Thomas Tinnefeld (Ed.)

with the collaboration of
Douglas Fleming

Bridging Language Boundaries

Explorations in Communication across Borders

Saarbrücken Series on
Linguistics and
Language Methodology

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Preface

In an increasingly interconnected world, where distances seem to diminish and cultures intertwine, the role of communication takes on a renewed significance. Language, as our essential form of expression and understanding, becomes both the bridge and the border across which ideas, knowledge, and experiences flow. It is within this complex system of linguistic interactions that the present book finds its place.

The chapters presented here delve into the intricate realm of communication that trespasses not only geographical boundaries but also linguistic demarcations. As language professionals, educators, and researchers, we face the challenge of finding orientation in this figurative or concrete landscape where languages merge, blend, and intersect. The chapters within this volume aim to provide inspiration and guide us through some of the questions that undoubtedly arise when linguistic borders are crossed.

From the exploration of intercomprehension as both a pathway and a destination to the impact of digital tools on language education in a borderless world, each chapter uncovers a facet of the overarching theme, for example, language methodologies, linguistic landscapes, language acquisition, and the evolving role of technology in language teaching.

We invite readers to join us in this exploration of how communication shapes and is shaped by the diverse linguistic environments we inhabit. We aim to shed light on the intricate threads that altogether constitute the realm of global interaction, inviting reflection and insight into the ever-evolving nature of language and its role in our interconnected world.

In the first chapter of this volume *(Christina Reissner & Max Penth – Saarbrücken, Germany)*, intercomprehension is described both as a path and a destination. With a particular focus on multiple language learning and pluralistic approaches, implemented in an Applied Romance Linguistics programme at Saarland University, students' awareness of (individual) plurilingualism and (societal) multilingualism is raised, thus perfecting practical competencies, including their plurilingual and intercultural proficiencies. Guided by the European Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures (FREPA), methodologies with particular attention to intercomprehension (IC) are adopted. To this end, the EuroCom approach is employed to leverage learners' linguistic resources, using English (i.e. a Germanic language) to decipher Romance languages. In this way, English is made use of to enhance Romance intercomprehension. The chapter presents a microstudy to explore the role of international vocabulary in understanding Romance languages. Additionally, Saarland University introduces a digital platform for plurilingual training, uniting theory and practice. This platform offers innovative content that enables learners to meld their linguistic repertoires with the declarative linguistic transfer bases of EuroCom, thereby highlighting the transformative potential of intercomprehension for reshaping language education.

Another aspect of cross-border communication is the transformative effect of translanguaging on teaching *(Iratxe Serna-Bermejo – Vitoria-Gasteiz, Spain)*. Translan-

guaging has the potential to emerge as a dynamic tool challenging the conventional demarcation of languages within educational settings. This concept, albeit compelling, has sparked both relevance and controversy. The study presented in this context centres on the examination of the teacher's role in shaping translanguaging dynamics in the foreign language classroom, with lessons taught by two university instructors being meticulously analyzed and juxtaposed. The study seeks to unravel how teachers' attitudes toward translanguaging resonate with the manifestation of translanguaging in practice. The findings underscore the crucial influence of teachers' dispositions concerning the extent of translanguaging observed in the classroom. As the discourse around translanguaging continues to evolve, this study illuminates the interplay between pedagogical beliefs and the utilization of multiple languages. It underscores the transformative potential of translanguaging as a pedagogical tool, highlighting its complex intertwinement with educators' perceptions and practices.

When translanguaging meets the foreign language classroom, *writing* undoubtedly becomes a challenge: while the notion of 'good writing' may still be definable in a monolingual classroom setting, it reaches its limits when it comes to multilingual classrooms, for example, when cultivating extended writing skills among university students is concerned (*Verbra Pfeiffer – Pretoria, South Africa)*. Students frequently meet the minimum requirements but find extended writing to be a challenging task. Consequently, the study presented here explores students' perceptions of quality writing, the importance of refining writing skills, and the occurrence of translanguaging when ideas are translated into writing across languages. Situated in South Africa's multilingual landscape, this study strives to provide students with an understanding of proficient writing and its significance. With a focus on student teachers at the University of Stellenbosch, Cape Town (South Africa), the study captures students' evolving opinions on good writing. Additionally, the exploration delves into their *voice* and *selfhood* in academic writing. Initial perspectives on good writing are juxtaposed with reflections made after a teaching practice period, elucidating potential shifts in viewpoints. Empowering future educators to grasp the import of adept writing, this research aims to inspire them to instil this skill in their learners. It contributes to the dialogue on enhancing writing pedagogy and empowering students to embrace writing as a valuable and expressive tool in their academic journey.

Like translanguaging, international communication represents a version of borderlessness and aims to reconcile different languages and cultures. In this context, an interesting question is whether international communication can be taught using local coursebooks *(Stefan Rathert – Kahramanmaraş, Turkey)*. This challenge is analysed for young learners whose language usage prospects remain uncertain and who will predominantly use English for communication with other non-native speakers. In response to this, the call for a pedagogy prioritising *English as a lingua franca* (ELF) has emerged, acknowledging its role in communication with speakers whose mother tongue is not English. The case study presented here and carried out in a Turkish context, evaluates the alignment of local coursebooks with the tenets of ELF-focused pedagogy. Through an analysis of four upper secondary school coursebooks, approved by the Turkish Ministry of Education, the adequacy of reading texts and tasks in cultivating skills for international communication is assessed. Despite addressing diverse linguacultural contexts, the coursebooks analysed exhibit inadequacies in preparing learners for global discourse. Drawing on the findings of this study,

recommendations are provided to enhance the quality of reading materials and tasks, enriching learners' capacity for meaningful international interactions. The findings may also help other teachers to analyse the textbooks they use and estimate their quality accordingly.

A special type of ‘real-world’ textbook is the so-called *linguistic landscape*. Linguistic landscapes are oftentimes genuine reflections of a multilingual and multicultural world. The linguistic landscapes in two Sri Lankan suburbs of Colombo, as analysed here *(Nadeera Wijegoonewardene – Colombo, Sri Lanka)*, represent an illustrative exemplification of this phenomenon. This is a linguistic environment where the visibility of diverse languages within a geographical context unfolds as a rich area of investigation. This field, having gained prominence in recent years, opens pathways to explore language presence, language contact, and the diverse multi-modalities manifested in specific spaces. This study explores the linguistic landscape in Sri Lanka's urban Colombo, a geographical context notable for its linguistic diversity. While prior studies predominantly spotlighted cities across countries, this study focuses on Nugegoda and Mount Lavinia, densely populated suburban areas within the same city, Colombo. Utilising Google Street View, the study examines the presence of Sinhala, Tamil, and English in the aforementioned suburbs. It delves into the nuances of monolingual versus multilingual signage, top-down versus bottom-up communication, idiosyncrasies, and the prominence of English. Through this lens, the complexities of multilingual and multi-ethnic societies come to light, offering a glimpse into the complex interplay of languages and cultures within urban spaces. This also means that walking through any city with our eyes wide open is highly worthwhile to see multilingualism and multiculturalism in action.

In the sphere of oral communication, pronunciation is an essential factor for assuring mutual understanding between people who use English as a *lingua franca*, and intonation, i.e. prosody, undoubtedly is no less critical. In the chapter about the acquisition of English suprasegmentals, a transformative experiment in pronunciation pedagogy through Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is described *(Mohamed Smirkou – Kenitra, Morocco)*. Traditionally, English pronunciation has relied on repetitive drills and instructor feedback to rectify errors. This study introduces Praat, a pedagogical tool, to teach suprasegmentals, particularly word stress, harnessing its potential for computer-aided instruction. Focusing on the challenge of stress assignment, the study explores how prosodic features are bolstered through visual feedback. By translating auditory information into visual cues, successful decoding is facilitated. While pronunciation instruction predominantly occurs in the oral/aural domain, Praat extends the analysis into the visual realm, enabling the measurement of acoustic attributes (duration, pitch, intensity). The study engages forty Moroccan learners, semester-one students at Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra. Participants were divided into experimental and control groups. The former received Praat-based instruction while the latter did not. Pre- and post-tests were conducted, with T-test analysis indicating a significant Praat-induced effect on learners' pronunciation. This study introduces an innovative approach to suprasegmental acquisition, enhancing pronunciation instruction through a dynamic digital medium, which may help teachers sustainably improve their students' intonation and pronunciation.

In the field of specialised language instruction – in this case, the teaching of English for Specific Purposes –, it is highly promising to recur to corpus linguistics, just as

the integration of corpora has proliferated in English Language Teaching (ELT) in general. In the respective chapter, this is exemplified in the context of German higher education *(Claudia Wunderlich – Würzburg-Schweinfurt, Germany)*. While some publishing houses have made use of authentic language corpora for educational resources, corpus utilisation, do-it-yourself (DIY) compilation, and data-driven learning (DDL) have simmered in the corpus ELT community. Despite mentions of actual corpus integration in classrooms and ESP material creation, their widespread adoption is just coming into existence in German traditional universities and universities of applied sciences. The chapter studies some topical issues surrounding ESP corpora, and presents an outlook on the potential benefits and drawbacks of corpus usage, vocabulary lists, collocations, and chunks, encompassing both pre-existing and DIY corpora for ESP or English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). Furthermore, the study contemplates the establishment of suitable recording formats and approaches to mainstream corpora and DDL practices. It spotlights the potential of corpus linguistics to update ESP education, opening up to new paradigms for language acquisition and instruction and may motivate language instructors to use (self-made) corpora for their teaching.

At the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic early in 2020, developing digital competence within an extremely short period was a must for teachers, be it at school or at university. The chapter on digital competence as a critical factor, which addresses digital vocational and university language teaching *(Michaela Rusch – Zwickau, Germany)*, satisfies the pressing need for enhanced media utilisation and intercultural competence training within English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses, particularly in nursing schools and technical universities during the Covid pandemic. These courses span a spectrum from intermediate to advanced levels, incorporating subjects like automotive and biomedical engineering, where both English and German represent languages for specific purposes. The chapter analyses the challenges of bolstering media skills within language education. It probes subject-integrated German and English instruction in nursing classes at a vocational school, followed by an exploration of technical English lessons (ranging from B2 to C1) in automotive, electrical, and biomedical engineering programs at the University of Applied Sciences Zwickau (Germany). The pandemic has accentuated the disparity between instructors' expectations and students' digital proficiency and intercultural competencies in both vocational and university contexts. The study evaluates the assessment and augmentation of students' media competence, delving into essential aspects of media competence instruction. Rooted in practicality, the paper offers insights and best practice examples, spanning digital tools, hybrid teaching-learning models, learning management systems, and video conferencing. It navigates the complex ter- rain of digital competence enhancement, spotlighting its pivotal role in bridging the instructional gap and fostering effective language acquisition in an increasingly digi- talised educational landscape.

Practical tools for operationalising digital competence are offered in the subsequent chapter, which describes the transformative impact of the 2020 pandemic on educational paradigms, erasing classroom borders and ushering in an unforeseen 'new normal' *(Ines-A. Busch-Lauer – Zwickau, Germany)*. Amid this shift, a plethora of digital tools has surged, prompting a comprehensive evaluation of their utility and efficacy in fostering successful learning outcomes and preparing for future language learning and testing. This chapter offers a concise panorama of digital tool imple-

mentation within the ESP classroom at the University of Applied Sciences Zwickau during preceding online semesters. Balancing advantages and drawbacks, the exploration delves into the amalgamation of learning management systems (LMS), virtual conferencing systems, and collaborative tools. This analysis aims to cultivate language proficiency, amplify group dynamics, foster learner autonomy, and nurture motivation. Its insights underline the necessity for a more structured digital tool evaluation framework, potentially based on criteria encompassing functionality, linguistic aspects, technical facets, and pedagogical considerations. The chapter underscores the central role of computer literacy and intrinsic motivation among instructors and students alike, transforming language learning into a borderless experience.

A domain that is at the crossroads of Languages for Specific Purposes and content instruction is Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Consequently, CLIL can be employed as a transcultural integration model, uniting content and languages within teaching strategies *(Bernd Klewitz – Marburg, Germany).* The chapter navigates an integrated CLIL approach, encompassing content and language skill development. With content and language intertwined, methodological and content-related inquiries demand multifaceted perspectives. Through social studies and history, the chapter explores a dual approach to teaching subjects in a non-native language, potentially extending its efficacy to other disciplines. It presents a foundational CLIL framework, the 4 Cs Framework, bridging Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), alongside the Language Triptych, the Bilingual Triangle, the Third Space of intercultural competence, and the Task Design Wheel of cognition. This taxonomy aligns with the demands of the German language core curriculum. Literature studies, notably Literary CLIL, further refine inter-/transcultural competence, thus demonstrating the manifold dimensions of this methodology. Within this approach, CLIL is put in the context of teaching literature, i.e. it is an integral part of language teaching, and not, as is mostly the case, situated *beyond* language teaching. The overall applicability of this approach shows its multifacetedness.

The vital role of language proficiency in enabling effective cross-border communication and shaping learners' futures and opportunities is analysed in a chapter that focuses on the comparison of two English placement texts that are presently used in Japan (*Thomas Goetz – Sapporo, Japan)*. Proficiency tests serve as important tools for placement, self-assessment, and advancement. They play an essential role in guiding learners toward their ideal educational and career pathways. The chapter centres on two prominent placement tests utilised in Japan: the CASEC test and the World Link Placement test. The former employs Item Response Theory to gauge proficiency, facilitating student ranking irrespective of instructional materials. The latter, tailored for programs adopting the World Link Series, leverages accumulated data to establish a norm-referenced framework for comparing and ranking test takers. While distinct in approach, both tests share the common goal of efficiently categorising students. The study delves into their comparative merits, considering factors like student experiences, program administration, and cost-effectiveness. The chapter assesses their compatibility through performance correlations and student feedback, providing valuable insights for programme administrators making consequential decisions within budgetary constraints, all while striving for excellence.

An oft-neglected task of universities consists in providing third-mission transfer, i.e. the contribution of findings made at the university, to society. This third mission extends university roles beyond academia, fostering collaboration with societal entities like associations, initiatives, and governmental institutions. In this vein, third-mission transfer as produced in a university mediation class is described and exemplified in the last chapter of the present book *(Cornelia Gerhardt – (Saarbrücken, Germany)*. This study delves into the application of the third mission concept in a mediation class for English students at Saarland University in Germany. As part of the DaTa-Pin project, dedicated to amplifying digitalisation, students engage with SaarPreneur, a venture cultivating entrepreneurial thinking. By embedding students within this pro- ject, objectives included heightening awareness of mediation processes, engender- ing motivation through tangible digital project outcomes, and advancing the transfer of knowledge as a vital university third-mission endeavour. The study illuminates the fundamental role of academia in societal progress, advocating for meaningful contri- butions beyond traditional teaching and research domains. It points out that findings made in applied linguistics and language methodology are not an art for an art, but potentially have a direct impact on what is important and relevant for the world we live in.

When going through the chapters contained in this book, our readers will become aware of some essential elements of cross-border communication. Our exploration into the nuances of intercomprehension, the evolution of language methodologies, the dynamic interplay of linguistic landscapes, and the integration of digital tools in education, to name but a few, illuminates the multifaceted nature of language in a borderless world. The chapters presented here serve as points of orientation that guide us through the ever-shifting currents of global linguistic interaction, reminding us that language both bridges and defines our interconnected existence. In an era in which communication knows no boundaries, we find ourselves at the nexus of cultures, ideas, and experiences. As language professionals, educators, and researchers, we stand witness to the power of words to transcend borders, and we embrace the responsibility to foster understanding and connection. With this book, we have embarked on a shared quest to unravel some of the mechanisms that constitute our linguistic world. We hope that these insights will continue to shape our collective understanding of the profound influence of language on our interconnected world — a world where, through the mosaic of languages, we are set on a path toward greater unity and mutual comprehension.

Thomas Tinnefeld (Saarbrücken, Germany)

with the collaboration of

Douglas Fleming (Ottawa, Canada)

Crossing Language Borders: Intercomprehension as Path and Destination

Christina Reissner & Max Penth (Saarbrücken, Germany)

1 Introduction

Multilingualism shapes our everyday lives; languages and cultures from almost all over the world surround us, so we constantly face them. Encountering and handling this omnipresent diversity is becoming more and more challenging. Preparing learners for this challenge is one of the crucial tasks of educational systems and goes far beyond mere (foreign) language learning. Fostering and developing individual plurilingual competencies[1] is of utmost importance to respond to the needs of our globalised society. On the European level, common strategic lines continue to be pursued in language and educational policies, e.g., within both the Council of Europe's Language Policy Program and the European Commission's Programs, such as Erasmus+. Especially in the educational sector, numerous initiatives all over Europe promote the perks of Europe's linguistic and cultural diversity and the values of plurilingualism and language learning as tools for mutual understanding, social cohesion, democratic citizenship, and equal access to high-quality education. However, political decision-makers are not the only ones to contribute to achieving these goals. Players in the educational sector, including subject specialists and teachers, play a primordial role as they work on the practical implementation of concepts that aim at raising general awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity and multiple language learning at schools and beyond. Teachers are hence responsible for equipping students with the tools to participate in the multilingual reality of our time. Professionalising teachers accordingly is essential not only for the development of integrated language teaching and learning but also for managing the various issues surrounding multi- and plurilingualism at school.

In the following sections, we briefly outline how multilingual education is integrated into teacher training at Saarland University (Saarbrücken, Germany), where the EuroCom-approach is particularly important.

Before discussing the linguistic foundations of the EuroCom-approach, a summary of its underlying principles, i.e. cross-linguistic language learning and a holistic view on learners' plurilingual competence, seems appropriate.

[1] Individual plurilingualism / plurilingual competencies are specified only when the focus lies on the individual learner.

2 Plurilingual Learning and Teaching at Saarland University

2.1 Plurilingual Learning and Teaching

Nowadays, multilingual education and multiple language teaching and learning are increasingly important. Over the last decades, numerous and multifaceted methodologies have been developed, varying in terms of their disciplinary backgrounds and/or the target groups they address. They might either originate from secondary or tertiary language teaching and learning or multiple language learning methodologies. Overarching, holistic approaches to language learning and teaching, such as Hufeisen's *Whole School Policy* (Hufeisen 2011), Krumm's *Multilingualism Curriculum* (Krumm & Reich 2013) or the approach to *Learning environments where modern languages flourish* (EOL; www.ecml.at/Learningenvironments[2]), should be mentioned as well. What all these approaches hold in common is the idea of bundling language learning and teaching as well as all learning processes to perceive them as parts of an overall, comprehensive educational mission, while at the same time integrating contemporary pluralistic realities.

Multiple language learning and plurilingual learning methodologies are part of the so-called pluralistic approaches, which are combined and described in the European Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures (FREPA; https://carap.ecml.at). The approaches the framework considers are united in that they systematically refer to several languages and thus intend to strengthen plurilingual and pluricultural competencies. The Content and Language Integrated Learning approach (CLIL) is considered as pluralistic only when focusing explicitly on more than just one target language. Subsequently, we delve into the pluralistic approach of intercomprehension (IC) and its methodology. Our perspective is substantially grounded in the EuroComRom-approach (European interComprehension in Romance languages), which Klein & Stegmann (2001) developed and which has been hosted and continually refined by Saarland University since 2009.

2.2 Plurilingual Education in Initial Teacher Training

In the Guide for the Development and Implementation of Curricula for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education, it is pointed out:

> Every opportunity to encourage pupils to use knowledge and competencies acquired in languages they are taught or know must be taken, in order to highlight points of convergence, and to help them to understand how languages work and to develop their plurilingual repertoires in an optimal way. (Council of Europe 2016: 21)

Thus, teaching and learning settings should enhance language learning processes, using approaches aimed at facilitating language acquisition and providing education *for* and *through* linguistic diversity (Council of Europe 2016: 101).

With these fundamental principles and the holistic approaches in mind and knowing that the construction of the learner's individual plurilingual repertoire is part of the lifelong trajectory, language education systems need considerable reorientation to-

[2] The latest access to all online resources was on May 12th, 2023.

wards education *for* plurilingualism, including plurilingual education and multiple language learning, and integrating the existing individual plurilingual repertoires. It is indispensable to provide teachers with the necessary knowledge, the appropriate tools and the ability to use them to best prepare them to accompany their students (Hülsmann et al. 2020, Reissner 2020). They need to grasp the importance of language in all teaching and learning contexts and lean on methodologies that enhance their students' linguistic skills. To that end, pluralistic approaches are a vital part of teachers' toolkits.

At Saarland University, teacher candidates in French and Spanish as foreign languages attend courses on the aforementioned topics[3]. In various types of seminars, students familiarise themselves with theoretical, methodological, and linguistic foundations of and approaches for multiple language teaching and learning. This thematic field represents a cornerstone of our study programs: we aim at imparting to future teachers a deep theoretical background on language awareness, language learning awareness, cognitive learning, autonomous learning, integrated didactics, and intercultural learning (Reissner 2007). In practice-oriented courses, we organise school projects on European multilingualism and plurilingual education, where the teacher candidates can put multiple language learning theories into teaching practice (Polzin-Haumann & Reissner 2020, Korb, Reissner, & Schwender 2020 for more details).

Hence, theoretical training goes hand in hand with practical training: in applied linguistics courses, students gather their own experiences with multilingual learning settings, based on the EuroCom-approach and the linguistic transfer inventories compiled in the Seven Sieves (Klein & Stegmann 2001). Crossing language borders within the Romance language family, students reflect on their languages and their learning strategies and foster their plurilingual and intercultural competencies at the same time. The EuroCom-approach is based on transfer- and decoding strategies, focusing on the learner's previously acquired knowledge and skills, as will be briefly illustrated in the next section.

2.3 EuroCom

The *European InterComprehension*-approach (EuroCom; Klein & Stegmann 2001, Mc Cann et al. 2002) is an instructional approach to Intercomprehension. As such, it provides a methodology for accessing cognate languages, featuring several languages at one glance. EuroCom is, for the most part, concerned with the receptive dimension of communication. *Interactive intercomprehension* can be defined as a form of oral communication, in which people understand each other, each of them using a different language. In general, all intercomprehensive training fosters plurilingual competence by systematically building bridges across alleged linguistic boundaries.

In a first step, EuroCom targets written and oral comprehension, thus, receptive competencies. Understanding different languages is the core of (plurilingual) com-

[3] These seminars are dedicated to teacher candidates for both primary and secondary schools.

municative competence. EuroCom builds solid foundations by first focusing on comprehension, which is the basis for the development of interactional intercomprehension competence, i.e. plurilingual communication by using different languages actively and understanding the communication partners' (different) cognate languages[4]. Furthermore, receptive skills favour building up productive competencies in selected target languages. Applying and exploiting the learner's personal knowledge is at the heart of intercomprehension approaches. They are grounded in the learner's entire previously acquired knowledge and competencies, while systematically using cognate languages as bridges from one language to another.

The metaphorical *Seven Sieves* represent the first systematic synthesis of the common linguistic bases of intercomprehension in the Romance language family. They observe and systematise the parallels and regularities within the different linguistic systems inherent to the languages that descend from Latin. The seven transfer categories concern different linguistic dimensions, such as the lexicon, graphic and phonetical relations, morpho-syntactic structures, and elements of word formation. Learners can acquire linguistic and language-learning competencies across the Romance language family based on their linguistic knowledge and skills, and by using interlingual transfer strategies, amongst others. The intercomprehension approach fosters plurilingual competence as well as plurilingual awareness. It also helps train transversal and crosslinguistic skills and the development of strategic and metacognitive competencies and knowledge.

It must be emphasised that intercomprehension approaches generally build on learners' repertoires and competencies as transfer resources, while especially drawing on cognate languages. Since English entertains extensive linguistic relationships with the Romance languages, it lends itself well for targeted use in Romance IC. The specific role of English in the German and European educational system is another compelling argument for its systematic integration in the EuroComRom-settings[5].

2.4 The Declarative Linguistic Transfer Inventories

Klein & Stegmann compiled the Seven Sieves (2001), the reference work for the EuroComRom-approach. They provide the basis for the interlingual transfer between and across Romance languages by systematising the parallels and regu- larities within the different linguistic systems (this concept also applies to other European language families, such as the Germanic (Hufeisen & Marx 2014) and Slavic families).

The transfer inventories for intercomprehension are structured in the metaphorical Seven Sieves. Following the linguistic transfer resources, seven categories range from the fundamental lexical level to grapho-phonemic correspondences, and grammatical, morphological, and morpho-syntactic levels. They reflect different findings in the respective linguistic disciplines' employing a close meta-analysis of every single Romance language.

---

[4] The branch of *interactional intercomprehension* and related topics is currently being developed (Bonvino, Fiorenz & Velásquez 2018).

[5] The linguistic relationships will be outlined in more detail in Section 4.

Sieves 1 and 2 focus on lexical resources that learners can use. The first sieve concerns International Vocabulary, i.e. those lexical items that many languages share, irrespective of their linguistic family. It consists of many words of Latin and Romance origin, which is why those learners who speak a Romance language have a learning advantage. In the last decades, English as a lingua franca has gained importance so that many languages incorporated English vocabulary in their lexicons, adding a further resource learners can draw from when it comes to international vocabulary. The second sieve is entitled Panromance Vocabulary, i.e., the vocabulary shared particularly within the Romance language family. Hence, knowing only one Romance language can serve as a lexical bridge to many others. English, too, can be considered in this context as it incorporated a vast amount of Romance vocabulary in the 13th to 15th century, as will be explored in Section 4.

Sieves 3 and 4 concern yet another linguistic dimension: they systematise grapho-phonemic correspondences across the Romance languages. The third sieve, Sound Correspondences, helps learners understand which sounds correspond to each other across the Romance languages, while the fourth sieve, Spelling and Pronunciation, looks at how these sounds are represented in the different Romance spelling systems. These are further inventories that learners can harness to deduce words optimally by recognizing sound-spelling conventions between bridging and target language(s).

Sieves 5 and 6 include (morpho)syntactic structures. The fifth Sieve, Panromance Syntactic Structures, shows learners how similar syntax is across all Romance languages and how they can use their knowledge of form and function in their bridging language(s), for instance, the placement of noun and verb phrases, to deduce words with respect to their word class in other Romance languages. Sieve 6, Morpho-syntactic Elements, then, adds further evidence on the similarities of Romance languages with regards to derivation and inflexion, including, among others, verb endings and function words.

Sieve 7, Eurofixes, provides an overview of those derivational affixes that all Romance languages have in common. Recognizing this relatively low number of – highly frequent – affixes allows learners to considerably broaden their (passive) vocabulary knowledge.

Beyond that, *language portraits* offer an overall view of the languages in question, their history, and their most frequent lexical items. Finally, a list of *profile words*, i.e., those words that are particular to the respective language, provide learners with language-specific inventories to compensate for the, albeit small, number of actual differences between Romance languages that might hinder comprehension.

3 The virtual EuroComCenter of Plurilingualism

After years of experimenting and enhancing the EuroCom-approach at Saarland University, the virtual EuroComCenter of plurilingualism will be launched in 2023. The portal is dedicated to the promotion of European plurilingualism and provides a plurilingual training platform that intertwines theory and practice. The platform will offer innovative, autonomous teaching and learning experiences. It helps users ex-

ploit their individual repertoires, discover EuroCom's findings on declarative linguistic transfer bases and multiple language learning, and other pertinent information supporting them in their plurilingual endeavours.

The platform itself is built on several pillars. First, it includes methodological chapters exploring the research background that underlies the new EuroComCenter's conception. That involves research on learner autonomy / autonomous learning, self-evaluation, language awareness, optimised deduction, transfer resources and transfer strategies, language learning fear(s), and Europe as a multilingual continent. Interested learners are encouraged to deepen their theoretical knowledge through the platform's steadily growing bibliography, which summarises relevant articles.

Second, it allows learners to delve into the aforementioned *Seven Sieves*, the epitome of declarative transfer inventories for intercomprehension. Learners will encounter both easy-to-follow explanations enriched with examples of the different sieves, and training rooms where they can gather their first experiences with the respective Sieves through interactive tasks including the specific transfer inventories encompassing the Romance language family.

Third, learners can further discover and train their individual plurilingualism in the platform's training rooms. These are subdivided into different Romance target languages, currently including Italian, French, and Spanish. Besides the actual target languages, learners are provided with hints and information about all Romance languages and their structures (i.e., lexis and grammar, morphosyntax etc.). The training material features various real-life topics, such as environment, pop culture, and health. Inside the thematic rooms, learners can find authentic text material taken from current online sources, and interactive tasks, which focus on different dimensions of language and language learning. A room for French for Saarlanders and a special setting for bridging to Slavonic intercomprehension are under construction. Reading comprehension and mediation are only part of the tasks offered in this online setting; the activities are not solely traditional language learning tasks, but they invite users to reflect upon language(s) and their own learning process. Thus, learners develop not only an awareness of their individual plurilingualism, its value and usefulness but also of their language learning attitudes. They can document their individual learning behaviours and reflections using the (optional) learning log. The so-called *Logbook* trains learners' autonomous learning skills and helps them evaluate their learning processes and learning progress more deeply and more effectively. They are also encouraged to link their language repertoires both in their logbooks and during their plurilingual training on the platform, which provides several cross-links to similar texts and tasks in different languages and notes on the realisation of particular phenomena in related languages. In the near future, learners will be able to hand in their intercomprehension logbooks to researchers at Saarland University for detailed feedback.

Learners, researchers, and teachers alike are further invited to familiarise themselves with the platform's research section which includes information on current research in the field of intercomprehension and pluri-/multilingualism, its school section, which provides insights into the aforementioned school projects and free teaching materials conceptualised by practitioners, and the news section, which contains information on new intercomprehension activities. For more information consult Reissner (2022) in this series.

4 English and Romance Transfer Inventories: Linguistic Relationships

4.1 Historical Contact between English and Romance Languages

The reason why English as a Germanic language lends itself particularly well to access the Romance language family is its close contact with Norman French during the 14th century and beyond. Before taking a closer look at the lexical similarities which exist between English and French, we need to clarify that Norman French was one of the three major varieties of French at that time. Skaffari (2012: 1672) labels Norman French as "the black sheep of the family" as it resulted from language contact and was hence not considered as prestigious as the Parisian Central French, which later became the standard language. In the past, researchers wrongly claimed that Central French had a considerable impact on the influx of French lexis in the English language when, in fact, Norman-French was the primary source of lexical borrowing (Skaffari 2012).

The contact situation between Norman French and Middle English was a consequence of the Norman invasion in 1066. The Normans, i.e., the native speakers of Norman French, claimed rulership over England, thereby assuming the elite class's position. Thus, Norman French was considered the elite language, which is described by Robert of Gloucester as cited in Skaffari (2012: 1674):

> So þat heiemen of þis lond, þat of hor blod come,
> Holdeþ alle þulke speche þat hii of hom nome;
> Vor bote a man conne Frenss me telþ of him lute[6].

Gloucester's observation can now be transferred into linguistic jargon: It corresponds to denoting Norman French as the superstrate and English as the less prestigious substrate language (Winford 2003:)[7]. In fact, English was the mother tongue of all classes, the highest nobility excluded, only three generations after the Norman conquest (ibid.). According to Skaffari (2012) and Winford (2003), the Normans themselves contributed to the language shift towards English. Skaffari (2012: 1677) labels that shift as "(superstrate) shift-induced interference". He argues that the Normans introduced English as a prestigious language by using it, while the Normans' socially superior status further increased its prestige. Winford provides further background: from the 13th century on, the Normans became more loyal to England and expressed their loyalty linguistically by renouncing Norman French and using English as a means of communication instead. Their bilingualism is considered to be the reason for the massive influx of French vocabulary into English. When they began to express themselves in the newly acquired English language, they introduced French lexical items in multiple contexts, i.e. while shifting to English, so French lexical interference[8] occurred naturally (Skaffari 2012). Code-switching /

[6] "So that nobles of this land, that come of their blood, retain all the same language that they of them received, since unless a man knows French he is thought little of." (Skaffari 2012: 1674)

[7] Note that Winford (2003) uses the terms *high* and *low language* given that he addresses diglossia.

[8] Presently, this would be referred to as 'translanguaging'.

translanguaging was further not scorned given French's prestigious status (ibid.; Section 4.2 for a critical discussion of the researchers' elite focus in disseminating French lexis).

