral and written production of five Chinese learners of English. *Applied Linguistics*, 27, 590–616. <https://www.academia.edu/38727423/> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Larsen-Freeman, D. / Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Laufer, B. / Nation, P. (1995). Vocabulary size and use: Lexical richness in L2 written production. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, 307–322. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/16.3.307> [access: 20.10.2020].

- Linnarud, M. (1986). *Lexis in composition. A performance analysis of Swedish learners' written English*. Lund: CWK Gleerup.
- MacWhinney, B. (2000). *The CHILDES project: Tools for analyzing talk*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. <https://dighumlab.org/clang/> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Meara, P. / Bell, H. (2001). P_Lex: A simple and effective way of describing the lexical characteristic of short L2 text. *Prospect. A Journal of Australian TESOL*, 16 (3), 5–19. <http://www.lognostics.co.uk/vlibrary/meara&bell2001.pdf> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Meara, P. / Miralpeix, I. (2016). *Tools for researching vocabulary*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Nation, P. (2004). A study of the most frequent word families in the British National Corpus. In: P. Bogaards / B. Laufer (eds.), *Vocabulary in a second language: Selection, acquisition, and testing* (pp. 3–13). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Nation, P. (2012). *The BNC/COCA word family lists*. <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/about/staff/paul-nation> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Nation, P. / Heatley, A. (2002). *Range: A program for the analysis of vocabulary in texts* [computer software]. <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation/nation.aspx> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Norris, J. / Ortega, L. (2009). Towards an organic approach to investigating CAF in instructed SLA: The case of complexity. *Applied Linguistics*, 30 (4), 555–578. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/249237888> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Nuance® (2014). *Dragon Naturally Speaking Premium*. Speech recognition software. <https://www.nuance.com/dragon/support/dragon-naturallyspeaking.html> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Read, J. (2000). *Assessing vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rokoszewska, K. (2019a). Intra-individual variability in the emergence of complexity, accuracy and fluency in speaking English at secondary school – A case study of a good, average and poor language learner. *Anglica Wratislaviensia*, LVII, 181–204. <https://wuwr.pl/awr/article/view/269> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Rokoszewska, K. (2019b). Intra-individual variability in the emergence of syntactic complexity in English L2 speech at secondary school – A case study of a good, average and poor language learner. *Konin Language Studies*, 7 (4), 445–473. <http://www.ksj.pwz.konin.edu.pl/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/KSJ-74-445-473-Rokoszewska.pdf> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Rokoszewska, K. (2020a). Fluency and complexity as coupled growers in speaking English at secondary school – a case study of a good, average, and poor language learner. *Linguistics Beyond and Within*, 6, 160–174. <https://czasopisma.kul.pl/LingBaW/article/view/11838> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Rokoszewska, K. (2020b). Intra-individual variability in the emergence of lexical complexity in speaking English at secondary school – A case study of a good, average and poor language learner. *Theory and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*, 6 (1), 107–142. <https://www.journals.us.edu.pl/index.php/TAPSLA/article/view/7929> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Rokoszewska, K. (2021). Accuracy and complexity as connected growers in L2 English speech at secondary school – a case study of a good, average and poor language learner. *Neofilolog*, 56 (1), 71–90.
- Spoelman, M. / Verspoor, M. (2010). Dynamic patterns in the development of accuracy and complexity: A longitudinal case study on the acquisition of Finnish. *Applied Linguistics*, 31 (4), 532–553. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/241686051> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Storch, N. / Tapper, J. (2009). The impact of an EAP course on postgraduate writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 8 (3), 207–223. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1475158509000277> [access: 20.10.2020].
- Text Inspector. (2018). *Online lexis analysis tool*. textinspector.com [access: 20.10.2020].

- Verspoor, M. / de Bot, K. / Lowie, W. (2011). *A dynamic approach to second language development*. Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Verspoor, M. / Lowie, W. / van Geert, P. / van Dijk, M. / Schmid, M.S. (2011). How to sections. In: M. Verspoor / K. de Bot / W. Lowie. (eds.), *A dynamic approach to second language development* (pp. 129–199). Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- West, M. (1953). *A general service list of English words*. Green: Longman.
- Wolfe-Quintero, K. / Ingaki, S. / Kim, H.Y. (1998). *Second language development in writing: Measures of fluency, accuracy, and complexity* (Report No. 17). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Curriculum Centre.
- Xue, G. / Nation, P. (1984). A university word list. *Language Learning and Communication*, 3 (2), 215–29.
- Zheng, Y. (2016). The complex, dynamic development of L2 lexical use: A longitudinal study on Chinese learners of English. *System*, 56, 40–53. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0346251X15001852> [access: 20.10.2020].

Received: 20.10.2020; **revised:** 30.03.2021

KATARZYNA ROKOSZEWSKA

Uniwersytet Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczy im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie

k.rokoszewska@ujd.edu.pl

ORCID: 0000-0003-4479-0385

ANTONIO TAGLIALATELA
Università degli Studi della Tuscia

Authenticity and awareness of English as a lingua franca in English language classrooms

ABSTRACT. Research on the incorporation of the emerging English as a lingua franca (ELF) paradigm into English language teaching has flourished in recent years, foregrounding the necessity of translanguaging practices. However, despite the growing awareness of ELF, teachers still struggle to determine whether and how to adhere to the emerging paradigm. In particular, the authenticity of ELF teaching methods in the English language classroom has not been sufficiently addressed, and therefore, needs to be revamped. The aim of this paper is twofold. On one hand, it explores the aspect of teachers' ELF awareness in English teaching practices as well as the importance of incorporating authentic ELF materials into the classroom to help learners become ELF-aware and, consequently, competent intercultural speakers. On the other hand, it helps English language teachers, specifically those who have no or marginal exposure to ELF to reflect on the subject they teach, challenging the dominant World Englishes paradigm.

KEYWORDS: Competent intercultural speaker, ELF authenticity, ELF awareness, English teaching practices, translanguaging.

1. INTRODUCTION

English as a lingua franca (ELF) has raised an increasing interest in the field of Applied Linguistics over the last two decades. A preliminary introduction to ELF and how it facilitates intercultural communication is interconnected with today's global communication. English demographic trends indicate that the constant movement of people across the world has led to English being used for intercultural communication (Graddol 2006). This supports the view that "today's ideal speaker lives in a heterogeneous society (stratified along increasingly globalised lines) and has to negotiate with different people representing all sorts of power" (Mufwene 2007: 63). An English speaker in a multilingual and multicultural setting has to communicate with a number of other speakers from diverse linguacultural backgrounds and with different levels of language proficiency. The question which arises is whether the English used in such situations should be that of the native speakers or non-native speakers. Moreover, the

status of English as the lingua franca of our time poses relevant implications for English language teaching (ELT) and learning. Therefore, this paper will attempt to answer the above question, in addition to establishing whether ELF can represent authenticity through authentic language use and how teachers can create opportunities for learners to employ English in lingua franca speech situations.

This article draws on Lopriore's (2017) observations about the importance of the authenticity of ELF inside and outside the multilingual classroom and reframe them due to the necessity of expressly conjoining an ELF-aware approach with the authenticity of ELF. On one hand, it sets out to encourage English teachers, particularly those who are new to the domain of ELF, to challenge the dominant World Englishes (WEs) paradigm (Jenkins 2000, 2007; Saraceni 2009; Seidlhofer 2004, 2011) through an ELF-aware approach. On the other hand, it advocates that ELF-aware teachers incorporate ELF authentic materials in the classroom to enhance learners' awareness of the diverse uses of English, which is of great importance to a competent intercultural speaker in today's globalised multicultural scenario.

In light of this, the present study addresses the question of the shortage of authentic ELF materials in the English classroom to raise learners' ELF awareness, an issue that has received insufficient attention so far. Specifically, we maintain that, through the use of such authentic materials and ELF itself as an authentic tool of intercultural communication, learners can become aware of the multiple facets of English and develop into competent intercultural speakers, whereas the notions of a competent ELF speaker and competent intercultural speaker often overlap (Tagliatela & Tardi 2020).

The article is organised as follows: Section 2 illustrates the notion of ELF and its recent evolution to English as a multilingua franca (EMF), and contextualises it in terms of ELT; Section 3 explores the implications of ELF for teachers and learners, with some reflections on teacher training; Section 4 examines how the authenticity of ELF can be achieved by integrating authentic ELF materials into the English classroom; finally, Section 5 draws conclusions and makes some suggestions for future research.

2. CONTEXTUALISING ELF IN ELT

A recent study has revealed that more than 80% of language interactions in the world occur among speakers with different mother tongues whose preferred means of communication is English (Kiczkowiak & Lowe 2018). This clearly implies that in a broader teaching perspective, in which non-native English speakers (NNESs) can legitimately appropriate the language as well as the native

English speakers (NESs), the latter can no longer be regarded as the undisputable custodians of the development of English (Poppi 2010). The belief that the English used by NESs is superior to all other varieties of English, which has been termed "native speakerism" by Holliday (2005: 10) and that it should set the linguistic norms in all situations, is erroneous (Fang 2018; Phillipson 1992; Seidlhofer 2020) and needs reconceptualisation, particularly in the ELT context, where, as a general rule, teachers should demonstrate the required pedagogical skills and preparation for the profession prior to being employed based on their native language.

Canagarajah (2007) challenges the construct of ELF with that of *Lingua Franca English* (LFE), emphasising that languages other than English also exist as lingua franca. Of course, English plays a prominent role as today's global lingua franca. Canagarajah maintains that LFE "belongs to a virtual speech community" in that "LFE speakers are not located in one geographical boundary. They inhabit and practice other languages and cultures in their own immediate localities" (2007: 925), and goes on to say that:

Multilingualism is at the heart of LFE's hybrid community identity and speaker proficiency. A radical implication of this multilingualism is that all users of LFE have native competence of LFE, just as they have native competence in certain other languages and cultures (Canagarajah 2007: 925).

This assertion is in keeping with the updated theory of ELF as EMF, as it foregrounds the inherent multilingualism of global encounters (Jenkins 2015). In particular, EMF is viewed as an intrinsically multilingual means of English-medium communication among interactants with a different linguacultural background (Jenkins 2015; Mauranten 2018; Seidlhofer 2018), and is simultaneously considered a *conditio sine qua non* for professional success and social inclusion. However, for the sake of consistency throughout this paper, we shall use the locution ELF rather than EMF, abiding by Jenkins's (2015: 73) definition, according to which ELF "is available as a preferred contact language in multilingual and multicultural situations".

2.1. ELF as a resource for ELT

Graddol (2006: 11) points out that "English is no longer English as we have known it, and have taught it in the past as a foreign language, but is a new phenomenon now recognised as English as a lingua franca". While in Firth's (1996: 240) words, English is the preferred "contact language" among speakers with different linguacultural backgrounds. The current definition of ELF embraces

its broader function as a *multilingual means of communication* (Mauranen 2018; Seidlhofer 2018), wherein the two expressions, *multilingual* and *means of communication*, define its very nature. Indeed, ELF research has revealed how English and multilingual resources are employed flexibly across geographical boundaries ever since the emergence of ELF (Jenkins 1996, 2000; Seidlhofer 2011). ELF research is no longer conducted with ELF as a framework for reference but is focused on ELF within the framework of multilingualism. In this respect, Jenkins (2015: 77) argues that “English [...] is now conceived as one among many other languages, one resource among many, available but not necessarily used, with ELF defined not merely by its variability but by its complexity and emergent nature”. In fact, to enhance communication efficiency and potential, NESs and NNEs alike resort to those multilingual resources in interaction which are present “in their own multilingual verbal repertoire and which they know are part of the listener’s repertoire” (Cogo 2016; Margić 2017: 33, after Platt 1977; Seidlhofer 2009). Therefore, ELF proves to be a “multilingual practice” by definition (Jenkins 2015: 63) and makes English a “*multilingua franca*” (Jenkins 2015: 73). As Margić (2017: 33) puts it, “occasional switching to the interlocutor’s [first language] L1, or any other language that the interlocutors share, or modifying English to recall structures in these languages, is an important pragmatic strategy through which both conversational flow and rapport are maintained”.