Winford (2003) provides a different angle in labelling Middle English and Norman French as diglossia, which he considers as conducive to language shift. French was used in formal situations and administrative matters; in more informal settings, English was the chosen means of communication. Winford fails to specify why diglossia facilitates language shift, but he mentions that English was a native language to most, while the great masses needed to acquire French. At this point, it suffices to say that a shift from the substrate to a superstrate, or, in the context of diglossia, from informal to formal situations, is facilitated when the elite class starts to interact in the substrate language. As this was the case for Norman French speakers, the constraint of English to informal situations was lightened as their use of this language alone rendered it more socially acceptable[9]. Winford fixes a transition period from 1350 to 1450, during which French was still used as the language of instruction and administration, with English on a constant rise. This coincides with the advent of the printing press, which introduced a gradual fixation of the spelling system. In contrast to Old English spelling, which was highly standardised, scribes had to rely on the spelling traditions they knew, given the lack of standardisation of Middle English. These include Old English, Latin, and French spellings (Durkin 2012). Fixating French influences in the written medium is said to also have determined its use up until today.

4.2 The English Lexicon

The influence of Norman French on the Middle English lexicon serves as an example of why learners nowadays can harness their knowledge of the English language to cross language borders into the Romance language family (Klein & Reissner 2006).

First, several phases of French lexical influence, mostly through lexical borrowing, can be pinpointed[10]. Durkin (2012) sees the peak of French borrowings into Middle English in the late 14th and early 15th century, adding that by 1500, over 40% of the French words ever borrowed into English appeared, including those still in use today[11]. Van Gelderen (2014) supports that by stating that between 1250 and 1500, around 10,000 words from different word classes were added to the lexicon, while less than 1,000 words were introduced in the period from 1066-1250. Skaffari (2017)

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[9] It needs to be noted that Henry IV was the first English-speaking king (Burrow & Turville-Petre 1992). Although he usurped the throne, he carried English in the highest societal ranks, which can be considered an important step in rendering English adequate for formal / courtly contexts.

[10] Aside from French, the English lexicon drew from Latin, whose learned terms were already present in the Old English lexicon, and Scandinavian, which primarily impacted the North of England but contributed several frequent words, such as *knife*, *law*, *skin* (Burrow & Turville-Petre 1992: 15-16), as well as the pronoun *they* to the English language (ibid.: 15-18).

[11] Interestingly, Durkin (2012) states that the greatest increase in borrowing from Latin only happened in the 1500s and that French borrowing was influential earlier.

fixes similar periods stating that in earlier Middle English, French influence was not as strong, having reached its pinnacle only starting from 1350[12]. In a nutshell, Norman French exerted a considerable influence on the English lexicon as it became a major source of lexical borrowing. Winford (2003) argues that English mostly borrowed out of need, i.e. it incorporated French terms when there were no English equivalents, as was particularly the case in domains new to English culture (e.g. technical terms, administration and law). He further names prestige borrowing as a typical reason for borrowing, i.e., lexical items were borrowed from the superstrate language and used instead of the substrate's equivalent so that the speaker may exhibit prestige; examples include *veal*, *beef*, and *pork* (Winford 2003: 36).

Apart from borrowings, Skaffari (2012: 1681) mentions collocation calques, such as *par coeur* ('by heart'), as particularly common to English-French contact. He also points to the so-called "mediated influence[s]" (ibid.: 1680), which, among others, include changes to the English derivational system. This concept assumes that changes, however minor (van Gelderen 2014), to the derivational system were introduced through French lexical items (Skaffari 2012, van Gelderen 2014). This also applies to phonology. Skaffari explores derivational changes and lists common suffixes brought into English through French lexical items (also Burnley & Williams 2019). These include the suffixes -*acioun*, -*aunce*, or -*o(u)r* for nouns, -*ify* for verbs and -*able* for adjectives (ibid.; van Gelderen 2014: 105). Van Gelderen (2014: 105) adds that the suffix -*o(u)r* was originally Latin, while -*our* became typically British, -*or* typically American, as in *honour* vs. *honor*. It should be noted that in English, these suffixes were not as productive as in French, but they still represent changes worth considering (Skaffari 2012, Burnley & Williams 2019). The only prefix mediated through French was *dis*-, which had already existed in Latin (ibid.). Consensus in the scientific community is that the existence of *dis*- in both Latin and French consolidated its use in English, which incorporated it into its own derivational system (Skaffari 2012, Burnley & Williams 2019). The final derivational change effected by the French language concerns hybrid forms. Hybrids describe the (rare) occurrences of words with both English and French components, such as *endearment*, which has the English root *dear* and the French affixes *en*- and -*ment* (van Gelderen 2014: 105, Skaffari 2012: 1680).

It is, however, still debated today how the influence of French could become so extensive that it not only outnumbered Old English lexicon-heritage but also replaced the English core vocabulary by 7% (Durkin 2012; Winford 2003)[13]. In fact, at the time when these influences occurred, French was used less and less frequently due to the Normans shifting to English (Winford 2003). Researchers have tried to account for that development by creating models. The most common one is Norman French Speakers' Bilingualism. Norman-French speakers engaged in their acquired language, Middle English, but continued to implement French vocabulary in their speech, which allowed for a significant part of French vocabulary to enter the English lexicon (Skaffari 2012, Hanly 2019, Winford 2003). Skaffari (2012: 1677) refers to the

[12] Note that these categorizations refer to borrowing only. As borrowing is arguably the greatest influence on English, it may serve as a *pars pro toto* for French influence. The above-cited studies are further corroborated by Coleman (1995) and Dekeyser (1986).

[13] Note that Durkin (2012) mentions that it is oftentimes hard to discern whether a cognate is French or Latin; the aforementioned tendency, however, still holds.

aforementioned term *interference* in this context. Although this model remains debated (Skaffari 2017), we have decided to focus on it, for it is considered relevant. Interference is a common phenomenon that plurilingual speakers observe, and Winford (2003) states that French speakers started to renounce French from 1300 on, but already used English during the 13th century. This development coincides with the peak spans of French borrowing into English, which is considered a valid argument for the bilingual hypothesis. The ruling class's bilingualism alone seems to be used as a line of argument, even though their radiance is relatively low as compared to the rest of English-speaking England. Nevertheless, the ruling class's shift to English certainly influenced the perception and prestige of the two languages, as described before. Therefore, we refer to Ingham (2018) for further reference, who found that bilingual communities existed beyond the ruling class, which would expand the scope of the bilingual hypothesis. We will, however, refrain from exploiting the entirety of Ingham's findings in the context of this chapter.

Although these changes were ushered into Middle English, it is still evident that learners can systematically benefit from them even today when they intend to cross language borders, by using Modern English as a bridge to the Romance language family. EuroCom and the new learning platform can help them do so by providing a well-thought-out tool kit.

The analysis of Middle-English-Norman-French contact allowed us to show how the English language can be applied even today for multiple language methodology. Understanding their close contact and resemblance in terms of lexis and beyond can incite French and English language teachers alike to link languages in class. Thereby, they could enhance both students' comprehension of the respective languages and their language learning motivation, which is severely increased when they realize that they can use their language knowledge in French and English to deduce not only the other but also several other Romance languages[14].

5 Microstudy: Individual Learning Resources

5.1 Methodology and Purpose of the Microstudy

With the transfer categories of the Seven Sieves (Klein & Stegmann 2001) in mind, this microstudy addresses international vocabulary as the quantitatively most pertinent resource of transfer.

To reveal tendencies as to which individual background variables might or might not affect one's knowledge of international vocabulary or one's ability to recognize it, respectively (ibid.), we conducted an explorative online survey (n=32). Participants included both university students and non-academics. We collected information about their age, degree, professional career, language repertoires, and reading frequency. They were given part of Klein & Stegmann's list of international vocabulary of about 5000 items (ibid.: 241) (233 words in total; maximally, the first ten words per letter were chosen) and were asked to mark words they recognized or understood.

[14] For a more detailed account of how to exploit this historical contact to achieve intercomprehension: Hemming, Klein & Reissner (2011).

The results of those participants who stated that they currently were university students were compared to those of the same survey conducted in the course "Crossing Language Borders" (winter term 2020/2021) for linguistics students (n=16).

5.2 Results

59% of the participants obtained an A-level (German: *Abitur*). 25% had a General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) (German: *Mittlere Reife*), and a smaller part of the participants had an International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) (German: *Hauptschulabschluss*) (9%) or held a university degree (6%):

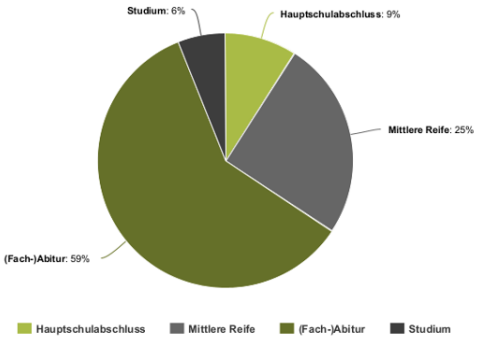


Figure 1: Participants' Educational Level

As for the participants' age, most of them were between 21 and 25 years old (44%). The rest of them was aged as follows:

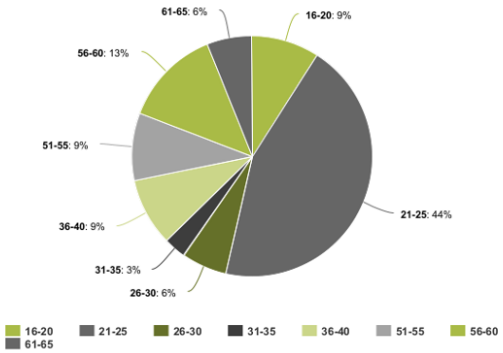


Figure 2: Participants' Age

Many of the participants were either teacher candidates, students of biomedical technology, or nurses. Their professional education ranged from secretary to nurse, to electrician and lecturer

Among the 32 participants, 22 spoke more than one language, 14 spoke more than two, seven more than three, and one participant more than four languages:

v_4	v_5	v_6	v_7	v_8
Deutsch				
Deutsch				
Deutsch	Italienisch			
deutsch	englisch	französisch	italienisch	
Deutsch	Französisch	Englisch	Spanisch	
Deutsch	Englisch	Französisch	Spanisch	
Deutsch	Französisch	Englisch	Spanisch	
Deutsch	Französisch	Spanisch	Englisch	Italienisch
Deutsch	Englisch	Französisch		
Deutsch				
Französisch	Englisch	Deutsch		
Deutsch				
Saarländischer Dialekt	Hochdeutsch	Englisch	Französisch	
Deutsch	Englisch			
Deutsch	Englisch			
Deutsch				
Deutsch				
Deutsch	Englisch	Französisch		
Deutsch	Englisch			
Deutsch	Französisch	Englisch		
deutsch	französisch	englisch	spanisch	
deutsch	englisch	spanisch		
Deutsch	Kurdisch	Türkisch		
Deutsch				
Deutsch	Englisch			
Englisch				
Deutsch	Englisch			
Deutsch				
Deutsch	Englisch	Französisch		
Deutsch				
Deutsch	Englisch			
Deutsch	Englisch			

Figure 3: Participants' Language Command

With regard to their reading frequency (as a leisure activity), 47% of the participants stated that they read often, 13% that they read occasionally, 25% that they rarely read and 16% that they never read:

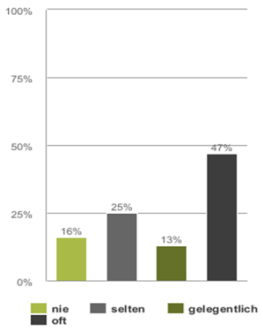
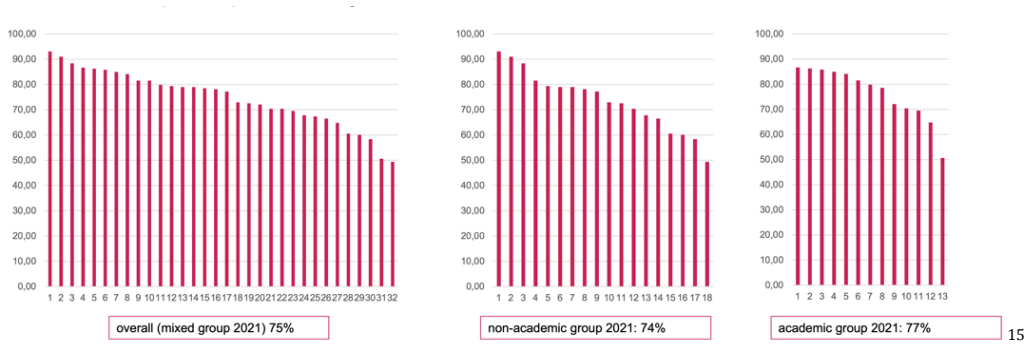


Figure 4: Participants' Reading Habits

On average, participants recognized 75% of the words they encountered. Subdividing them into an academic group, i.e., participants who either held a university degree or were university students, and a non-academic group, only minor differences were found (77% of recognized words and 74%, respectively). 22% of the words were recognized by all the participants, including items like *absolut, Absolvent, Ballett, Fabrik, ignorieren* etc. However, seven terms were rarely recognized, i.e., by less than 15% of the participants. The least known terms were *Decamerone* (recognized by 6%), *Campanile* (recognized by 9%), and *Abdikation / abdizieren, Naphta, Punktion, Vademecum, Zenakel / Zönakel* (each of them recognized by 13%):



[15]

Figure 5: Word-Recognition Rates

The participants were further subdivided into different student groups, i.e. a linguistics and a non-linguistics group. The former was then compared to the aforementioned results of the linguistics student group dating from 2020. Both linguistics groups recognized approximately 80% of the words; the non-linguistics students, however, only recognised around 66 % of the words) (Figure 7). The fact that Klein & Stegmann's list also includes infrequent academic jargon might be an explanation for the linguistics students' higher word recognition rate:

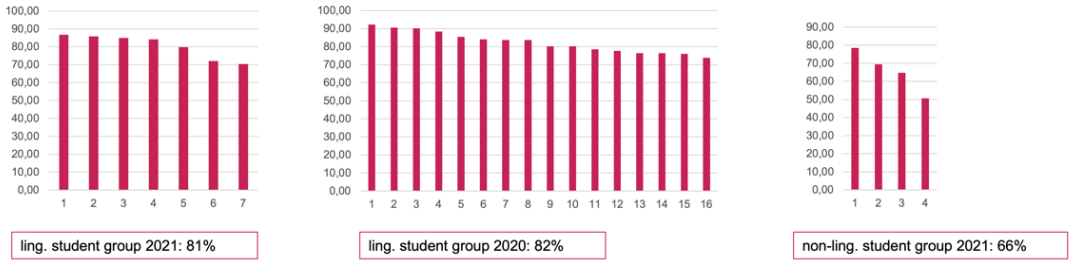


Figure 6: Comparison of the 2020 and the 2021 Student Groups

A comparison of these data with the participants' reading frequency showed that the more they read, the more words they recognized. Indeed, those students (33%) who achieved the highest word recognition rate stated to be frequent readers. Those students who achieved the lowest word recognition rates, however, declared that they rarely read books:

[15] One participant did not specify his or her profession / course of study, which is why he or she was not included in any of the subgroups.

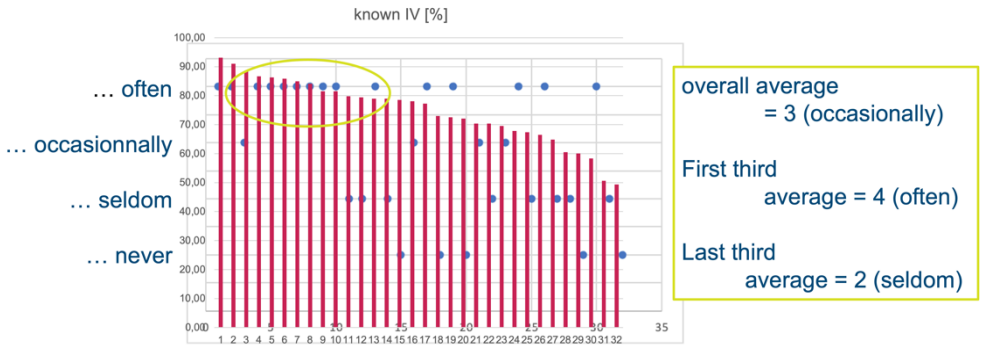


Figure 7: Participants Reading Frequency

5.3 Discussion

Before discussing the results of this microstudy, it needs to be stressed that, given its small number of participants, only tendencies can be indicated. Presenting final recommendations or findings would require a large-scale study with far more participants. Yet, in our experimental group, several background variables, such as age, educational level, or professional background, do not correlate significantly with better or worse knowledge or recognition of international vocabulary. A high reading frequency and individual plurilingualism, however, seem to be conducive to broadening one's knowledge or recognition of international vocabulary, as those participants with the highest recognition rates are both frequent readers and plurilingual.

5.4 Summary of Results

The overall aim of intercomprehension activities is to foster learners' plurilingual competence as defined by the CEFR and its Companion Volume. The present microstudy concerns a potential resource of transfer that learners may draw from in their plurilingual endeavours. If and to what extent they manage to do so highly depends on various individual factors, such as cognitive disposition, language awareness, autonomous learning, strategy training, and motivation. Our microstudy indicates that both learners' plurilingualism and their reading frequency might help them access international vocabulary to use it as a resource of lexical transfer. Broader studies should investigate whether this tendency holds and, consequently, if reading training can increase learners' ability to recognize international vocabulary and to cross language (family) borders in their comprehension process.

6 Conclusions & Outlook

It is the learners' plurilingual competence that eventually helps them cross both linguistic and cultural borders. The transfer resources presented in this chapter can be beneficial to do so in addition to learners' language knowledge and skills, their world knowledge, and their situational and pragmatic knowledge (Doyé 2005). Transfer and exploitation of learners' knowledge are at the heart of instructional intercomprehension settings, which provide reading and learning strategies and address the attitudes towards language(s) and language learning.

Moreover, EuroCom's *Seven Sieves* provide learners with a tool kit they can use for an optimised deduction, while the international vocabulary as core to all language families can serve as the first and most accessible resource to start with. Hence, an important European task is to link languages in teaching as well as in learning. This involves raising learners' awareness of their own and of other people's multiple levels of language(s) and the significance of plurilingualism as well as language acquisition.

The new digital EuroComCenter contributes to this very idea by providing learners with a platform they can use to autonomously train their plurilingual competence and awareness and their ability to understand cognate languages by helping them optimise their deduction process based on the intercomprehension approach and their own linguistic repertoire(s). With a wide thematic range of authentic texts and tasks, the EuroComCenter aims at raising learners' language awareness and at inciting reflection upon their languages, their language learning processes, and the role of language(s) in general. In combination with, and/or in addition to, the innovative plurilingual teaching and learning concepts developed at Saarland University, the EU's goal of Mother Tongue + 2 does not seem too far-fetched. These approaches are an integral part of initial and continued teacher training programs for Romance languages at Saarland University. Furthermore, they are progressively disseminated to different other actors in the school educational sector and beyond.

The consolidation of these approaches is only possible when following our department's guiding principle of intertwining research and practice, based on a strong theoretical background in plurilingual methodology and intercomprehension.

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The Influence of Translanguaging on Teacher Beliefs and Practice

Iratxe Serna-Bermejo (Vitoria-Gasteiz, Spain)

1 Introduction

In the last decade, scholars like Lin (1999), Antón & DiCamilla (1998), Swain & Lapkin (2000), Lee et al. (2008) and Martín-Beltrán (2010) started to be sceptical about traditional language-teaching methodologies that maintained languages separate in the classroom. Lemke (2002) even questioned the pedagogies and methodologies used in language teaching by suggesting that instead of helping students, these could have been detrimental to their learning:

> Could it be that all our current pedagogical methods, in fact, make multilingual development more difficult than it need be, simply because we bow to dominant political and ideological pressures to keep 'languages' pure and separate?" (ibid.: 85).

The term translanguaging was first used in 1994 by Cen Williams to refer to a planned use of more than one language in a lesson. Since that first conception, the term has acquired different meanings. Nevertheless, the concept of translanguaging continues to be a source of controversy due to its new understanding. Academics like García and Li (García, 2009, García & Li 2014, García & Kleyn 2016, García & Otheguy 2019, Ibarra Johnson, García & Seltzer, 2019, García 2019, García & Li 2018), for example, continue shedding light on this concept. In one of their latest publications, García & Li (2018) explain that in translanguaging the use of languages is seen as a dynamic repertoire and not as a socio-politically constructed system. A socio-politically constructed system refers to, what they call *named languages* (e.g. German, Spanish, Russian). Seen in this light, translanguaging goes beyond the concept of *named languages* by privileging

> the language of speakers as a semiotic system of linguistic and multimodal signs that together make up the speaker's own communicative repertoire. (García & Li, 2018: 1)

Hence, the linguistic repertoire of bi/multilingual speakers does not necessarily correspond to one named language or another, but it corresponds to a speaker´s own and unique linguistic repertoire.

In this new conception of translanguaging (García & Otheguy 2019), bi/multilingual students are not believed to possess two (or many) separated lexical and grammatical systems. On the contrary, they are believed to possess a unique system of multimodal signs, which they use in parallel with their linguistic features.

Nowadays, internationalisation is a priority goal for most universities all over the world. To achieve this objective, a very common strategy is to offer English-medium-instruction (EMI) courses. These courses attract both teachers and students from different countries. The University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU offers the majority of its studies in the two official languages, Basque and Spanish. In the past few years, there has been a growth in the offer of EMI courses. This situation makes this university an optimal institution for studying different aspects related to multilingualism such as translanguaging.

2 Translanguaging vs. Code-Switching

The terms *translanguaging* and *code-switching* coexist in studies on multilingualism. Yet, there is still some confusion when it comes to closely defining and distinguishing the two concepts. This controversy is, to a certain extent, caused by the different definitions of translanguaging that can be found in the literature, which differ from each other, since this concept has changed and evolved over time. Therefore, in this chapter, we intend to summarise the main aspects that distinguish code-switching from translanguaging.

We understand code-switching as the momentary change that a bi/multilingual speaker makes from one language to another one (or other ones) in the same speech or utterance (Garcia, 2009). Sometimes bi/multilingual speakers, instead of choosing "one language-based practice" (Garcia 2009: 49) or another, select more than one language for their speech. Bi/multilinguals acknowledge more than one language; consequently, these speakers can go back and forth from one language to another (or others) in the same discourse. This process is generally labelled as *code-switching*.

A categorisation that has been widely used in the literature is the one proposed by Myers-Scotton (1993) who distinguished two types of code-switching: intrasentential and intersentential code-switching. *Intrasentential code-switching* corresponds to the shift from one language to another (or others) which occurs within the boundaries of a clause or a sentence. Martinez (2006: 95) illustrates this using an extract from a Mexican student´s talking:

> Example: Intrasentential code-switching (CLIL class in Mexico)
>
> Sí, y luego es una *trampoline* así; pero aqui vienen los *ropes* así. Y no más de ese tamaño. Esa era para brincar.

In this example, intrasentential code-switching is used, as the bilingual student switches from Spanish to English and vice versa, within the boundaries of each sentence. According to Macaro (2018: 215), bilinguals usually code-switch intrasententially because they can change from one language to another without "violating the morpho-syntax of either grammar".

On the other hand, *intersentential* code-switching corresponds to the switch from one language to another (or others) that occurs out of sentence boundaries. In other words, the bi/multilingual speaker makes a sentence in one language and when that

sentence is finished, he or she changes the language for the next sentence. Martinez (2006: 95) illustrates this phenomenon using the following example:

> Example: Intersentential code-switching (CLIL class in Mexico)
>
> Anyway, I –as in and he was, you know, the one that would let you out. And he was laughing cause he saw me coming in. *Se estaba riendo de mí.* ('He was laughing at me').

In this example, we can see intersentential code-switching because the bilingual speaker only code-switches when the English sentence is finished and changes to Spanish for a new whole sentence.

Recalling the principal question in this section of what the difference between translanguaging and code-switching is, it will vary depending on the definition and conceptualisation of translanguaging we take as reference. If we consider the option that what differentiates translanguaging and code-switching is that the former is planned and constitutes a pedagogic strategy and the latter occurs spontaneously, we will find the first problem in this dichotomy. If we talk about *pedagogical translanguaging* and code-switching, this distinction may make sense, because a requisite that defines *pedagogical translanguaging* is, indeed, its previous planning. Nevertheless, this distinction loses this sense when the concept of *spontaneous translanguaging* comes into play. We cannot see any differences between spontaneous translanguaging and code-switching if the distinguishing characteristic is the previous planning of the action, as in both cases, there is no such planning.

Furthermore, there also exist terms (García 2009, Van der Walt, Mabule & De Beer 2001) like *responsible code-switching,* which also requires teachers' previous planning as it corresponds to a pedagogic strategy. Consequently, we find the same problem when distinguishing the two concepts. Again, if the difference between translanguaging and code-switching is the previous planning of the former against the spontaneity of the latter, and we add this characteristic by calling it *responsible code-switching,* are we not converting it into *pedagogical translanguaging*?

At the same time, there are also distinctions made between *pedagogical translanguaging* and *spontaneous translanguaging* (Cenoz 2017, Cenoz & Gorter 2021, Cenoz, Santos & Gorter 2022). This distinction is mostly based on the context in which translanguaging happens. Those who propose this classification argue that pedagogical translanguaging occurs in a classroom context, while spontaneous translanguaging may occur both in a classroom and in a street context. Therefore, if we base the distinction on the contexts in which the action occurs, we cannot find any difference between spontaneous translanguaging and code-switching, which is also spontaneous and may occur in a street context.

In contrast, if we take more recent conceptions of translanguaging as a reference (García & Li 2014, Li 2018, Otheguy, García, & Reid 2015, 2018), we do find intrinsic differences between translanguaging and code-switching. García & Li (2018: 2) define code-switching as "the term given to what is seen as changing named languages within a sentence or between sentences". Besides, these scholars consider code-switching to be a concept only understood by the political and ideological construct of named languages while translanguaging "stems from the internal perspective of all human beings and focuses on their agency to select features from their entire language repertoire in social interactions" (ibid.: 3).

Thus, from a translanguaging perspective, code-switching only refers to the change from one named language to another named language, which can be intersentential or intrasentential. But the most important distinction here is that code-switching acknowledges the so-called named languages since it refers to the switch from one language to another; in translanguaging, however, those named languages are believed to be socio-political constructions (Heller 1999) which induces an illusory linguistic reality.

Certainly, some scholars have been very critical of code-switching. García (2009), following Del Valle (2000), notes that code-switching underlies a monoglossic ideology of bilingualism where languages are observed as separate linguistic systems. On the contrary, translanguaging constitutes a creative act in itself:

> the act of translanguaging is itself transformative, having the potential to infuse creative bilingual meanings into utterances. (García, Ibarra Johnson, & Seltzer 2017: 20).

Li (2018) argues that translanguaging and code-switching are different from their roots, as code-switching is linked to linguistic codes and excludes from its conception the 'non-linguistic codes' that take place during communication like gestures, facial expressions or postures. Conversely, translanguaging could be understood as a process of meaning-making that includes linguistic features, but also semiotic features like gestures or postures, and also social, historical, political or cultural features that influence multilingual speakers´ communication.

To sum up, we would say that the main difference between code-switching and translanguaging is that the former just focuses on the shift from one language or to another (or others), i.e., the focus is on a purely linguistic issue. The latter, however, focuses on the alternation from one language to another (or others), but also on other issues that are involved in bi/multilingual speakers´ communication, like semiotic ones.

In addition, Otheguy, García & Reid (2015) explain that when we talk about translanguaging, we have to distinguish between internal and external perspectives. When we hear a person talk and recognise two different languages, we are looking at languages from an external perspective. Teachers, and people in general, tend to think of and look at languages as objects, so we identify and differentiate these objects (languages) from each other. So one thing is the external aspects of a language and another thing are the internal aspects, which people, as speakers, utilise. It is not always easy to understand this conception of language because, for a long while, research on bi/multilingualism was based on 'elite' bilingualism or sequential bilingualism that is learned in schools as L2 and different languages were located within separate parts of the human brain. Bilingualism, however, is more complex than having languages separated into different compartments, which is why nowadays, researchers pay more attention to the speakers themselves, and research has become more aware of fluent or dynamic bi/multilingualism which sometimes cannot be separated into discrete languages.

> Dynamic bilingualism refers to "language practices that are multiple and ever adjusting to the multilingual multimodal terrain of the communicative act. This model has nothing to do with the linear models of the past, responding to language interaction that takes place in different planes that include multimodalities and multilingualism. (García 2009: 144)

Therefore, the internal aspects of language are related to how we (i.e. the speakers) make use of language. This is why we talk about (trans)languaging, because it is not about having a language but about *using* language with the features we have at our disposal. However, language is not only a set of linguistic features but a socio-political construction, and this perspective corresponds to the external aspects of language:

> The use of language as a dynamic repertoire and not as a system with socially and politically defined boundaries. With the focus on actual language use, translanguaging necessarily goes beyond the named languages such as Chinese, English, or French (García & Li, 2014; Li, 2018; Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015, 2018). Instead, it privileges the language of speakers as a semiotic system of linguistic and multimodal signs that together make up the speaker's own communicative repertoire. This repertoire does not always correspond to the strict parameters of one named language or another established by grammars, dictionaries, and schools. (García & Li 2018: 1).

A very illustrative way to understand this assumption is to look at the number of languages in the world registered every year. This number varies, not only due to language extinction but because sometimes, the differentiation between one language and another can be a socio-political decision. Throughout history, there have been times when governments decided to bring some languages together or separate them, just because they considered it to be beneficial for their nation or because they had specific interests in doing so. (Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015)

Nevertheless, reality goes beyond those external aspects of language, and that is why in real life, speakers' practices do not fit within that narrow understanding of language. Therefore, we can conclude that the difference between translanguaging and code-switching is ideological because, in practice, it is very difficult to distinguish these two concepts, although, in principle, they are very different. Code-switching is about changing from one language to another, and translanguaging refers to a unitary repertoire from which the bi/multilingual speaker selects the features needed. Moving from the concept of code-switching to translanguaging is not only a terminological matter but it makes a difference because when we take up a translanguaging perspective, we hint at the inequities that may occur in academic contexts, for example in relation to language assessment. When assessment does not consider students´ entire linguistic repertoire, teachers have to acknowledge that they are evaluating some specific language features but not students´ general language ability or capacity.

3 Monolingual Approach for Teaching through an L2 / FL

In the last few years, the benefits of using the L1 in L2/FL lessons have been widely mentioned in the literature on applied linguistics. Macaro (2018) points out that although it seems difficult to find recent research promoting exclusive L2 use in classrooms, it seems that there still exists some controversy around translanguaging or code-switching. The controversy among academics, therefore, is not in relation to the benefits or disadvantages translanguaging may have on students´ learning, but to the conception of the term itself.

In fact, it seems that most scholars agree to more or less extent on the positive impact of translanguaging in classrooms. Macaro (2009) even states that maintaining the L1 out of L2/FL lessons may reduce students´ cognitive and metacognitive opportunities.

Nevertheless, although researchers have a widespread positive view regarding translanguaging, not all the agents involved in education share their positive views. Some studies, for example, show teachers´ reluctance to translanguaging and even to allow translanguaging among their students. In fact, teachers´ reluctance towards translanguaging is not a coincidence, but a direct consequence of the educational heritage they received. Doiz & Lasagabaster (2017) argue that as soon as the grammar-translation method was left aside and the communicative approach gained presence, the use of the L1 in L2 lessons has been a controversial issue:

> in general it is believed that there is no space for the students' L1 because of the need to use the L2 as much as possible to improve students' language proficiency (ibid.: 2).

These authors attribute this situation to two main reasons:

- the popular monolingual ideology, which defends that in L2 classrooms there is no space for the L1, and
- publishing houses preferring to publish only in the target language (mainly English).

According to Lin (2015: 76-78), monolingual approaches are still present and, in some cases, they are even dominant all over the world. Lin attributes these still dominant monolingual approaches to four main reasons:

1. The pedagogical ideology of teaching the target language (L2) through the target language only (or: multilingualism through parallel monolingualisms). Lin argues that this is usually enforced by official policy speeches that represent a top-down approach trying to legislate students' and teachers' language use.

2. The stereotyping of L1 use in the classroom as being equivalent to the extensive use of L1 in the traditional grammar-translation approach. Based on Mahboob´s (2011) publication, Lin blames the grammar-translation approach for giving a primary position to a dominant local language using it to learn of and about the L2.

3. The one-sided application of the 'maximum input hypothesis'. Lin argues that immersion approaches include a monolingual principle that is highly related to Krashen´s (1982) maximum input hypothesis. However, she highlights that the maximum input hypothesis must always be related to the comprehensive input hypothesis (Krashen 1982). Consequently, the potentiality of the L1 for making the input more comprehensible should not be denied.

4. The reported advantages of the separation strategy in some early bilingual education studies in the USA. According to Lin, the study conducted in the USA by Legarreta (1979) on Spanish-English bilingual courses in kindergar-

ten, may have promoted negative attitudes towards L1 use in Content-Based Instruction) (CBI).

With the intention of discouraging these negative practices and beliefs, some scholars started publishing guidebooks and studies to orient teachers to the use of L1 in L2 classrooms. One of the most popular was the one launched by Swain, Kirkpatrick & Cummins (2011) entitled *How to have a guilt-free life using Cantonese in the English class. A handbook for the English language teacher in Hong Kong.* As can be seen, the title of the book is very illustrative in itself, because it already gives information about how teachers may usually feel when using the L1 in L2 lessons, i.e. guilty.

4 Three Theories about Teachers´ Standpoint

In the previous section, we already mentioned that teachers' beliefs are not aligned with most scholars' views regarding translanguaging. Although many scholars agree on the benefits translanguaging may have on bi/multilingual students´ learning, teachers oftentimes show more reluctance. After carrying out a study based on surveys and interviews with teachers regarding the use of the L1 in L2 language lessons, Macaro (2009:35-36) concluded that there are three main positions that teachers usually adopt:

1. The virtual position: teachers believe that their classes must represent as much as possible those in the target language country. This is why the unique use of the target language is encouraged.

2. The maximal position: teachers are more flexible with the use of the L1 but not because they think it is a positive resource for students to learn, but because they believe it to be an unavoidable practice of bi/multilinguals. Teachers do not see translanguaging as a positive practice, although in some cases, they even confess a feeling of guilt when doing so.

3. The optimal position: teachers believe that the responsible use of students´ different languages may be helpful for their learning. These teachers show positive attitudes towards translanguaging and would not hesitate to encourage it.

Besides, Macaro (2014: 12), in a subsequent study, reported that the trend is teachers opting for either the *virtual* or the *maximal position*, with the minority opting for a multilingual pedagogy; that is, the *optimal position.*

In a similar way, Doiz & Lasagabaster (2017) conducted a study at the University of the Basque Country to find out teachers' beliefs regarding the use of the L1, in this case, Basque or Spanish, in English Medium Instruction (EMI) lessons. After conducting structured discussion groups with the participating teachers, the researchers concluded that the majority of the teachers showed attitudes that corresponded with Macaro's (2009) virtual position, i.e. the exclusive use of English. These teachers argued that their preference for the exclusive use of English in EMI was based on two beliefs: first, their ideal teaching context was one where all the input was provided in

English. Second, they believed that the L1 was detrimental to the objectives of EMI and should therefore be avoided. There is just one teacher out of 13 in the bespoke study whose ideas corresponded to the maximal position (she believed that using English all the time was the best course of action, but also that using the L1 occasionally was inevitable), while two teachers opted for the optimal position (they believed that languages do not stay in separate compartments and that linguistic flexibility should be a necessity). In conclusion, Doiz & Lasagabaster's (2017) study shows that teachers' beliefs regarding the use of the L1 in EMI lessons are in line with other teachers' beliefs reported in studies conducted in other contexts (Lee & Macaro 2013, Stroupe 2014, Macaro 2014, Roothooft, 2019), where teachers did not consider the use of the L1 in EMI (and other programmes) very positively. In a similar vein, Daryai-Hansen, Barfod & Schwarz (2017) reported that both students and teachers in a Danish university saw translanguaging as a positive tool for language learning but only as a transitional stage, the unique use of English being the goal.

In contrast, other studies showed more positive attitudes towards translanguaging like the one conducted by Lasagabaster (2013) in Colombia where 35 CLIL primary, secondary and university teachers were asked about their beliefs regarding the use of the L1 in their classes. The results showed that, in general, teachers accepting the positive impact L1 use may have:

> to help students understand the instructions; to make comparisons between the L1 and the L2; to feel more comfortable when teaching in CLIL lessons; to boost debate; and to deal with disciplinary issues. (ibid.: 8)

The researcher concludes by advocating for the use of the L1 in CLIL classes, but he specifies that more research is needed to answer the demand of creating a substantiated framework, which should define the theoretical and pedagogical guidelines around the introduction of the L1 in CLIL/EMI lessons to deal with the randomised practices, which currently predominate. In any case, the majority of participants were teachers at the pre-university level, which may have affected the results. At any rate, more research at the university level is urgently needed.

5 The Study

5.1 Aims of the Study

The objective of this study is to see the impact the teacher has on translanguaging that takes place in the classroom context. For this, a case study was carried out in which the teaching practice of two university teachers was analysed:

> Research Question 1: Does the teacher influence translanguaging that takes place in the classroom context?

Moreover, we also wanted to know the opinion and beliefs of the participating teachers regarding translanguaging:

> Research Question 2: What are Teacher A's and Teacher B's beliefs regarding translanguaging?

5.2 Participants

The focal participants of this research were two instructors who taught at the Faculty of Economics and Business of the University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU. Teacher A taught the module on *Economic History* in Basque and English groups and Teacher B taught *Business Economics: organisation and management* also in Basque and English groups. Both modules belonged to the *Business Administration and Management* and *Economics* degree programme and were taught in the second semester of the first year. Teacher A had been a university teacher for 10 years and Teacher B had been teaching at the university for 14 years. Both teachers were multilingual in Basque, Spanish and English and Teacher A also spoke French and German.

Regarding the idiosyncrasy of these modules, it is worth mentioning that, belonging to the degree programme *Business Administration and Management* and *Economics*, these subjects were some of the most related to the 'humanistic' field. After all, *history* belongs to the science field of humanities irrespective of the type of history dealt with (Economic history in this case). Besides, although related to the concrete field of business and economics, *Business Administration and Management* and *Economics* was a subject that could be taught in any other degree due to its applicability to many other fields. Moreover, in this subject, they paid attention to real cases that appeared in the news, commented on day-to-day events that affected society, or even got to know real workers' problems related to their jobs. Therefore, this subject could be regarded as being related to social sciences.

Students enrolled in the subjects taught by Teacher A and Teacher B were 66 and 89, respectively, in number. There were both local and Erasmus students.

5.3 Procedure and Data Collection Instruments

We attended 29 lessons (39 hours) taught in the modules *Economic History,* and *Business Economics: Organization and Management* between February and March of the academic year 2018-2019. The researcher sat in a corner at the end of the classroom (although the location varied depending on the characteristics of the class and the position of the socket, observed the lessons, and took notes. All the lessons were also video-recorded using a camera placed next to the researcher at the end of the class in order to capture the lecturer, the blackboard, the projector, and as many students as possible. The camera was able to cover almost the entire room, so even though the teacher moved around in the classroom, it was not necessary to move the camera once installed. The first time the researcher attended a lesson in each group, both Teacher A and Teacher B introduced her and reminded them that she would be attending their lessons and recording them, as they had already explained in a previous session.

Once all the lessons were recorded, the researcher watched and analysed them using an adapted version of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) (Spada & Fröhlich 1995) observation scheme. Moreover, after the recordings of the lessons the researcher met the teachers for an interview to know about their opinions and beliefs regarding translanguaging.

For the statistical analysis of the data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that they did not follow a normal distribution. Consequently, a Mann-Whitney nonparametric test was performed.

5.4 Results and Discussion

With regard to our first research question ("Does the teacher influence the translanguaging that takes place in the classroom context"), Table 2 shows how many times translanguaging happened depending on the teacher's behaviour (A or B). In this table, a categorization depending on who was the individual to use translanguaging (students or teachers) can also be observed as well as whether it was linked to the material used for the lesson:

Translanguaging			
	Teacher	**Material**	**Student**
Teacher A	2.04	0.61	0.96
Teacher B	1.52	0.42	

Table 2: Translanguaging: Values per Hour

Looking both at Table 2 and Table 3 (below), it becomes obvious that translanguaging happened both in Teacher A's and Teacher B's lessons. However, if we look at Table 3 some differences can be found regarding this matter:

Translanguaging			
	Teacher	**Material**	**Student**
Teacher A vs. Teacher B	0.713	0.115	0.018*

Table 2: Translanguaging: Teacher A vs. Teacher B

Focusing our attention on teachers´ translanguaging, we did not find significant differences in Teacher A's lectures and Teacher B´s (p=0.713) regarding the amount of translanguaging. As Table 2 shows, in Teacher A's case, a value of 2.04/h could be documented, which was higher than the one we found in the case of Teacher B with a value of 1.52/h, but not significantly higher.

Regarding the presence of translanguaging materials used in class, again, we did not find a significant (p=0.115) difference when we compared Teacher A's and Teacher B´s lessons. Table 1 shows that translanguaging in the materials (that is, the translanguaging that appears in the papers, books etc. used for the lessons) had a

presence of 0.61/h in Teacher A's lessons and 0.42/h in Teacher B´s lessons, which is not a high occurrence.

Finally, in relation to Student Translanguaging, significant differences (p=0.018*) depending on the teacher lecturing could be identified. Students used translanguaging more in Teacher A's lessons (0.96) than in Teacher B´s lessons (0.06). These results need some clarification. In this case, we must take the instructors' teaching style into account. Teacher B's lessons were the classic lecture style, in which the instructor speaks most of the time and students just listen. In this type of lesson, students' oral participation is very scarce and interaction with and among students is not encouraged. Teacher A's lessons, however, were more participatory, as continuous interaction between teachers and students was encouraged. Therefore, students' oral participation was much higher in these classes. Consequently, the fact that students participated more in teacher A's classes may have affected a greater presence of translanguaging on their part. In other words, the more students participated, the more likely it was that they used translanguaging. On the other hand, Teacher B´s students did not usually participate in the lectures, and therefore, there was nearly no translanguaging. It becomes obvious, then, that in this case, the instructor and his teaching style influenced students' translanguaging.

With respect to the second research question ("What are Teacher A's and Teacher B´s beliefs regarding translanguaging?), it was after completing the recording of the lessons, we met Teacher A and Teacher B for an interview separately. The intention of this meeting was to know their opinions and beliefs regarding some aspects of translanguaging.

The first question referred to whether they knew the university´s opinion or stance about the use of other languages in the classroom. Both instructors' coincided since neither of them knew what the university's opinion was on this matter or if, in fact, there was some kind of stance on the matter, at all.

Our second question was related to their opinions about translanguaging. Both teachers confessed that they tried to avoid the use of languages other than the language of instruction as much as possible. Moreover, Teacher A explained his concern about letting students use their L1/L2 as this could lead to excessive use of those languages. Moreover, this teacher explained that he would only use translanguaging in very specific cases. He considered translanguaging as positive when using technical terminology related to a subject that was unfamiliar to students.

On the other hand, Teacher B also tried not to use his L1/L2 in the classroom. However, he was more flexible with regard to student translanguaging. He explained that in practical classes, in which students usually worked in groups, he allowed them to talk to each other in whatever language they wanted, as long as they completed the activities in the language of instruction.

These results may seem to be contradictory since, as mentioned before, they showed more student translanguaging in Teacher A's classes than in those of Teacher B (despite the fact that the latter confessed that he was more permissive with respect to student translanguaging). However, it needs to be borne in mind that this study focuses on teacher-led lectures and not on practical lessons in which the students predominantly work in groups.

Therefore, if we establish a relationship between the opinions of the teachers who participated in this study and Macaro´s (2009) *Theories about Teachers´ Standpoint* regarding translanguaging, we might say that Teacher A's attitude corresponded to the *virtual position* while Teacher B´s attitude was more related to the *maximal position*, at least in the case of the practical lessons.

6 Conclusions

Translanguaging was found both in Teacher A's and Teacher B's lessons. However, no significant difference was observed regarding teacher translanguaging and material translanguaging when comparing both lecturers´ lessons. Nevertheless, with regard to student translanguaging, significant differences were found. As was explained in the results section, this difference might be related to the instructors' teaching styles because whereas Teacher A's lessons were very interactive and promoted student interaction, Teacher B's lessons were more lecture-like and students´ participation was very scarce. Therefore, it can be concluded that teachers, more precisely their teaching style, had an impact on students' likeliness of translanguaging.

Both Teacher A and Teacher B tried to avoid translanguaging. In their lectures, both showed an attitude towards translanguaging that would be in line with Macaro´s (2009) *virtual position* as a unique use of the target language was encouraged. As was confirmed in other studies, (Macaro 2014, Doiz & Lasagabaster 2017) this seems to be quite a common attitude among teachers.

However, in practical lessons, in which students work by themselves in groups, Teacher B showed an attitude that would be more in line with the maximal position as he seemed to be more generous with students using their L1, but not because he thought that this was a positive resource for students to learn, but because it was an unavoidable practice of students as bi/multilinguals.

Teachers´ opinions and attitudes, then, seem to have a direct effect on their own teaching practices and the materials they use. Both teachers were reluctant to use translanguaging and effectively avoided it. In this way, their opinions and attitudes about translanguaging were indeed reflected in their teaching practices. In other words, in most cases, their opinions were in line with their actions.

In future research, with the intention of continuing to analyse how teachers´ attitudes and beliefs affect students' translanguaging, it will be interesting to compare lessons taught by teachers with a positive attitude towards translanguaging and those taught by teachers who are more reluctant towards translanguaging. This would allow us to delve into the impact that teachers' attitudes have on students' translanguaging.

It is worth mentioning that the findings exposed in the present study need to be interpreted cautiously, as they have to be understood in their restricted context. Hence, a bigger sample size would be recommended to obtain more generalizable results, although we do believe that the data obtained in this study shed light on the importance of instructors' teaching styles.

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Language Methodologies – What is 'Good Writing' in a Multilingual Classroom?

Verbra Pfeiffer (Pretoria, South Africa)

1 Point of Departure

Students labelled as ‘English learners’ in South Africa are actually multilingual as they shuffle between more than one language daily (Garcia & Li 2014). South Africa has been defined as a multilingual country, having eleven official languages that are recognised in the post-apartheid Constitution of 1996, “nine African languages and two colonial languages Afrikaans and English, prior to 1994” (Probyn 2019: 217). English has come to be the most dominant language in the political economy, despite being the home language of less than 10% of the population (Statistics South Africa 2012). Unfortunately, the African languages have not been promoted or expanded in relative power and status (Probyn 2019: 217). Against this backdrop, there is the switch to learning through the medium of a former colonial language that has a negative impact on teaching and learning, which is typical of many post-colonial countries (Lin & Martin 2005, Rubagumya 1994, Probyn 2019).

In light of this, South Africa, or more generally the global South, has been affected by the challenges of multilingualism in education which has become a national rather than a minority concern (Probyn 2019: 217). Despite the worldwide trend to embrace multilingualism, an important consideration is whether to allow only the target language (English in the South African context) in the academic literacy classroom or to create space for students to draw on their L1’s or strongest languages as social, linguistic and cognitive resources (Carstens 2016: 2). With this purpose in mind, the impact that the students’ home language has on their academic writing will be looked at more closely.

At South African universities, students display a wide range of English proficiencies. There is a relatively small minority of mother-tongue speakers of English; there are students who study English as a subject throughout their schooling of 12 years (these are primarily mother-tongue Afrikaans speakers) and then, there are those who received some tuition since Grade 4 through the medium of English – the majority are black South African students at public schools in rural and township schools (Carstens 2016, Pfeiffer & van der Walt 2019: 59). Even though students have had extensive exposure to English, they have come to realise the importance of being proficient in English. As a result, in South Africa, it is clear that the lack of developing cognitive academic language proficiency is one of the biggest stumbling blocks to achieving academic success (Weideman 2003: 56, Weideman & Van der Silk 2007 Pfeiffer & van der Walt 2016). Thus, through the medium of English, students have come to realise the importance of being proficient in this language. A

language which serves as a means to an end, however, does not necessarily mean avoidance or loss of other languages (Klapwijk & van der Walt 2015: 3). In this light, for a multilingual student, communication includes “multilingual discursive practices” (Garcia 2009: 45) where they move between languages, which may not be a smooth process. The motivation of this article has thus been stirred by the extent to which translanguaging occurs when students write in one language and think in another. This chapter explores data from South African classrooms “on how translanguaging is effective in deepening comprehension” (Makalela 2019: 238) and is able to cultivate the sense of self in academic writing.

Attached to the idea of self, we also will be looking at ‘voice’ and its three types of positioning,

> mapping onto Halliday's (1985) three macrofunctions of language: positioning in terms of the writers' ways of representing the world ("ideational positioning"); positioning in terms of their relative authoritativeness or tentativeness and in terms of the writers' relationship with their readers ("interpersonal positioning"); and positioning in terms of the writers' preferred ways of turning meanings into text ("textual positioning")” (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 4).

Writing in its own right

> does not carry phonetic and prosodic qualities that may act as a marker of identity: National, geographic, or social identity which is erased when people write” (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 5).

When viewed from this perspective, writing may serve as an advantage or a disadvantage especially when a person’s identity does not come through, thus leaving the person feeling alienated from the entire project of communicating in written language because that person might feel that their national identity has been eradicated. However,

> the anonymity in writing allows people to “hide behind” it, becoming absorbed into the commonality of, for example, an “academic identity,” free from social geographic, or national ties” (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 5).

This chapter will also look at students’ identity that may be revealed when writing in a language that is not their home language.

The two research questions that will be focused on are:

1) How do students keep their ‘voice’ in writing?
2) How does students’ selfhood influence their writing?

2 Literature Framework

2.1 Academic Writing

On the one hand, the style of writing has been “defined traditionally as how writers express their ideas in written words” (Given 2020: 214). For writing styles to be

successful, it depends on several characteristics, which are length, text cohesion, and complex sentence structures (Crossley et al. 2014). On the other hand, academic writing normally requires more "elaborate vocabulary and sentence structures than more casual forms of writing" (Staples et al. 2016, Given 2020: 214). Furthermore, academic writing in English is often linked to clarity and conciseness as markers of good writing (Strunk 2018, Graves, 7 October 2019, Given 2020).

In a study conducted by Yoder (2015), it was established that Georgian home language (L1) students' perceptions about rhetorical structures in the L1 claim that they prefer "sophisticated vocabulary and lang[uage] structure" (Given 2020: 216), whereas students whose L1 was Russian felt that they used rich vocabulary and references to great literature (Given 2020: 216). Apparently, these statements made by the students showed how they saw rhetorical conventions in their L1, which helped them view the way they could make sense of rhetorical conventions in written English and they could understand why they made certain rhetorical choices in written English. The reason for bringing up the above-mentioned example has to do with the fact that multilingual students whose home language is not English often need to make sense (e.g. sentence structure, spelling, grammar, etc) of the English language, which can be daunting. Even though no literature tools are used in this study, it needs to be stressed that my students made similar justifications as to how and why they used their L1 in academic writing.

Learning to write is not just a question of developing a set of mechanical orthographic skills; it also involves learning a new set of cognitive and social relations (Tribble 1996, Pfeiffer 2015). In association with good writing, Fulkerson (1996) addresses four terms, which are

1. Formalist perspective: correct and well-organized writing;
2. Mimeticist perspective: factual correctness in content;
3. Expressivist perspective: sincerity, heartfeltness, honesty, authenticity or originality of voice, and
4. Rhetorical perspective**:** persuasion, engagement or interest in one's audience.

Some of these various good writing terms (formalist and expressivist) will be addressed in this article as my students have never used or mentioned all four terms in their remarks as to what good writing is.

Englander (2014) argues that

> English unlike other languages such as (Arabic, Russian and Spanish) is considered to be a writer-responsible language, whereas the other languages are more a reader-responsible language. (ibid.: 60)

The term *writer-responsible language* implies that the author is responsible for the reader's understanding of the text and the term *reader-responsible language* refers to the implicit organization of texts and to the receiver being considered to be an intelligent being who does not need to be carefully guided and have everything explained explicitly (Englander 2014: 58). In association to the "different cultural attitudes to hedging or boosting" (Englander 2014: 29-32), "stating claims, and supporting them, there is also a strong control of language, but also a deep knowledge and awareness of the nuances of the scientific culture" (Broido & Rubin 2020: 88).

Evidence of these claims may be seen when students mention in the discussion section that, when it comes to writing about topics or genres they are not that familiar with, they find writing most challenging.

2.2 Selfhood

Multilingual students are able to recognize that their identity may lead to them being socially constructed individuals that may be exonerated from “full responsibility for the versions of self that they may present in their writing” (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 6). The self that is being referred to here has to do with the various cultures from which the students derive (Ivanic & Camp 2001). In light of this, multilingual writers are able to claim their right to speech or writing depending on their desirable social identities (Yang 2020: 3). Learners are prone to create an imagined identity which they have obtained through their investment in language and literacy activities (Norton 2000, 2013), which may function in such a way where they create a preferred meaning for themselves (Yang 2020: 3).

Ivanic (1998) identifies three interrelated features of culturally available resources that offer the individual freedom and power over their self-representation. The three 'voice' types in circulation are:

1. academic discourse, which refers to the use of the nouns, as well as a (prevalence or lack) of multisyllabic words or linking devices; in addition, the semiotics of a text construction of the writer’s voice relative to the textual norms (syntax, punctuation, grammar, semantics, etc);
2. self-representation, which refers to situations in which the individual could have unique encounters with voice types and their freedom in their institutional setting;
3. selfhood, which may be seen as “patterns of privileging” (Wertsch 1991: 22) where the individual may “exercise the power to conform or resist the social forces that are privileging one voice type over another”.
   (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 7).

The term *voice* can be associated to selfhood because it refers to the expression of the author's own views, authoritativeness and authorial presence: “voice as juice” as it was described by Hashimoto (1987: 70). *Voice* may then be linked to speaking one’s mind or it may be present in students’ writing (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 7). Writing may range from being assertive and authoritative to being tentative and differential to other authoritative sources (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 7). This chapter will focus on the authoritative selfhood that the students displayed in their writing.

2.3 Translanguaging Pedagogy

According to Atkinson (2018)

> second language writing is a practice-oriented field, with two of its key notions being: (1) writing as both process and product; and (2) second language/multilingual student writ-

> ers' needs are substantially different than those of 'native' students, and so must be addressed specifically. (ibid.: 2)

Irrespective of the way the world has become multilingual and the linguistically complex terrains that classrooms have changed into,

> the field of translanguaging remains contested due to the duality of what it stands for: recognising the socially named languages but at the same time going beyond them. (Makalela 2019: 239)

Translanguaging pedagogy has been used to deepen understanding and affirm multilingual students' identities and has been well-established in the field of multilingual education worldwide (Li 2018, Makalela 2017, 2018, Otheguy, Garcia & Reid 2018, MacSwan 2017). However, it is not clear if multilingualism is a norm for contemporary schooling in South Africa or in other multilingual countries around the globe and "a new social order in the postmodern era" (Makalela 2019: 237).

The term *translanguaging*

> originated as a method of teaching where language input and output were alternated between English and Welsh, in order to develop bilingualism as well as associated cognitive benefits. (Probyn 2019: 220).

Garcia (2009) projects translanguaging as operating as an all-terrain vehicle

> whose wheels extend and contract, flex and stretch, making possible, over highly uneven ground, movement forward that is bumpy and irregular but also sustained and effective. (ibid.: 45)

This metaphoric description of the vehicle may be intended to show that even though the movement is "bumpy and non-linear in its movement, there is a logic that enables it to accomplish its task" (Makalela 2019: 239).

Translanguaging may be viewed as stressing the flexible and meaningful actions through which bilinguals select features in their linguistic repertoire in order to communicate appropriately (Valesco & Garcia 2014). Hence, translanguaging is there to assist us in adopting orientations specific to multilinguals where they are able to appreciate their competence on their own terms (Canagarajah 2015). Palfreyman & van der Walt (2017) view translanguaging as having

> both a communicative action by individuals in a variety of situations and a pedagogy, when a lecturer creates opportunities in the classroom for translanguaging to occur. (ibid.: 9)

It appears that the theory and pedagogy of translanguaging may distinguish itself from other language orientations with its "explicit concern with social justice and linguistic inequality" (Poza 2017: 108) and in its advocacy against

> the oppression and marginalization of national and colonial subjects that accompanied the rise of earlier language ideologies. (Sembiante & Tian, 2020: 44).

Translanguaging, or engaging in bilingual or multilingual discourse practices, is more concerned with the practices of "bilinguals that are readily observable' (Garcia 2009:

44). Researchers found that translanguaging which was based on long-studied language practices of multilinguals, such as code-switching, draws “on two different grammatical systems in their utterances. (Gumperz 1982: 3).

While *code-switching* has focused on the issues of language interference, transfer or borrowing, *translanguaging* has focused on how multilinguals

> intermingle linguistic features that have hereto been administratively or linguistically assigned to a particular language or language variety. (Garcıa 2009: 51).

In this light, it appears that translanguaging does not only focus on the spoken language but a variety of communicative modes (Hornberger & Link 2012: 263). In this chapter, translanguaging that students demonstrate in their writing by thinking in one language and writing in another, will be focused on.

With this purpose in mind, translanguaging pedagogy has been found to challenge monolingual instruction and promote social injustice (Garcia & Leiva 2014, Poza 2017, Parra & Proctor 2022: 2). Against this backdrop, Garcıa (2009)

> expanded the scope of translanguaging pedagogy by giving it a critical and transformative turn and also adopted this concept to characterize multilingual language practices outside the classroom. (Lewis et al. 2012: 642)

Hence, it is believed that translanguaging pedagogies were intended to disrupt these strict linguistic separations by arguing that multilingual people do not operate in linguistic isolation (Berthele 2021). It has been stipulated that these pedagogical approaches propose permeable language boundaries that encourage students to use all of their communicative resources when participating in classroom activities (Moll et al. 1992). According to Banda (2018),

> translanguaging is not merely about language mixing and using bits and pieces of language, it is also about infusing local knowledge systems and cultures in pursuit of excellence in teaching and learning in multilingual contexts. (ibid.: 211)

To this end,

> translanguaging pedagogies promote meaningful and transformative literacy practices that recognize and integrate multilingual students’ cultural and linguistic knowledge. (Parra & Proctor 2022: 2.)

Consequently, the present chapter will look into some translanguaging pedagogies that can assist students in academic writing.

3 The Study

3.1 Layout

The present study is a longitudinal one conducted on pre-service teachers at a university in Cape Town (2016: 62 participants; 2017: 74 participants; 2018: 214 participants; 2019: 77 participants). In the first semester (2016 - 2019), students were given a questionnaire to complete on what they thought good writing is as well as the

importance of being able to write well. The students provided written accounts of their responses to the related questions. In the second semester (2016 - 2019) after the students returned from their teaching practice at the school, they were requested to indicate whether their views on good writing had changed or if they remained the same. This also included finding out some of the trends that they had picked up in their learners' writing during their teaching practice.

3.2 Data Analysis

A descriptive theory was used to analyse the data as it tends to be more realistic with regards to second language writing (Grabe 2000): using a descriptive theory offers a

> synthetic review of research, emphasizing elements and conditions that add up to a coherent set of general statements characterizing second language writing as a whole. (Grabe 2000: 40).

In addition, this type of theory is useful in that it provides a common “definitional understanding” (ibid.) of second language writing,

> enabling everything from shared terminology to direct comparison of research findings, to guidance for future research, to better teaching, curriculum design, testing, and program evaluation. (ibid).

Descriptive theories do lay the groundwork for explanatory theories (Atkinson 2018: 4). Grabe & Kaplan (1996: 203) attempted to construct a descriptive theory of writing in general, organizing it around the question: “Who writes what to whom, for what purpose, when, why, where, and how?” (ibid.). At this juncture, it needs to be mentioned that it was necessary to knit pick from the data due to word count.

In association with the descriptive theory, a three-tiered analytic process was employed (Miles & Huberman 1994: 92) whereby:

1. The data sets were prepared and checked for completeness;
2. The information was analysed and themes and categories were identified;
3. The data were synthesised by abstracting possible trends and linking the data to other research insights.

Trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba 1985) was harboured in that themes were identified in the data and the themes were refined accordingly. For example, in recognition of the subjective nature of identifying themes and sub-themes, the coding process was supported by doing word frequency searches and relating words or phrases *in their context* to particular themes. An example of this was a search of the word *flow* and its co-text which showed that it appears in two senses which describes writing from two perspectives:

- It engages the reader and flows effortlessly (from the perspective of the reader)
- Sentences must be coherent; they must flow from one sentence to the next (from the perspective of the writer)

By using this method, it was possible to identify overarching themes with particular sub-themes:

Words	2016	2017	2018	2019
Clear(ly)	25	38	121	43
(in)correct(ly)	8	62	80	60
Easy, easily, ease, easier	0	12	34	35
Grammar / grammatical(ly) / grammer		7	99	59
(ideas, sentences) flow		2	17	32
Effect(ively)			27	25
Structure of text	1	8	63	29
Cohesion / coherence / cohesive(ness)	16	71	16	37
Translate / translation	13	20	43	33

Table 1: Most Prominent Word Searches (2016 - 2019)

In Table 1 we see the word searches that I identified in my data over the four years. The words that I identified above are words that occurred most regularly when students were writing their answers to what they thought is good writing. We notice from the table above that the most prominent words that students used were, clear(ly); (in)correct(ly); cohesion/coherence/cohesive(ness); translate/translation. To give some context the students would write sentences like:

> Good writing is writing that is clearly written.
>
> Good writing are sentences that are written correctly, coherently and you are able to make a good translation from your home language to English.

3.3 Reporting Conventions

The quotations from the student responses are in italics, bulleted with a pen symbol . The students' words are quoted verbatim, without changes from the instructor's side. The words in italics indicate that they were part of the word frequency searches. Some of the verbatim words from the students are also indicative of the fact that the themes and sub-themes are not watertight, meaning that there are some loopholes.

4 Findings

Williams (2006: 11) argues that when we do not know what we are talking about, we tend to "throw up a tangle of abstract words in long, complex sentences". This

statement appears to be true when students' writing is concerned. Other influences that Williams (2006) suggests on unclear writing are “imitating what students think experts want or writing in an unfamiliar area” (Givens 2020: 216). Against this backdrop, Students’ various responses, which have been divided into themes, and subthemes will be analysed to get a better grasp of how students view good writing.

4.1 Student responses to what is good writing: Theme 1 and sub-themes

Below, the various themes and sub-themes that have been identified from some students and their understanding of what good writing entails will be demonstrated. It should be noted that the names of the students are all pseudonyms.

4.1.1 Surface features: spelling, punctuation, grammar

- Correctness / accuracy of language use:

  - Linda wrote[1]:
    Good writing should also be grammatically correct in order to be understood.

  - Judith wrote:
    Good writing is when: You have good grammar, you have good spelling.

  - Thabo wrote:
    Good writing makes use of punctuation, correct grammar, figures of speech, correct spelling.

- Transparency of language (clear, makes sense):

  - Henry wrote:
    Good writing conveys the message of the writer clearly and succinctly.

  - John wrote:
    Good writing is that is grammatically correct, make meaning and sense and has a good spelling.

4.1.2 The Writer’s Responsibility

- Writing style:

  - Louise wrote:
    When the writer is able to write and convey their message or idea in a fluent and readable manner.

  - Structure at the sentence level and above sentence level:

[1] For reasons of anonymity, these names are not students real names but pseudonyms.

- Maxine wrote:
  Flowing from one sentence to the next.
- Rose wrote:
  It must be logical – have a beginning, middle and end.

- Coherence / cohesion;
  - Eric wrote:
    Good writing is writing that is coherent, meaning that it is unified. It has to have flow so that reading is easy and natural.
  - Danny wrote:
    Formulate sentences coherently and effectively.