A similar complex milieu requires a rethinking of the tenets of communication in English and, consequently, in English pedagogical practices. In particular, the gradual shift from the stress on “accuracy” and “correctness” to that on “appropriateness” and “intelligibility” (Jenkins 2000, 2007; Seidlhofer 2004, 2011) calls for a reflection on the function of English across the curriculum and the requirement to develop a new kind of language awareness on the teachers’ part that reaches far beyond normative grammaticality. Canagarajah (2007: 927) argues that:

we have to judge proficiency, intelligibility, and communicative success in terms of each context and its participants. More importantly, we have to interpret the meaning and significance of the English used from the participants’ own perspective, without imposing the researcher’s standards or criteria invoked from elsewhere.

This argument is thought-provoking, as English is no longer a foreign language as it used to be within the long-standing WEs paradigm elaborated by Kachru (1985, 1992), where the relevance of NESs as language norm providers prevailed. Valdman (1989, 1992), for example, advanced the notion of “pedagogical variable norm” as a useful framework for supporting teachers in their decisions about which language variety and sociolinguistic variants to impart to the learners. Although the framework stemmed from a research conducted on French language teaching, it is also applicable to ELT, due to the plurality of WEs. Valdman

demonstrated that language exists in various forms, which results in different target language norms with the potential to guide foreign or second language learning. Thus, the outcomes of his research still hold empirical implications for ELT, as well as other languages.

Kachru (1985, 1992, 2003) formulated a concentric three-circle model (i.e., inner, outer, and expanding circles) in a pioneering attempt to define the spread and use of English globally, especially regarding which variety of English should be used in the classroom. According to this model, the inner circle refers to those countries where English is the native language or L1, namely, “the countries where [one can find] the traditional culture and linguistic bases of English” (1992: 356); the outer circle consists of “a large speech community with great diversity and distinct characteristics” (2003: 9); and the expanding circle regards English as an international language, characterised “by performance (or EFL [...]) varieties”. The question is to understand in which circle the type of English we teach is included.

Undoubtedly, English *performance* of the learners across the three circles varies depending on where it is being used. However, through the Kachruvian model, the role of NESs as language norm providers (inner circle) is emphasised, which is in opposition to the fact that the number of NNEs surpasses that of NESs and that English is appropriated by everyone. Indeed, Widdowson (2020) points out that such a norm-providing version “is actually imposed as an ideal norm of usage which most users of English in the world do not conform to, and whose English is regarded as unacceptable [...]”. However, this non-conformist exploitation of linguistic resources is nothing but adaptive creativity, which is the real driving force of all communication (Kohn 2019). The fundamentals of how English actually functions in intercultural communication can be noticed because of how ELF is used among speakers from outside the inner circle.

Jenkins (2000, 2007) and Seidlhofer (2004, 2011), fostering the idea of ELF in intercultural communication, were the first to pay special attention to “intelligibility” rather than “accuracy”. Jenkins (1998, 2000), in particular, conceived the Lingua Franca Core (LFC), that is, a pronunciation framework enabling ELF speakers to communicate successfully among themselves, with the aim of redefining and reclassifying pronunciation errors to embrace the sociolinguistic facets of regional variation. Theoretically, LFC has come under criticism for aiming to promote and justify any deviation from the norm; however, in practice, it simply identifies when a deviation is functional for communication, thereby contributing to democracy in cross-cultural communication (Jenkins 2000). Thus, LFC responds to the need of intelligibility while facilitating the learning procedure, and still supports the view that ELF speakers can develop their skills to communicate internationally (Taglialatela & Tardi 2020), such as the ability to adapt to and share their language repertoire with their foreign interlocutor for mutual

understanding (Cogo 2010). In so doing, Jenkins and Seidlhofer have laid the theoretical foundations of a progressive change in English language pedagogy from teachers' monolingual view of language, where languages are considered separate entities, to a holistic view, where a language is considered as a process, especially in connection with the dynamics of any communicative situation (Piccardo 2020). Reasonably, the variety of English that should be taught is not an NES variety, but a *variant*¹ embedding learners' own multilingual repertoire, which they are aware is equally part of their listener's own repertoire.

2.2. ELF and (trans)languaging

As contended by García (2011: 7), "language is not something that human beings have, but an ongoing process that exists in languaging", namely, in those language practices of speakers in which multiple discursive resources are necessary. For this reason, teachers need to be guided from the beginning "to develop a pedagogy that utilises fluid, mobile, and multiple discursive resources in [today's] multilingual classrooms" (Zein 2018: 36), thereby shifting from a *monolingual* to a *translanguaging pedagogy*, where native languages or L1s are appraised and employed purposely. Through translanguaging, speakers' natural cognitive and linguistic capacities strategically draw on all the available cognitive, semiotic, sensory, and modal resources at their disposal (Paradowski 2020) to interact.

Despite being different in their own right (Kimura & Canagarajah 2018), the translanguaging and ELF perspectives draw from the common objective of meaning making for mutual understanding (Kimura & Canagarajah 2018) and are complementary in nature. Translanguaging, in particular, exploits linguistic differences as a resource to express one's unique voice without disregarding linguistic conventions and established varieties (Canagarajah 2013). Consequently, in the educational context, it counters the pressures of prevalent monolingual language X-only policies or two-way bilingual immersion programmes. Ideally, translanguaging not only allows but also encourages teachers to actively draw on learners' semiotic resources (Paradowski 2020), so that they "can incorporate purposeful and systematic discursive modes such as code-switching and translating as part of their everyday way of meaning making" (Zein 2018: 36). Here, a reconceptualisation is required of language education and linguistic competencies, which are focused on the learner rather than the language in its own right.

¹ It is worth mentioning that ELF is not a focused variety in its own right, but rather a variant with recurring characteristics when spoken among NNEs (Canagarajah 2007; Laitinen 2020).

However, promoting translanguaging in the ELF context not only implies a paradigm shift but also flatly rejects the dominant language policies such as “English Only” as the “great equalizer” (Woodley & Brown 2016: 95) which grant NESs great privileges. For both teachers and learners, NESs still represent the linguistic and cultural model to pursue in the English classroom (Moussu & Llurda 2008) to be better teachers and communicators than their NNES counterparts (Matsuda 2018). Seidlhofer (2004: 212) maintains that “language is so closely and automatically tied up with its native speakers that it is very difficult to open up conceptual space for ELF”, as well as that “if English is to function as a lingua franca, and as a means for inclusive communication, it has to be dissociated from the language which is defined in reference to native speaker norms and territories” (Seidlhofer 2020). ELF awareness can make teachers more independent, for they can identify and tailor all sorts of strategies and materials to the learners’ requirements more effectively (Svalberg 2016). Nonetheless, as argued by Sifakis (2019: 293), “lesson plans, teacher training curricula, textbooks, policies, and assessment procedures” should be informed “in ways that will render the ELT experience richer and deeper, and closer to a *realistic experience* of what has come to be global communication via English” [my emphasis]. The need to integrate the authenticity of ELF into the teaching method and materials adopted in the classroom is again acknowledged as relevant in teaching practice, which highlights how ELF research has progressively redirected its attention from the mere linguistic rules and patterns towards its underlying pragmatic uses in specific situations for co-construction of meaning (Hüttner 2009). Teachers therefore need to create a space for the development of learners’ ELF awareness in that “linguistic norms are fluid and negotiable ideological constructs” (Zein 2018: 36), broadening at the same time learners’ conception of communication beyond the linguistic exchanges with the NESs.

3. INTEGRATING AN ELF-AWARE APPROACH INTO ELT

Integrating an ELF-aware approach into the English classroom requires the consideration of both doability issues and related tasks (Kumar Bhowmik 2015). An evaluation of teaching objectives against these factors can help teachers determine more realistic targets for learners. In particular, if the objective is to incorporate ELF awareness into the classroom, teachers will need to develop learners’ potential to open up a new space for using English for using English creatively, based on their own linguacultural background and experiences (Kohn 2019). In this sense, an important issue is the acknowledgement of ELF lexicogrammatical features, as the embodiment of a multicultural appropriation of

English is oriented in such a direction where deviations from the norm are not deficiencies or errors, but peculiar and negotiated features of ELF. Teachers are called to review their teaching methods and materials accordingly, and reflect on their current practices (Dewey 2012) to encourage students to learn reflectively from their own experiences, develop their own requirements of communal communicative success, and further improve their ELF competence (Hoffstaedter & Kohn 2017; Kohn 2019).

3.1. Implications and challenges for teachers (and learners)

There are several challenges that hinder the shift from the traditional ELT approach to a more pragmatic ELF-aware approach in teaching practice. On one hand, challenges arise from the uncertainty of establishing, applying, and evaluating the appropriate ELF pedagogy – methods, models, and materials – especially in a multilingual classroom (Sifakis 2020). On the other hand, teachers' orientations towards non-native English appear fundamentally negative. Non-native English is still perceived as an inauthentic representation of standard English and, consequently, non-native English teachers (NNETs) often undergo discriminatory practices in the workplace and are marginalised as language teachers (Braine 2010; Trent 2016). Nevertheless, research on the role of NNETs has demonstrated their potential assets such as their knowledge of language and local setting (Llurda 2006; Vodopija-Krstanović & Vukanović 2011), bringing the rich influences of their local languages and cultural contexts to English. Moreover, they are regarded as “a good learner model”, because, as Seidlhofer affirms, “the native speakers know the destination, but not the terrain that has to be crossed to get there: they themselves have not travelled the same route” (1999: 238). Biases against NNETs can be overcome if they are perceived as providing an opportunity for integrating real-life interactions, which involve NNEs – in this case, teachers and learners – in the foreign language classroom and for stimulating teacher reflection and growth (Sifakis 2020). Furthermore, several English language teachers maintain that an ELF-oriented approach is somewhat questionable (Modiano 2009; Seidlhofer 2011; Weber 2013). First, teachers still lack concrete strategies for how to integrate these paradigmatic changes into the language classroom (Dewey 2014) and are hesitant to adopt an ELF approach. Moreover, there still persists the tendency to separate the competencies of researchers (“knowing that”) from those of professionals (“knowing how”) (Margić & Vodopsija-Krstanović 2018). Clearly, scholars and professionals conceptualise English in different ways: while ELF scholars think of it in terms of “real-life English language” by focusing on communication, professionals consider it in

relation to “linguistic standardisation and norms” (Sifakis 2004: 242). Teachers can thus familiarise themselves with ELF research and integrate it into their practice, as long as they can rely on specifically designed materials.

Unfortunately, no easy solution can be provided. For instance, Jenkins (2012: 492) maintains that, regardless of what English language teachers are, or are not recommended to do in a class by researchers, “[...] it is for ELT practitioners to decide whether / to what extent ELF is relevant to their learners in their context”. Of course, what English language teachers learn in their training programmes may influence their prospective teaching and beliefs about the language (Bayyurt et al. 2019). Therefore, a critical, comprehensive review of current teacher training programmes and materials is to be conducted to prepare them for the diverse challenges posed by an English language classroom with a multicultural and multilingual environment.

The field of ELT features certain tensions which not only influence teachers' and, consequently, learners' behaviours but also ELT practices in terms of approaches and methods, as these may sometimes cause failures or disruptions of the teaching objectives (Kumar Bhowmik 2015). It is thus important to reflect on how the ELF phenomenon can impact ELT.

Kirkpatrick (2007: 195) argues that teachers wishing to work across the renowned Kachruvian circles (more specifically, in outer and expanding circle countries) “should be able to evaluate ELT materials critically to ensure that [...], either explicitly or implicitly, [these do not] promote a particular variety of English or culture at the expense of others”. This argument is both reasonable as well as disputable. Indeed, in multilingual classrooms, and in certain communicative exchanges, the decision regarding the English variety to be adopted depends very much on the type of speakers involved in the interaction (Matsuda 2018: 26). However, it is impossible to predict which English variety will be used on each occasion, and thus, becoming ELF-aware is crucial for teachers to foster learners' self-confidence and success in multilingual / multicultural environments.