- Awareness of audience:
  - Andrew wrote:
    As a writer, you must be able to convey meaning in a way that accommodates the target audience.
  - Frances wrote:
    [Good writing] also enables speakers with different dialects of a language to understand what is being said.

- Awareness of genre:
  - Kgabo wrote:
    Good creative writing is distinct from good advertisement writing, for instance.
  - Michelle wrote:
    To make use of a language in a correct way which could be academic or fiction.

- Make sense as a writer to help the reader:
  - Arnold wrote:
    [Writing is good when] you make sense in what you are writing.
  - Henrietta wrote:
    Draw up a plan / mindmap in order to make sense of your thoughts and toput in on paper.
  - Joy wrote:
    The writing makes sense and is not difficult to read.
  - Andre wrote:
    It does not only make sense to you but also to the reader.
  - Maxwell wrote:
    The whole paper should make sense and be grammatical (grammatically correct) and easy to read.

From the responses that the students gave, we get the sense that they had a good idea as to what constitutes good writing. Students acknowledged all the necessary features that we associate with good writing. Even though they knew what good writing entails, they never demonstrated this in their own academic writing. We will now look at some possible reasons why their academic writing may be influenced by the students' home language which is not English:

Year	Yes	No
2016	22	15
2017	22	45
2018	84	130
2019	32	45

Table 2: Do you use your home language when you write?

In the table above, we notice that quite a number of students in 2016 acknowledged that they did use their home language when writing. Although quite a few students in 2017, 2018 and 2019 acknowledged that they did not use their home language when writing in English, there is a contradiction, which will be elaborated on further.

In the question that follows the above-mentioned one, which was "How do you use your home language when you are writing?", most of the students who claimed that when writing in English they were thinking in English, actually answered the second part of the question. The students who wrote that they did not use their home language when writing in English, were not supposed to answer the second part of the question. At this juncture, it needs to be mentioned that not many students at this university are English home language speakers. One of the most common answers that the students gave to this question is as follows:

- Rudy wrote:

  I read the sentence in English and try to reword it in Afrikaans (or figure out what it should be in Afrikaans) in order to get a better understanding of it. I will then re-write it in english.

- Fransie wrote:

  I first think about what I want to say in Afrikaans, then translate it into English.

- Avril wrote:

  For academic purposes, I use English, but I do make use of Afrikaans translations in my head, while writing.

- Choice wrote:

  In my language [isiXhosa] … in order to make a point you must use a series of words. However, when I think I think in my language and quickly translate it into English.

4.1.3 How Do Students Use Their First / Home Language

Students acknowledged that they use dictionaries (at the word level). If there is a word they do not know, then they would look it up in their bilingual dictionary (e.g. English / Afrikaans, English / IsiXhosa or English / isiZulu) depending on whatever their home language is. Students also mentioned that they would structure and plan whatever they need to write in their home language (Afrikaans, isiXhosa, isiZulu, German, Eritrean). There were some students who mentioned that they would summarise the entire text in their home language (e.g. Afrikaans) first and then translate it into English.

The use of students' home or other languages can also be related to time pressure. They answered the question "When do you use the L1?" as follows:

> Always when I get stuck.
>
> When I am writing an exam or a test, I feel under pressure. Then I will write the sentences in English and insert Afrikaans words. Later on, I will go back to those Afrikaans words and replace them with English words.

4.1.4 When is Writing in English Challenging?

Students would mention that writing in English became challenging when they did not know the word in English or when they had to write on a topic that they were not familiar with. Other challenging features that students mentioned were 'finding words' in English, for example in 2016, there were 12 instances, 2017, there were 24 instances, 2018, there were 42 instances and 2019, there were 43 instances.

- Finding words:

  - Tony wrote:
    When I am unsure about certain vocabulary about a certain topic.

- Academic / educational writing:

  Surface elements, mechanics:

  - Anton wrote:
    When it comes to spelling and sometimes grammar. Spellcheck is life.

  Academic conventions:

  - Tumelo wrote:
    When I am required to adhere to certain conventions (specifically in academic settings) that do not make sense to me or seem arbitrary.

  When it comes to academic writing, students made comments as seen above concerning spelling or when they had to adhere to certain conventions when writing in English. For example, they had to consider the subject-verb sequence or the passive voice in writing. According to students, respecting these kinds of

English language rules is key to get one's message across, so that the reader understands what you are trying to say.

4.1.5 Tests

Students mentioned that writing tests and remaining within a certain time frame put considerable pressure on them. In most examination rooms, students are not allowed to take in resources or aids to assist them in looking up words. For the multilingual, it is daunting to shuffle between languages as mentioned by Garcia (2009), but now they must also consider a time frame in which to write.

4.1.6 Creative and Emotional Writing

For many students whose home language is not English, writing about their emotions or doing a creative writing task is a daunting challenge in South Africa. Students whose home language is Afrikaans or one of our African languages do not write about their emotions or do creative writing in their home language. In light of this, students' experience is that they cannot come up fast enough with English words that will complement what they want to bring across to the reader:

- Tsepo wrote:

  Only when I write creatively is it a challenge to think of useful words for adequately describing a situation.

- Dion wrote:

  Writing becomes hard for me when I have to do anything creative.

For students who utter an opinion like these ones, writing creatively is very challenging. It is not that they are not able to write creatively, it is more of a challenge that they have to write creatively in a language which is not their L1. One of the biggest problems students are facing may be the fact that they do not have the vocabulary in English to express themselves properly.

As mentioned earlier on, for many students whose home language is not English, writing about their emotions is a challenge, especially if it is not something they do not do in their home language:

- Jappie wrote:

  When I have to convey ideas linked to emotions (since I am Afrikaans-speaking).

It is not only the Afrikaans-speaking students who face this dilemma of not being able to link their emotions in writing. Psychologists found that people experience emotion when concept knowledge (e.g. knowledge about 'fear') may contribute to the way that L2 / L3 speakers of English may be experiencing when they refer to emotion (Lindquist, MacCormick & Shablack 2015: 2). This implies that L2 / L3 speakers tend to experience some kind of anxiety (linked to fear) when they have to write on something they are not used to doing in their home language, like writing about emotions.

4.2 Perceptions of Good Writing after Practice Teaching

The data analysed above was from the first semester. In the second semester, students had to go to the schools to do their practice teaching for three months. After their return from their practice teaching, they were asked about their experience teaching learners how to write and whether their perceptions of what good writing was, had changed after their practice teaching.

Below are the responses from the students in the four years.

- 2016: 6 of the 14 students said their views had changed.
- 2017: 5 of 39 students said their views had changed.
- 2018: No data could ever be obtained in the second semester.
- 2019: 7 of 29 students said their views had changed.

After students had returned from practice teaching, unfortunately, not many of them participated in the data collection. Thus, the feedback was rather thin. However, the feedback received was enough to get an idea of their experience teaching learners how to write at high school.

Those students who claimed that their views about good writing had not changed qualified their responses by saying something like “No, it hadn’t, but I now realise…”; “I need to lower my expectations…”; “…it matters what level the student is as well…” Although some of their responses were not exactly linked to whether their views on good writing had changed, they demonstrated empathy towards their learners when they realised that their learners could not write proper sentences. The students then understood that the lecturers’ level of their writing was much higher and that they could not have that same expectation on their learners, who were on a much lower level in English than they are. Observing their learners at school made the students ponder on the importance of being able to write well and that they will have to assist the learners in writing once they qualify as teachers.

The problems that students noticed with extended writing at the school level are those they experience as well when it comes to writing. These problems are:

- Surface features – spelling, punctuation, grammar (although many of them said grammar did not seem that important anymore);
- Structure, limited vocabulary, long-winded way of getting to what they want to bring across to the reader, plain and weak language use;
- Limited imagination and creativity.

4.3 Implications for Writing Instructions in a Multilingual Context

As educators, we need to strengthen the teachers’ awareness that translanguaging strategies offer a distinct advantage that teachers should cultivate in learners so that they use them when planning, structuring and revising their writing.

Students take on board the surface and mechanical features that teachers and lecturers often focus on. We need to enhance the features of writing above sentence level (the ‘flow’) that so many of them indicated in their responses.

Time-limited tests and assignments seem to be a big concern, especially when students cannot 'find words' in English. Allowing dictionaries and other resources during tests and examinations should be a serious consideration.

In a similar vein, we should be more tolerant of translanguaging in writing, for example when students use words from other languages, especially in tests and examinations.

5 Conclusions

As stated by Probyn (2019: 232) "Language and learning in multilingual classrooms in South Africa is a topic much debated, yet still unresolved in classroom practice". As researchers, it is our goal to find classroom practices that can assist our teachers in multilingual classrooms.

Students' view of writing is still very formalist in that they focus on correct and well-organized writing (Fulkerson 1996). This is particularly troubling in the case of English Curriculum Studies students, who will probably continue this way of thinking when they become teachers of English. This formalist perspective was seen when students made reference to good writing having good spelling, punctuation, grammar and coherence.

To a lesser extent, we see Fulkerson's (1996) expressivist perspective, with a focus on engaging and entertaining the reader. Students stated that it was problematic when they had to write creatively or write about their emotions. As mentioned earlier on, it is not that students cannot do this kind of writing, it is just more challenging when they have to write in a language that is not their home language. Givens (2020) refers to his students' comments on writing longer sentences which appear to be pretentious and that writing longer sentences in English felt foreign to them (ibid.: 216). The present study, however, suggests that when students examine the conventions of writing in their L1, they often make different choices about how they intend to adapt their writing academic conventions in English. As educators, we need to allow students the freedom to make these kinds of adaptations when they are writing an academic text in English.

With reference to the first research question which is about keeping students' 'voice' in academic writing, the authorial "voice" that Ivanic (1998) refers to came through when students mentioned that they did not have the vocabulary in English to express themselves properly. They would then insert their L1 word when writing and revert back to the word when they either remembered the English word or they would look up the word in the dictionary or the thesaurus. Referring back to this study's findings, students mentioned that when they had to write creatively or about emotions that were not in their home language, this became a problem for them. In this regard, students were not really connected to the English language and this can be seen as a demonstration of their 'voice' coming through. Students even acknowledged that they did not have the vocabulary to bring their thoughts across in their English texts.

The second research question concerned the manner in selfhood that influenced their academic writing. As stated by Ivanic & Camp (2001: 7), selfhood exists where

the individual may either conform or resist social forces that may be privileging one voice type over another. Several students mentioned that they would write an entire text in their L1 (e.g. Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiXhosa) and then translate it into English. In such a situation, the students exploit a direct translation of a text from their L1 to the target language. In this regard, the student privileged one voice type (their L1) over the other (English). As is the case with 'voice', students may not feel this emotional connection to English because it is not their home language. In this sense, the 'self' that some students demonstrate reflects their various cultures and what they regard as acceptable in these cultures (Ivanic & Camp 2001). Selfhood, then, may be seen as "patterns of privileging" (Wertsch 1991: 94) where the individual may exercise the power to "conform or resist the social forces that are privileging one voice type over another" (Ivanic & Camp, 2001: 7).

Ivanic & Camp (2001: 31) suggest that for L2 writing pedagogy, there needs to be a critical awareness about voice in that there is a "sense of self-representation which can help learners maintain control over the personal and cultural identity they are projecting in their writing". They argue that if there is a "critical language awareness-raising then a learner might be able to see the consequences for their own identity of becoming part of voice types" (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 31).

In addition, translanguaging pedagogy should encompass classroom language practices and instructional strategies that recognize and integrate multilingual students' communicative repertoires (e.g. home languages, non-standard varieties, gestures) to ensure that there is active participation and meaningful learning in the classroom (Parra & Proctor 2022: 1). It appears that by stimulating students to draw from their entire communicative repertoire (Canagarajah 2013), translanguaging pedagogy provides opportunities for engagement in meaningful language and literacy practices that may ensure "more equitable learning environments" (Parra & Proctor 2022: 1).

In light of this, the "translanguaging space" that Li (2011: 1) refers to embodies the language choices that multilingual speakers may make which are sensitive towards the language systems they use to achieve their communicative goals. From this study's findings, it can be argued that translanguaging practice should be natural to multilingual speakers and that they are the best candidates to enhance the social sensitivities and cognitive strength needed to achieve their goals at school (Makalela 2019: 241).

Many second/third language speakers of English are consumed by fears of the English language. However, it is important that, as educators, we remind our students that English is a living language which changes and adapts through use and that there are more non-native English writers in the world today than native English writers, as stated by Givens (2020: 218). It will be a good idea if educators keep reminding students that they are not alone in their writing and that they do form part of a larger community that is actively participating in adapting the English language (Givens 2020). Students learning to write in a second language should be able to weigh in on the risks associated with "resisting dominant conventions and patterns of privileging as well as the risks associated with accommodating to them uncritically" (Ivanic & Camp 2001: 31).

We should also encourage students to slow their pace in writing and also to try to concentrate on "individual parts which can create awareness of their writing" (Givens 2020: 215). Flower (1989: 67) rightly states that,

> when the writing task is unfamiliar or complex, it makes sense to help beginning writers break up the problem, allowing them to deal with the reader as a special task or independent process.

Educators should develop teachable strategies for translanguaging, as well as consider some serious issues for assessing the effectiveness of this practice by allowing a place for errors or mistakes in translanguaging (Canagarajah 2015). In addition, we can incorporate translanguaging strategies by opening up the spaces that will allow the recursive process of writing to interplay between the languages a student has (Velasco & Garcia 2014). Furthermore, Garcia (2019: 372) argues that

> translanguaging classroom discourses in themselves cannot transform society, but they can crack the rhythm of steps that take us in only one direction, robbing many students from the opportunities to create their own path to success and freedom.

Finally, translanguaging has paved the way in the educational system that is not "simply a continued mechanism of coloniality, but that makes new paths for others to walk and speak differently" (Garcia 2019: 372). Therefore, we should allow students the freedom to acknowledge their identity and their selfhood in writing. We should not be so strict on students sticking to writing conventions that they are not so familiar with in their L1. Thus, we need to start adapting our curriculum to suit our multilingual students.

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Local Coursebooks as Promoters of Teaching for International Communication? – A Case Study

Stefan Rathert (Kahramanmaraş, Turkey)

1 Introduction

One of the challenges that teachers, materials writers and programme planners face when English as a foreign language (EFL) is taught to children and teenagers is to predict contexts in which learners will use the target language, as their personal, educational and professional paths may not be established (Richards 2017). This challenge is, in particular, significant for coursebook writers, as materials and activities in coursebooks potentially exert "culturally alienating" (Prodromou 1988: 80) effects on learners. Presentations of the target culture as superior and the use of interactions which learners are unlikely to experience render learning materials inauthentic, as they devalue the learning context or lack relevance for learners (Kirkpatrick 2007, Lowe & Pinner 2016). As Pinner (2018: 14) puts it,

> [i]n a rural village of China, how is it possible to 'authenticate' a textbook in which people with British or American accents discuss which night club to visit? (Pinner 2018: 14)

An obvious solution to address these challenges is to relate English language teaching (ELT) to the learners' environment and to include examples of interactions that learners are more likely to experience. Given the status of English as an international language in nearly all domains of life (Alsagoff 2012, Zein 2018, Rose & Galloway 2019), it appears reasonable to design materials in which learners are provided with

> rich, varied and extensive experience of (…) interactions between non-native speakers of English (…) from different parts of the world. (Tomlinson 2016: 59)

Appreciating English as a means to engage in international communication with both native and non-native speakers, this approach counters criticism that has been directed at coursebooks: native speakers are shown as the linguistic model to be achieved and the target language cultures as the system of values to be appropriated by learners to become full members of the community of English speakers (Cook 1998, Lowe & Pinner 2016). Indeed, non-native speakers as users of English have recently been more strongly considered especially in global ELT coursebooks not least to enhance their attractiveness on international markets (Mishan 2021).

2 English for International Communication

2.1 Language Teaching

The appreciation of English as a means to engage in international communication is manifest in different conceptualisations that function as paradigms to explain the internationalisation of English (Rose et al. 2020: 4). Kachru's (1992) model of World Englishes distinguishes between the Inner Circle with states in which English is the dominant native language (e.g. England, USA, New Zealand), the Outer Circle with states that usually share a colonial history resulting in the implementation of English as an institutionalised language and native languages alongside (e.g. India, South Africa, the Philippines), and the Expanding Circle where English is learned and used as a foreign language, i.e. it is not the environmental language (e.g. Chile, Japan or Turkey). This model has been influential as it is based on historical developments that serve as verifiable criteria. Recent criticism, however, points to the danger of setting the English(es) spoken in the Inner Circle as the norm and to the development of English towards a *lingua franca* that is used across circles so that boundaries suggested in the World Englishes model are no longer valid (Rose et al. 2020).

As a reaction to the shortcomings of World Englishes, the model of English as a lingua franca (ELF) has been proposed (Sifakis 2019). Not sticking to varieties of English based on state borders, ELF refers to the English used by speakers with different linguacultural backgrounds. Departing from the status of English as the *de facto lingua franca* in the European Union, early research on ELF focused on what linguistic forms and patterns non-native speakers use with attempts to generate a codified ELF core that was considered to be informative for language learning curricula. Undergoing some transformations as a field of study, ELF has arrived at an understanding that linguistic malformations as measured by native speaker norms may not lead to communicative malfunctioning but mirror how English is used in the world:

> The reality is that in a globalized world the predominant use of English is as international lingua franca and this needs to be taken into pedagogic account if English is to be made a reality for learners. The global learning of English needs to be based on its global use (Seidlhofer & Widdowson 2019: 30).

It should be noted that ELF has been criticised for advocating the exposure of learners to language offering "a bewildering range of alternative options" (Swan 2017: 513). This may put them at risk because the accuracy of their English is likely to be penalised in international exams (Swan 2017), in interaction with native speakers of English (Prodomou 2007) or may result in mutual misunderstanding in communication with speakers from different L1 backgrounds (Prodomou 2008). This argument has been addressed showing evidence for the strategies ELF users employ to overcome potential communication breakdowns (Cogo 2012, Pitzl 2018). As a consequence, it has been argued that ELT practices should be expanded by activities that mirror

> the global sociolinguistic landscape where a denationalized English currently operates (Siqueira 2020: 382)

to raise awareness of the peculiarities of ELF practices among learners and teachers (Sifakis 2019).

A further, more recently developed model is Global Englishes (Rose & Galloway 2019). Bearing some similarities to English as an International Language (McKay 2012) with its interest in the implications of English on society, economy and education rather than on the language itself (Rose et al. 2020: 11), Global Englishes is directed towards an account of how English in the era of globalisation is appropriated by users in their local context and how it changes identities of users that were considered relatively stable in traditional beliefs about language and community (Rose et al. 2020). Attempting to constitute

> an inclusive paradigm looking at the linguistic, sociolinguistic and sociocultural diversity and fluidity of English use and English users in a globalised world (Rose & Galloway 2019: 4),

it seeks to unite the paradigms and appreciates that users of English operate in a multilingual world. The notion of Global Englishes emphasises the role of translanguaging practices in multilingual interaction and provides a rationale for acknowledging and benefitting from the already existing linguistic resources and cultural knowledge users of English bring to international communication and the task of language learning (Meyer 2017, Canagarajah 2018, Li 2022).

In sum, the conceptualisations surveyed share the appreciation that English is spoken in varieties by non-native speakers which depict examples of valid language practices that cannot be devaluated by reference to native speakers' norms (Rose et al. 2020). Thus, the traditional monolingual orientation of ELT that considers native speakers as the 'owners' of English and ignores the linguacultural background of non-native English users is questioned.

2.2 Learning Materials

An outcome of the increasing recognition which the English used by non-native speakers of English in multilingual environments enjoys has stimulated calls to base curricula and materials on ELF contexts and interactions in order to prepare learners to participate in them successfully (Lopriore & Vettorel 2015: 18). ELF / English for international communication can be integrated into materials in several ways. These encompass, for example, the representation of non-native speakers and their culture in coursebook content that transmits linguistic content (Kılıçkaya 2004). This, as Kirkpatrick (2018) shows, may include an account of the cultural diversity of the learning environment with explicit consideration of negative developments in the learners' environments. ELF-aware materials are, by nature, culturally sensitive and provide opportunities to implement conflict-loaded content reflecting different world views and cultural conventions instead of the sanitised language that ELT coursebooks suffer from (Vettorel 2018).

Because of the linguistic challenges inherent in communication in multilingual contexts, the need to consider communication strategy training in materials has been emphasised. These may encompass, for example, backchanneling, utterance completion or employment of non-linguistic resources (Cogo 2012). Translanguaging

practices encompass, for instance, using words of one's own language that the speaker assumes has cognates in other languages (Cogo 2012) or the deliberate implementation of non-English words with explanations to exert a deeper meaning that may not be conveyed in English paraphrases (Siqueira 2020).

Another way of bringing ELF into materials would be to expose learners to speeches delivered by non-native speakers in order to demonstrate that successful communication does not necessitate the pronunciation associated with a native speaker (Bayyurt 2018, Guerra & Cavaheiro 2018, Siqueira 2020). A further aspect to be considered in materials is the variety of situations in which international communication takes place and which learners are likely to experience outside the classroom. Tasks associated with such communicative occasions may encompass situations that are related to travelling, including visits of foreigners in the learners' own town, business meetings or educational exchange programmes (Tomlinson 2016).

For more than a decade, research has examined coursebooks in terms of how the notions of World Englishes / ELF have been integrated into materials by including non-native speakers and their cultures, to what extent extracurricular and possible future uses of English are practised in tasks and whether or not strategies for communication with speakers from different linguacultural backgrounds are covered (for overviews: Lopriore & Vettorel 2015: 14-15, Rose & Galloway 2019: 135-138, Rose et al 2020: 72-75). Studies carried out in different contexts (e.g. China: Hu & McKay 2014, Germany: Syrbe & Rose 2018, Portugal and Turkey: Guerra et al. 2020, Vietnam: Nguyen et al. 2021) show that ELF content is recognised but insufficiently integrated into coursebooks, that tasks preparing learners to participate in international communication are rather sporadically present and that there is no or an insufficient match of materials with learners' current or future English needs. In their analysis of local EFL coursebooks from Brazil, Siqueira & Gonçalves Matos (2018) showed that the coursebooks examined did not explicitly deal with topics related to ELF / English for international communication, but that the content covered in the materials could be expanded to generate ELF-related activities, as the learners' local context alongside examples of English used in the context is included. However, in spite of reference to different cultures and topics having some kind of international relevance, concrete examples of English used by speakers in multilingual settings are exceptions in coursebooks currently used (Guerra et al. 2020, Setyono & Widodo 2019, Syrbe & Rose 2018).

3 The Study

Contributing to the growing body of studies evaluating the suitability of coursebooks as promoters of teaching for international communication, this study aimed at evaluating four local EFL coursebooks produced in Turkey. Considering corresponding guidelines for coursebook evaluation (Rose et al. 2020: 64-72), the study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent are different linguacultural contexts represented in the reading texts of the coursebooks?

2. To what extent do the tasks provided in these coursebooks consider scenarios that exemplify international communication?

In the following sections, information on the examined coursebooks and analysis procedures are given.

3.1 The Coursebooks

In this study, four local coursebooks approved for use at Turkish upper secondary schools were examined:

- *Relearn!* Grade 9 (Karamil & Birincioğlu Kaldar 2019) (henceforth CB 1)
- *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10*, Grade 10 (Genç Karataş 2018) (henceforth CB 2)
- *Silver Lining*, Grade 11 (Akdağ et al. 2019) (henceforth CB 3)
- *Count Me In*, Grade 12 (Çimen et al. 2019) (henceforth CB 4)

All coursebooks have been designed according to the state curriculum (Ministry of National Education 2018) and received approval from the ministry. They are accessible to the public on the Internet and are distributed for free at state schools. While these coursebooks were selected randomly (i.e. without any preliminary assessment), it was decided to analyse four books from different coursebook series (i.e. written by different author teams) and for different grades, so as to include diverse samples of teaching materials used at Turkish upper secondary schools.

All coursebooks are designed based on the principles of Communicative Language Teaching and cover all four language skills. Following the curriculum regulations, the thematic content (e.g. *psychology, news stories, alternative energy*) functions as the macro-level unit of syllabus organisation, and skills, functions and grammar serve as organisational units at the micro level (Richards 2017: 165). In terms of proficiency levels, CB 1 covers A1/A2, CB 2 A2+/B1, CB 3 B1+/B2 and CB 4 B2+ of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in line with the curriculum. The coursebooks consist of student's books, workbooks and audio materials. The respective workbooks were not included in the analysis.

The state curriculum states that

> [f]irst of all, English is seen as a **lingua franca** and **international language** used in today's global world. (Ministry of National Education 2018: 5, emphasis in the original)

The examination was therefore conducive to assessing to what extent the coursebooks fulfilled these regulations concerning the aspects stated in the research questions.

3.2 Analysis

3.2.1 Linguacultural Contexts Covered in the Reading Texts

Informed by procedures followed by Guerra et al. (2020) and Hu & McKay (2014), the linguacultural contexts covered in the reading texts of the respective coursebooks were examined. In this vein, all reading activities inclusive of the texts accompanying them were identified. If a reading activity consisted of two or more texts (e.g. CB 4: 60, with four posters showing charity events), the different parts of these texts were counted as one text. The reading texts were then analysed by identifying the linguacultural backgrounds covered. Based on Kachru's (1992) model, references to the Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle were identified, and the Turkish context was added as a further category. The Turkish context would normally belong to the Expanding Circle but was introduced as another category in the current study because the coursebooks were Turkey-based local ones. Moreover, three further categories were established:

- An intercultural comparison was used to label reading texts, in which cultural differences were explicitly dealt with. For example, in CB 2 (99), four people from the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, the Expanding Circle and the Turkish Circle report on festivals in their countries. The text was accordingly coded with these four circles and the code *intercultural comparison.*

- For a text about the Olympic Games (CB 3: 43), it was necessary to generate a code that was labelled *international* because no reference to a location was given in the text despite the international reference inherent in the text topic.

- Finally, some texts did not refer to any linguacultural context (e.g. CB 1: 20, a poem about friendship). These texts were coded as *no context*. More examples are given in the Result sections.

Using these categories, the reading texts were coded based on their dominant references to people, places or other thematic contexts. A text about a person or people as users of English was referenced as *people*, while a text with a strong focus on a location (e.g. CB 1: 88, about the history of Mesopotamia) was referenced to as *places*. Other thematic content included topics that were not strongly associated with people or places. For example, a news report on the aftermath of an earthquake in New Zealand (CB 1: 113) was coded as a text belonging to *other content* (because the focus was on earthquakes and not on New Zealand), and the Inner Circle was identified as the linguacultural context. As the numbers of reading texts differed in the coursebooks analysed, the percentage of texts displaying linguacultural backgrounds or contexts was calculated.

3.2.2 Scenarios for International Communication and Linguacultural Contexts Covered in Tasks

In the present study, coursebook tasks were examined so as to assess the question of whether or not the coursebooks analysed prepared learners for situations they are likely to experience as users of English outside the classroom. Stemming from Task-based Language Teaching, tasks are work plans with a main focus on meaning in

which learners need to close a gap by employing their linguistic and non-linguistic resources; the tasks have a clear outcome that refers to a communicative purpose (Ellis & Shintani 2014). After a preliminary examination of the coursebooks, it was seen that the tasks hardly matched these strict criteria. For this reason, it was decided to employ a more tolerant framework that defines tasks as an activity in which learners accomplish an outcome by some kind of communication that goes beyond the sole practice of language; tasks may then be a simplified version of real-world activities or activities designed for the classroom but with relevance for the acquisition of real-life skills (Tomlinson 2012).

To evaluate a task, four criteria were applied (Syrbe & Rose 2018): it was examined if:

- the tasks were simulations of situations exemplifying international communication,
- if they contributed to the development of pragmatic awareness conducive to participating in communication with speakers of other languages,
- if the tasks aimed at raising cultural awareness, and
- if more specific EFL skills (e.g. utterance completion, backchanneling, asking for clarification) were trained.

As was done for the reading texts, linguacultural contexts covered in these tasks were identified.

The whole analysis was conducted by the researcher twice so as to provide intra-rater reliability. Between the two analysis rounds, there was approximately three weeks' time to avoid coding based on the memory of previous coding (Schreier 2012: 167). A few differences in codes between the first and second coding were discussed with a colleague who has expertise in coursebook evaluation. For example, as an outcome of the consultation with this colleague, a reading text in which two people, called Carlos and Maria, talked about reality shows "in our country" (CB 1: 125) was coded as 'other thematic content' with reference to the Expanding Circle based on the Spanish sounding names.

4 Results

The results of the present study are presented in four sections. First, the findings for the linguacultural contexts referring to people, locations and other thematic content in the reading texts are presented. Then, the findings for the tasks are shown. Illustrating examples from the coursebooks allow suggestions to improve the materials.

4.1 Linguacultural Backgrounds in Reading Texts Related to People

Figure 1 shows the findings about linguacultural backgrounds in reading texts related to people. Included were texts that were either about people or in which people reported content related to their own lives:

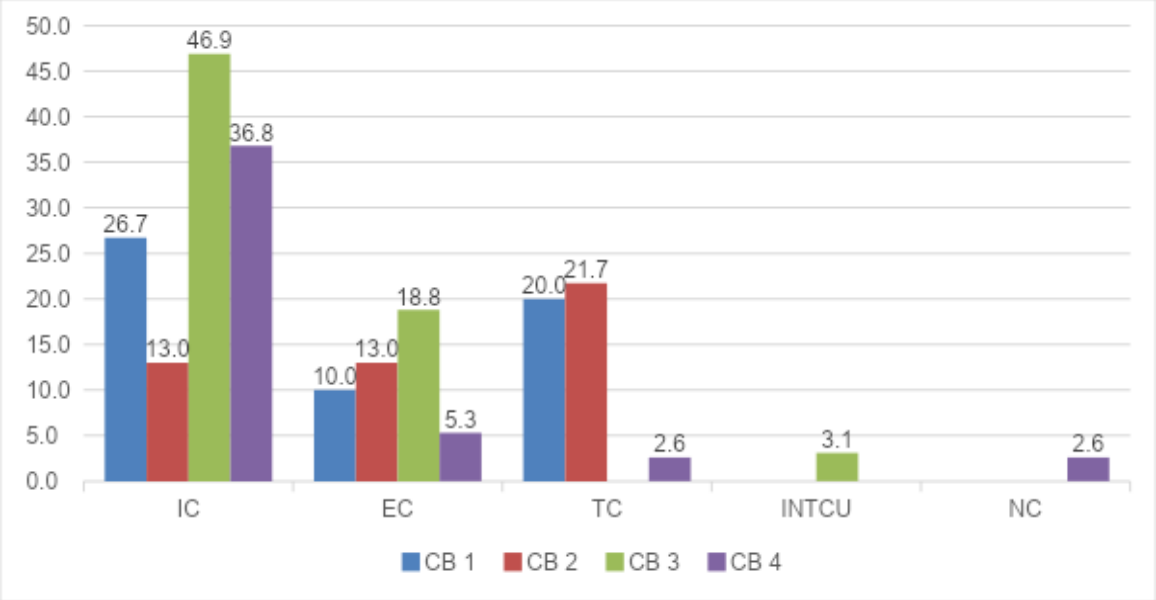

Figure 1: Distribution of Linguacultural Contexts in Reading Texts Related to People (in %)
(Legend: IC = Inner Circle; EC = Expanding Circle; TC = Turkish context; INTCU = intercultural; NC = no context)

The results show that people coming from the Inner Circle are present in nearly half of the reading texts in CB 3. Similarly, in CB 1 and CB 4, texts with people from this context are the most strongly represented group. CB 2 is different from the other coursebooks, as texts with people from the Turkish context are more frequent than texts with people from any other context.

The following reading text from the 9th grader coursebook shows an example of a person coming from the Turkish context:

> My name is Ali Özkan. I'm from Turkey and I live in Izmir. I'm 16 years old. I've got a sister. She is 13 years old. My parents are doctors. I've got a big family. My grandfather is dead. My grandmother is a retired teacher. She is 70 years old and she's got a dog and a cat. My grandmother, my uncle, aunt and cousins live in Rize. (CB 1: 12)

Even though this coursebook character's linguacultural background and age fit the target learner group, the text does not contain any culturally sensitive information. It would be possible to change the name of the person and the location so that the person could be a member of any other linguacultural context.