3.2. Becoming ELF-aware

Calafato (2019: 4) contends that “[l]anguage awareness is explicit knowledge about and conscious perception of language, its structure and vocabulary, its teaching and learning, as well as its use in social and cultural contexts”, and this clearly involves both cognitive and socio-cultural components. Language awareness allows teachers and learners with the same mother tongue to resort to their L1 knowledge and, consequently, take part in a cross-cultural and cross-

linguistic reflection of the characteristics detected in their L1, as well as in the target language (Svalberg 2016).

This observation calls into question also the contentious function of culture in ELT. Drawing on the theory that ELF constitutes a neutral and impartial communication code (Louhiala-Salminen, Charles & Kankaanranta 2005), the issue arises of how language instructors can teach and students can learn the language benchmarked against an NES variety, pretending “to belong to a particular ‘national’ English speaking culture when they obviously do not” (Pöltzl 2003: 4). Reasonably, new ways of communicating must be considered to recognise the plurality of *voices* in English on the global stage, with English being used in intercultural communication also at the local level (Leung & Street 2012; Lopriore 2017). Becoming ELF-aware means to not only understand the principles of how ELF functions (Sifakis 2018), but how ELF functions cannot be taught. Learners can rather be sensitised to this phenomenon through real-life activities which develop their own ELF awareness (Lopriore 2017).

Reviewing the general learner-centred concept of awareness proposed by Newby (2000: 20), which distinguishes between learning, pragmatic, and process awareness, Sifakis (2019) makes a distinction among awareness of language and language use, awareness of learning, and awareness of instructional practices. In particular, he argues that these types of awareness are intertwined and arise simultaneously in teacher education practices but with different perspectives: “language use” is set as the goal of teaching, “instructional practice” refers to the process, and “learning” involves the lesson’s content. Nevertheless, in Sifakis’s distinction, the centrality of the concept of awareness remains the same as in Newby’s proposal.

Although teachers are becoming increasingly aware of the relevance of incorporating an ELF-aware approach into ELT, due to multilingual and multicultural classrooms, they still struggle to adopt and integrate this approach into their classrooms and, consequently, learners often demonstrate their inability to cope with ELF situations. Therefore, teachers need to overcome their resistance to and preconceptions about the integration of an ELF-aware approach into their classroom and adjust both lesson contents and teaching methods to the learning needs of their students. This is the key to help them develop their ELF awareness.

4. ELF AUTHENTICITY INSIDE AND OUTSIDE THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM

The notion of authenticity in ELT has been investigated from different perspectives in recent decades, mostly in terms of “the type of constructed vs. authentic language samples as used in textbooks and teaching materials” (Lopriore

2017: 188). However, the way teachers may use authentic materials can even make them inauthentic (this will be discussed in Subsection 4.1). Breen (1985: 61) stresses that language teachers are “continually concerned with four types of authenticity: (1) authenticity of the texts which they may use as input data for learners; (2) authenticity of the learners’ own interpretations of such texts; (3) authenticity of tasks leading to language learning; and (4) authenticity of the social situation of the language classroom”. Despite this classification, Breen’s distinction highlights that the concept of authenticity has no singular meaning (cf. Widdowson 1990).

The question of authenticity has recently gained new ground due to globalisation, the use of information and communication technology (ICT), the emergence of new forms of authenticity, such as social media, and the rising relevance of localised language use. The last factor in particular as well as the importance of social context are underlined by current research on ELF which also challenges the essential nature of authenticity (Pinner 2016; Preisler 2014). For example, some researchers ponder whether ELF can represent authenticity through authentic language use, but ELF has proved to aptly represent such authenticity, being widely exploited in multilingual and multicultural situations, also in virtual ones, and going beyond the material used in the classroom.

In fact, teaching modalities, such as distance learning, online courses, webinars, virtual international conferences and meetings, have been reshaped owing to the COVID-19 pandemic, and the extent to which individuals have been exposed to authentic language, connecting through the web and social media, and through different varieties of English merging into ELF. ELF can operate concretely in real-life contexts and can be regarded as the learning tool as well as the objective. Pinner (2015: n.a.) suggests that “[a] way of thinking about authenticity is from a wider perspective, something that encompasses not only the materials being used and the tasks set to engage with them, but also the people in the classroom and the social context of the target language”, establishing a continuum among the social, linguistic, and contextual components. The type of English spoken in multilingual classrooms is fundamentally an authentic *lingua franca* for intercultural communication (Canagarajah 2007).

In this sense, teacher development programmes need to be distanced from “the traditional monolingual approach to instruction” (Calafato 2019: 2) and should enable English language teachers to integrate ELF approaches into the language classroom, particularly in multilingual and multicultural ones. While on one hand, an ELF-informed teaching approach is required for learners who must be acquainted with the multiple facets of English, on the other hand, ELF is necessary as an authentic communicative tool in multilingual and multicultural environments, this being the common ground for communication (Jenkins 2015).

Research findings² reveal that teachers are increasingly becoming conscious of the new communicative needs in multilingual classes since English arises in different instantiations – ELF, among others. On this basis, teachers’ non-native status is central to managing classroom dynamics: for example, the need for learners to act as competent intercultural communicators (Byram 1997), thus accepting other learners’ forms of translanguaging in communication, or the teacher’s need to use authentic input and tasks. In this respect, out-of-school experiences and the use of ICT and social media are of great help for learners due to their authenticity. As Musthafa, Hamied and Zein (2019: 180) emphasise, “[it is] important to empower students to become independent, strategic learners, to encourage every individual learner to take ownership of their own learning [...] to create opportunities for students to use English for communicative purposes in lingua franca situations”, but the question is how to achieve this goal. The following subsection attempts to provide a response.

4.1. ELF authenticity in teaching material

The debate on authenticity has always regarded content found in newspapers, magazines, radio, and TV broadcasts, together with internet content as authentic material. These are spontaneous, natural, and diverse texts, which were originally produced for non-pedagogical purposes (Gilmore 2007). No materials, however, are authentic in their own right. It is those who use them, that is, teachers and learners, who make them authentic (cf. Widdowson 1978). According to Pinner (2015: n.a.), “authenticity refers to how learners engage with the material used in the classroom and how they relate to it”. A teacher could employ authentic material but use it inauthentically. For example, would using an English language newspaper in the classroom and asking learners to read an article, identify certain grammatical features, and then inviting them to copy something into their notebooks really be authentic? Even though for many people newspapers are a typical example of authentic texts, what will happen in a similar situation is not really authentic language learning, but rather an unproductive focus on grammar, as newspapers themselves are not an expression of “spontaneous” language. Newspapers can be used authentically if, for example, they can stimulate spontaneous in-class discussions.

² See, for instance, the transnational ENRICH Project (2018–2021) which, drawing on current thinking about multilingualism and ELF, defies the traditional approach to English as a monolithic entity devoid of any relevance to other languages and cultures, promoting an innovative, research-based view of the English classroom as an inherently multilingual environment.

Some teachers, however, are reluctant to the introduction of novelties deriving from the authentic and intercultural use of English, as this is considered counterintuitive and even counterproductive (Margić & Vodopija-Krstanović 2018). For example, students are thought to lose out on the possibility of learning a standard variety of English, which may be useful in their future lives for working or studying in native English-speaking countries. In a similar manner, there is concern that an ELF approach to education suggests that native standards are unattainable (Groom 2012). It is worth clarifying that the point is not to disregard the native English varieties, but to enlighten learners on the different varieties of English, which can contribute to making them successful intercultural communicators (Lopriore 2017).

The apparent objective of authenticity seems currently to suggest that we have authenticity in the real world and pedagogy in the classroom. Very often, textbooks and materials that teachers employ do not reflect an authentic expression of the world, as ELT textbooks still represent native-speaker norms and cultures (Calafato 2019; Lopriore 2017). It is now necessary that they look at “real contexts, spontaneous language, and genuine needs” (Newby 2000: 16). A more focused integration of inputs and tasks displaying examples of interactions which involve native and non-native users of English in various settings is required, as a reflection of what happens outside the classroom. It is crucial to redesign, for example, listening and speaking inputs, because ELF is mostly focused on what happens in spoken interactions. Tasks should engage learners in authentic ELF use and foster their deeper appreciation of the function of English as an effective means of interaction involving native and non-native speakers.

This has benefits for learners. Giving learners a “voice” in learning activities is what makes such activities more authentic (Leung & Lewkowicz 2017: 87), as their voice often comes from outside classroom relationships, or even from within the classroom if multilingual. Learners need to be exposed to the language used in real life to draw their attention to features of authentic speech, that is, “natural rhythm and intonation, natural starts and stops, incomplete sentences, hesitations, fillers, etc.” (Tomlinson 2010: 83), which is something that rarely happens in language classrooms and textbooks. As argued by Lopriore (2017), a way to encourage learners to ‘practise’ authenticity is to use authentic materials in the tasks they are assigned, where, by resorting to their own language communicative strategies, they can authenticate their language use. In fact, to embed an ELF approach in language teaching and, consequently, foster learners’ ELF awareness, traditional materials such as course books or grammar books should be implemented with a variety of out-of-classroom authentic resources and highlight the diverse instantiations of English. Nonetheless, a valuable contribution towards the development of learners’ ELF awareness could be

made by teachers' teamwork to build strong local communities. It is the local teachers who know the classroom and their (multilingual and multicultural) students (González 2010), and reasonably, they are the ones who know how to authenticate, or help learners to authenticate the use of language.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RESEARCH PROSPECTS

This article has pictured how ELF performs in English language pedagogy. From the teacher's perspective, English language teachers are becoming aware of the impact of ELF on ELT, particularly in multilingual and multicultural environments. However, it is still unclear in what specific context and to what extent they can integrate ELF-related issues into their teaching practice, specifically because of the shortcomings of *ad hoc* material. To remedy this situation, teachers are called on to challenge the traditional ELT paradigm and, through attentive evaluation of the teaching context, incorporate an ELF-aware approach into the classroom.

From the learner's perspective, it is crucial that English pedagogy consider the authentic use of the materials employed in the classroom, as this can help engage learners in a wide range of real-life communicative contexts, making them aware of the diverse facets of English and what being a competent intercultural speaker implies, while preserving their linguacultural identity.

ELF is a major transdisciplinary field, and our focus on pedagogy has provided a background for in-depth discussion of other spheres, such as language policy making, language material development and implementation, evaluation, and teacher education. As discussed, teachers still lack adequate training on how to incorporate an ELF-aware perspective into their teaching, which is permeated by the traditional WEs paradigm and considers native speakers' English as the ultimate ideal to aspire to in both teaching and learning practices. Nevertheless, the elusive NES model as the benchmark in ELT is no longer suitable for our multifaceted reality. Sifakis and Bayyurt (2018: 464) contend that "being an ELF-aware teacher means finding ways to empower one's learners as competent non-native users of English, essentially prompting them to become ELF aware users themselves". To this end, it is vital for teachers to have an outlook that transcends the classroom context and the mere use of course books, and become authors themselves in their own locality. It is important in the first place to engage them in supervised lesson planning undertaken from a more critical and less textbook-focused standpoint (Dewey 2014), promote their critical reflection on traditional practices, and include authentic tasks in their teaching. Further research should thus be conducted in these contexts, as the goal is to align teaching and learning practices with our reality outside the classroom. Research should

also be carried out in respect to teachers' own conceptualisation of the English language, as their personal beliefs may influence and impact the way they teach. ICT had already been playing a vital role in recent years; however, because of the COVID-19 pandemic, its contribution in fostering ELF-aware practices has become even more important, and research should be conducted also in this field to examine which tools could trigger learners' lively interest in using ELF communication strategies actively.

This study adds to the debate on ELF awareness in ELT, espousing the integration of ELF authentic material into the classroom to raise ELF awareness, as this is an aspect which is still needing special attention in current teaching and learning practices. In so doing, it supports, to a certain extent, English language teachers, particularly those who have little or no exposure to ELF, in reflecting on the subject they teach.

REFERENCES

- Bayyurt, Y. / Kurt, Y. / Öztekin, E. / Guerra, L. / Cavalheiro, L. / Pereira, R. (2019). English language teachers' awareness of English as a lingua franca in multilingual and multicultural contexts. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5 (2), 185–202. DOI: 10.32601/ejal.599230.
- Braine, G. (2010). *Non-native speaker English teachers: Research, pedagogy, and professional growth*. New York: Routledge.
- Breen, M. (1985). Authenticity in the language classroom. *Applied Linguistics*, 6 (1), 60–70.
- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Calafato, R. (2019). The non-native speaker teacher as proficient multilingual: A critical review of research from 2009–2018. *Lingua*, 227, 102700. DOI: 10.1016/j.lingua.2019.06.001.
- Canagarajah, S.A. (2007). Lingua franca English, multilingual communities, and language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91, 923–939. <http://www.personal.psu.edu/asc16/MLJ91.5LinguaFranca.pdf> [access: 12.03.2020].
- Canagarajah, S.A. (2013). *Literacy as a translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms*. London: Routledge.
- Cogo, A. (2010). Strategic use and perceptions of English as a lingua franca. *Poznań Studies on Contemporary Linguistics*, 46 (3), 295–312. DOI: 10.2478/v10010-010-0013-7.
- Cogo, A. (2016). 'They all take the risk and make the effort': Intercultural accommodation and multilingualism in a BELF community of practice. In: L. Lopriore / E. Grazi (eds.), *Intercultural communication: New perspectives from ELF* (pp. 365–383). Rome: Roma TrE-Press.
- Dewey, M. (2012). Towards a post-normative approach: Learning the pedagogy of ELF. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 1 (1), 141–170.
- Dewey, M. (2014). Pedagogic criticality and English as a lingua franca. *ATLANTIS – Journal of the Spanish Association of Anglo-American Studies*, 36 (2), 11–30.
- ENRICH Project (2018–2021). <http://enrichproject.eu/> [access: 25.01.2021].
- Fang, F. (2018). Native-speakerism revisited: Global Englishes, ELT and intercultural communication. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 13 (2), 115–129.

- Firth, A. (1996). The discursive accomplishment of normality. On 'lingua franca' English and conversation analysis. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 26, 237–259. DOI: 10.1016/0378-2166(96)00014-8.
- García, O. (2011). Translanguaging of Latino kindergarteners. In: K. Potowski / J. Rothman (eds.), *Bilingual youth: Spanish in English speaking societies* (pp. 33–55). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 40, 97–118. DOI: 10.1017/S0261444807004144.
- González, A. (2010). English and English teaching in Colombia: Tensions and possibilities in the Expanding circle. In: A. Kirkpatrick (ed.), *The Routledge handbook of World Englishes* (332–351). London / New York: Routledge.
- Graddol, D. (1997). *The future of English*. London: The British Council.
- Graddol, D. (2006). *English next*. Milton Keynes: The British Council.
- Groom, C. (2012). Non-native attitudes towards teaching English as a lingua franca in Europe. *English Today*, 28 (1), 50–57. DOI: 10.1017/S026607841100068X.
- Hoffstaedter, P. / Kohn, K. (2017). Learner agency and non-native speaker identity in pedagogical lingua franca conversations: Insights from intercultural telecollaboration in foreign language education. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 30 (5), 351–367. DOI: 10.1080/09588221.2017.1304966.
- Holliday, A. (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hüttner, J. (2009). Fluent speakers – fluent interactions: On the creation of (co)-fluency in English as a lingua franca. In: A. Mauranen / E. Ranta (eds.), *English as a lingua franca: Studies and findings* (pp. 274–297). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Jenkins, J. (1996). Native speaker, non-native speaker and English as a foreign language: Time for a change. *IATEFL Newsletter*, 131, 10–11.
- Jenkins, J. (1998). Which pronunciation norms and models for English as an international language? *ELT Journal*, 52, 119–126.
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2007). *Attitude and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2012). English lingua franca from the classroom to the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 66 (4), 486–494. DOI: 10.1093/elt/ccs040.
- Jenkins, J. (2015). Repositioning English and multilingualism in English as a lingua franca. *Englishes in Practice*, 2, 49–85. DOI: 10.1515/eip-2015-0003.
- Kachru, B.B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the Outer circle. In: R. Quirk / H. Widdowson (eds.), *English in the world* (pp. 11–30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kachru, B.B. (1992). Teaching World Englishes. In: B.B. Kachru (ed.), *The other tongue. English across cultures* (2nd ed.) (pp. 355–365). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Kachru, B.B. (2003). Liberation linguistics and the Quirk concern. In: B. Seidlhofer (ed.), *Controversies in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 19–33). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kiczowski, M. / Lowe, R.J. (2018). *Teaching English as a lingua franca: The journey from EFL to ELF*. Peaslake, Surrey: Delta Publishing.
- Kimura, D. / Canagarajah, S. (2018). Translingual practice and ELF. In: J. Jenkins / J.C. Baker / M. Dewey (eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English as a lingua franca* (pp. 295–308). London: Routledge.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). *World Englishes: Implications for international communication and English language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kohn, K. (2018). MY English: A social constructivist perspective on ELF. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 7 (1), 1–24. DOI: 10.1515/jelf-2018-0001.
- Kohn, K. (2019). Lingua franca pedagogy. Emancipating the foreign language learner. Paper presented at ASIA TEFL 2019, Bangkok, 27–29 June 2019.

- Kumar Bhowmik, S. (2015). World Englishes and English language teaching: A pragmatic and humanistic approach. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 17 (1), 142–157. DOI: 10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2015.1.a10.
- Laitinen, M. (2020). Empirical perspectives on English as a lingua franca (ELF) grammar. *World Englishes*, 39 (3), 427–442. DOI: 10.1111/weng.12482.
- Leung, C. / Lewkowicz, J. (2017). Second language literacies: Evolving understandings. In: B. Street / S. May (eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 169–180). New York: Springer.
- Leung, C. / Street, B. (2012). *Linking EIL and literacy: Theory and practice*. In: L. Alsagoff / S.L. McKay / G. Hu / W.A. Renandya (eds.), *Principles and practices for teaching English as an international language* (pp. 85–103). London / New York: Routledge.
- Llurda, E. (2006). Looking at the perceptions, challenges, contributions... Or the importance of being a non-native teacher. In: E. Llurda (ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions the profession* (pp. 1–9). New York: Springer.
- Lopriore, L. (2017). Revisiting language teaching materials in a time of change. *Revista A Cor das Letras*, 18, 182–199. DOI: 10.13102/cl.v18iEspecial.2668.
- Louhiala-Salminen, L. / Charles, M. / Kankaanranta, A. (2005). English as a lingua franca in Nordic corporate mergers: Two case companies. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24, 401–421.
- Margić, B.D. (2017). Communication courtesy or condescension? Linguistic accommodation of native to non-native speakers of English, *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 6 (1), 29–55. DOI: 10.1515/jelf-2017-0006.
- Margić, B.D. / Vodopija-Krstanović, I. (2018). English language education in Croatia: Elitist purism or paradigmatic shift? In: Z. Tatsioka / B. Seidlhofer / N. Sifakis / G. Ferguson (eds.), *Using English as a lingua franca in education in Europe: English in Europe* (pp. 51–72). Berlin: De Gruyter / Mouton.
- Matsuda, A. (2018). Is teaching English as an international language all about being politically correct? *RELC Journal*, 49 (1), 24–35. DOI: 10.1177/0033688217753489.
- Mauranen, A. (2018). Conceptualizing ELF. In: J. Jenkins / W. Baker / M. Dewey (eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English as a lingua franca* (pp. 7–24). London / New York: Routledge.
- Modiano, M. (2009). EIL, native-speakerism and the failure of European ELT. In: F. Sharifian (ed.), *English as an international language: Perspectives and pedagogical issues* (pp. 58–77). Clevedon UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Moussu, L. / Llurda, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *Language Teaching*, 41 (3), 315–348. DOI: 10.1017/S0261444808005028.
- Mufwene, S.S. (2007). Population movements and contacts: Competition, selection and language evolution. *Journal of Language Contact*, 1, 63–91. http://mufwene.uchicago.edu/publications/POPULATION_MOVEMENTS_AND_CONTACTS.pdf [access: 24.02.2020].
- Musthafa, B. / Hamied, F.A. / Zein, S. (2019). Enhancing the quality of Indonesian teachers in the ELF era. Policy recommendations. In: S. Zein (ed.), *Teacher education for English as a lingua franca. Perspectives from Indonesia* (pp. 174–190). Abingdon UK: Routledge.
- Newby, D. (2000). Authenticity. In: A.B. Fenner / D. Newby (eds.), *Approaches to materials design in European textbooks: Implementing principles of authenticity, learner autonomy, cultural awareness* (pp. 16–23). Graz: Council of Europe. <http://archive.ecml.at/documents/materials.pdf> [access: 10.01.2020].
- Paradowski, M.B. (2020). Pedagogical translanguaging in multicultural classrooms: Potential and bounds. Paper presented at the 2nd international conference on *Communication in Multicultural Society* (CMSC 2020), Moscow, Russia, 10–12 December 2020.
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Piccardo, E. (2020). The CEFR descriptors for mediation & the dynamic nature of language learning. Paper presented during the videoconference *The CEFR Companion volume: A key resource for inclusive plurilingual education*. Council of Europe, 16th December 2020.
- Pinner, R.S. (2015). What we talk about when we talk about authenticity. *Uniliterate – Language Learning and Academic Literacies*. https://uniliterate.com/2015/05/talk-talk-authenticity/#.Xs_i3GgzbIU [access: 23.01.2021].
- Pinner, R.S. (2016). *Reconceptualising authenticity for English as a global language*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Platt, J.T. (1977). A model for polyglossia and multilingualism (with special reference to Singapore and Malaysia). *Language in Society*, 6 (3), 361–378.
- Pörtl, U. (2003). Signalling cultural identity: The use of L1 / Ln in ELF. *Vienna English Working Papers*, 12, 3–23.
- Poppi, F. (2010). Investigating ELF group membership: A case study focusing on The Baltic Times. In: R. Facchinetti / D. Crystal / B. Seidlhofer (eds.), *From international to local English – And back again* (pp. 93–113). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Preisler, B. (2014). Lecturing in one's first language or in English as a lingua franca: The communication of authenticity. *Acta Linguistica Hafniensia*, 46 (2), 218–242. DOI: 10.1080/03740463.2014.966603.
- Saraceni, M. (2009). Relocating English: Towards a new paradigm for English in the world. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 9, 175–186. DOI: 10.1080/14708470902748830.
- Seidlhofer, B. (1999). Double standards: Teacher education in the Expanding circle. *World Englishes*, 18 (2), 233–245. DOI: 10.1111/1467-971X.00136.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2001). Closing a conceptual gap: The case for a description of English as a lingua franca. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11 (2), 133–158. DOI: 10.1111/1473-4192.00011.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2004). Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 209–239. DOI: 10.1017/S0267190504000145.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2009). Common ground and different realities: World Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *World Englishes*, 28 (2), 236–245. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-971X.2009.01592.x.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2018). Standard English and the dynamics of ELF variation. In: J. Jenkins / W. Baker / M. Dewey (eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English as a lingua franca* (pp. 85–100). London / New York: Routledge.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2020). Yours inclusively: ELF communication. Paper presented at *TIES Conference 2020*, Naples, 27–29 February 2020.
- Sifakis, N. (2004). Teaching EIL – Teaching international or intercultural English: What teachers should know? *System*, 32 (2), 237–250. DOI: 10.1016/j.system.2003.09.010.
- Sifakis, N. (2019). ELF awareness in English language teaching: Principles and processes. *Applied Linguistics*, 40 (2), 288–306. DOI: 10.1093/applin/axx034.
- Sifakis, N. (2020). Two obstacles to enabling change in ELF-aware teacher education and how to overcome them. *Revista Estudos Linguísticos e Literários*, 65, 104–117. DOI: 10.9771/ell.v1i65.36471.
- Svalberg, A. (2016). Language awareness. In: G. Hall (ed.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 399–412). London: Routledge.
- Taglialatela A. / Tardi G. (2020). ELF pedagogy and awareness: An action research applied to Italian tertiary students in ELF Skype interactions. *Quaderni di Linguistica e Studi Orientali (QULSO) [Working Papers in Linguistics and Oriental Studies]*, 6, 313–334. DOI: 10.13128/qulso-2421-7220-9705.
- Tomlinson, B. (2010). Principles for effective materials development. In: N. Harwood (ed.), *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice* (pp. 81–108). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Trent, J. (2016). The NEST–NNEST divide and teacher identity construction in Hong Kong Schools. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 15 (5), 306–320. DOI: 10.1080/15348458.2016.1214587.
- Valdman, A. (1989). Classroom foreign language learning and language variation: The notion of pedagogical norms. In: M.R. Eisenstein (ed.), *The dynamic interlanguage: Empirical studies in second language acquisition* (pp. 261–277). New York: Plenum Press.
- Valdman, A. (1992). Authenticity, variation, and communication in the foreign language classroom. In: C. Kramsch / S. McConnell-Ginet (eds.), *Text and context. Cross-disciplinary perspectives on language study* (pp. 79–97). Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath.
- Vettorel, P. (2019). Communication strategies and co-construction of meaning in ELF: Drawing on “multilingual resource pools”. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 8 (2), 179–210. DOI: 10.1515/jelf-2019-2019.
- Vodopija-Krstanović, I. / Vukanović, M.B. (2011). EFL students’ perspectives on English: The (widening) gap between ideals and practices. *Brazilian Journal of Applied Linguistics – Special Issue on Language Policy*, 12 (2), 285–309. DOI: 10.1590/S1984-63982012000200004.
- Weber, E. (2013). English as a lingua franca and appropriate teacher competence. In: Y. Bayyurt / S. Akcan (eds.), *ELF 5 – Proceedings of the Fifth International Conference of English as a Lingua Franca* (pp. 7–13). Boğaziçi: Boğaziçi University Press.
- Widdowson, H. (1978). *Learning language as communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Widdowson, H. (1990). *Aspects of language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Widdowson, H. (2020). *English beyond the pale: The language of outsiders*. Paper presented at TIES Conference 2020, Naples, Italy, 27–29 February 2020.
- Woodley, H. / Brown, A. (2016). Balancing windows and mirrors: Translanguaging in a multilingual classroom. In: O. Garcia / T. Kleyne (eds.), *Making meaning of translanguaging: Learning from classroom moments* (pp. 83–99). New York: Routledge.
- Zein, S. (2018). From EFL to ELF: Implications for teacher education. In: S. Zein (ed.), *Teacher education for English as a lingua franca: Perspectives from Indonesia* (pp. 21–40). New York: Routledge.