A more context-sensitive text can be found in the 11th grader coursebook, in which in a recurring section called *Culture Corner*, two teenagers report on their plans for a gap year (CB 3: 19). Jack from the UK and Chloe from Australia tell the reader that they are going to work as a ski instructor in Argentina and an English teacher in Zambia, respectively. Apart from the fact that the topic Gap Year has some relevance for learners at upper secondary schools, the two teenagers give some detailed information about payment, accommodation and activities to be done. The texts provide some connections to English for international communication, as both teenagers will probably use English during their gap year when talking to people from other linguacultural backgrounds. The reading texts could have been made more ELF-prone by selecting a teenager from the Expanding Circle planning to spend his gap year

abroad (not necessarily in the Inner or Outer Circle) to demonstrate to the coursebook users an occasion where English is used as a *lingua franca*.

4.2 Linguacultural Contexts in Reading Texts Related to Places

Figure 2 shows the distribution of linguacultural contexts in texts that deal with places. Texts about places are less present in the coursebooks as compared with texts about people:

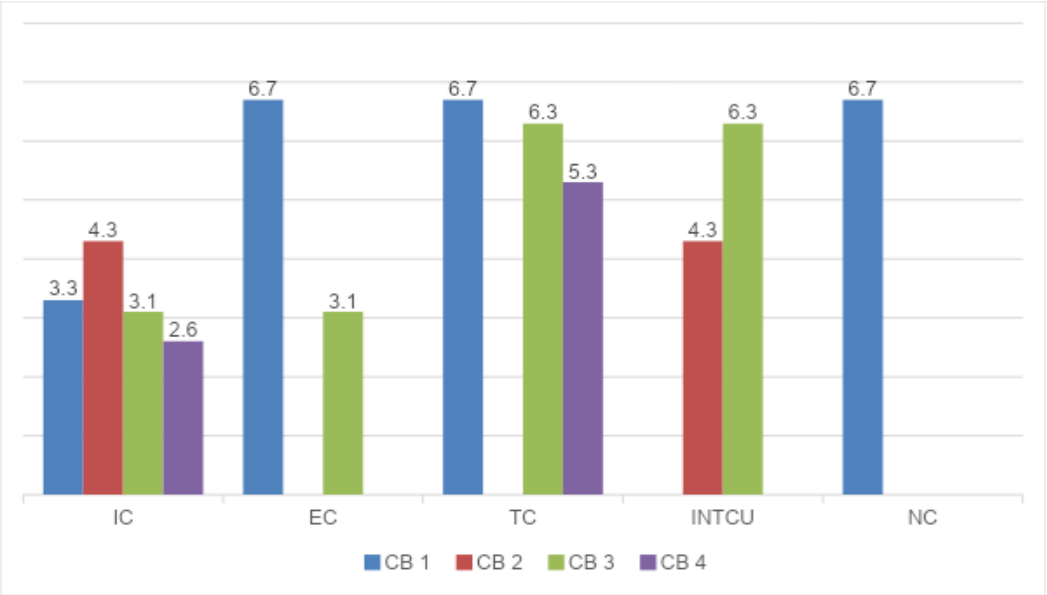

Figure 2: Distribution of Linguacultural Contexts in Reading Texts Related to Places (in per cent) (Legend: IC = Inner Circle; EC = Expanding Circle; TC = Turkish context; INTCU = intercultural; NC = no context)

As can be seen here, texts dealing with places in the Inner Circle did not occur in the coursebooks frequently. The Turkish context, the expanding Circle and, paradoxically, texts about places that cannot really be located, dominate in the 9th grader coursebook, while those texts that invite the learners to make some kind of intercultural comparison are only given in CB 2 and CB 3.

A text about a place that cannot really be located is given in the next example:

> Our town is older and more beautiful than the neighbouring towns. There is a square in the town centre. It's called Market Square because there is a market there every morning. Once a year there is a folk festival in Market Square, too.
>
> The statue is the symbol of the square. It stands in the middle of a pond and people throw coins in that pond. It is the statue of the last mayor of the town. Everyone liked him very much because he treated townspeople fairly and equally. When you look at the apartment buildings in the square, you would like to live in one of them. They are famous for the best view in the town.
>
> At the end of the square, there is a museum. There are old photographs of the town in it. All the shops and houses were smaller than they look now. There weren't any restaurants in the square then, but now there are some great restaurants. Opposite the restau-

> rants, there is a theatre, a bookshop and a hairdresser's. The Opera House is on the corner of the square. Next to the Opera House, there is a hotel and behind them, there is a car park in the Castle Street. Castle Street is a pedestrian street with a lot of shops; music shops, clothes shops and shoe shops. When you turn right from Castle Street, you will see the park between the train station and the bus station. (CB 1: 25)

Neither in the text nor in the surrounding reading activities is any hint given that may tell the reader where the town actually is located. The only personal reference is given right at the beginning of the text when the unknown writer calls the place *Our town*. It is an idealised town that offers facilities for shopping (*music shops, clothes shops, shoe shops*), cultural activities (*museum, Opera House, the statue of a once highly appreciated but unnamed mayor*) and public transport (*train station, bus station*). In short, this text describes a place that apparently does not create any conflict. The coursebook writers are not really interested in telling the story behind this town, including its unpleasant parts, but they present a text that contains the language needed to describe places. In terms of preparing learners for international communication, a text could be provided in which an exchange student from the Inner, Outer or Expanding Circle writes about his or her town, what he or she likes and dislikes about it, and then asks Turkish learners to write a similar text about their own location because they will visit them. This would make the text more realistic and interesting, and it would probably encourage learners to communicate relevant information about their own town.

4.3 Linguacultural Contexts in Reading Texts Related to Other Thematic Content

Figure 3 shows the results concerning texts dealing with thematic content different from people and places:

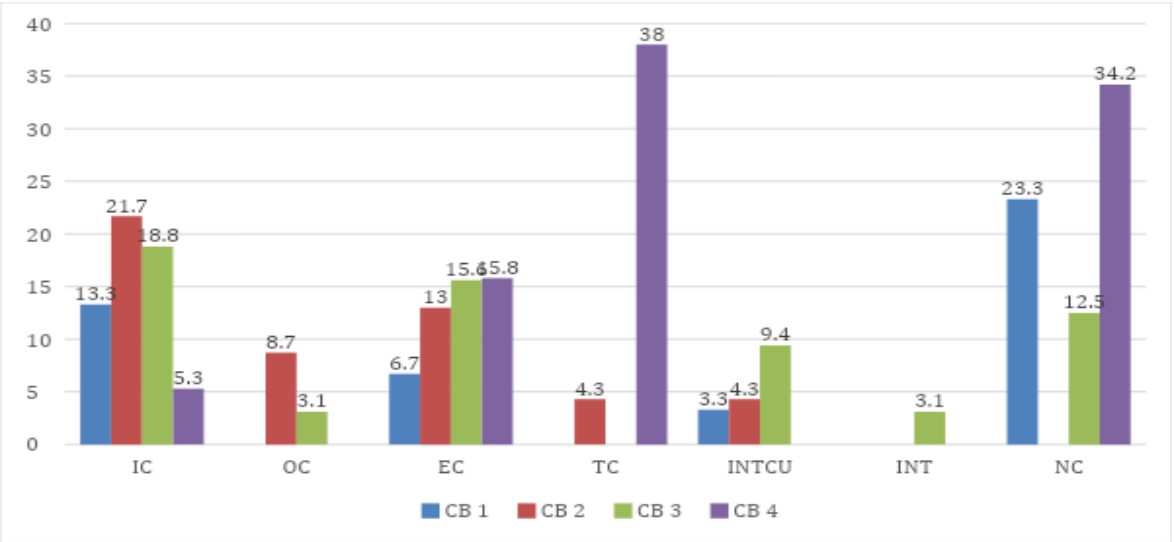

Figure 3: Distribution of Linguacultural Contexts in Reading Texts Related to Other Thematic Content (in percent) (Legend: IC = Inner Circle; EC = Expanding Circle; TC = Turkish context; INTCU = intercultural; NC = no context)

All coursebooks cover the Inner Circle and the Expanding Circle. Unlike the other coursebooks, CB 4 contains a considerable number of texts that are related to the Turkish context or do not refer to any local context. The latter result is expectable given that the 12th grader coursebook contains more texts referring to academic content (e.g. psychology, technology), which may not necessitate reference to a linguacultural context.

Below, an example is shown for a text that has no reference to a linguacultural context in spite of dealing with a cultural theme:

> There are many important things in life. Each person should take time for learning, growing, loving and exploring. Everyone should take time for celebration because celebration makes our culture richer and adds excitement and fun to life.
>
> Celebrations can happen for many formal and informal reasons. Probably most people have gone to celebrations in honour of someone's birthday, wedding or the birth of a new baby. Human beings love to celebrate the best things in life. There is no need to have a very big occasion to celebrate. Celebrations of all kinds make life more meaningful because life for most of us is routine. A holiday for a birthday celebration changes our daily routine.
>
> Family celebrations, such as holidays, bring joyful holiday occasions for all. When families get together, they talk and increase their love for one another.
>
> We love religious days and festivals. It is time to visit elderly people and show respect. Religious and national festivals teach younger generations a lot. They learn unity and friendship, helpfulness and being generous.
>
> We relax during celebrations and celebrations make us remember the most important thing in life. That is spending time with the people we love.
>
> If we have celebrations, we can keep our traditions alive. (CB 1: 113)

This reading text is not unambiguously associated with a specific linguacultural context. The first person plural used throughout the text suggests that the writer refers to the theme of Celebrations in the Turkish context. This is supported when reference is given to religious and national festivals and the need to address elderly people respectfully; all these conventions play a significant role in Turkish society. However, at no point, a reference to a specific context is given, and the occasions listed in the second paragraph apply to many contexts. Given that dealing with culture in ELF-aware foreign language teaching aims at fostering awareness of the diversity of cultural conventions, this text can be seen critically as in a very authoritative voice the following claim is made: "We love religious days and festivals" (CB 1: 113). In fact, the avoidance of naming a cultural context contributes to the message of the passage, as the significance of celebrations appears universal and undebatable.

A different approach to the topic of Festivals and Celebrations has been selected in the 10th grader coursebook (CB 2: 99): A text displayed in the design of an Internet forum about festivals around the world shows the contributions of five English speakers coming from all circles of the World Englishes. The reading activity later leads to a task in which learners have to do research about a festival of their own choice and present their findings.

4.4 Scenarios and Linguacultural Contexts in Tasks

As explained in Section 2.2.2, no tasks were identified that met the criteria of Task-based Language Teaching (Ellis & Shantani 2014). Instead, most tasks were designed according to the presentation-practice-production pattern or consisted of guided role plays, as cues with content to communicate were provided. A great number of tasks require students to prepare presentations (through e-portfolios and video blog sections in CB 2). Consequently, strategies for engagement in interactions with speakers from different linguacultural backgrounds or activities to raise ELF awareness are not documented in the coursebooks. Intercultural awareness is addressed in the form of tasks related to traditions and festivals of foreign countries around the world (CB 2); sports events (CB 3) and regular activities on English proverbs and their equivalences in Turkish (CB 2, CB 3) are implemented. The Turkish context is also considered in CB 2 and CB 3 through tasks in which learners work on legendary people and Turkish traditions.

At times, the textbooks offer tasks designed to simulate an international setting, but it remains unclear how the activities may contribute to the learning of English for international communication. For example, in a role-play, learners are asked to have a conversation at an airport: Student A lives in Berlin and Student B lives in Venice, and learners are assigned to inform their partners about their cities. The provided cue cards read as follows:

> **German people:** punctual, cold, hard-working, and disciplined
> They love to plan things. They try to keep everything clean and tidy.
>
> **Italian people:** cheerful, happy, active, and musical
> They love talking in a loud voice or shouting. They use their arms and body while they are talking. (CB 1: 74, emphasis in the original)

Apparently, despite the international communicative interaction which includes language users of the Expanding Circle, this activity does not contribute to the development of intercultural awareness but reinforces stereotypes about specific groups.

A more reasonable and potentially ELF-aware task is shown in this example:

> Work in groups of 4 and make a travel plan.
> Imagine that you are organizing a three-day vacation for your classmates.
> Choose a city in Turkey and do research on the Internet.
> Decide when and how you want to go there and where you want to stay.
> Include the places you want to visit and the activities you want to do there.
> Make a travel plan together and present it to the class next week. Start as follows. *We want to go to Istanbul for three days next month. We're planning to go there by plane and stay at a resort. On the first day, we are going to visit the Topkapı Palace after breakfast…*
> Vote for the best travel plan. (CB 2: 65)

The reason why this task is only potentially ELF-aware is the imagined target group for the three-day vacation: Why should learners use English to organise and present a trip in Turkey for their own classmates? Asking them to organise such a trip for

exchange students would authenticate the task, as exchange programmes are a real opportunity for Turkish learners to use English as their *lingua franca*.

5 Discussion and Conclusions

This study examined four local coursebooks approved for use at Turkish upper secondary schools in order to assess their suitability to promote international communication. The analyses focused on reading texts and tasks. The results show that different linguacultural backgrounds are integrated into the coursebooks, however, to varying degrees. CB 2 and CB 3 appear to consider ELF-related content more strongly than CB 1 and CB 4. Selected samples from reading texts and tasks indicate that learners are not sufficiently prepared for the use of English with speakers of other languages. Measured by the regulations of the state curriculum (Ministry of National Education 2018: 5), the coursebooks are only partly ELF-informed.

On the whole, the results of this study are in line with other studies evaluating local ELT coursebooks in Turkey (Atar & Erdem 2020, Guerra et al. 2020, Solhi et al. 2021) and elsewhere (Hu & McKay 2014, Syrbe & Rose 2018, Nguyen et al. 2021). Specifically related to the coursebooks analysed, it can be said that, while cultural diversity and intercultural topics are not absent in the materials, English language learners are not extensively put into the role of an “intercultural speaker” (Siqueira 2018: 196). Particularly CB 1 contains examples of superficial, uncritical representations of culture suggesting that all members of a linguacultural community share the same cultural identity and stick to the same conventions (Byram & Wagner 2018). These aspects indicate that the coursebooks do not sufficiently promote intercultural awareness.

A further problem is that neither reading the texts nor the tasks are constructed in such a way that they simulate possible occasions in which the target group, Turkish learners at upper secondary schools, can use English. Even though the coursebooks offer content that can be communicated, the authors do not consider opportunities for potential English use outside the classroom (Atar & Erdem 2020: 412). Those opportunities may be situations in which learners help foreigners visit their local environment, travel to foreign places for touristic or educational purposes or happen to communicate with foreigners at ‘international’ locations such as airports (Tomlinson 2016). It is therefore the teachers’ assignment to create opportunities for transforming EFL coursebook materials into EFL-aware activities (Siqueira & Gonçalves Matos 2018). Some recommendations were given in the analyses of specific materials.

The findings of the study need to be read against the backdrop of the following limitations. First, only two components of the coursebooks were analysed. The examination of other coursebook components (writing, speaking, listening, and exposure to varieties of English) would draw a more exact picture of the coursebooks’ suitability to promote teaching for international communication. Second, the coursebooks were local ones. Authors of local coursebooks are not equipped with the funds and professional support usually provided by worldwide operating publishers. It may, for example, be difficult to implement authentic materials documenting the language production of EFL users. Also, authors of local ELT coursebooks need to take into

account that the coursebooks are delivered at state schools and can be downloaded for free. These circumstances and the fact that they are subject to the approval of ministries of education may encourage authors to design more traditional EFL coursebooks and to avoid innovative texts and activities in order not to jeopardise the approval of their coursebook (Kovaç & Šebart 2019). Another aspect, which indicates areas for further research, is to ask in how far authors of local coursebooks (in Turkey or elsewhere) are informed about the design of ELF-aware materials and to what extent their knowledge base contributes to the integration or omission of appropriate texts and activities.

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Linguistic Landscapes in Sri Lankan Suburbs – A Study of Multilingualism in Nugegoda and Mount Lavinia

Nadeera Wijegoonewardene (Colombo, Sri Lanka)

1 Introduction

The field of linguistic landscapes represents a vastly developing interest for many linguists. The idea that one could observe and analyse the surroundings of any geographical context and interpret the visibility of different languages, opens up and broadens the discussion on what one could study about the languages which are used and visible in a certain location, thus enabling linguists to research language contact in different linguistic landscapes.

Several linguists have provided varied definitions of linguistic landscapes. However, for the purposes of this chapter, two definitions will be discussed that capture the basic concept of the above term *linguistic landscape*. Many academics refer to the popularized definition of this term provided by Landry & Bourhis:

> The language of public road signs, advertising, billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration. (1997: 25)

The above definition elaborates greatly on what the academics identify as different types of signs or advertising containing text. Backhaus, on the other hand, provides the following definition. For him, a linguistic landscape is “any piece of text within a spatially definable frame” (2007: 66). His definition thus broadens the scope of the above concept by not being selective about the type of signs that should be admissible.

Against this background, it appears to be highly promising to conduct a linguistic landscape study of urban Colombo in Sri Lanka. Most studies of linguistic landscapes discussed later, appeared to focus on cities in different countries, as this approach allowed for monolingual as well as multilingual presence. Thus, this paper will observe the linguistic landscapes of two suburbs in urban Colombo. The two suburbs, Nugegoda and Mount Lavinia (also referred to as Mt. Lavinia) are both densely populated areas that present interesting dynamics due to their positioning in the commercial capital of Sri Lanka.

This paper will first summarize the sociolinguistic backdrop of Sri Lanka, its legislation on language policy, academic reflections and previous studies of linguistic landscapes, which aptly portray the field, concluding on the hypothesis and research

questions of the study. The Methodology Section will discuss the process by which the data were collected and processed, while also discussing the challenges and limitations of the study. The Results and Discussion Section will present the data analysed according to the overall frequencies of three variables looked into more closely and also discuss idiosyncrasies and the presence of English in a more qualitative manner.

2 Theoretical Background

2.1 Sri Lanka's Sociolinguistic Background

Sinhala or Sinhalese is an Indo-Aryan language spoken by the Sinhala community as well as other ethnicities living in Sri Lanka. Tamil is a Dravidian language spoken by different Tamil communities all across Asia and the Globe. Although the varieties of Tamil differ, they are considered to be mutually intelligible. English in Sri Lanka has a unique position. It is spoken as a first, second as well as a third language on the island (Mendis & Rambukwella 2010: 181).

English in Sri Lanka can be traced back to the nineteenth century. It was declared a Crown colony in 1802 (Mendis & Rambukwella 2010: 181). Like many of its neighbouring South Asian countries, being under British rule, Sri Lanka employed English as the working language of the then-British Empire government. Although Sri Lanka gained independence in 1948, English functioned as the country's *de facto* official language until 1956. At the time, the government created a questionable and problematic 'Sinhala-only' policy throughout the island, which gave birth to several complex and nuanced socio-political and economic challenges for years to come.

Currently, Article 18 of the Sri Lankan Constitution provides for the official language policies in the country as follows,

> Sri Lankan Constitution, Art18, Sec (1):
>
> 18. (1) The Official Language of Sri Lanka shall be Sinhala.
>
> (2) Tamil shall also be an official language.
>
> (3) English shall be the link language.
>
> (4) Parliament shall by law provide for the implementation of the provisions of this Chapter.

However, Articles 22 and 23 respectively provide for the languages of administration and the languages of legislation which note that a person is in fact entitled to receive communications, transact business, examine official documents, as well as publication of legislature to appear in Sinhala, Tamil and English. Similarly, Article 24 provides for the languages of the court:

> Sri Lankan Constitution, Art 24, Sec (10):
>
> 24. 10[(1) Sinhala and Tamil shall be the languages of the Courts throughout Sri Lanka and Sinhala shall be used as the language of the courts situated in all the areas of Sri Lanka except those in any area where Tamil is the language of administration. The record and proceedings shall be in the language of the Court…

However, higher judicial courts such as the Court of Appeals, and the Supreme Court as well as the judicial and legal field function primarily in English. This leaves behind a vastly ambiguous description of English in Sri Lanka, as many can attest. One may assume that it is a link between different communities but in reality, English has a pervasive stronghold in most socio-political aspects of Sri Lanka. The prestige and cultural capital associated with English in Sri Lanka have been well documented (Parakrama 1995, 2010, Kandiah 2010, Mendis & Rambukwelle 2010, Rambukwelle 2018). The corporate sector, the advertising industry and the media extensively use English as a form of prestige that locals accept.

2.2 Colombo Suburbs

2.2.1 Nugegoda

Nugegoda is a densely populated suburb in Colombo, which is home to many ethnicities, among which the majority community is prominently visible. It also contains commercial enterprises, with many clothing stores and other shopping outlets.

The table below provides the divisional secretary's division (Sri Jayawardenepura Kotte)[1], to which Nugegoda belongs. The table below can shed light on the ethnic communities that live within this area. The existence of different ethnic communities implies the usage of multiple languages as well as varieties in Mount Lavinia:

Ethnicity	Population	%
Sinhalese	91,268	84.9
Sri Lankan Tamil	7,503	7.0
Indian Tamil	801	0.7
Sri Lankan Moor	5,207	4.8
Burgher	1,049	1
Malay	710	0.7
Sri Lankan Chetty	72	0.1
Bharatha	58	0.1
Other	840	0.8
Total (Nugegoda)	107,508	100

Table 1: Divisional Secretary's Division, 2012: Sri Jayawardenepura Kotte

[1] Although the author of this chapter did not have access to the exact number of inhabitants and the communities present within the suburbs, the present study makes use of the data pro- vided by the Census and Statistics Department of Sri Lanka in 2012, which, unfortunately, was the most recent publication of the census reports to be found. It presents population statistics per divisional secretary's divisions, which encompass the suburbs.

2.2.2 Mount Lavinia

Mount Lavinia is a densely populated suburb in Colombo, which is also well known for tourism and its nightlife. It features as a favourite travel destination for foreigners who stay in Colombo due to the popular 'Golden Mile' beach strips it possesses, and, due to its positioning, contains a lot of colonial history. It is home to a mixture of different communities. The suburb of Mt. Lavinia interestingly straddles two divisional secretary's divisions, the Dehiwala and the Ratmalana division. The tables below provide the ethnic demography of the two divisions for the reader to understand the variety of ethnic communities that preside in the suburb of Mt. Lavinia:

Ethnicity	Population	Percentage
Sinhalese	53,182	60.5
Sri Lankan Tamil	12,917	14.7
Indian Tamil	1,240	1.4
Sri Lankan Moor	17,870	20.3
Burgher	1,429	2
Malay	545	0.6
Sri Lankan Chetty	73	0.1
Bharatha	60	0.1
Other	518	0.6
Total	87,834	100

Table 2: Dehiwala

Ethnicity	Population	Percentage
Sinhalese	75,181	79
Sri Lankan Tamil	7,852	8.3
Indian Tamil	855	0.9
Sri Lankan Moor	9,005	9.5
Burgher	1,180	1.2
Malay	557	0.6
Sri Lankan Chetty	66	0.1
Bharatha	20	0.02
Other	446	0.5
Total	95,162	100

Table 3: Ratmalana

As can be seen above, both suburbs have a majority of Sinhalese communities. However, Mt. Lavinia presently has more minority communities than Nugegoda. Obviously, since the data are quite dated the numbers might shift, but they still offer the opportunity to connect the inhabitant communities to the linguistic landscape they live in.

2.3 Previous Studies on Linguistic Landscapes

In their study, Landry & Bourhis (1007) provide us with an amalgamated set of data from multiple studies on several provinces of Canada, such as Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, Newfoundland, Labrador, Ontario and British Columbia. They mainly focused on francophone students using questionnaires and tests, making an attempt to "verify empirically the relationship between linguistic landscape and specific aspects of vitality beliefs, ethnolinguistic identity, and language behaviour in multilingual settings" (Landry & Bourhis 1997: 36). Landry & Bourhis quote Verdot (1979) and Corbeil (1980) as having been language planners, the former in Belgium and the latter in Quebec, who recognized the importance of marking the boundaries of linguistic territories by the regulation of language use on public signs, which included billboards, street signs and commercial signs, which was initially observed by Leclerc in 1989 (1997: 24).

Gorter (2006: 2) comments on linguistic landscapes as the study of "use of language in its written form in the public sphere" (ibid.). He continues to note that "the number of linguistic tokens is especially high in the shopping areas in cities" (ibid.). In addition, he makes the distinction that he prefers referring to the above phenomena as *linguistic cityscapes*. We will, however, rely on Landry & Bourhis (1997) and Backhaus (2007) to use the term *linguistic landscape* to describe and analyse the situation in the selected suburbs of Colombo, Sri Lanka.

Backhaus (2007) delves into the linguistic landscape of urban Tokyo's multilingualism. He picks 29 stations of the Yamanote line, a circular railway line connecting Tokyo's major city centres (ibid.: 65). In his basic results, he notes that multilingual signs were 20.7% in total and 24.1% on average per survey area, observing that apart from Japanese, 14 other languages were identified on the sample signs, English being the language of highest frequency among all the foreign languages (Backhaus, 2007: 69-71). Backhaus' qualitative as well as quantitative approach enables him to dive deep into the nuances of code preference, visibility, idiosyncrasies and layering. He particularly comments on the relationship between Japanese and English, noting that

> the texts on the signs of the sample provide many examples of both Japanese influenced uses of English and English influenced uses of Japanese, depending on which of the two functions as the matrix language. (Backhaus 2007: 144)

An interesting point to note is his observation of Chinese and Korean presence in the study. Backhaus (2007: 144) adds that:

> the occurrence of Japanese-Chinese hybrids in the linguistic landscape of present-day Tokyo, in some sense is reminiscent of the early days of writing in Japan.

But he also reminds us that 80% of the signs found in Tokyo were monolingual Japanese signs, which reveals that Tokyo is still a city that predominantly functions in one language (ibid.: 145).

Cenoz & Gorter (2006) focus on the linguistic landscape of two streets in two multilingual areas in Friesland (Netherlands) and Basque Country (Spain). The paper examines the functioning of the respective minority languages Basque and Frisian on language signs with respect to the state languages of Spanish and Dutch, respectively, as well as English. The authors focus on the "relationship between linguistic landscape and the sociolinguistic context", noting that the linguistic landscape could be considered as "an additional source of information about the sociolinguistic context along with censuses, surveys or interviews" (ibid.: 67). The authors simply selected two specific streets from the two locations and collected the data from digital pictures taken from all texts seen on the street. Thereby in Friesland (Ljouwert), Dutch was the language that was most prominently featured, followed by English as the second language and Frisian with marginal presence. The Basque country or more specifically Donostia featured Spanish as the first language, Basque as the second and English as the third language (ibid. 2006: 78). The authors extensively discuss the respective minority languages and their position in active language policies in two different countries. They claim that there are more signs in Basque than in Frisian, which is reflected in strong language policies to protect the minority language on the linguistic landscape:

> The top-down signs designed by the Town Hall as well as commercial signs, the use of Basque in writing indicate a much higher use than the use of Frisian, although Frisian is stronger as a language of oral communication. (Cenoz & Gorter 2006: 78)

Another remarkable finding of the study is the position of English in both locations, particularly Donostia's shift from French to English as a language of international communication (ibid.: 78). Overall, the study observes how the linguistic landscapes in these two areas have both informative and symbolic functions in a socio-political context and give us an impression of the importance of linguistic landscapes and their relationship with linguistic policy in multilingual contexts (ibid.: 67-80).

Huebner (2006) in his study "Bangkok's Linguistic Landscapes: Environmental Print, Codemixing and Language Change" examines 15 Bangkok neighbourhoods "to explore questions of language contact, language mixing and language dominance" (ibid.: 31). Huebner notes that Smalley (1994) provides a "useful taxonomy of languages in Thailand", but claims that his study challenges "Smalley's claim that English in the public space is directed at foreigners" (2006: 33-34). The author stresses that there is a more nuanced degree of linguistic variation across Bangkok neighbourhoods:

> An examination of signs from government sources versus those from the private sector points out the discrepancy between official government language policy and the language use patterns practised within the city's various communities and promoted by the commercial sector. (Huebner 2006: 49).

These observations regarding the complexities of linguistic variation and the use of English in public spaces tend to be true for the Sri Lankan context. Huebner's argumentation against Smalley's west-centric discussion of English usage, in partic-

ular, is applicable to Sri Lanka. The author points out the linguistic diversity of a metropolitan area such as Bangkok as well as evidence of a shift over time from Chinese to English as "the major language of wider communication in the city" (Huebner 2006: 50).

Shang & Guo (2017) discuss the linguistic landscape of Singapore by addressing "how the grassroot individuals construct symbolic meanings and address linguistic complexity in the ethnically heterogeneous society" (ibid.: 186). Their findings indicated that English was the 'go-to language' of choice when it came to shop name signs irrespective of whether they were monolingual, bilingual or multilingual. They also noted that Chinese was:

> [t]he preferred language code on bilingual signs, and that shops preferred using traditional Chinese characters contrary to official policy promoting simplified Chinese characters, and that Malay and Tamil, despite being official languages had a low presence in shop signs. (Shang & Guo 2017: 193-194)

Several academics refer to the useful nature of Google Street View as a form of data collection in the field of linguistic landscapes. Gorter 2018: 302) refers to a myriad of methodological issues and concerns in the field and quotes scholars, such as Blackwood (2015: 41), who consider the idea of using Google Street View as a form of large data collection. He also notes that Google Street View and similar mapping applications make it possible for academics to present data in a more transparent manner. Gorter (2018: 302) points at two possibilities to create this transparency, "one way is to insert the GPS coordinates of longitude and latitude and another solution is to use a short URL from Google Street View".

However, Seong-Yun Hong (2020) conducted a study on linguistic landscapes from a geographical perspective. The author made use of Kakao Maps in order to investigate a particular linguistic landscape. Hong notes:

> The purpose of this paper is to develop a new methodological framework for exploring linguistic landscapes captured in street-level images. The proposed method utilizes computer vision and machine learning techniques to assess the diversity of languages visible in each scene. As will be demonstrated with an example of a small Chinese community in Seoul, South Korea, it can reveal the spatiotemporal pattern of linguistic variations effectively and provide insights into the demographic composition as well as social changes in the neighbourhood. (Hong 2020: 2)

However, he admits that the methodology he utilized is still at a conceptual stage, and hints at the larger implications of using Google Street View for the field of linguistic landscapes. In his study, he focused on an ethnic neighbourhood called Garibong-dong in Seoul and collected street-level images utilising Kakao Road View (one of the most popular online map services available in the country, Kakao Map) (Hong 2020: 3-4). Hong's study employs complex strategies using Google Vision API in order to analyse the images, and conveys results that indicate the decrease in the presence of dominant Korean signs and the higher visibility of Chinese in the specific study area from 2008 to 2018 (Hong 2020: 9).

Although there exist many references to the possibility of conducting a linguistic-landscape study based on Google Street View, the author of the present paper was, unfortunately, unable to find entire studies relying on Google Street View when

working on this study. Thus, we rely entirely on Google Street View in order to collect the data required for this paper. Taking the above discussion of the sociolinguistic background of Sri Lanka as well as previous work in the field of linguistic landscapes into account, the hypothesis of this study will be that English will be more prominently used in public signs in the suburb of Mt. Lavinia as compared to Nugegoda. The following are our research questions:

1. Is there a significant numerical difference in the use of English in public signs between the two suburbs?
2. Are all three languages (Sinhala, Tamil and English) present in all top-down (official) signs?
3. What is the presence of Tamil on public signs in the two suburbs?

3 Methodology

The present study investigates the linguistic landscapes of two suburbs, Nugegoda and Mount Lavinia in Colombo, Sri Lanka. On the basis of the Sri Lankan public bus routes, the distance between two bus stops situated right at the centre of each suburb[2] featured in Google Street View was selected. Both quantitative and qualitative data were used throughout the study.