Received: 27.06.2020; **revised:** 31.03.2021

ANTONIO TAGLIALATELA
 Università degli Studi della Tuscia
 taglialatela@unitus.it
 ORCID: 0000-0002-7328-2681

II. BOOK REVIEWS

Przemysław Gębal / Władysław Miodunka. *Dydaktyka i metodyka nauczania języka polskiego jako obcego i drugiego. / Didactics and methodology of teaching Polish as a foreign and second language.* Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN. 2020. Pp. 454

The past two decades have seen the impressive development of Polish glottodidactics (Gębal & Miodunka 2020: 16), i.e. a field of study investigating “the processes of teaching and learning Polish as a foreign and second language” (Miodunka 2016: 54). It is a discipline with a solid theoretical basis, a growing body of research and a modern approach to language education, as exemplified by the volume under review, the third title in a glottodidactic series from Polish Scientific Publishers. Gębal and Miodunka, who are specialists in teaching Polish as a foreign language (PAFL) and in foreign language teaching, apply their expertise to provide a comprehensive textbook on teaching Polish to foreigners, in response to the significant changes which have taken place in this field since the first textbook of this type (Seretny & Lipińska 2005) was published at the beginning of the 21st century.

The division of the reviewed monograph into two parts – preceded by an introduction – reflects the distinction highlighted in the title. Part One, entitled *Didactics of the Polish language in the world – its traditions, development so far and perspectives*, comprises seven of the thirteen chapters of the book and commences with a short chapter addressing terminological issues, among others, the reasons for the relatively late emergence of the term *Polish glottodidactics*, the interrelations between the didactics and teaching methodology of Polish as a foreign and second language, as well as their place within the discipline. Since many topics appertaining to the didactics of foreign languages in general are discussed extensively in the second volume of the abovementioned glottodidactic series (Gębal 2019), Gębal and Miodunka focus in their publication on selected issues, particularly relevant to the didactics of the Polish language.

Accordingly, Chapters Two and Three present the history of teaching Polish as a foreign language until 1939 and its evolution in the contemporary period (i.e. since 1952). It is stressed that teaching PAFL can be traced back to the 16th century and predates the introduction of classes of Polish as a mother tongue in the school system by around 200 years. Describing these origins, Gębal and Miodunka pay attention to the pivotal role of foreigners as the authors of the first Polish language grammars and textbooks for foreign learners of Polish. The publication emphasises the importance of the last 60 years because they have brought the

beginning and growth of theoretical reflection and research into Polish language teaching and learning, which has ultimately led to the development of Polish glottodidactics. As the authors demonstrate – referring to coursebooks, teaching methodology publications and important glottodidactic phenomena – from the 1980s onwards (albeit more visibly in the later decades), efforts were also made to transfer modern methods used in the didactics of world languages to the PAFL classroom, culminating in the systematic implementation of European standards in the domain after 2004.

The next two chapters provide valuable insights into the situation of teaching the Polish language around the world (Chapter Four) and Poland's language policy since the last decade of the 20th century (Chapter Five). Having gathered data from multiple sources, Gębal and Miodunka describe two groups: learners and teachers of Polish in various types of schools and at universities abroad (with an interesting example of Polish Studies in South Korea), present their motivations as well as focus on selected problems of teacher training. The issue of popularising the Polish language in the world is analysed more extensively in relation to language policy, whose significance, according to the authors, became clear prior to Poland's accession to the European Union. Various linguistic publications referenced in the volume contain what Gębal and Miodunka view as a comprehensive programme to promote the Polish language, addressed to a wide public, including foreigners of non-Polish origin. As the authors subsequently admit, in the absence of a coordinating institution at the national level, it is universities, teachers of PAFL, foreign specialists in Polish studies (the contributions of the latter are acknowledged in a separate sub-chapter) that have proved instrumental in this area. Readers also learn about the state certificate examinations in PAFL, held since 2004, which are discussed here at length and recognised as both “a breakthrough innovation” (Gębal & Miodunka 2020: 78) in teaching Polish to foreigners and a tool for promoting the language and raising its prestige.

The overarching notion – supported by modern research – present in the next two chapters is that language education should not be limited to helping students acquire language proficiency in a narrow sense, but ought to contribute to their overall personal growth, thus enabling them to be actively involved in learning and societal participation. Gębal and Miodunka regard this approach as crucial to teaching Polish as a second language, which began developing in response to recent migration processes and is explored in Chapter Six, together with the related topic of Polish as a language of schooling. An analysis of the solutions adopted in the Polish education system and abroad provides a context for the subsequent discussion of useful publications and conceptions that could enhance teaching children with an immigrant background. In Chapter Seven, apart from highlighting the interdisciplinary dimension of Polish glottodidactics, the authors offer a synthetic overview of a wide array of influential concepts and directions in the teaching of foreign languages today (e.g. constructivism, intercultural education, the didactics of multilingualism, action-oriented approach).

Part Two of the book – *Methodology of teaching and learning Polish as a foreign and second language* – comprises six chapters (from Chapter Eight to Thirteen). Central to this part are its first two, and longest chapters. Chapter Eight focuses on methods of developing students' linguistic competences; the opening section, devoted to the description of the competences,

is followed by sub-chapters which deal successively with the questions of teaching Polish pronunciation, orthography, grammar and vocabulary. The authors provide brief information about the language subsystems, their place in foreign language teaching and about relevant PAFL research. They also draw readers' attention to difficult aspects of the Polish language and present appropriate teaching techniques as well as useful textbooks. Linguistic competences, among others, allow learners to perform language activities, whose presence in the language classroom is the topic of Chapter Nine. Gebal and Miodunka adopt the contemporary, action-oriented perspective promoted by the CEFR (2001) and CEFR CV (2018). They depart from the vision of the four language skills and describe language performance in terms of eight types of language activities, i.e. oral and written: reception, production, interaction and mediation. After a general overview of the issue, they characterise the activities in this order (production and interaction are presented together), discussing their psycholinguistic and glottodidactic aspects as well as recommended teaching procedures. Importantly, in contrast to most textbooks on the methodology of foreign language teaching, the volume takes into account mediation activities, which have only recently been defined more thoroughly in the CEFR CV (2018).

Chapters Ten and Eleven cover further significant subjects, namely teaching Polish culture and the use of information and communication technologies in language education. Although the cultural component has always been an intrinsic part of language teaching, the approaches to teaching culture have changed over time, as the authors explain, analysing general tendencies and specific publications by specialists in teaching PAFL. Additionally, Gebal and Miodunka, who concentrate on the current trend, i.e. intercultural education, explain how to develop learners' intercultural competence. In comparison with culture, the presence of modern technologies is a much newer phenomenon in language teaching, but it has already evolved from Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) to Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). Apart from discussing this evolution and the place of modern technologies in teaching PAFL to date, in Chapter Eleven the authors quote a list of criteria designed with the aim of facilitating the evaluation of online language courses.

The last two chapters – while relatively short – centre around two problems of practical importance. Chapter Twelve is devoted to the principles of designing a language course and planning a lesson, with particular attention paid to the structure of a teaching unit in communicative language teaching and in the action-oriented approach. What readers may also find useful is that they are provided with tools for evaluating their own lessons. Chapter Thirteen, on the other hand, addresses the topic of assessing students' language ability. The authors briefly discuss not only several important aspects of traditional language testing (such as the classification of language tests or the criteria for their evaluation), but also strategies which determine the effectiveness of continuous formative assessment. Moreover, they include information about available test preparation books.

In the Conclusion, which contains an overview of the contents against a background of other glottodidactic publications, the authors outline suggestions for the future, stressing the importance of interdisciplinary research for further development of Polish glottodidactics. The book concludes with the bibliography, appendices and summaries in three languages.

The volume under review is an impressive work which promotes contemporary standards in language teaching and constitutes a modern resource for students training in the area of teaching Polish as a foreign and second language, designed to equip them with the knowledge and skills required in their future profession. Interestingly, in accordance with current pedagogical models, the authors engage readers in tasks based on the covered topics, encouraging them, for example, to discuss the ideas presented, analyse the materials in the appendices or search for further information.

However, as well as being an innovative and comprehensive textbook, the volume can be perceived as a panorama of teaching Polish to foreigners in the past and today, as Gębal and Miodunka highlight the role of the people who have shaped this history – both teachers and learners. Equally important, the publication unveils new perspectives for the development of Polish glottodidactics in the coming decades. Therefore, it will prove both interesting and informative not only for students, but also for practising teachers, lecturers, researchers and other professionals who intend to explore the subject of teaching Polish as a foreign and second language.

REFERENCES

- CEFR: *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (2001). Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- CEFR CV: *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors* (2018). Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Gębal, P. (2019). *Dydaktyka języków obcych. Wprowadzenie*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Gębal, P. / Miodunka, W. (2020). *Dydaktyka i metodyka nauczania języka polskiego jako obcego i drugiego*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Miodunka, W. (2016). *Glottodydaktyka polonistyczna. Pochodzenie – stan obecny – perspektywy*. Kraków: Księgarnia Akademicka.
- Seretny, A. / Lipińska, E. (2005). *ABC metodyki nauczania języka polskiego jako obcego*. Kraków: Universitas.

Received: 30.12.2020; **revised:** 09.03.2021

MAŁGORZATA BANACH
Uniwersytet Jagielloński
malgorzata.banach@uj.edu.pl
ORCID: 0000-0003-1207-7673
DOI: 10.14746/g1.2021.48.1.07

Grażyna Zenderowska-Korpus. *Phraseme in Textsorten*. Landau: Verlag Empirische Pädagogik. 2020. S. 233

Das Interesse der Sprachforschung an phraseologischen Wortverbindungen ist groß, sichtbar in korpusbasierten Untersuchungen zum Vorkommen und zu Funktion der Phraseme in Texten bzw. Textsorten. Die Aufgabe der Phraseodidaktik ist es, den Lernern vorzuschlagen, wie und wann Phraseme gebraucht werden können.

Das vorliegende Buch besteht aus Einführung (7–18), I. Phraseme im Sprachgebrauch (19–154), II. Phraseme in der Fremdsprachendidaktik (155–212), Verzeichnis der Belegtexte (213–218), Literaturverzeichnis (219–233).

Aus der Einführung erfahren wir, dass Phraseme phraseologische Wortverbindungen, Routineformeln und konventionelle Syntagmen sind, gekennzeichnet durch Polylexikalität, Festigkeit und Idiomatizität (unterschiedlich stark ausgeprägt). Phraseologische Wortverbindungen sind satzgliedwertige Phraseme, u.a. Idiome, Modellbildungen, Zwillingsformeln, Vergleiche, Kollokationen; sie sind den syntaktischen Regularitäten eines Satzes angepasst, etwa feste Phrasen, Sprichwörter, Sprüche und Routineformeln. Durch ihren hohen Gehalt an Expressivität, Emotionalität bringen Phraseme ein Mehr an Bedeutung ein. Phraseme sorgen für die Aufmerksamkeit der Leser; dank ihrer Bildhaftigkeit und Modifizierbarkeit sorgen sie für eine expressive Bereicherung des Inhalts. Sie erlauben, Kritik versteckt zu formulieren, Wertung direkt oder indirekt, positiv, negativ oder ambivalent und ironisierend zu transportieren. Phraseme kommen in der Alltagskommunikation regelmäßig als sprachliche (soziale und diskursive) kulturbedingte Routine vor. Sie entlasten, ermutigen den Sprecher / Schreiber; sie steuern die Textorganisation. „Das Spiel mit verschiedenen Lesarten, durch den Wechsel zwischen Demotivation und Literalisierung entstehen häufig Verblüffungseffekte, die einen Text attraktiver und unterhaltsamer machen.“ (Lüger 2013: 21).

Im ersten Teil des Buches (Phraseme im Sprachgebrauch) werden qualitative, quantitative und pragmatische Aspekte des Phrasemgebrauchs der ausgewählten Textsorten untersucht: meinungsbetonter Presstexte wie authentische Meinungsinterviews, Streitgespräche, Politikerporträts, Kommentare, Parlamentsreden; auch Leserbriefe, Horoskope, Werbetexte und Märchen. Es sind jeweils Texte, die sich besonders gut in der Phraseodidaktik einsetzen lassen.

Phraseme sind in allen Presstexten vorhanden, als festgeprägte Gesprächsformeln, um Argumente, Erläuterungen, Hintergründe zu liefern (in Meinungsinterviews). Als argumentative Texte wie Metaphern, Anspielungen, stellen sie durch ihre Doppeldeutigkeit eine Herausforderung dar. Sie regen an, provozieren, amüsieren den Leser. Sie zeugen von einem ständigen Wandel der Sprache sowie von der Kreativität des Textproduzenten. Phraseme erscheinen in Überschriften, im Haupttext, und v. a. am Ende des Textes. Phraseme werden häufig in Politikerporträts verwendet, sowohl als Idiome im engeren Sinne als auch grammatisch-lexikalische Kollokationen, Modellbildungen, Sprichwörter und formelhafte Texte. Diese Texte sollen informieren, aber auch unterhalten. Es werden auch nonverbale Mittel, Visualisierungen (Fotos, Karikaturen, Memes) eingesetzt, um so Eigenschaften, Emotionen, Stimmungen und Aktivitäten der porträtierten Person zu zeigen. Leserbriefe dienen dem Kontaktbedürfnis (als auffordernde Texte, Appelltexte, Informationstexte). Auch in Leserbriefen gibt es viele Phraseme, sowohl als satzgliedwertige Wortverbindungen wie Wortpa-

are (Schablonen, Wortbildungen), feste Phrasen, idiomatische Wendungen, Modifikationen, Kollokationen, Funktionswortgefüge als auch prädikative Konstruktionen, geflügelte Worte, Sprichwörter, pragmatische Phraseme als kommunikative Routineformeln, um eigene Meinung, eigene Emotionen zu offenbaren. In Horoskopen sollen Phraseme ermuntern, beruhigen, warnen, belehren, kommentieren. In Werbetexten werden mit Hilfe von Phrasemen die Grundprinzipien der Werbung: Auffälligkeit, Originalität und Informativität realisiert, um Aufmerksamkeit zu wecken und Werbeprodukte kurz und ausdrucksvoll zu präsentieren. Phraseme in den Märchen der Brüder Grimm treten hauptsächlich als Wortpaare auf, als kommunikative Formeln, phraseologische Vergleiche, zweigliedrige Formeln, prädikative Konstruktionen, verbale Phraseolexeme, die verschiedene Idiomatizitätsgrade aufweisen. Durch ihre Expressivität und durch den bildlichen Charakter wirken sie anschaulich und anregend, sie bauen positive / negative Einstellungen der Empfänger auf und lösen bestimmte Reaktionen aus. Sprichwörter, die auffällig sind, vermitteln eine Lehre oder Warnung. Manche Gesprächsformeln helfen, Emotionen auszudrücken.

Im zweiten Teil des Buches (Phraseme in der Fremdsprachendidaktik) erörtert die Autorin die Frage nach dem Einsatz von Phrasemen im FSU und behauptet, die Auswahl der im FSU eingeführten Phraseme sei dem Lehrer selbst zu überlassen, je nach den jeweiligen Vermittlungszielen zu entscheiden, je nach den allgemeinen Etappen für die Entwicklung phraseologischer Kompetenzen. Natürlich kann sich jeder Lerner Phraseme auch selbst im autonomen (Weiter)Lernen aneignen.

In der Fremdsprachendidaktik werden Höflichkeitsformeln und Gesprächsformeln in Kontaktsituationen häufig verwendet, die von sprachlicher Routine zeugen; sie sind immer mit den kulturspezifischen Verhaltensnormen und Höflichkeitsstandards zu vermitteln. Routineformeln sichern die Kontaktmöglichkeiten in der fremdsprachlichen Gesellschaft, machen den Sprachgebrauch authentisch und spontan, haben eine kommunikative und strukturierte Funktion: Sie eröffnen und beenden den Kommunikationsakt, stabilisieren die angeknüpften Kontakte, regeln die sozialen Beziehungen. Ihre Kenntnis zeugt von exzellentem Sprachgebrauch und schafft situative Echtheit. Und umgekehrt: Mangel an festgeprägten Wortverbindungen beim freien Sprechen zeugt von einer (kommunikativen situationsadäquaten) Lücke der Lerner. Deswegen postuliert die Autorin: Im DaF soll der richtige Gebrauch dieser Routineformeln vermittelt werden, je nachdem, was für den aktiven (kulturspezifischen und interferenzgefährdeten) Sprachgebrauch wichtig ist.

Sprache ist ein kulturelles Instrument der Kommunikation, Träger kultureller Identität, vermittelt Höflichkeitskonventionen, ebenso wie Grußformeln, Dankesformeln, Erkundigungen nach dem Befinden, usw. Unkorrektes Verhalten wird (auch von Kleinkindern) sofort erkannt und nach eigenen Denkmustern interpretiert. Ein bedeutender Teil des Sprachgebrauchs verläuft routiniert ab. Kulturbedingte sprachliche Routinen koordinieren das menschliche Verhalten – daher sind sie bedeutend für den FSU.

Muttersprachler erwerben die Routine instinktiv, parallel zum Spracherwerb. Der Fremdsprachenlerner muss sie erlernen und ergänzen, sonst verhält er sich unidiomatisch, abweichend und unbeholfen (auch wenn grammatisch korrekt). Deswegen braucht der Lerner die sprachliche Routine, denn sie gibt ihm Sicherheit im Verhalten, baut seine Angst vor der mündlichen Kommunikation ab – seine Gruppenzugehörigkeit wird anerkannt als

Mitglied der sprachlich-kulturellen Verkehrsgemeinschaft, um in verschiedenen Kontaktsituationen zu verstehen und verstanden zu werden. Der korrekte Gebrauch von sprach- und kulturspezifischen Wortverbindungen, die sich nicht direkt übersetzen lassen, fördert den Einstieg des Lernalers in die Gesellschaft. Ohne Routine ist erfolgreiche Kommunikation kaum vorstellbar.

Die Autorin analysiert die Routineformeln, die in Lehrwerken DaF vermittelt werden: qualitativ, quantitativ und kontrastiv. Ein gutes Beispiel hierfür ist die Telefonkommunikation (Höflichkeit Polnisch und Deutsch). Kontakteröffnung, -beendigung, Auskunft- und Einkaufsdialoge, Signalisierung der Gesprächsbereitschaft oder Meinungskundgabe u.ä. laufen nach eingeschliffenen Mustern ab; sie sind von einer Gebrauchskonvention abhängig.

Daher plädiert die Autorin dafür, kontrastive Analysen routinierter Ausdrucksweisen vorzunehmen und Gebrauchsbedingungen zu erarbeiten.

In Lehrwerken findet Zenderowska-Korpus das gut gestaltete Dialoge, Lesetexte und literarische Texte. Anhand von Fehleranalysen weist die Autorin auf Schwierigkeiten und Defizite, die für polnische Deutschlerner zu erwarten sind – jenseits von Lexik und Grammatik. Deswegen postuliert sie mehr Untersuchungen zur Rolle der Gesprächsformeln in Lehrwerken für Fortgeschrittene. Man sollte korpusbasierte Untersuchungen mit der Praxis des FSUs verbinden, denn in Lehrwerken fehlen konkrete Vorschläge und didaktische Tipps zur Sensibilisierung der Lerner für das Kulturspezifische. Das führt dazu, dass Lerner trotz guter Grammatik- und themenbezogener Wortschatzkenntnisse Probleme mit situativ adäquatem sprachlichen Verhalten oder freiem Sprechen haben. Formelhafte Sätze können auf keinen Fall individuell-kreativ entstehen, weil sie routinisiert, konventionell und idiomatisch und daher vorgefertigte sprach- und kulturspezifische Äußerungen sind, weswegen sie erlernt werden müssen. Nur wer die idiomatischen Ausdrücke und die damit verbundenen Wertungen in einer Kultur kennt, kann erfolgreich kommunizieren. Diese Tatsache wird in Lehrwerken und im FSU zu wenig beachtet, meint die Autorin.

Ebenso wichtig wie Routineformeln sind Kollokationen (sprachspezifische Wortverbindungen, aufgrund grammatischer und lexikalischer Präferenzen gebildet), Funktionsverbgefüge, idiomatische Wendungen, phraseologische Vergleiche, Phraseme mit Körperteil-, Farb-, Tierbezeichnungen sowie Sprichwörter und Gemeinplätze: Sie spiegeln Kultur und Tradition in wortspielerischen Abwandlungen, Parodien und Modifizierungen wider. Auch sie sind im FSU je nach Zielgruppe einzusetzen, wobei Routineformeln in der Unterrichtspraxis mehr beachtet werden als Redewendungen und Sprichwörter. Die Autorin behauptet: Alle Textsorten eignen sich, je nach Lerngruppe, ihren Möglichkeiten und Bedürfnissen im FSU eingesetzt zu werden. Allerdings sind Phraseme ein starkes stilistisches Mittel; deswegen lassen sie sich nur im Kontext erlernen!