We employed Google Street View as a form of street-level image collection and manually tabulated the data onto Excel spreadsheets. The distance between the two bus stops in Mt. Lavinia was approximately 500 metres, while the distance between the bus stops in Nugegoda was approximately 450 metres.[3] The data collection included basic information, such as the names or nature of particular public signs and three key variables, whether they were monolingual or multilingual, which languages were used and whether the sign was top-down or bottom-up (governmental or non-governmental). Sinhala was abbreviated as *S*, Tamil was abbreviated *T* and English respectively as *E*. The languages used in the different signs were sorted according to the prominence and arrangement of the text. When the Sinhala text was more prominent or came before the English text, it was tabulated as S-E, and vice versa.

During the process of data collection, it became obvious that certain shops or establishments had multiple signs. In this particular situation, we decided to analyse only one sign per establishment in order to ensure the impartiality of data collection. Once the data is sorted, the study will look at the visibility of different languages present in the urban linguistic landscape of Colombo. Furthermore, the three variables will be discussed and a qualitative approach will be followed to select public signs representing both suburbs.

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[2] Relying on the above bus stops allowed for a more methodical and stream-lined data collection process.

[3] All data tables and visualizations were normalized by 100, besides the first visualisation in Figure 1.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Monolingual vs Multilingual

Prima facie, the strong presence of monolingual signs in both suburbs becomes visible:

Suburb	Monolingual	Multilingual
Mt. Lavinia	66.4%	33.6%
Nugegoda	69.6%	30.4%

Table 4: Monolingual vs Multilingual signs

Table 4 above presents the monolingual to multilingual sign ratio in the two suburbs. As indicated, both suburbs contain significantly more monolingual than multilingual signs. One might expect the monolingual signs to be influenced by either one of the national languages, Sinhala or Tamil. However, Sinhala and English appear to be the more accessible and prominent languages in these two suburbs. This might attest to the fact that the inhabitants of these Colombo suburbs are comfortable with monolingual signs from these two languages.

This would be completely different if the study was to look at suburbs in the northern or eastern provinces of Sri Lanka, which have more Tamil-speaking communities. It should also be kept in mind that Tamil was present in multilingual signs, more so in Mount Lavinia than in Nugegoda. However, it could still be claimed that both urban suburbs have Tamil-speaking communities, albeit how small the communities may be. Another counter-argument could be that Tamil business owners would opt to advertise in English or Sinhala to establish solidarity with their customers. Shang & Gou (2017) discuss the same concept in line with their study. They note that:

> Another possibility is that Malay and Indian shop owners may choose English-only names to attract customers from all ethnic groups. While ethnic languages in shop names may establish solidarity with customers from the same group, they may simultaneously be a factor to dispel potential customers from other groups. Therefore, it might be an ironic fact that Malay and Indian store owners have to de-emphasise their ethnic languages in shop names in order to sustain their business in neighbourhood markets. (Shang & Gou 2017: 194).

This could also be a possible explanation for the lack of monolingual Tamil signs in both suburbs. Thus, Tamil-speaking business owners would not wish to exclude Sinhala-speaking customers from their shops and would opt for multilingual signs or even monolingual English signs in order to boost their visibility.

4.2 Languages

The languages used on both monolingual and multilingual signs present a unique perspective into the linguistic landscapes of suburban Sri Lanka:

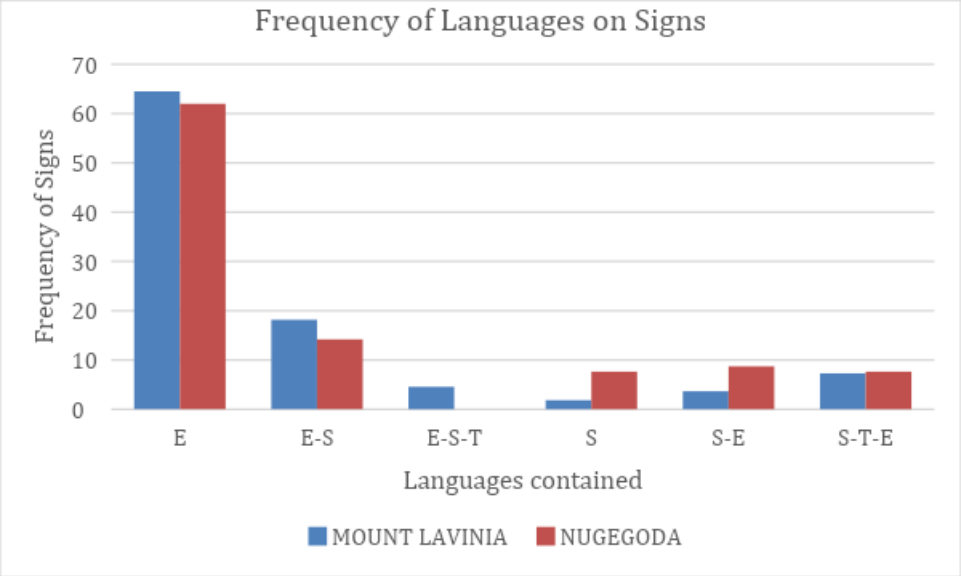

Figure 1: Frequency of Languages on Signs

English clearly outperforms both Sinhala and Tamil, while the second most frequent preference is English and Sinhala, but with emphasis on the former (Figure 1). This poignantly points to the prestige attached to English in Sri Lanka. The lack of monolingual Tamil signs discussed above also becomes obvious as an indicator of the ethnonational context of its inhabitants. For instance, E-S-T with a 4.5% frequency was visible in Mt. Lavinia, while Nugegoda had 0% visibility?, indicating the presence of inhabitants of more minority communities in Mt. Lavinia. However, the numbers in the S-T-E column could be questioned. It features frequencies of 7.3% in Mt. Lavinia and 7.6% in Nugegoda. But a counter-argument could be that most or all S-T-E signs were top-down signs, which constitutionally required the signs to be in the above order.[4]

Another possible point of discussion could be Nugegoda's presence of S as well as S-E signs, which outperform Mt. Lavinia in terms of frequency. A frequency of 7.6% to 8.7% for S and S-E signs, respectively, appears, connoting that Nugegoda would have more inhabitants from the majority community than Mt. Lavinia.

4.3 Top-down vs Bottom-up Signs

Top-down signs refer to public or official signs which are mandated by the central government or the local authorities, while bottom-up signs refer to non-official or private signs which include shop name boards, advertisements, billboards, and other similar private signs:

> One of the key variables with regard to the question *Linguistic landscaping by whom?* is the distinction between official and non-official signs. (Backhaus 2007: 80)

[4] This point will be further elaborated when discussing top-down and bottom-up signs.

The following table displays the proportion of the two types of signs in the suburbs. With 8.2% in Mt. Lavinia and 8.7% in Nugegoda, top-down signs make up the numerical minority of the table, which makes sense, as an urban landscape is likely to have more private or non-official signs than official ones. In this particular case, top-down signs featured public bank signs, a magistrate's Court and mostly road signs. All top-down signs besides one roadside emergency sign contained the format S-T-E. This naturally stems from the provisions of the Sri Lankan Constitution, which provides for Sinhala, Tamil, and English in official communications:

Suburb	Bottom-up	Top-down
Mt. Lavinia	91.8%	8.2%
Nugegoda	91.3%	8.7%

Table 5: Top-down vs Bottom-up Signs in Mt. Lavinia and Nugegoda

Thus, the road signs appear as follows in Figure 2[5] below, which features a road in Nugegoda. Besides the order of languages, we discussed above, another interesting point is that the fourth text from the top is in fact the name of the commercial sponsor of the road sign:

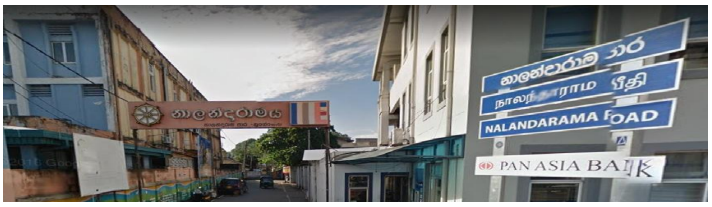

Figure 2: Road Sign (Nugegoda)

Figure 3 features the Mt. Lavinia Magistrate's Court, which similarly follows the S-T-E order of languages. Although the Google Street view below is not very clear, it still captures the order of the three languages as well as the archaic appearance of lower courts of law in Sri Lanka.

Lastly, Figure 4 features the only road sign in the data that was scripted in Sinhala. It should, however, be noted that the monolingual Sinhala sign is accompanied by a universal traffic sign (road narrowing sign). Thus, it would be pretty self-explanatory for pedestrians and drivers present:

[5] All images (screenshots of Google Street views) were collected by the author during the research process.

Figure 3: Magistrate's Court (Mt. Lavinia)

Figure 4: Traffic Road sign (Mt. Lavinia)

Bottom-up signs in both suburbs present the signs that vary most linguistically. This type of sign is not bound by the same restrictions that top-down signs are, which becomes evident when the linguistic landscapes of both suburbs are analysed. The data obviously point to the overwhelming amount of English present in both suburbs, which does not come as a surprise given its socio-economic importance in Colombo.

Another noteworthy point refers to the grocery stores that are present in the suburbs. Bigger companies will sponsor most of these shop signs for advertising purposes. Figure 5 below captures a grocery store (Jayawardene Stores), whose own sign is overshadowed by the sponsor's advertising (Anchor, considered to be one of the top dairy brands in Sri Lanka), with similar sponsor signs from Pepsi on both ends of the grocery store, which includes code-mixing between Sinhala and English:

Figure 5: Jayawardene Stores (Mt. Lavinia)

4.4 Idiosyncrasies

For what may be considered to be errors, we are going to make use of Backhaus's categorization. Backhaus (2007) rightly says that "on a terminological note, 'idiosyncrasy' is used here in order to avoid expressions such as 'error' or 'mistake'" (ibid.: 117). He also emphasises the fact that the purpose of this analysis is not to point out correct or incorrect forms, but to interpret them in the context of their linguistic landscape (ibid.). Consequently, in this section, two occurrences of idiosyncrasies will be noted.

Figure 6 features a common trait among local late-night food or street-food vendors who would frequently use the word *hotel*, although they do not own a hotel:

Figure 6: Late-night food vendor

This is a well-established idiosyncrasy which can be found in most parts of suburban Sri Lanka. An interesting point to note is that menus of such late-night food vendors will be available in English and staff are most likely to be bilingual or even trilingual in the Colombo suburbs.

4.5 The Presence of English

The above discussion and analysis of data have clearly laid out the prominence of English in public signs and the importance Sri Lankans place on English. Particularly in commercial settings, we see most bottom-down signs either completely or more prominently relying on English to convey their stature as representing private enterprises. Thus, businesses such as clothing stores, beauty salons, restaurants and many other private business owners would use English on their signs. Figure 7 below is an example of clothing stores and the kind of modernized brand identities they showcase in order to attract customers in suburban Colombo and to create a basis of identification with their target customers:

Figure 7: Clothing Store

English is employed creatively by many vendors to intrigue the target audience or create humour. The image below (Figure 8) shows a casual restaurant near the Nugegoda bus stop. The shop name *One Three Eight* is an actual play on words on one of the most popular buses that frequent the Nugegoda bus stop, which is indeed Bus 138, thus, creating solidarity with its customers that go beyond mere code preference and lies strongly in the realm of humour rather than prestige:

Figure 8: Restaurant 138 (Nugegoda)

Figure 9: Shoe shop (Mt. Lavinia)

Figure 9 features a shoe shop in Mt. Lavinia, which again intrigues customers through the play on words *Bit of Sole*. It creates a humorous connection between the homonyms *souls* and *soles* which, in turn, connects to their products, i.e. shoes. These two examples document the nuanced presence of English in Sri Lanka.

5 Conclusion

The above discussion on the linguistic landscape documented in suburban Colombo has dealt with key variables, such as monolingual vs. multilingual public signs, languages used on public signs, top-down vs. bottom-up public signs as well as idio-

syncrasies and the presence of English in the suburbs of Nugegoda and Mt. Lavinia. Similar to Shang & Guo's (2017) found in Singapore, English is the language of choice in these suburbs, irrespective of whether they are monolingual or multilingual. Each of the above components provides us with the results that confirm the initial hypothesis as well as the research questions set out.

The hypothesis of the present study according to which English is more prominently used in public signs in the suburb of Mt. Lavinia than in Nugegoda could not be confirmed because the difference in frequency of usage merely amounted to 2%, which is not significant.

The research questions are answered as follows:

- No higher numerical difference in the use of English on public signs could be found in the two suburbs. Although there was a numerical difference that put Mt. Lavinia on top, the difference was only 2%, which is not significant.
- The wide majority of top-down signs such as road signs, judicial premises and public banks utilised the S-T-E format.
- As for the presence of Tamil in public signs between the two suburbs, they were no monolingual signs but a modest presence in multilingual signs, with a stronger presence in Mt. Lavinia. A possible explanation is the ethnolinguistic context in this particular suburb, as it has more inhabitants from minority communities. Another possible explanation is the idea that, similar to the study by Shang & Gou (2017), Tamil business owners may use English and Sinhala to create solidarity and identification with their target audience.

Landry & Bourhis (1997: 26) note that, "the configuration of languages present in the linguistic landscape therefore can provide important information about the diglossic nature of a particular bilingual or multilingual setting". Thus the above study of the linguistic landscape of urban Colombo provides an opportunity to analyse the multilingual and multicultural nature of two geographical locations.

The limitations of this study, which could be addressed and improved in future studies, are the small-scale data sample collected as well as the time constraints at the point of data collection. These elements as well as the lack of access to the most up-to-date census data may impact this study. Albeit these limitations, the present study presents results that might be transferrable to other suburbs in Sri Lanka.

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The Acquisition of English Suprasegmentals: A Computer-assisted Language Learning Approach[1]

Mohamed Smirkou (Kenitra, Morocco)

1 Introduction

Both segmental and suprasegmental aspects are significant in the understanding of language (Derwing, Munro, & Wiebe 1998). Segmental errors can lead to communication breakdowns (Derwing & Munro 1997, 2006, 2015, Rogers 1998). Likewise, word stress can preclude full intelligibility of speech for it helps listeners to process the segmental content by adding structure to the varying speech signals (Celce-Murcia et al. 1996, Lepage 2015). In the future, teaching pronunciation will need to be given much more emphasis for its role in successful communication.

The misassignment of word stress can often result in more communication problems than the misarticulation of a sound in a word. Word stress can sometimes alter the meaning of the word or change the word class (e.g. the noun *'present* vs the verb *pre'sent*). Also, in English, words can have different syllable lengths (weight) and this often leads to the misarticulation of a sound.

In the vast majority of English words, word stress is lexical and must be learned along with the word itself. This is a challenge for most non-native speakers of English. Stress has been praised for its contribution to the comprehensibility of an utterance. Bond (1999) found evidence to support the argument that native speakers of English listen more closely to stressed syllables than to unstressed syllables. This claim found further evidence in Zielinski's (2008) work which confirmed that speech intelligibility relies at least partially on word stress.

With the rise of technology, a wide range of software programs has been incorporated into teaching and learning processes. Introducing the use of information and communication technologies in the classroom can result in considerable benefits because they

- have become central to language practice (Motteram 2013),

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- are considered to add variety to the language classroom (Kern 2013),
- represent authentic (Kern 2013, Pim 2013) and very updated materials,
- can be used with students of all ages (Pim 2013), and,
- generally have the potential to enhance pronunciation practice (Gottardi, Almeida, & Tumolo 2022).

To facilitate the process of language learning, the use of technology in the language classroom should not be discarded. Nowadays, teachers can make use of varied educational computer software to help students practise speaking and improve their pronunciation (Andoh 2012, Chou 2005).

The aim of this study is to test the effectiveness of Praat on the development of prosodic features among Moroccan learners of English. It shows how Praat can help learners identify their pronunciation problems and improve their speech. Simultaneously, it presents how teachers can employ Praat in teaching word stress as it offers an acoustic analysis and visualization of the speech specification.

Compared to traditional ways of instruction, using Praat in teaching pronunciation seems more effective and yields significant results. Students in a computerized environment seem to be more active, less anxious, and enjoy learning. In traditional classes, students are less active. Such classes are generally teacher-centred; students oftentimes rely on the teacher's explanations, feedback and correction of their mistakes.

The use of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) promotes the process of learning and teaching word stress. CALL systems permit learning to be individualized and maximized. The time of pronunciation practice can be increased because practice is not limited to the time when a teacher is available.

The present study examines how teaching word stress can be enhanced through the CALL approach. It addresses two research questions:

1. Does Praat affect the learnability of word stress among Moroccan learners of English?
2. Is there any significant difference between the experimental group which employs CALL and the control group which is taught through a non-CALL approach.

The present chapter is organized as follows. Section 2 provides the theoretical background necessary in undertaking the analysis of the effect of Praat on stress learnability. This section also explains how Praat is employed to visualize word stress. Section 3 discusses how data is collected and analyzed. Section 4 presents the research findings obtained from an SPSS analysis. Section 5 discusses the results in light of previous studies about the research problem being investigated. The chapter concludes by suggesting pedagogical implications.

2 Teaching English Pronunciation

2.1 Theoretical Background

In the 21st century, pronunciation has become an essential element of language learning. Pronunciation is traditionally taught through drills and hinges on teachers' feedback on learners' errors. The integration of CALL can have a positive effect on EFL learners' pronunciation through visualizing feedback. Therefore, pronunciation errors are clearly identified. CALL traces back to the 1980s when the early CALL developed into a symbiotic relationship between technology and pedagogy (Hinks 2003, 2005). Incorporating visual aids in learning is necessary to convey far more knowledge and skills to students in less time (Cuban 2000: 14), as 65% of individuals learn best through visual means.

An effective way of providing audiovisual feedback to learners is by incorporating a spectrogram that allows them to analyze and visualize their own speech. To meet the current tendency of computer-aided teaching of pronunciation, the present paper proposes the use of Praat[2] (open-source acoustic analysis software) to teach and learn English word stress. By generating a visual representation of students' utterances, the incorporation of Praat revives classroom teaching and helps foster autonomous learning.

In the 19th century, teaching English pronunciation gained much interest and has ever since been influenced by the various language teaching approaches (Kenworthy 1987, Levis 2005). At the beginning of the 20th century, with the emergence of the direct teaching method, pronunciation was taught through the imitation-repetition model wherein students repeated after the teacher. Later, in the 1940s and 1950s, teaching pronunciation was tailored to the Audiolingual and Oral Approach, which is associated with structural linguistics. In the teaching of pronunciation, phonetic symbols, diagrams, minimal pair drills and charts were used. The target items were presented in sentences to achieve the minimum contrast sound practice. In the 1970s, English pronunciation teaching took a new turn with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Anderson-Hsieh 1989, Celce-Murcia 1983). CLT integrates pronunciation into communicatively-oriented materials. It prioritizes suprasegmentals and their importance for intelligibility.

In the early 1990s, the effectiveness of speech visualization technology was recognized through the wide use of software systems. Since then, the application of this technology has been integrated into the field of language teaching (Anderson-Hsieh 1989, 1994). In recent years, with the development of CALL, teachers, rather than relying on a single auditory medium, have explored the incorporation of varied speech visualization programmes. Xie Ping (2007, cited in Li 2019) integrated the *Speech Analyzer* software to examine the parameters of phonemes; students could then recognize the physical characteristics of speech. In an empirical study, Zhuang Muqi (2011, cited in Li 2019) examined the effectiveness of the *Better Accent Tutor*

[2] Praat can be downloaded for free from <http://www.praat.org> for varied operating systems, such as Mac, Windows or Linux. The link also includes a manual that provides tutorial and the relevant features of the Praat programme.

software for pronunciation learnability. Likewise, Yingjie (2010) explored the feasibility of learners' autonomous learning through speech visualization software.

The current tendency in teaching pronunciation gives more emphasis to suprasegmentals (stress, rhythm, and intonation) (Chun 1989, Dickerson 1989, McNerney & Mendelson 1987). Studies (deBot 1983, Hahn 2004, Li 2014, Li 2019, Wang 1990, Wilson 2005) have shown that employing computer aids in teaching suprasegmentals can be more effective since these prosodic features are visualized. In his work, deBot (1983) revealed that teaching through visual feedback joined with auditory feedback is more effective than teaching by auditory feedback solely. Wang (1990) showed that the development of English syllable rhythm among Chinese learners can be clearly identified through visual feedback. Hahn (2004) demonstrated how teachers can easily employ the tools of visual feedback to carry out the teaching practice of suprasegmentals. Wilson (2005) explored the advantages of Praat in teaching segmental and suprasegmental features. His overall conclusion points to the fact that some features like vowel length differences, voiced and voiceless stops, and stress can be more effectively presented to students using Praat. Ke's (2019) research illustrates how teaching suprasegmentals can be enhanced through the application of visual feedback. Similarly, the present study proposes the application of Praat in teaching English word stress.

2.2 Stress Assignment in English

Moroccan Arabic (henceforth MA) and English show similar word stress patterns, in that word stress is not fixed to a certain position within a word but realized within the three final syllables. Three possible stress positions are attested in these two languages: (1) final stress position (e.g., MA: li'mun "orange"; English: prɪ'zent), (2) penultimate syllable (e.g., MA: ṣan'ḍala "sandal"; English: ə'dʒendə 'agenda'), and (3) antepenultimate syllable (e.g., MA: 'swajəʕkum[3] "your (pl.) watches"; English: 'mænɪdʒmənt "management")

Treatments of stress assignment in English invoke three types of information: (i) syntactic information (e.g., 'present versus pre'sent), morphological structure (e.g., 'limit versus limi'tation), and phonological information (syllable weight, number of syllables, and syllable position in the word) (e.g. Fudge 1984, Cruttenden 1986, Kreidler 1989, 2004).

Two models are observed in the literature on English: the quantity-sensitive and the quantity-insensitive model (Kiparsky 1982, 1985, Booij & Rubach 1992). Stress is likely to fall on the penult. From this, it follows that only the default stress is derived by the so-called English Stress Rule, which builds a trochaic foot of the two final syl-

[3] Within the theoretical framework (Metrical Stress Theory) she adopted, Fares (1993) show- ed that stress is represented in terms of left-headed binary branching trees which are constructed from right to left. In order to account for cases with antepenultimate stress, which she considers exceptional, she assumes ternary branching feet which are assigned by a rule that applies before the binary foot assignment rule. As to items with final stress, Fares argued that these items are assigned binary branching feet which dominate the final syllable in the head position and a zero-syllable node in the weak position.

lables, as described by Hayes (1982), therefore assigning penult stress. All other stress patterns are considered to be lexically specified.

Other accounts treat English Stress Rule as a sensitive system to syllable weight (e.g. Chomsky & Halle 1968, Liberman & Prince 1977 Hayes 1982 Giegerich 1985, 1992, Kager 1989, Roca 1992, Trommelen & Zonneveld 1999a/b). The stress position is determined by the structure of the penult syllable, treating the last syllable as extra metrical. The penult syllable receives stress if it is heavy (with a rhyme consisting of either VV or VC); otherwise, it falls on the antepenult.

Despite the fact that MA and English stress systems share similar regularities – i.e., the morphological structure of the constituents, their rhythmic organisation, intrinsic prominence of the syllable (weight), number and position of the syllables in a word – the two systems differ in terms of stress function, stress position, stress degrees and vowel reduction.

As for the function of stress, whereas stress is phonetic (i.e. predictable) in MA, it is phonemic in English. Unlike in MA, stress in English is used to distinguish compound nouns from adjectives followed by nouns (e.g., 'blackboard vs. black 'board). Stress also alternates meaning and differentiates word class (e.g., 'refund (noun) vs. re'fund (verb), 'process vs. pro'cess “walk slowly” and 'invalid “a person who is ill or injured for a long time and usually has to be cared for by others” vs. in'valid “not legally or officially acceptable”).

Stress degrees are dealt with differently in the two systems. As opposed to MA, where there is only one level of stress, English distinguishes four degrees of stress in understanding the stress patterns in words: primary, secondary, tertiary and zero stress (unstressed). Most treatments of English stress have focused on primary and secondary stress asserting that the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables is rhythmically driven.

English stress pattern also differs from that of MA in vowel reduction. In English, the vowels that occupy the nucleus of unstressed syllables are reduced to a schwa. In MA, on the other hand, unstressed vowels are always realised in full forms.

3 Methodology

3.1 Research Questions, Hypotheses and Objectives

This study addresses the following research questions:

- Can Praat enhance teaching stress by providing visual feedback? If so, how?
- Is there any significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in the post-test scoring?

This study’s null and alternative hypotheses are those below:

- Null hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant effect of Praat on Moroccan learners’ English stress placement development.

- Alternative hypothesis (H_1): There is a significant effect of Praat on Moroccan learners' English stress placement development.

This study tends to meet the following research objectives:

- Exploring how visual feedback promotes teaching pronunciation, and word stress in particular.
- Elucidating how Praat improves learners' capacity to stress English words accurately.

3.2 Research Design

The present study is experimental in nature; it has opted for a qualitative data collection instrument (testing) to generate nominal data on learners' stress development. Qualitative data will enable the researcher to explore the relationship between non-manipulated variables. This means that the focus will be partly on the measurement of the relationships between these variables; the effect of one variable (PRAAT) on another (Stress). Accordingly, variables will be measured statistically. This design is the most relevant for testing the effectiveness of the treatment (Praat) in reducing learners' stress errors.

After the pretest, the experimental group was first trained on how to use Praat to measure stress and visually monitor their English stress development. Then, the group was taught English stress rules using Praat. The researcher presented the same materials to the control group through repetition and pattern practice. To do so, the following phases were carried out.

In the first phase, i.e. in the first week, the experimental group was taught the basics of phonetics (place and manner of articulation) and the basic stress rules in English. Then, the researcher presented the basics of Praat software. In the second phase, in a four-week treatment, the researcher presented the English stress pattern using Praat, and the experimental group had to accomplish some tasks on stress assignment using Praat. During the same time, the control group received Non-CALL instruction on stress rules through drills and pattern practice. In the final phase, both groups sat for the post-test that targeted stress accuracy. The post-test evaluated the effectiveness of the two types of treatments (repetition-practice model and Praat) on stress development.

Data were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics to capture the means of the two groups. Using SPSS, the means of the pre-test for each group were analyzed to measure the standard deviations of the scores in each group. A t-test was employed to identify if there was a significant difference between the means of the groups' scores. The effect of using Praat on teaching suprasegmentals among Moroccan EFL learners' pronunciation was measured at a (0.05) level of significance.

The findings of this study could provide learners and teachers of English with valuable insights into the teaching of pronunciation. The study results could be better exploited by teachers to instrumentally teach aspects of suprasegmentals using

Praat. The study explains how to use Praat in visualising suprasegmentals. Thus, learners can easily and instrumentally identify their problems and reflect on their performance, which would enable them to monitor and trace their own progress.

3.3 Participants and Procedure

Forty Moroccan learners participated in the study. The subjects under investigation were first-semester students at Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra. They were randomly split into two groups: the experimental group that received the treatment (teaching using Praat) and the control group that did not. To ensure the homogeneity of the samples under investigation, they were administered an oral multiple-choice test that elicited their intuition about English stress patterns. Thus, the participants shared similar proficiency in terms of English word stress. Before completing the test, the participants were required to fill out a section addressing personal information, which ensured that they enjoyed a comparable duration of formal exposure to English. They also spoke MA as their mother tongue and Standard Arabic (SA) and French as their second language.

In order to answer the research questions, a corpus of relevant data needed to be collected through relevant instruments, in this case, Multiple-Choice Questions (henceforth MCQ). The function of the MCQ test is to select homogeneous participants. It also generates data about stress learnability and the significance of Praat in developing stress acquisition among Moroccan learners of English. The test generally consists of two sections: the first section is concerned with personal information, while the second section generates students' intuition about English stress patterns. The test used included 40 items. At first, seventy-three participants sat for the test. Forty participants whose score was between 12 and 18 out of 40 were selected. The participants first sat for the pre-test, then the experimental group was taught using Praat, and finally, all participants were given a post-test. A t-test was employed to analyze the data.

4 Findings

The main findings, which are based on the data gathered from testing through running descriptive and inferential statistics, are presented in the tables below. To determine whether sample data have been drawn from a normally distributed population, we ran two normality tests: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk. The results are presented in Table 1 below.

The results presented in Table 1 show that the score distribution was normal, i.e. the significance was greater than $p = 0.05$. The value of normality of the pre-test in the experimental group (Ex G) was greater than 0.05 in Kolmogorov-Smirnov (.178 > 0.05) and Shapiro-Wilk (.088 > 0.05). Likewise, the data of the pre-test of the control group (CG) was normally distributed because the value of normality was greater than 0.05 in Kolmogorov-Smirnov (.167 > 0.05) and Shapiro-Wilk (.068 > 0.05):

Tests of Normality							
		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Groups	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pretest	Ex G	.162	20	.178	.917	20	.088
	C G	.167	20	.145	.912	20	.068

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 1: Tests of Normality

To provide parametric statistics of the pre-test taken by the two groups, a t-test was run. Its results are presented in Table 2:

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	Ex G	20	9.8000	1.28145	.28654
	C G	20	10.3000	1.21828	.27242

Table 2: T-test

Table 2 provides the descriptive statistics of the informants' scores obtained in the pre-test. The mean score of the experimental group was 9.80, and the mean score of the control group was 10.30. To identify any significant difference between the two groups in the pre-test scores, and also to ensure homogeneity, an Independent Samples t-test was run (Table 3):

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.002	.962	-	38	.214	-.50000	.39537	-1.30038	30038
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.265	37.903	.214	-.50000	.39537	-1.30045	30045

Table 3: Independent Samples T-test

Table 3 indicates an equal value distribution of *t* (1.265) which is less than the critical *t* (1.684) value with df = 38. It shows that, in terms of the pre-test scores, there was no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group.

The descriptive statistics results of the post-test to find if there was any significant difference in the results of the pre-test and post-test after the treatment are presented in the tables below:

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	Ex G	20	33.3000	2.31926	.51860
	C G	20	15.9000	1.61897	.36201

Table 4: T-test

Table 4 shows that the mean score of the experimental group was 33.30 and that of the control group was 15.90. An Independent Samples t-test was run to find if this difference in post-test scores was significant. The results are presented in Table 5:

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.833	.367	27.512	38	.004	17.4000	.63246	16.11966	18.68034
	Equal variances not assumed			27.512	33.964	.004	17.4000	.63246	16.11465	18.68535

Table 5: Independent Samples T-test

The observed t (27.512) was greater than the critical t value. Therefore, the groups were significantly different. The results indicate that Sig. (2-tailed) score was .004 which is much less than the significance value 0.05, i.e. $p < \alpha$ (.004 < .05). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. This means that there was a significant effect of Praat on improving students' suprasegmentals because the statistical difference in the mean of the groups was significant.

5 Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the present study indicate a significant increase in the experimental group's achievement of scores in the post-test after the treatment. This result answers the first research question of whether Praat enhanced teaching stress through providing visual feedback in that the students who were instructed using Praat outperformed those who were taught using drills. Therefore, the null hypothesis could be rejected.

The support of the alternative hypothesis found further evidence in the result obtained from the Independent Samples t-test. H_0 was rejected because Sig. (2-tailed) score (.004) was less than the significance value 0.05. Therefore, the use of Praat has a positive effect on improving students' stress pronunciation. Teaching word stress in a computerised environment provided students with further practice at their own pace inside and outside the classroom using Praat and thus helped them acquire stress accurately.

The overall results of this study are in conformity with the outcomes of some studies (reviewed above) that are conducted in the field of teaching pronunciation through the CALL system. The outcomes of the present study are supported by Hayati (2005) that confirmed the significant role of CALL in learning L2. Compared to students in traditional classes, students in computerized environments appeared to be less anxious, more active and enjoyed learning more. In such environments, learners can record their pronunciation and compare it with native-like pronunciation using Praat. Students showed cooperation with each other so learning was enjoyable and interesting, unlike traditional approaches in which students had to sit in class, listen to the teacher passively and simply memorize the rules for exams.

Likewise, Hardison (2003, 2004) and Olson (2014) advocate the significance of using CALL in teaching suprasegmentals. In their studies, computer-aided learning of prosodic features proved to be more effective; as compared to the control group, the experimental group (which learned prosody using Praat) communicated and interacted with native speakers of English successfully. The findings of the present study also agree with Aramipoor & Gorjian's (2018) findings, which showed that teaching suprasegmentals became more effective using Praat.