Die Autorin macht einige Vorschläge für den Einsatz von Phrasemen im FSU: meinungs- betonte Texte (Streitgespräche, Kommentare, Interviews, usw.) eignen sich vor allem für Fortgeschrittene, Leserbriefe eher für Erwachsene, Werbetexte für Fortgeschrittene, Horoskope eher für Erwachsene. Die Textsorte Märchen stellt eine Herausforderung für den Unterricht als Muttersprache und Fremdsprache (DaF) auf allen Lernstufen dar. Märchen erleichtern den Kindern den Zugang zu komplexen sprachlichen Einheiten, sie fördern die ersten Schritte des Phraseologierwerbs.

Zusammenfassend weist die Autorin auf die Notwendigkeit hin, idiomatische Kompetenz als ein realistisches Lernziel im FSU einzusetzen. Es gibt viele Unterschiede von Kultur zu Kultur, also auch von Sprache zu Sprache, und jeder erwirbt Sprache vor dem Hintergrund eigener Kultur, sieht also die Perspektive des Gesprächspartners aus eigener Sicht, durch das Prisma eigener Denkmuster und eigener Erfahrungen. Deswegen entstehen so viele interkulturelle Missverständnisse und Fehler. Die Nutzung der Idiomatik wirkt anregend und stellt eine kreative Herausforderung dar, obwohl sie für Lerner nicht leicht ist, da durch morphosyntaktische, semantische und pragmatische Besonderheiten begründet. Daher postuliert die Autorin erneut entsprechende kontrastive Studien, um den folgenden Fragen nachzukommen: Wie kann die idiomatische Kompetenz durch verschiedene Textsorten entwickelt werden? Ab wann? Für welche Lernstufe? Welche Aufgaben und Übungen? Welche Ziele sind erreichbar? All das den allgemeinen und fremdsprachenunterrichtlichen Möglichkeiten, Bedürfnissen und Interessen der Lerner angepasst.

Phraseologismen oder Phraseme sind Mehrwortbildungen, die Polylexikalität und Festigkeit aufweisen und allgegenwärtig in der Kommunikation sind. Phraseme eröffnen neue Lesearten, lösen überraschende Effekte aus, weil sie ungewöhnliche Kombinationen, stilistische Varianten und originelle Spiele mit verschiedenen Lesearten darstellen. Sie erleichtern die Kommunikation, charakterisieren Personen, definieren soziale Beziehungen, betonen Emotionen. Sie bereichern die Sprache, machen sie authentisch, sie eröffnen viele Leerstellen; das kreative Spiel mit diesen Leerstellen ist die Aufgabe des FSUs. Nur die sprachlich-kulturelle und grammatisch-lexikalische Vielfalt eines Lernalters zeugt von guten Sprachkenntnissen, die angemessene Kommunikation ermöglichen.

Das theoretisch begründete Buch mit Beispielen eignet sich bestens für Lehrer, die im FSU die idiomatische Kompetenz an Lerner vermitteln möchten sowie an fortgeschrittene Lerner und Germanistikstudenten. Die von der Autorin präsentierten Textsorten wurden nach der möglichen Anwendbarkeit im FSU gewählt (mehrfach selbst ausprobiert).

LITERATURVERZEICHNIS

- Lüger, H.H., 2013. Idiomatik in der Sprache. In: A. Majkiewicz / G. Zenderowska-Korpus / M. Duś (Hrsg.), *Deutsche Sprache in Forschung und Lehre: Wort – Phrasem – (Fach)Text*. Częstochowa: Wyższa Szkoła Lingwistyczna w Częstochowie, 13–41.

Received: 03.03.2021; **revised:** 23.03.2021

BARBARA SKOWRONEK

Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu

barbaras@amu.edu.pl

ORCID: 0000-0003-4302-7206

DOI: 10.14746/gl.2021.48.1.08

Elżbieta Gajewska, Magdalena Sowa, Joanna Kic-Drgas. *Filologia wobec wyzwań komunikacji specjalistycznej. Od współpracy z biznesem po kształcenie nauczycieli*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM. 2020. Pp. 238

The book *Language studies and the challenges of specialized communication* is co-authored by prof. Elżbieta Gajewska of the Pedagogical University of Krakow, prof. Magdalena Sowa of Maria Skłodowska-Curie University in Lublin and doctor Joanna Kic-Drgas of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. The book focuses on three key elements of the language learning and teaching context, namely WHO, WHAT and HOW. This is reflected in the structure of the book, where the first chapter investigates the concept of language studies and the profile of the graduates as well as their place in the wider business context (WHO). In the second chapter the authors explore a very broad and complex issue of LSP and its relationship with general language, and present a short overview of the most important theoretical approaches, which is followed by a review of how LSP is taught at Polish universities (WHAT and HOW). Finally, the third chapter covers the education of LSP teachers, both theory and practice (WHO and HOW). But there is another triad that spans the whole book: the analysis of each of the three topics named above follows a similar pattern – the authors first look at theoretical underpinnings (both in terms of academic theories and statutory documents), then analyse the current situation (mainly through a meticulous review of a number of curricula and syllabi) and finally offer options and examples which can contribute to improving the whole process.

The first chapter opens with an attempt at a definition of a graduate of language studies (or a language specialist). Starting from a simple dictionary definition and a detailed description of the profession available in relevant laws the authors show how vague and broad the meaning of the word is. What emerges from their analysis is that the competence profile of a graduate is very closely linked with a number of business areas, contrary to popular belief that language studies graduates usually take up teaching or translation jobs¹. This is followed by a description of types of university degrees in languages and a short review of how language studies have been evolving over the years, with an accompanying shift of focus: from an emphasis on culture, literature and linguistics to a more practical approach. The chapter also includes a comparison of traditional language studies and their younger “siblings” – applied linguistics degrees. The second part of the chapter focuses on collaboration between universities and business as part of the third mission of universities worldwide. The authors explore three main areas where businesses and universities can work together to ensure that graduates will be better prepared for work challenges: changes to curricula, development of new forms of education and novel interdisciplinary research. The authors highlight the benefits of the cooperation for both sides, but at the same time point out that the literature on the needs of both businesses and universities in this area is rather limited. The last part of the chapter is the most practical, providing an extensive description of successful projects implemented jointly by businesses and universities. The list is quite impressive, considering the difficulties with collecting relevant data described by the authors. Apart from the actual

¹ The data provided by the authors (p. 27) supports this: almost $\frac{3}{4}$ graduates of the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures at Adam Mickiewicz University find a job in business undertakings.

examples the authors also provide a short classification of such projects. To conclude, the whole chapter provides an insightful overview of the competences expected of graduates of language studies, type of university degrees where such skills can be acquired and finally how businesses and universities can work together to offer the optimum environment for honing the required skills.

Given that the majority of graduates of language studies are likely to work in contexts other than schools or translation business and for that they will need to know at least some LSPs the second chapter focuses on the place of LSP courses in curricula of languages studies (the WHAT part of the triad). Similarly as in the first chapter, the authors follow the "theory-to-practice" model: they start with a review of theories of LSP, which is followed by an analysis of how LSP is taught at a number of universities. Their discussion of the relationship between general language and LSP and their interdependence or independence is both concise and comprehensive. This is followed by a review of LSP-related linguistic and language teaching theories. This is the part of the book where the practical dimension is very clearly visible: whenever the authors discuss any theoretical approach to LSP, they also offer some insights as to how it is or could be used in practice. Interestingly, since the three authors work in different languages (French, German and English) they were able to bring out and highlight differences between LSP research in Germany, France and English-speaking countries. In their analysis they explore the roots of terminological discrepancies and how this affects academic communication. They conclude that Polish researchers working in the French, German or English contexts are highly likely to mean quite different things when using terms such as "discourse" or "genre". The analysis of the theories has another practical dimension, as it allowed the authors to identify the key concepts (terminology, text, context, discourse, etc.) to be used in the analysis of LSP teaching at universities. The concepts were later used in the analysis of LSP syllabi from a number of universities. What emerged from their review is that LSP university teachers may be quite often unaware of the challenges involved in adopting a certain approach, or placing some of the concepts at the centre of an LSP course. This part of the chapter ends with a presentation of practical implications of selecting certain concepts as a basis for LSP courses. In the second part of Chapter Two the authors investigate the variety of forms that LSP courses at Polish universities take, which is reflected in how the courses are named (on p. 76 they list 13 different names for LSP courses). This is followed by sections which look at the most popular LSPs (business, legal, tourism) and the contents of such courses. In the conclusions the authors also offer some practical advice on how to plan and carry out LSP courses at universities.

In the third chapter the authors focus on LSP teacher training. They start with a description of competences, roles and tasks of an LSP teacher. Special attention is paid to the whole process of planning an LSP course: the skills needed and the challenges involved in analysing the demand, needs, collecting source data and preparing activities. This is followed by an analysis of legal documents on the training of LSP teachers, which brings a surprising conclusion that the requirements for the training not only LSP teachers, but also non-LSP teachers are the same as for teachers of other subjects, even though the nature of work of a language teacher is quite distinct from that of a geography or maths teacher. In the last part of the chapter the authors explore a number of training options for LSP teachers at Polish universities to find out

that only 7 universities (12 degrees in total) offer courses on LSP teaching. A detailed analysis of the courses offered reveals that the knowledge, skills and competences necessary for LSP teachers are quite often taught as part of a general language teaching course, with separate courses being relatively small in number. And even if separate courses are provided, their contents may differ extensively among universities. At the end of the chapter the authors provide some explanations for the surprising lack of courses for future LSP teachers, concluding that despite enormous changes that have happened in the area of language learning and teaching over the last two decades, language teacher training seems to have undergone only minor changes. The authors offer some solutions, such as developing separate requirements for language teachers (including LSP teachers) as well as including courses on LSP teaching in curricula of language degrees, which would focus on developing a set of competences that will help future LSP teachers to plan and prepare a variety of courses.

The main value of the book lies in its extensively practical dimension. Whether the authors review documents or theoretical approaches, the analysis is always concluded with implications for the practice of language learning and teaching. The analysis of all the referenced documents is thorough. The practical dimension is also evident in the number of real-life examples of good practices that the authors identified in their analysis. In addition, a number of tables and diagrams facilitate the reading. All of the above make the book a useful source not only for academics involved in curriculum development, as the authors state at the end of the book, but also for LSP teachers or students. As the book offers a theoretical background, an extensive review of a number of documents as well as practical examples and advice, anyone interested in LSP learning and teaching, either for research or for practical applications, will find here not only ample information, but also an inspiration.

Received: 28.02.2021; **revised:** 09.03.2021

MARTA ZAWACKA-NAJGEBURSKA

mzawacka@amu.edu.pl

Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu

ORCID: 0000-0002-7646-1677

DOI: 10.14746/gl.2021.48.1.09

III. REPORTS

Bericht über die Jubiläumsfeier zum 70. Geburtstag von Prof. Dr. habil. Izabela Prokop

Am 26. Januar 2021 fand eine Feier anlässlich des 70. Geburtstags von Prof. Dr. habil. Izabela Prokop statt, der langjährigen Leiterin des Instituts für Angewandte Linguistik der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań. Aufgrund der pandemiebedingten Hygienevorschriften konnte sie nicht in den Mauern der Universität stattfinden, sondern musste auf der Plattform Microsoft Teams organisiert werden.

Zu Beginn der Zeremonie sprachen Prof. Dr. habil. Katarzyna Dziubalska-Kolaczyk, Prorektorin der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität, und Prof. Dr. habil. Krzysztof Stroński, Dekan der Neuphilologischen Fakultät. Anschließend wurden Glückwunschschriften des Instituts für Russische und Ukrainische Philologie und des Instituts für Romanische Philologie verlesen.