The visual analysis Praat offers enables L2 learners to produce speech which they can analyse themselves. They need to be encouraged to practise and work on their pronunciation outside the classroom, and the Praat software can achieve this extension of language learning outside the classroom. Learners can record their speech and compute it using Praat to have a visual representation, then compare their production with native speakers' stress. This allows them to visually identify their errors and auto-correct them.

Moroccan students are rarely exposed to English outside the classroom. Nowadays, teachers can assign additional pronunciation activities and practice and encourage learners to accomplish them using, among others, the Praat software. Due to this advantage, the experimental group in this study outperformed the control group because the former received individualised, instantaneous, and visual feedback.

Learning pronunciation can then take place in a stress-free environment in which learners are exposed to considerable and meaningful input, motivated to actively practise pronunciation, and receive immediate and visual feedback on individual errors at their own pace. The findings of the present study identified Praat as an effective pronunciation learning aid for those learners who favour autonomous learning. In line with this, Wilson (2005) pinpoints that the Praat software provides appropriate feedback in pronunciation classes and maximizes an autonomous environment for learning English pronunciation.

Before the treatment, the proficiency of both groups was not significantly different. Thanks to Praat, the experimental group had further opportunities to practice outside the classroom. After speech recording, learners received instantaneous feedback in the form of graphic displays (e.g. spectrograms and waveforms) which were often accompanied by utterances of native speakers for comparison. The poor performance of the control group in the post-test may have been due to the unenjoyable traditional instructions, the shortage of time of exposure, which was limited to the classroom, and the type of feedback which was not visual.

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Corpus Linguistics in English for Specific Purposes in German Higher Education

Claudia Wunderlich (Würzburg-Schweinfurt, Germany)

1 ESP and Corpus Linguistics

In the past six decades, ESP has become one of the central areas of teaching English as a foreign language, despite lacking a precise definition (Anthony 1997). It is frequently understood as

> an approach to language teaching that targets the current and/or future academic or occupational needs of learners, focuses on the necessary language, genres, and skills to address these needs, and assists learners in meeting these needs through the use of general and/or discipline-specific teaching materials and methods. (Anthony 2018: 1)

As such, it tends to include English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), which have been gaining ground at German institutions of higher education with the introduction of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) programmes.

Additionally, "the corpus revolution", as it was also called in the title of Rundell & Stock's (1992) paper, has not just had a significant impact on lexicology and lexicography, but also on ESP, the research into it and even – in the form of data-driven learning (DDL) – on the teaching repertoire of this field (Starfield & Paltridge 2017: 57-58, Anthony 2016). Corpus linguistics can be defined:

> as dealing with some set of machine-readable texts which is deemed an appropriate basis on which to study a specific set of research questions. (McEnery & Hardie 2012: 1)

This way, patterns of language can be studied as well as the frequency and distribution of lexical items. Corpora of various sizes have become increasingly available since the 1960s, particularly, since personal computers and the Internet have become accessible to almost everyone. In the past decades, such collections of written and/or spoken text have been used frequently in the compilation of dictionaries, grammar books, and teaching materials including those by Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press, by language testers, syllabus writers as well as by learners and teachers in Data-Driven Learning (DDL), a term coined by Tim Johns, in which students become "language detectives" investigating the corpus concordance lines themselves (Johns 1997: 101, Crosthwaite 2021).

While the original Brown Corpus from the 1960s, the first carefully curated computerised corpus, and its British counterpart from the 1970s, the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus (LOB) corpus, and even their updated sequels the Freiburg-Brown (Frown)

and Feiburg-LOB (FLOB) corpora from the early 1990s contained only one million tokens each, the British National Corpus from the period between the 1980s until 1993 has more than 100 million words. Yet, present-day corpora, such as the Corpus of Contemporary American English (CoCa) or the Corpus of International English (ICE), each hold approximately 100 million tokens or the Sketch Engine EnTenTen Corpus, over 44 billion tokens. Increasingly, multi-media corpora have been generated, too (Coxhead 2018: 7).

With these developments, particularly during the last decade, even rarer linguistic phenomena can be investigated in the large ready-made corpora, which has greatly decreased the relevance of the Web to detect low-frequency constructions, which was the main reason for the author to follow or suggest this approach in the past (Wunderlich 2004, 2012).

It is an advantage of fixed corpora that they can be compiled to be representative and only contain linguistic structures relevant to the area to be investigated as opposed to the web, where this is not the case as it simply contains all pages that happen to be accessible to the search engine used. Generally, the Web gives insight into what is possible, whereas a carefully designed corpus shows what linguistic features are probable i.e. making them more idiomatic-sounding due to their frequency in language, and not just possible in theory (Thomas 2016: 13).

Corpus analysis has enabled a quantification and visualisation of collocations, chunks, and constructions in language, i.e. patterns, which might otherwise frequently have gone unnoticed (Sinclair 2004). These have also been receiving increased attention both in language theory and language teaching, and their cognitive and biological underpinnings have been put forward, which has led to a (partial) paradigm shift in teaching away from the overly rigid division into grammar and lexis, which overlap in reality, and which has even led to postulating a Pedagogical Construction Grammar recently (Divjak 2021, Herbst 2016, 2020).

Earlier, the insight gained from corpus linguistics had also led to postulating the Lexical Approach (Lewis 1993, 1997) in language teaching, although many linguists and language instructors have argued that this approach goes too far in proposing abandoning grammar instruction altogether since giving students access to grammar rules for important grammatical constructions such as reported speech still seems to be an efficient strategy for optimal learning. However, collocations and chunks are highly relevant for achieving fluency and idiomaticity in a language, and therefore, special attention must be paid to them, as has increasingly been the case in teaching materials (e.g. Emmerson 2007).

The present serves as preconsiderations for its author's ongoing corpus study into the language of industrial engineering to build an institution-specific academic word list during partial research leaves in the winter semesters of 2021/2022 and 2022/2023, building on her previous work (Wunderlich 2018, Wunderlich 2023) and is meant to provide an overview of the current state of affairs in this area and instigate discussion among language professionals.

The aim was to investigate technical and academic language to compile lists of frequent lexical items, collocations, and chunks as well as to create teaching materials for DDL.

2 Corpus Linguistics in Higher Education

2.1 ESP Courses in Germany

Corpora have increasingly been recommended for teaching ESP and informing course instructors about relevant lexical items to compile word lists and create course materials (Johns 1997, Nation 2016, Tomlinson 2011), and this also in the context of action-oriented teaching in higher education according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) to identify and investigate collocations, chunks, colligations, semantic preferences, and semantic prosody, both because of its student-centredness and to inform instructors about the relevance of the various lexical features encountered in course materials (Taylor Torsello et al. 2009). Nation (2006) found that language users need to know approximately 9,000 word families (such as *analyse, analysis,* and *analytical*) to be able to read novels and newspapers without using a dictionary. In this context, vocabulary is oftentimes divided into three groups: basic, cross-curricular high-frequency / utility words, and domain- / area-specific words (Beck, McKeown & Kuncan 2013, Coxhead 2018: 1). Overall, according to estimations and depending on how narrowly or widely technical vocabulary is defined, a significant share, i.e. 20-30%, of the vocabulary of ESP texts, is of technical nature (Coxhead 2018: 2). In the present article, along with Coxhead (2018), this type of lexis is referred to as “specialised vocabulary“.

In order to fully understand a written text, 95-98% of all its vocabulary must be known by the student and thus, a lack of knowledge of specific vocabulary is detrimental to students‘ overall academic success, particularly since languages for specific purposes and disciplinary knowledge concur. Knowing an adequate amount of lexis has a great impact on students' writing skills and is a prerequirement for acceptance in communities of practice in the professions (Coxhead 2018: 2-3). Therefore, to improve the situation in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) by increasing the mastery of academic language, the Academic Word List (AWL; Coxhead 2000) and the Academic Vocabulary List (Gardner & Davies 2014) as well as further updates including lists of subject-specific academic vocabulary have been proposed, which include higher-frequency words typical in academic language and which greatly improve text comprehension (e.g. Coxhead & Hirsch 2007, Tongpoon-Patanasom 2018). This improvement is achieved particularly when the word lists are subject-specific. In the AWL, however, no engineering vocabulary was included (Coxhead 2018: 26) and no lists specifically for business informatics, industrial engineering and logistics exist. This is why the author of this article is in the process of compiling a corpus of several million words to create wordlists for these areas.

After compilation, the Corpus Comparison Method is applied to identify specialised vocabulary (Coxhead 2018: 8) by comparing the frequency of lexical items with the frequency in a general language corpus or across different subsections of corpora containing different genres and subject areas, such as the Corpus of Contemporary American English (Coxhead 2018: 8). If they appear significantly more frequently, then they must be specific in nature and are worthwhile paying special attention to. A caveat, however, is that special attention must be paid to homonyms with identical spelling but different meanings in specialist language, for example, *arm* in general language as opposed to *robotics*, which might otherwise be overlooked. In addition

to this, a keyword analysis to compare the most prominent words in different corpora or subcorpora is also an appropriate instrument (Coxhead 2018: 9f).

Ideally, such quantitative methods are combined with qualitative analysis as has been proposed, which may include using a scale, a technical dictionary, consulting an expert, conducting surveys or interviews, handing out questionnaires, applying classroom-based approaches as well as information gained from annotations and glossaries. Thus, it has become standard to identify specialised vocabulary by applying multiple measures and not just to carry out a corpus frequency analysis, and new ways have been emerging and discussed in this area (Coxhead 2018: 12-20).

All this enables creating lists of lexis and two- or multi-word units to choose and prioritise the most relevant items for ESP classes since course time is limited. Such lists, therefore, optimise the outcome and usefulness of the course in question for students‘ studies and their future professional lives. This is particularly because the students’ vocabulary size at Bavarian universities of applied sciences tends to be small – much smaller than the B1 or B2 levels on their *Abitur* certificates suggest (Gürtler & König 2018). Additional pertinent insight into the level of English, vocabulary size, and degree of idiomaticity can be gained by creating corpora from students‘ written work and comparing them with corpora of highly proficient students in English-speaking countries as well as expert writers.

Despite the usefulness of such word lists, when it comes to ESP courses at German higher education institutions, and particularly universities of applied sciences, corpus tools, and especially compiling DIY corpora for languages for specific purposes, do not seem to be widespread judging from recent conference contributions and personal interaction with colleagues across the country. Some corpus activities at German universities of applied sciences can actually be observed, for example, Kraußе (2008) for ESP for engineering, Tinnefeld-Yeh (2017) for Chinese, and, more recently, Tinnefeld (2021) for French. Overall, the fact that corpora are still not generally used by those teaching ESP courses in higher education may be due to various reasons (also Crosthwaite 2021).

2.2 The Pros and Cons of Using Corpora in Preparing and Teaching ESP Courses

Overall, using corpora in ESP has many additional advantages and offers multiple affordances, including:

- Corpus linguists work with authentic language as opposed to armchair linguists who use their intuition to decide whether a particular construction is possible or not, as was the norm in Chomskyan linguistics;
- This way, patterns can be detected that would otherwise go unnoticed, which is a main difference compared to armchair linguistics. A single proficient speaker or a small group of speakers would rarely notice such occurrences. Furthermore, corpora can be used to test intuitions and check the validity of grammar rules both in spoken and written language and across different genres and registers (also Biber et al. 1999, 2021);

- The effectiveness of corpora has been proven (for example Boulton & Cobb 2017, Chen & Flowerdew 2018, O'Keeffe 2020);
- Corpora allow quantitative and qualitative insight (also Coxhead 2018), for example, to find out what the distribution pattern for the widely synonymous *to start doing something* versus *start to do something* is or how regional varieties impact the frequency of usage of certain words and expressions, for example *at school* (preferred in British English) as opposed to *in school* (preferred in American English) (Wunderlich 2004: 137);
- Parallel corpora, such as the EUR-lex Corpus or Digital Corpus of the European Parliament (DCEP) allow for contrastive analysis and help build bi- or multi-/plurilingual skills in accordance with the recommendations of the recent CEFR Companion Volume (Council of Europe 2020);
- Specialised corpora enable research into languages for specific (academic) purposes, such as logistics or mechatronics, for which no (topical) textbooks, nor adequate textbooks for university teaching are available on the market;
- It is a student-centred approach: classroom concordancing represents hands-on problem-solving, which is also in line with the recommendations of the CEFR (Council of Europe 2020, Taylor Torsello 2009: 26).
- DDL encourages higher-order thinking skills by requiring students to formulate adequate search questions, and correctly interpret their data, particularly in the form of concordances; thus, new knowledge is created based on the insight gained in this way (Thomas 2015: 102).
- DDL enables lifelong autonomous learning, which is an important factor given the limited contact hours of regular courses, which are also restricted in number in the respective degree programmes (Oveshkova 2018);
- As a step towards increasing degrees of learner autonomy, links to concordance lines illustrating the corrected mistakes in written work can be used by course instructors (BAWE Quicklinks n.d.).

Despite all these advantages, there exist some important disadvantages of corpus use, particularly in the classroom:

- Many instructors at tertiary-level institutions still teach rule-based grammar and vocabulary separately and do not support the lexicogrammatical view of language; corpora, on the other hand, are more suitable for pattern-based perspectives that also embrace the fuzziness of linguistic data (Thomas 2016: 4);
- Spoken and multimodal data is rare as it is hard to obtain (for example for reasons of privacy) and / or requires much effort to transcribe and annotate for corpus use, and is even rarer for English for Specific Purposes (however, Koester 2004, for example, investigated the language of the workplace);
- It is difficult to achieve representativeness in a corpus, which may limit the usefulness of the output despite the fact that various criteria and methods have been proposed to this end (Gray, Egbert & Biber 2017);
- The most relevant lexical items can be identified based on the frequency with which they appear in a corpus, but not exclusively so. It takes an experienced

linguist or language instructor to identify lexical items which should be added to make the wordlist more relevant and complete;

- Extra time is needed to introduce corpus tools to students so they can familiarise themselves with the tool, try it hands-on, report issues, and ask questions regarding problems they encountered or any remaining uncertainties.
- The corpus interfaces tend to be less intuitive to use than Google, and few kinds of data visualisation other than concordances tend to be offered (Crosthwaite 2021)
- The technical nature may be a barrier, especially since more advanced queries require Regex and programming languages such as R and Python, for example, for web scraping to gather data from social media such as Twitter.
- It also takes specific knowledge and skills to build DIY corpora for ESP and ESAP, which oftentimes are necessary, however, so as to be able to investigate specific languages.

2.3 Ready-made vs. Self-compiled Corpora

A variety of ready-made corpora, both for general language and ESP including English for Academic Purposes (EAP), many of which are online, are available for research today. They include Sketch Engine, Lextutor, the British National Corpus, the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), the British Academic Written Corpus (BAWE), the Professional English Research Consortium Corpus (PERC), and even the search engine Google as web-as-corpus, via Google n-gram viewer or mediated by a web concordancer such as WebCorp.[1]

The various ready-made corpora are generally easy to use, but every additional tool takes time to train both instructors and students, which must be weighed against the limited time available. Therefore, only a small number of such tools can be introduced in the classroom, and the benefits must outweigh the extra time and effort they take.

Usually, ready-made corpora cannot be changed nor can items be added, and overall, the features they offer limit the possibilities in corpus inquiries. Normally it is not possible to download the corpus for further types of queries, manipulations, or programming, nor can other software tools.

Usually, these ready-made corpora and tools are not specific enough for ESP courses in higher education when it comes to lexis (Nation 2016). For this reason, self-compiled corpora for research and teaching purposes have been recommended (ibid.).

Anthony (2021a: 8) proposes the following procedure to decide whether to use a ready-made-corpus for a research purpose or compile a DIY one:

[1] For a more detailed overview of the different corpus resources: Weisser 2021.

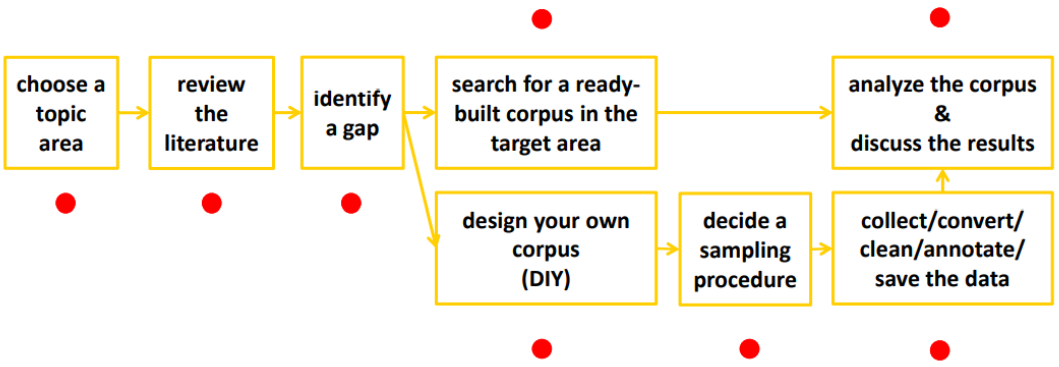

Figure 1: Ready-made or DIY corpus (Anthony 2021a: 8, also Anthony 2017: 174)

According to Anthony (2021c), the key criteria and steps to take when opting for a DIY corpus approach are:

a. Novelty / value of the research aim
b. Corpus balance, sampling procedure, timeliness
c. Data collection approach
d. Rights and permissions
e. File format + encoding
f. Collection method (copy-paste, web-scraping, API methods, ...)
g. Converting, cleaning, annotating

To compile a corpus, a topic must be chosen, the corpus design and sampling procedure must be decided on and representativeness and balance must be assured depending on the target domain, i.e. a corpus must include all text types typical of the area of inquiry and also be linguistically representative, meaning it includes all relevant language features as well (Gray, Egbert & Biber 2017). It is also essential to ensure that it is legal to collect and store the envisaged data on a device. Additionally, the corpus size also matters to make it representative.[2]

2.4 Corpus Tools and Recording Formats

The most useful tools to set up corpora include the text editor Notepad++ on Windows to collect, clean and annotate the data, which must be saved in a UTF-8 format to make it compatible with corpus query software such as WordSmith Tools (Scott 2021) or Antconc (freeware; Anthony 2021b).

Other than compiling corpora and lists of key lexis, adequate tasks must be designed for DDL in ESP. Thomas (2016) includes a plethora of insightful tasks to explore language with Sketch Engine. However, usually such tasks are geared towards general language and not ESP. A comparable collection is not publicly available for the specific languages of business informatics, industrial engineering, and logistics.

[2] Lexytrad (n.d.) and Anthony (2021a: 33f) to determine the minimum corpus size for a project.

Since corpora place a special emphasis on lexis, students' attention in DDL and learning in general should not only be drawn to simple word lists containing single vocabulary items but also special recording formats should be introduced to aid the memorisation process. Other than simple diagrams and mind maps, examples of these are the following ones:

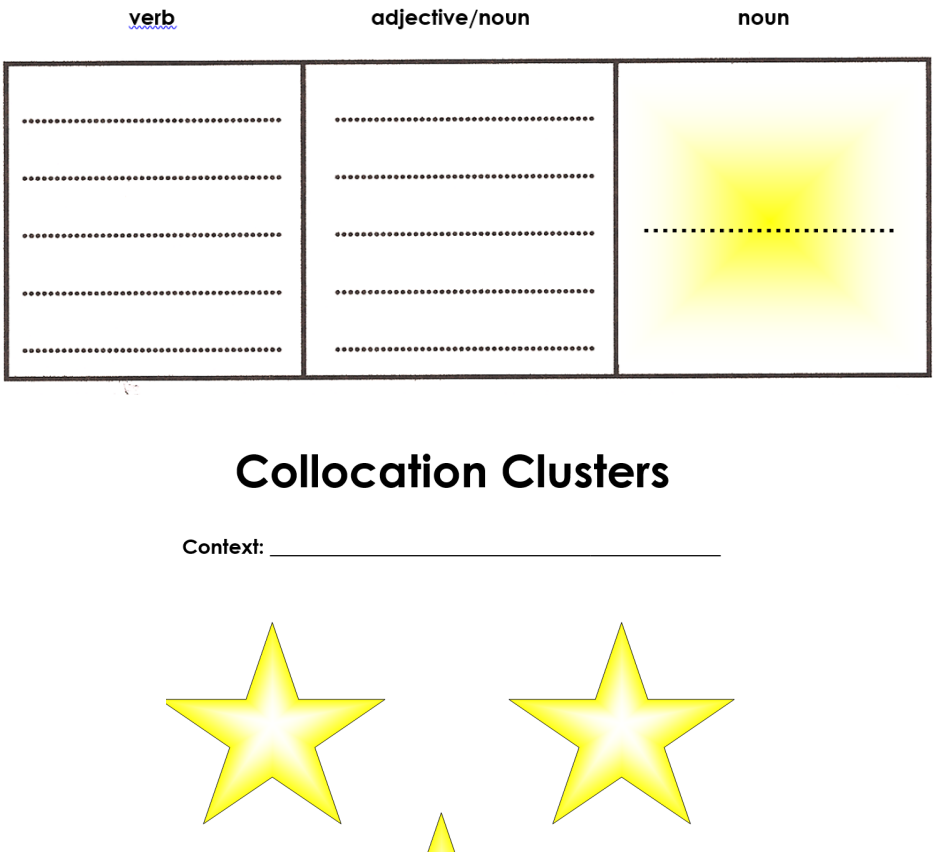

Figure 2: Collocation Recording Formats (Mark Powell, received personally from the author in August 2015)

2.5 Challenges

Using corpora in ESP nevertheless involves various challenges.

For the researcher and/or instructor working with corpora as a basis for their teaching materials and in the classroom, these include:

- Creating truly balanced, representative, and topical corpora;
- Creating useful vocabulary lists not based on frequency alone so as to identify which lexical items are useful or relevant additions for the maximum benefit of students;
- Gathering data and insight into the spoken language since written texts are easy to mine and process and simple written corpora can be compiled quickly, but spoken data is much harder to obtain and must be transcribed.

- Enhancing instructors‘ programming skills in R and / or Python, which offer many additional benefits to gather, analyse, and visualise corpus data and thus contribute to leveraging the full potential of corpora in ESP.
- Creating student interest through engaging tasks and incorporating these into an action-oriented or problem-based approach, and also fostering collaborative learning as well as plurilingual skills.

This latter point seems to pose, at least from the author’s experience, less of a challenge with students of technical subjects used to coding and interested in learning more about corpora and their relationship with natural language processing (NLP) and artificial intelligence (AI) as well as translation systems such as Google Translate and DeepL, particularly in English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) settings.

3 Conclusion

Altogether, specialised corpus studies provide pertinent new insight into ESP and ESAP, to the benefit of both students and instructors. Ideally, lists of words and chunks, corpus tools, and DIY corpora should become an integral part of the ESP instructor's toolbox and more mainstream at German universities of applied sciences. In order to achieve this, supplementing, augmenting, or being open to replacing traditional concordances has been suggested to make materials more accessible and more suitable for ‘digital natives‘ (Crosthwaite 2021). To this end, suggested apps and websites include PlayPhrase, Lyrics Training, Linggle, Collocaid and G-Rubric, not all of which are designed with language learning in mind, but extremely useful to make activities fun (ibid.). For a more engaging learning experience, gamification, for example in the form of puzzles and dominos, to practise and memorise beyond recording formats should also be added to the general corpus-informed teaching repertoire. Ideally working groups at national and international levels should be formed to create tasks and best-practice solutions, and to exchange ideas, as was instigated by corpus linguists of the University of Queensland in Australia in 2021.

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Digital Competence as a Critical Factor in Online Vocational and University Language Teaching

Michaela Rusch (Zwickau, Germany)

1 Introduction

When considering the teaching-learning environments in various educational institutions, a closer examination of the applied approaches within the teaching setting is mandatory. This chapter will illustrate best-practice examples in teaching English and German for specific purposes developed during the Covid-19 pandemic. The settings of these lessons are diverse. Therefore, a particular focus will be devoted to computer and media literacy that can support teachers and lecturers in improving their teaching-learning scenarios. The chapter then exemplifies two lesson plans taken from nursing education (Case I – Nursing Training at the Heinrich-Braun- Hospital Zwickau) and technical English (Case II – English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the University of Applied Sciences) (If both institutions are located in Zwickau, you might want to say this). In this context, the dimension of media competence as a critical factor will be stressed repeatedly, as the experiences gained in the past few years have proven their relevance. *Media competence,* as introduced by Baacke (1997 and 1999a), is considered a cluster of skills; in applying them, students increasingly tend to face challenges, for example, when training in care (Mohr et al. 2020) or engineering. Teachers who need to handle these diverse settings can be confronted with a variety of topics ranging from healthcare and nursing training to multiple types of engineering i.e. mechanical, electrical or automotive. Apart from these aspects, students are also further challenged in enhancing intercultural understanding combined with media competence as critical for their studies and later working lives. Especially media competence – against the background of the aforementioned corona pandemic – creates new opportunities to test the pre-acquired skills. As a prerequisite to the analysis, it needs to be stressed that managing media in all its variety includes far more than proficiency in digitalisation. It shows that although digital natives are perceived as extraordinarily aware of using the smartphone or tablet as a tool in lessons or in filming and editing recorded material, various situations in teaching also demonstrate that there is still some room for improvement – in practical (such as apps) and theoretical (like legal and cultural) expertise.

2 Overview of Teaching Settings and Challenges

2.1 Nursing Training at the Heinrich-Braun Hospital

The setting for teaching future nurses can be outlined as follows. The nursing training at the Zwickau Heinrich-Braun-Klinikum includes classes in German and English for specific purposes:

Groups	Hours (one unit = 45 mins)	
	German	**English**
Nurses[1]	1st year: 30 units 2nd year: 30 units	1st year: 20 units 2nd year: 20 units
Auxiliary nurses[2]	1st year: 30 units 2nd year: 30 units	1st year: 20 units 2nd year: 20 units
Care professionals[3]	_____	1st year: 40 units

Table 1: Overview of Teaching Units

These groups are rather heterogeneous regarding their future professional work as they include nurses, auxiliary nurses and a (newly established) care profession. The latter group of professionals has just been initiated as a result of the German nursing education reform[4] in the new law on care professions called *Pflegeberufegesetz* (PflBG) in 2017[5]. Apart from the initiation of this law, the first group at Heinrich-Braun-Klinikum (HBK) took up work in September 2020. The respective curricula have been adapted to this new type of training, and English for care professionals has been added as an elective subject. The future nurses' backgrounds range from skilled workers to university students who spent some time abroad working. Apart from that particular example of HBK Zwickau, all nursing students are trained to be successful communicators in German and English in their future jobs in different wards and hospital departments across Germany. This is part of their future professional expertise and requires awareness of potential challenges when working in multinational teams with diverse multinational patients with different cultural backgrounds.

2.2 Technical English at the University of Applied Sciences

At Zwickau University of Applied Sciences, technical English is offered for engineering students in almost any degree program. The modular course structure includes subject-specific components as well as the professional challenges of their future job as they often enter multinational teams. Regarding English-language class settings, the challenge is that groups are heterogeneous with regard to their educational background, language prerequisites and acquired language skills. The future engineers' backgrounds range from skilled workers to university students who spent some time abroad working. Therefore, instructors need to prepare lessons combining both the

[1] In German: Gesundheits- und Krankenpfleger

[2] In German: Pflegehelfer

[3] In German: Pflegefachfrau/-mann

[4] Generalistik

[5] https://www.gesetze-im-internet.de/pflbg/BJNR258110017.html#BJNR258110017BJNG001700000; 10-02-2022.

methodological *and* content levels. The topics span from general engineering to topics specifically related to automotive, biomedical or textile engineering. As students have the opportunity to study abroad, language skills and intercultural competence are also decisive components in the curriculum.

2.3 Intercultural Competence

As Heringer (2017) & Gopalkrishnan (2019) pointed out, intercultural competence has to be seen as an essential skill and will now be discussed in relation to the teaching setting. Along with the English language skills, as pointed out in subsections 2.1 and 2.2, which are necessary to communicate in both settings – care and university education –, the variable of cultural competency (such as closeness and distance, body, time and work perception besides others) becomes apparent, particularly depending on the setting. When nurses provide care to their patients, they need to know about the regulations of the German care standards. These standards include a specific type of documentation and communication. Consequently, the question here is how to teach students to approach their patients' various cultural backgrounds and their patients' different concepts towards health, illness, pain, and health issues in a beneficial way (Henderson, Barker & Mark 2016, Yakar & Alpar 2018). The approach needs to be empathetic communication between nurses and patients through repeated training units.

On top of that, for the successful completion of projects, engineering students need to be qualified to communicate professionally with co-workers or project partners. This includes such parameters as being aware of culture-sensitive speaking and writing. In their communication with their fellow students about projects, these concepts already play a role. In further work-related projects, encounters with co-workers or employees from different countries in international teams are vital in their intercultural approach to project management (Yu 2012). Applying these competencies is essential for the successful passing of project phases.

All in all, intercultural competence is reflected in language use and is decisive for how each group – nurses and engineers – handles situations in international settings (Henderson, Barker & Mark 2016, Yu 2012).

2.4 Media Competence

One of the important approaches towards media pedagogy is that of Baacke, who defined the concept of *media competence* as a cluster of skills. According to his approach, media pedagogy covers not only one perspective of media use and handling. It also includes the area of education, media methodology, knowledge, and research about media (Baacke 1997: 4). Backe's definition refers to various digital and analogue applications and occurrences (Baacke 1999a: 31-35). In using media and acquiring those competencies, courses are partly installed at school. Developing them further in the frame of university studies would be fruitful. Teaching students the dimensions of professional media application and reception enables them to understand and manage media content shaping their future professional lives. Once they are on the job, this skill set will be of importance in a globally connected healthcare

and business environment (Burger & Elsner 2020: 20, KMK 2016a). Moreover, it also needs to be pointed out that media competence – in school and university – ranges from the simple handling of a formal document to applying conference platforms and digital tools (Zhu et al. 2021). That is a demanding and challenging aspect for the teacher, as every intervention revolves around how to enhance students' knowledge so that they can work with it (Rott 2014). Within and beyond their studies, media competence will provide them with a general understanding which eventually leads to a refined understanding of different subjects (KMK 2016a). Students encounter different types of texts and, therefore, media applications. As Baacke (1997 and 1999a) and KMK (2016a/b) argue to continuously extend media knowledge, they realise that it is used to adapt to the changing world (Mohr et al, 2020). In nursing or engineering, students need to handle (background) information to retrieve content, be it from videos, texts or pictures. They need to be critical in assessing content. In media and digital applications, apps (Section 2.6.1) can be used. Employing them allows extended insight into text structure in the broadest sense. Today, the aspect of self-instructed study is extended with digital learning offered everywhere. Being able to consider and apply various apps, knowledge of textual structures, and critical thinking as part of media competency guarantees success for apprentices and students alike (Mohr et al. 2020, KMK 2016a/b).

2.5 Media and Digital Application

With the onset of the pandemic-related distant learning and the change in the teaching-learning setting, content had to be presented to students using alternative tools. In this section, media and digital application approaches and connected skills are subsequently reflected upon in two dimensions and discussed in more detail. On the one hand, teachers had to consider how far they could expect their students to master a particular set of skills and media-sensitive approaches in conducting given tasks in the changed teaching-learning setting. On the other hand, at that point in time, it was slightly uncertain what students would be able to deliver in relation to media awareness and computational application.

2.5.1 Nursing Training

In nursing training, Jitsi Meet (https://meet.jit.si/) was used as a conferencing tool in the school framework. A learning platform called Lernsax – a web-based e-learning platform in the federal state of Saxony provided by the State Office responsible for Schools and Education was utilised (https://www.lernsax.de/). The platform can be applied to exchange, upload and work with shared resources of nursing and healthcare. Through Lernsax, it was also possible to manage student-teacher communication as it offers an embedded email and messenger app. Students using this platform had to rapidly extend their competencies for media application.