Nachfolgend stellte Dr. Paweł Kubiak, ehemaliger Doktorand von Prof. Prokop, das wissenschaftliche Profil der Jubilarin vor. Die Gäste konnten von wichtigen Etappen ihrer akademischen Karriere hören, darunter auch von Projekten, die in Zusammenarbeit mit ausländischen Wissenschaftlern durchgeführt wurden. Als Beispiel für wissenschaftliche Kooperationen wurde die 1988 angelaufene und 2000 mit dem Preis des Ministers für Hochschulwesen honorierte Zusammenarbeit mit vielen namhaften Forschern an einer deutsch-polnischen kontrastiven Grammatik unter der Leitung von Prof. Dr. Ulrich Engel angeführt. Betont wurde auch, dass Prof. Prokop gar nicht an einen Abschied von der Forschungs- und Publikationstätigkeit denkt. Zurzeit arbeitet sie mit Prof. Dr. habil. Olga Kostrova von der Universität Samara an einem Lehrbuch der deutschen Grammatik für polnische und russische Studenten. In den vergangenen zwei Jahren wurden zu diesem Thema bereits zwei Beiträge veröffentlicht. Erwähnung fanden darüber hinaus auch literarische Interessen der Jubilarin, die sich in ihrem wissenschaftlichen Schaffen niederschlugen.

Im Anschluss an diese Präsentation ergriff Prof. Dr. habil. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztowicz das Wort im Namen der Redaktion der Zeitschrift *Glottodidactica*, deren Chefredakteurin Prof. Prokop 10 Jahre lang gewesen war. Für die Jubilarin wurde unter anderem der Jubiläumsband unter dem Titel „Angewandte Linguistik – Neue Herausforderungen und Konzepte“ vorbereitet, zu dem eine Gruppe von Mitarbeitern des Instituts für Angewandte Linguistik wie auch Wissenschaftler von außerhalb der Universität beitrugen. In dem Titel spiegelt sich übrigens die Tatsache wider, dass Prof. Prokop immer wieder zu Innovationen in der Forschung mobilisierte. Im Namen des Herausgeberteams dieses im angesehenen Verlag Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht erschienenen Bandes ergriff Prof. Dr. habil. Anna Szczepaniak-Kozak das Wort und stellte ihn kurz vor.

Nach dieser Präsentation führte Dr. Barbara Jańczak Fotos von der Übergabe der Geschenk für die Jubilarin in den Diensträumen des Instituts für Angewandte Linguistik vor, die am 21. Januar 2021 stattgefunden hatte. Während dieses Treffens, das die Jubiläumsfeierlichkeiten einleitete, überreichte die Institutsleitung der geehrten Wissenschaftlerin auch die Jubiläumsausgabe der Zeitschrift *Glottodidactica*, die anlässlich ihres Geburtstags erstellt worden war.

In weiterer Folge wurden Wünsche in der Posener Mundart von der Abteilung für Linguistische Übersetzungsstudien vorgetragen, die die Jubilarin viele Jahre lang geleitet hatte. Gleich danach wurden von Dr. habil. Magdalena Jurewicz, einer der ersten Doktorandinnen von Prof. Prokop, kurze persönliche Erinnerungen präsentiert, die mit der Zusammenarbeit mit der Jubilarin verbunden waren.

Eine sich daran anschließende kurze musikalische Unterhaltung, vorbereitet von den Mitarbeitern des Instituts Prof. Dr. habil. Maciej Karpiński, Graham Crawford, Dr. habil. Ewa Jarmolowicz-Nowikow, Dr. Paula Trzaskawka, Mag. Kwiryna Kuźmar und Prof. Dr. habil. Stephan Wolting als Geschenk für die Jubilarin, erwies sich als große Attraktion des Treffens.

Zu den Wünschen gesellten sich unter anderem auch Prof. Dr. habil. Beata Mikołajczyk, ehemalige Prorektorin der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität, im Namen des Instituts für Deutsche Philologie der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität, Prof. Dr. habil. Aldona Sopata, ehemalige Dekanin der Neuphilologischen Fakultät, Prof. Dr. habil. Katarzyna Klessa, Prodekanin der Neuphilologischen Fakultät, Prof. Dr. habil. Władysław Zabrocki, Leiter des Lehrstuhls für Linguistische Methodik, Prof. Dr. habil. Krystyna Mihułka von der Universität Rzeszów, Prof. Dr. habil. Małgorzata Bielińska vom Institut der Angewandten Linguistik, Prof. Dr. habil. Weronika Wilczyńska vom Institut für Romanische Philologie, Prof. Dr. habil. Janusz Taborek vom Institut für Germanische Philologie und ein Gast aus dem Ausland, Dr. Angela Schmidt-Bernhardt aus Marburg, die ein Semester lang Gastdozentin am Institut für Angewandte Linguistik war.

Received: 15.02.2021; **revised:** 23.03.2021

MAGDALENA JUREWICZ

magdalen@amu.edu.pl

Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu

ORCID: 0000-0003-0762-6017

PAWEŁ KUBIAK

pawel.kubiak@amu.edu.pl

Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu

ORCID: 0000-0002-9326-6515

DOI: 10.14746/gl.2021.48.1.10

Conference report: Academic conference “Perspektywy kształcenia nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych w Polsce” (Perspectives on educating LSP teachers in Poland), Institute of Applied Linguistics of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, 20th October 2020

Conducted in a pleasant and stimulating atmosphere, the academic conference “Perspektywy kształcenia nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych w Polsce” (Perspectives on educating LSP teachers in Poland), organized by the Institute of Applied Linguistics of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, was an event which allowed its participants to analyse and discuss a variety of aspects related to the process of educating LSP teachers in Poland. Held online on 20th October 2020, it attracted scholars from different Polish universities and provided them with the opportunity to exchange ideas and views on LSP education and to present their research findings, observations and practical solutions in this area.

After a very warm welcome from the conference organizers, Dr Joanna Kic-Drgas and Dr Joanna Woźniak, and the Head of the Institute, Prof. Dr Hab. Izabela Prokop, proceeded a session with presentations delivered by renowned specialists in LSP education: Magdalena Sowa, Elżbieta Gajewska, Jacek Makowski and Aleksandra Matulewska.

Prof. Magdalena Sowa from Marie Curie-Skłodowska University in Lublin diagnosed the needs of Polish LSP teachers from the perspective of organization of the educational process. On the basis of data obtained by means of questionnaires completed by LSP teachers in technical and vocational schools during the past five years as well as through an analysis of the Polish educational system, the presenter illustrated the problem and eventually recognized the needs of LSP instructors.

Prof. Elżbieta Gajewska, representing the Pedagogical University of Kraków, discussed the competences of language department graduates who participated in practical LSP classes (in Polish: PNJS) and in specialist translation courses. She reflected on strong and weak points of such courses and offered some implications with regard to how and to what extent they can help foreign language users to communicate in a specialist language and to perform professional tasks in a company. She emphasized the potential inspiration that LSP education can draw from specialist translation.

Prof. Jacek Makowski, affiliated with the University of Łódź, discussed foreign and specialist languages in professional communication. He presented findings from the research “Językowy barometr Łodzi 2020” (Linguistic barometer of Lodz 2020) and on this basis evaluated employees’ language competences and employers’ expectations in regard to candidates with LSP abilities, identified the languages that are highly valued on the market and pointed to FL and LSP skills that are most frequently required in a workplace and in cooperation with local universities.

Prof. Aleksandra Matulewska from Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań reported findings and presented conclusions from her and Tomasz Janiak’s research project on teaching the language of logistics and forwarding. She described three phases of the research, out of which the first one involved an analysis of teachers’ and students’ market needs, the second one concentrated on the preparation of coursebooks for teaching the language of logistics (English, German and Russian), and the third one entailed online forwarding language courses (English, German, Polish and Russian). In her presentation she focused not only on teachers’ and students’ problems with LSP education but also on practical ways of solving them.

The session was followed by a panel discussion concerning the perspectives on educating LSP teachers in Poland and by the presentation of the TRAILS project which the conference organizers (Dr Joanna Kic-Drigas and Dr Joanna Woźniak) were engaged in and which they featured as a response to the needs of LSP instructors. The five-stage project entitled “Szkola letnia dla nauczycieli języków specjalistycznych” (Summer school for LSP teachers) and co-financed by the EU (Erasmus+ Programme) was carried out by eight European institutions (including Adam Mickiewicz University) in the years 2018–2020 with the aim to foster high quality and innovation in LSP teaching. It resulted in a summer school training programme which was meant to help LSP instructors to develop their professional skills.

After a break, elective workshops were offered to the conference participants. Prepared by Małgorzata Niemiec-Knaś, Jakub Przybył and Katarzyna Bieniecka-Drzymała, the workshops concentrated on practical solutions to the problems identified in LSP education and provided useful guidelines in this field.

Professor Małgorzata Niemiec-Knaś, from Jan Długosz University in Częstochowa, discussed a task-based approach and introduced the idea of a dual education system based on the project “Język niemiecki w obrocie gospodarczym” (The German language in business trading). During the workshop she proposed a framework for building and performing language tasks in the professional context. In her session the participants had an opportunity to get answers to such crucial questions as: Shall we define or model the tasks? What features should language tasks illustrating professional situations show? What competences are evident in task-based learning? Completion of which tasks leads to the attainment of particular levels of competence? and Does the task constitute a whole or an element?

Dr Jakub Przybył, affiliated with Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, focused on the development of competences of LSP teachers. On the basis of selected teaching activities, he motivated the workshop’s participants to take into consideration such aspects as a selection of content for the class, strategies and techniques of learning and teaching specialist vocabulary, and the use of ICT in LSP education. The session involved different forms of work (e.g. individual, in pairs, in groups, ICT teaching), which supported the argument that a FL teacher is the best expert in LSP classes who understands the specificity of a foreign language and the need of integrating the subject content and the medium of instruction.

Katarzyna Bieniecka-Drzymała (M.A.), also from Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, brought into focus the concept of coaching as understood according to the standards of the International Coach Federation and demonstrated the potential of a coaching approach in the cooperation with a student. During the workshop the presenter not only shared her experience as a translator / LSP educator and a certified coach but also formulated a number of conclusions on the basis of her PhD research (the PhD project concentrates on the potential of coaching approach in language education at the academic level). The workshop allowed the participants to learn about the technique of active listening and the scenario of a coaching conversation in education.

In the end, it has to be underlined that the conference was an insightful and engaging event which provided its participants with practical ideas and helpful guidelines that might be used in their LSP courses.

Received: 16.01.2021; **revised:** 09.03.2021

MAREK KRAWIEC

marass24@wp.pl

Wielkopolska Wyższa Szkoła Społeczno-Ekonomiczna w Środzie Wielkopolskiej

ORCID: 0000-0001-6584-1976

DOI: 10.14746/gl.2021.48.1.11

Wydano na podstawie maszynopisu gwarantowanego

Projekt okładki i stron tytułowych: Ewa Wąsowska

Redaktor techniczny: Elżbieta Rygielska

Koordinacja prac wydawniczych: Olga Bronikowska

Przygotowanie do druku okładki i łamanie komputerowe: Reginaldo Cammarano

WYDAWNICTWO NAUKOWE UNIwersYTETU IM. ADAMA MICKIEWICZA W POZNANIU

61-701 POZNAŃ, UL. FREDRY 10

www.press.amu.edu.pl

Sekretariat: tel. 61 829 46 46, faks 61 829 46 47, e-mail: wydnauk@amu.edu.pl

Dział Promocji i Sprzedaży: tel. 61 829 46 40, e-mail: press@amu.edu.pl

Wydanie I. Ark. wyd. 9,00. Ark. druk. 8,875

DRUK I OPRAWA: VOLUMINA.PL DANIEL KRZANOWSKI, SZCZECIN, UL. KS. WITOLDA 7-9