2.5.2 University-of-Applied-Sciences-of-Zwickau Courses

In the UAS Zwickau courses, the BBB (Big Blue Button) video conferencing tool was utilised along with OPAL as another e-learning platform, uploading, sharing, and pro-

viding lesson material of academic and scientific origin. Again, the transfer of language knowledge, including the terminology for different types of engineering, and the later occupation in the specialised field, was focused on. Based on the digital concept, some challenges needed to be overcome here. OPAL, a platform developed by the *BPS Bildungsportal Sachsen GmbH* for higher education institutions in Saxony was employed for the courses. The major advantage of this system is that courses in Saxony can be attended by any student. Even students from other universities were able to log in. However, the disadvantage of OPAL is that it does not allow for cooperation across federal states, in contrast to MOODLE, for example (Rusch 2020).

2.6 Digital Tools & Resources

A range of digital applications is needed to deliver interactive content. During the phase of distance learning established during the past two years, many available tools could be tried out, and their advantages and disadvantages could be experienced. Depending on the task, different types of apps are available and used. With regard to media competence, students can benefit from different apps, and it can help them to further improve their language competencies.

2.6.1 Overview: Digital Applications

Table 1 lists a selection of different apps used in the ESP classroom:

Padlet	Illustrating learning techniques as exam preparation
Taskcards	Comparable to *Padlet* (but of German origin)
Oncoo	Creating clusters; introducing new topics, or discussing pros and cons
Jamboard	Used as a whiteboard to collect ideas or present results
Yopad	Used after breakout sessions to present results
Whiteboard.chat	Interactive use of the whiteboard function
Learning Apps	Especially for studying terminology; easy to handle various task settings
Kahoot	Quizzes on any topic can be used or created
Quizlet	Collection of questions and answers on different topics
Wannalisn	Supporting individualised learning (listening & pronunciation)

Table 2: Selection of Suitable Digital Tools

These apps have been grouped under different aspects to ease access. Tools like *Padlet* (https://padlet.com/)[6], *Taskcards* (German version of *Padlet*) (https://www.taskcards.de/#/home), and *Oncoo* (https://www.oncoo.de/) can function to collect, group, and structure ideas. Other types of applications are digital whiteboards: *Jamboard* (https://jamboard.google.com), *Yopad* (https://yopad.eu/) and *Whiteboard Chat* (https://www.eu.whiteboard.chat/). The focus here is on enhancing writing skills as they can be applied by students beyond the classroom scenario, not only in the digital classroom. *Learning apps* (https://learningapps.org/) like *Kahoot* (https://kahoot.com/schools-u/) and *Quizlet* (https://quizlet.com/de) can be utilised in two directions, either during the lessons – on-site and digital – in form of question-and-answer patterns or by students in their self-study to reiterate lesson content. In contrast, *Wannalisn* (https://www.wannalisn.com/) focuses more on training listening competencies, which can also be seen as adding a gamification factor.

2.6.2 Video Making Using *Simple Show*

Besides the above apps, there is also the option of creating videos. Simple Show (https://simpleshow.com/de-de/) is a convenient app, especially in this field. An advantage of producing explanatory videos is to tailor the content to a specific area of study and the needs of students. Furthermore, the video can be watched repeatedly. Through Simple Show, they get a better understanding of the content, and they can also apply Simple Show to benefit from it for their learning process, for example when preparing and delivering their presentations (Ifenthaler 2015).

2.6.3 *Pictorials*, *Squibler* and *Mentimeter*

Pictorials as in *Inch by Inch* (https://inchbyinch.de/category/pictorial/Gchf), *Squibler* (https://www.squibler.io/dangerous-writing-prompt-app) and *Mentimeter* (https://www.mentimeter.com/) are suitable apps for both teachers and students to test knowledge acquisition. *Pictorials*, labelled illustrations of devices taken from the natural sciences and technology, are regularly published in the *Inch by Inch Magazine*, and are a valuable resource on terminology explanation and training. Students can use these illustrations to enhance their comprehension of English subject-related technical expressions as they depict, for example, tools, machines, or technical devices. *Squibler* appears as a website and can be used as a prompting app to let students engage in creative writing. Either an entire sentence or phrase is given to stimulate students to construct a text on this basis. Already frequently applied by many presenters, *Mentimeter* can cast a light on instant answers and feedback on presentations.

2.7 Examples of Nursing and Engineering Lessons

2.7.1 Case 1: Nursing Training Lessons

In preparing students for their working life, especially in nursing vocational training, lessons need to include the genres that they will encounter on the ward. Later they

[6] For all the apps mentioned in this section, the date of the latest access was January 10th, 2022.

will have to work in multinational teams and care for diverse, multinational patients, and therefore an interdisciplinary approach is required in their training as they have to refer to knowledge and experience gained from nursing, cultural background studies, and general everyday communication to adequately cope with diverse discourse settings (doctor–nurse, nurse–patient, nurse–patients' next of kin).

Analysing the lessons – German and English –, it appears that in German, students' focus is more concerned with becoming familiar with the different genres. The written genres include the patient's record, the patient's history, fluid balancing, or care plan. The typical oral genres include shift-handover talk, giving advice to a patient or reflecting on other teachers giving advice to fellow students. For each practical placement on the various hospital wards – a practical part of the dual education of vocational training in the care sector –, students have to produce their internship reports and individual care planning to further enhance their language skills. Apart from introducing the different patients' histories, these reports contain topics such as anatomy, including types of anatomic structures in the human body, a critical review of care planning, referring to care terminology and showing that students can employ their theoretical knowledge. In the German classes, the focus is strongly on content whereas the English classes need to refer closely to linguistic aspects.

For better understanding, an example should provide some more insight. The task for first-year nursing students centres on the topic of fall prevention, as creating a safe environment is part of the ADLs – the Activities of Daily Living. The task was to produce a brochure for patients aiming at possible measures that could be taken to prevent falls. Students were given a text (Figure 1 below) with mixed paragraphs. This intro was chosen for content enrichment and an in-depth analysis of the vocabulary. Stu- dents had to find out about the available content. They also had to examine how it referred to points regarding prophylaxis in general. Based on this pre-task work, they were then asked to prepare a brochure about the topic of fall prophylaxis themselves. In creating the brochure, they could use different approaches. Once again, media competence played a significant role in completing the given task, including research on content and its presentation.

In another task, first-year nursing students were asked to introduce the multidimensional perspective of caring for different types of patients. Therefore, students had to think of the types of patients they could possibly encounter in their work, how they would approach them and what they needed to consider in relation to communication and care (Ericksen 2017). All the ideas were collected in a mindmap and then further discussed (Figure 2 below).

In the second step, the ADLs were included in the lesson talk, and students had to identify challenges that could arise in various situations with patients. Expectations on the task would also include making students aware of complications when interacting with patients and their relatives. After collecting ideas in class, students had to prepare their own patient case and determine which format they would choose to present it: PowerPoint, Word or any of the aforementioned tools. This task was aimed at extending their media competence, as students repeatedly transferred content from one form of medium to another.

One of the most important tasks for second-year nursing students requires training on the admission procedure that nurses usually carry out and which is different from

2. Read the text and put the paragraphs into the correct order.

If only I hadn't

left them on the floor!

D. It was an ordinary morning routine. While mum was preparing breakfast in the kitchen, she was also trying to do the household chores. She had to hurry as she had a limited time before leaving little Kerem to the nursery school and going to her office. Just as she was holding the tray, a painful cry scared her to death.

B. When she ran into the living-room, her three-year-old son Kerem was lying on the magazines and crying in pain. That morning Kerem had taken his blue steering-wheel and started to run along the corridors and through the rooms. It was the game that he liked very much. He hadn't been aware of the dangers at his home.

A. He didn't let his mother touch his leg. The injury seemed serious. His father was also there with his half-shaved face. The first seconds were wasted with useless attempts to ease the pain. But they knew that it would be dangerous to move him as it might be a fracture. They called for an ambulance and applied cold compress on Kerem's leg in order to prevent swelling until the ambulance came.

C. Can you imagine that magazines may cause a disaster? If they hadn't left the magazines on the floor the night before, little Kerem wouldn't have slipped and broken his leg. If they hadn't been tired and careless, they would have taken necessary precautions. Give yourself and your dear ones a fair chance to live a happy and healthy life.

Commented [MR1]: Tablett

Commented [MR2]: Lenkrad

Commented [MR3]: Vorkehrungen

Figure 1: Text basis for "Fall Prophylaxis" (*Unit 2: Casualties*, n.d.: 5)

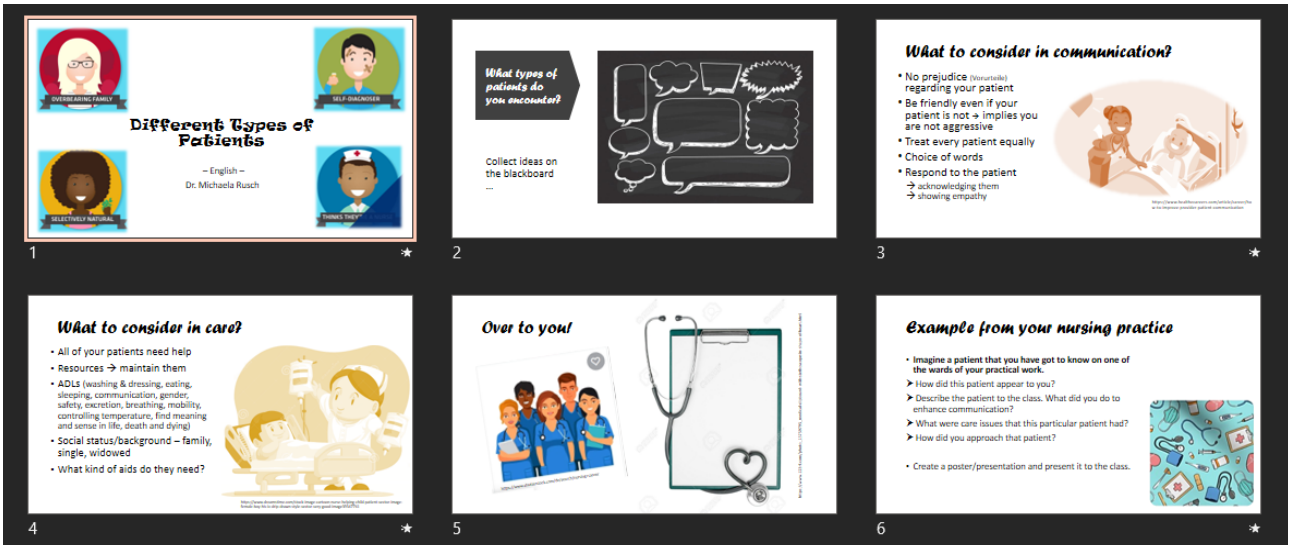
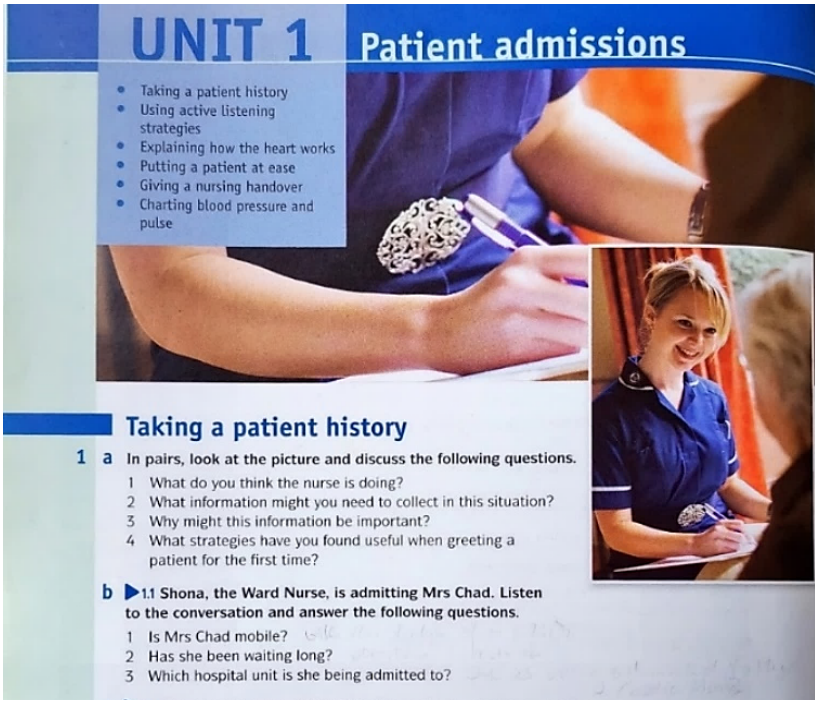


Figure 2: Screenshot – Different Types of Patients

the scheme of gathering information for case histories performed by a doctor. A given topic was identified and considered in its dimensions. Usually, students were allowed to choose a topic themselves for their projected role play, assigning the part of the nurse and the patient to each other. Then they prepared a dialogue in front of the class (in the roles of nurse and patient) and were given feedback by their peers and the teacher. Nursing-English textbooks (Figure 3) were used to work out the general frame, the medical and care terminology, and the structure needed for the talk to help students in their preparation:



UNIT 1 Patient admissions

- Taking a patient history
- Using active listening strategies
- Explaining how the heart works
- Putting a patient at ease
- Giving a nursing handover
- Charting blood pressure and pulse

Taking a patient history

1 a In pairs, look at the picture and discuss the following questions.

1 What do you think the nurse is doing?
2 What information might you need to collect in this situation?
3 Why might this information be important?
4 What strategies have you found useful when greeting a patient for the first time?

b ▶1.1 Shona, the Ward Nurse, is admitting Mrs Chad. Listen to the conversation and answer the following questions.

1 Is Mrs Chad mobile?
2 Has she been waiting long?
3 Which hospital unit is she being admitted to?

Figure 3: Admission Task (Allum and McGarr 2008: 6)

2.7.2 Case 2: Technical English – UAS Zwickau

At UAS, multinational engineering students from different programmes come together in different modules with an interdisciplinary focus. The challenge, as stressed before, lies in teaching technical and business English from B2 to C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), with a subject-specific component like automotive engineering, mechanical engineering, textile engineering and biomedical engineering. Therefore, the content needs to be multidimensional and interdisciplinary, with the conceptualisation of a step-by-step approach including the content dealt with in the previous lessons. The assessment was subdivided into a presentation (analogue or digital) and an exam paper of about 90 minutes, or a term paper.

One concept for Task I for students of automotive production (basic level) was to discuss the car production process in more detail (Figure 4). Therefore, students were given the subsequent assignment consisting of a starter (working out a general concept related to the topic of car manufacturing). The task itself was to evaluate what constituted the production process (A) of a specific car part and to discuss its manu-

facturing in detail (B). The terminology was also in focus, partly combined with a look at the peripheral components (B). The final part then opened up the perspective and included further research on statistics:

The fourth assignment, due on May 4th, focuses on discussing the production of automobiles. Answer the following questions in keynotes using the knowledge from your area of studies – Automotive Production.

A) Starter: Give a general overview of the essential steps in producing a car. Are there special rules / regulations for the different shops? Develop a concise digital poster (send it as a PDF).

Task: Can you remember a situation or an event in your life where a specific component of a car played an important role?

A) Now describe the part in detail and then try to sketch the production / manufacturing of that part as detailed as possible. Use good paragraphing for structure.
B) Add a drawing in which you name the different parts and peripheral components in English.
C) Carry out some research on which companies produce the different components and who could be named market leader? Use a table to present your findings.

Figure 4: Assignment Automotive Production

Task 2 in the field of automotive engineering (advanced level) included a SWOT analysis. Such analyses are often required during internships and usually performed after the fifth semester to allow students to collect practical work experience. The task is devoted to a critical reflection (Figure 5a and 5b) on the internship performed and should point out what advantages and disadvantages of the chosen field exist. Students also have to consider different ways of using the media in order to meet the expectations regarding the respective level of training.

The third assignment due on April 17th focuses on developing a SWOT analysis regarding your study-related internship. Taking a look back, you surely remember positive experiences, while other circumstances might instead have hampered your excitement about a possible future job. The idea of this task is to deliver a detailed reflection on the advantages, disadvantages, and challenges that could be part of such a placement. For you, as young academics, carrying out such an analysis plays an important role.

Figure 5a: Assignment Automotive Engineering (Part 1)

https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newTMC_05.htm
--> focus on economics

Taken from: https://www.startupguys.net/wp-content/uploads/2019/03/swot-analysis.png

Interesting link regarding SWOT analysis: https://cyber.harvard.edu/publication/2018/smart-move-24-essentials-swot-analysis-policymakers-need-consider

Economic focus but very interesting:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JXXHqM6RzZQ

Example of Tesla:
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I7CT8Ox_Gcg

Figure 5b: Assignment Automotive Engineering (Part 2)

For students from biomedical engineering, Task 2 of discussing diagnostic measures illustrates the approach used in advanced English modules at UAS Zwickau. The *treatment task* (Figure 6) appears very challenging regarding terminology and discursive skill use, but it nevertheless was interesting, as decisions needed to be taken after a critical review along with advanced research methods in diagnostics. Again, different types of media had to be used to master the given assignment. Here, the focus on a famous patient provided the opportunity to project the potential therapeutic intervention and sketch of how modern-day medical treatment could have made a difference in the individual course of the disease:

The fifth assignment, due on May 22nd, discusses project work. Within two weeks, you will be working out the following parts of the task. Answer as far as possible, and according to the knowledge you have acquired.

Part One: Choose a famous patient like, for example, Johann van Beethoven, Robert Schumann, Sigmund Freud, Friedrich Schiller, or Napoleon.

a) Analyse the patient's record and how they were treated. Now explore modern potential treatment.
b) Make yourself familiar with the pathogenesis of the specific case. Consider pharmaceutical, surgical, orthopaedic, as well as other medical treatments. Also include therapeutics possibly still being in the trial phase.
c) Also, explain the course of the treatment in general. Justify the suggested measures as well as the consultation of specialists. Make sure you apply the appropriate terminology.

Part Two: After having thought about *how* to commit your ideas to paper and coordinate a detailed schedule of how you would apply your state-of-the-art treatment to their 'historic' medical condition(s). Transfer your content into a well-organised table.

Indicate sources that you found helpful. You can submit your analysis by email or upload it on Opal. Be ready to also present it in class.

Figure 6: Assignment for Biomedical Engineering

3 Conclusion

In this chapter, teaching settings in various educational institutions have been discussed, specifically relating to media use and developing intercultural competence. An overview of the approaches applied within the individual teaching settings was critically reflected. The examples are taken from the teaching of English / German for specific purposes as a best practice predominantly focused on engineering and care. The challenges instructors face in these fields are the wide variety of topics and the heterogeneity of students. In these fields, students need to successively acquire an awareness of possible issues that come with working in multinational teams and with colleagues and clients from different backgrounds. Therefore, lesson settings need to include such situations, focusing on intercultural competence in media and digital applications (apps). During the corona pandemic, teachers and students realised that digitalisation and its challenges can only be mastered if media competence and critical reflection of media content are considered essential for their studies and future career.

The sample lesson assignments, i.e. Case I (Nursing Training at Heinrich-Braun-Klinikum) and Case II (Technical English at the University of Applied Sciences), provided an impression of the diversity of tasks which instructors manage when teaching languages for specific purposes, combining knowledge of the respective domain, language skills, media competence and digital expertise in order to prepare learners to master their future jobs.

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Digital Tools in the ESP Language Classroom – the New Borderless (Teaching and Learning) Normal?

Ines-A. Busch-Lauer (Zwickau, Germany)

1 Introduction: The Initial Situation

A number of e-learning concepts for teaching foreign languages in an online format have been around for some time but their potential remains yet to be discovered (Richter 2020). Their adoption lagged behind the topical requirements of the COVID-19 pandemic for several reasons, e.g. improper technical equipment, unstable Internet access in various rural regions of Germany, software problems regarding performance and capacity as well as hesitant adoption of a digital approach by teaching staff and students. The 2020 pandemic forced the stakeholders in the teaching process to revolutionise both teaching and learning in an unprecedented way, making classrooms virtually 'borderless' and enhancing the immediate change to this 'new normal'. Ever since, a plethora of digital tools has emerged in the market, now requiring a systematic review and evaluation in terms of their usefulness, successful learning outcomes and preparation for future (online / hybrid / on-site) language-learning and testing scenarios. Meanwhile, several systematic overviews have been published (for example, *Digitale Tools im Fremdsprachenunterricht*, https://deutsch-lernen.zum.de; 23-04-2023).

This chapter provides a brief retrospective insight into the pandemic semesters of digital teaching and learning foreign languages as experienced at the University of Applied Sciences Zwickau (UAS Zwickau for short). First, a short overview of the combined use of a Learning Management System (LMS), in this case, the Online Platform for Academic Teaching and Learning (OPAL, and a virtual conferencing system, in this case, BigBlueButton, is provided. Then a selection of digital tools suitable for language learning is considered. Moreover, the so-called Digital Didactic Dinner format is introduced which helped lecturers to get familiar with the methodological transfer of current topics in science and technology as well as with tools to be used for individual phases in the teaching process. This format which was developed both for German as a Foreign Language and for English efficiently networked staff from various German universities and tertiary institutions as well as colleagues from abroad to experiment with tools and discuss their effectiveness. In these hands-on courses, digital tools were tested in order to reflect on their purposefulness and ideas on how to integrate such tools into diverse teaching and learning scenarios. The challenging and lively exchange of ideas helped to get familiar with using scenarios and will be briefly evaluated regarding its benefits for developing students' language skills and boosting group dynamics, learner autonomy and motivation. Such analysis is required to overcome the experimental stage of using a certain digital tool and not another one during synchronous online classrooms. The results of this brief evalua-

tion point to the need for a more systematic digital tool analysis based on a set of criteria to allow for a more purposeful and user-centric application of tools whenever needed.

2 Digital Tools in the ESP Classroom

2.1 The OPAL Learning Management System

The onset of the pandemic required a sudden change from analogue to virtual teaching formats. Thus, the Online Platform for Academic Teaching and Learning (OPAL), which had been in existence for several years, but was not consistently used and adopted by instructors, was identified as a suitable option to turn to digital teaching formats. OPAL was developed by the German company BPS (*Bildungsportal Sachsen GmbH*; Chemnitz) and is available for teaching staff and students across all universities and academic institutions in the German state of Saxony.

The functionalities of the OPAL system are comparable to other learning management systems in the market. OPAL easily allows students to enrol on courses, it provides teaching staff with the opportunity to organise their course structure in detail, share course content and communicate with students in various ways (e.g. via e-mail, virtual classroom or blog) simultaneously, synchronously or asynchronously. However, teaching languages for specific purposes in dynamic subjects such as computer science, data science or economics remained a challenge for teachers regarding their methodological preparation of topical content and skill-based materials. Moreover, the lack of proper digital examination formats required time and effort to develop these formats to guarantee easy-to-use and reliable standards for the evaluation process of students.

In OPAL, various course elements can be used for course management and administration, including material folders with differentiated task allocations for independent and personalised learning; folders for students to upload their texts, feedback loop administration, link collections, bibliographies, and wikis. Depending on the granted user rights (write/ read), students could also share learning content.

The media library (audio and video) was used to store links to sources, and the flashcard system was fairly helpful in repeating content, e.g. terms, phrases and vocabulary. The self-test and portfolio task functions could be used by students to track their own learning progress. Moreover, the interactive course elements, such as blog, forum, and file discussion, allowed for communication and collaboration between students, which proved to be particularly helpful for project work among international students in the German Business Communication major.

For teachers, the process of establishing an OPAL course framework was time-consuming, but the option to re-use this framework across semesters by simply updating its content was worth this effort.

Overall, it can be stated that the use of OPAL and its multiple functionalities has opened up the possibility to provide content in a timely, learner- and topic-centred

manner, which can be considered the most valuable benefit of this learning management system which has turned into standard now.

2.2 The BigBlueButton Videoconferencing System

In conjunction with OPAL, the BigBlueButton (BBB) open-source web conferencing system was used for synchronous work with students in the classroom. Due to its user-friendliness, BBB quickly became well-adopted by staff and students. Teachers created digital classrooms for their groups and also for students to enable private contact and communication during the lockdown phase, which was important so as to keep social relationships.

BBB's breakout rooms were particularly well adopted, as they allowed for partner work, group discussions and project tasks. The shared notes functionality was used to record the content of the teaching unit, which could then be stored in OPAL as a PDF file. The screen sharing option and the survey tool ('poll") were used for students to deliver presentations and for their interactive assessment. Moreover, polls were used for class surveys on specific questions, to call for students' attention during the lessons when they were distracted by other things. The chat function (both public and private) was abundantly used for making comments when sound and camera hampered coursework.

The combined use of OPAL and BBB soon revealed that a new system of rules and maxims was required on the part of all stakeholders involved in the digital teaching and learning process in order to make this process a success. This relates in particular to student commitment, discipline, and the acceptance of teaching methods, such as flipped classrooms. Moreover, both teachers and students had to acquire the necessary skills for handling both OPAL and BBB. After initial problems, a videoconferencing-etiquette routine, i.e. a system of maxims for online teaching / learning interaction, e.g. for using a camera and microphone, had developed during the first online course (summer semester of 2020). It became obvious that students' active participation in class required a high level of self-organisation, e.g. dealing with project tasks independently. Synchronous online work also fostered computer literacy both among teachers and students: it trained the use of computers and computer programmes so that initial doubts about the success of digital teaching could be dispelled.

Looking back at the three digital semesters using OPAL and BBB, we can state that the educational goals could generally be achieved. Students' performance in examinations, both oral and written, did not significantly deviate from the performance they displayed before the pandemic. To some extent, an even more efficient way of working was noticeable among students regarding their collaboration, time management and commitment. However, we could also trace growing fatigue caused by the exclusive use of the computer as a teaching and learning medium. In fact, this means that digital classrooms are a good alternative to face-to-face teaching; of course, on-site classes cannot be completely replaced due to their utmost importance in personal interaction between all parties involved. Module evaluations (via EvaSys in 2020 and 2021) clearly pointed to the preference of on-site classroom teaching as opposed to online-only classes.

2.3 Overview of Digital Tools

Apart from learning management systems and videoconferencing tools, the teaching process required more interactive tools and apps to develop the four language skills in the digital classroom due to the missing interpersonal activities (e.g. in-class group work or dialogues) often used in on-site classes and to test the respective language-skill levels achieved.

Table 1 lists some of the 24 digital tools first described by Richter (2020: 3). The list is not meant to be exhaustive, but the tools mentioned proved to be applicable and spurred students' interest because they were interactive, came with competitive games and were fun. They also provided options for self-instructed learning and gamification outside the classroom, which contributed significantly to learners' interaction and motivation:

Tool	Type
Quizlet	Vocabulary work and self-learning tool
Padlet	Course material organization
Answer Garden	Brainstorming and warm-up activities
Kahoot	Quizzes of different kinds
Mindmeister	Collaborative mind-mapping
Oncoo	Whiteboard functionality/brainstorming
Flinga	Collaborative project work
Learning Snacks	Platform for autonomous learning

Table 1: Tools Used in the LSP Classroom

A valuable guideline on the use of digital tools in university courses (*Leitfaden: Nutzung digitaler Tools in Lehrveranstaltungen)* was published by Niedernhuber et al. (2021). The authors categorised available tools by their major purpose and developed some guidelines for use. They distinguished four tool types: (i) Audience Response Tools; (ii) Collaboration Tools; (iii) Mindmapping Tools and (iv) Design Tools.

Audience Response Tools spur interaction between instructors and students and can preferably be used on smartphones or tablets. They help to check students' comprehension of content dealt with in lectures and also to evaluate individual task fulfilment or achievements. They allow for diverse question formats and selective or multiple-choice answers. Examples of such tools are Kahoot!, Mentimeter, Pingo, and Quizziz. These tools also offer some gamification, which is oftentimes positively valued by students for its fun factor but easily loses attractiveness when overused.

As their name suggests, Collaboration Tools are designed to allow interaction / cooperation between groups of students, basically for fulfilling group discussions, collaboration and writing assignments. Examples of collaboration tools are Cryptopad,

Etherpad, Flinga, Google Docs, Padlet, and Trello. Etherpad and Padlet proved to be very useful to store information and add comments provided by students.

Mindmapping Tools are designed to structure and manage knowledge. Interaction between teachers and students is organised via smartphone and computer. Examples of mind-mapping tools are Mindmeister, Miro, and Oncoo, which can be applied for sorting and brainstorming tasks.

Design Tools visualise content, and refer to videos and presentations. They can be applied for warm-up exercises, vocabulary revision and sorting and structuring presentations. Examples of design tools are Sketchup and TimelineJS.

2.4 Experience Gained from the Use of Digital Tools in the LSP Classroom

The summer semester of 2020 resembled a trial-and-test field for digital tools. Instructors needed to familiarise themselves with the tools, create tasks and test these tools in class. Students needed a certain curiosity to participate in testing the tools. The evaluation phase began in the winter semester of 2020/2021 prompting students to provide feedback on the effectiveness of the digital tools used in the learning process. It turned out that students came to like a variety of tools, in particular those in which they could actively contribute additional content, share their ideas and give feedback. Consequently, the need for developing evaluation criteria for the different digital tools arose. The third online semester (summer of 2021) therefore saw an even more selective and purposeful use of tools along with criteria like, for example, *function*, *purpose*, or *skill training*. The following short analysis of the selected tools points to the need for a continuous investigation into the quality and the effects of tools in the language learning process – a need which will remain topical after the end of the pandemic. In this brief outline, experience gained from the use of Quizlet, Kahoot, Oncoo, Padlet and Yopad / Etherpad will be considered.

2.4.1 Quizlet

One of the important aspects when teaching Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) is the need to consider the special terminology of a given subject. At times, students go through long lists of words and phrases and find the process of learning new words and terms time-consuming and inefficient. In this context, Quizlet (www.quizlet.com; 24-04-2023) can be used when introducing topics of technical interest in English in combination with text comprehension.

Quizlet is a digital flashcard system that provides ready-to-use datasets for the self-instructed learning of words, phrases and definitions. It is also available as an app that can be used on smartphones. Since many LSP courses are highly specialised and therefore require a lot of effort for teaching and testing vocabulary, it is highly useful for instructors to prepare their own flashcard systems which cover the terminology used in a specific area, and to share these systems with their students so that they can use them for their personal vocabulary training.

A number of subject area card systems already exist (e.g. for learning computer science items), both for English and German. There even exists a card system which tests special languages in the German terminology of train systems and train driving.

Moreover, Quizlet Live provides the opportunity to play interactive vocabulary games in class where group competitions can be organised. In addition, Quizlet video tutorials are available for students to organize their own Quizlet flashcards. These customised flashcard systems also prevail in some of the vocab apps offered in the market.

However, there are a number of drawbacks that instructors should be aware of. Since anyone can create new flashcards, a noticeable drawback of Quizlet is the number of mistakes hidden in the system. Thus, it is advisable that instructors test a selected flashcard system before recommending it to students. Moreover, in the flashcard system, it is next to impossible to present contexts in which a word is used, and typical collocations used in specific situations. Another drawback is that the system is not compliant with the standards of the General Data Protection Regulation. Nonetheless, Quizlet has its qualities for users' daily routine learning processes.

2.4.2 Kahoot

Kahoot (www.kahoot.com; 24-04-2023) is an internet platform for creating and performing different quiz formats. It can be used for competitive vocabulary checks, to activate students' knowledge on specific topics in the form of warm-up posts in class or for knowledge acquisition tests. There are plenty of opportunities to use Kahoot for decision-making tasks with predefined response times. Group competitions can be organised, or individual achievements registered. The tool is easy to use, and templates help to provide questions and answers. However, multiple-choice answer options should not be too sophisticated, and response times should not be too short because students may easily lose interest as they cannot read the full answer options or miss the tight response schedule.

Kahoot needs a lot of preparation time, but once a quiz is established and tested, it can be stored and used repeatedly. This tool is a valuable complementary fun alternative for checking students' learning progress.

2.4.3 Oncoo

Oncoo (www.oncoo.de; 24-04-2023) is suitable for diverse cooperative tasks used in student groups. Whiteboard use and smartphone interaction with students provide the opportunity to gather words and phrases, reshuffle them according to predefined criteria in the form of a grid, and change the colours of the words to symbolise which ones belong together, to give but a few examples. These activities are generally attractive for students because they can collect their ideas or words first and then send them to the board. The tool can therefore be used for group competitions (e.g. *Who can compile the most words relating to car parts?*, *Find words that describe start-ups*, *Collect words that are hard to pronounce*). The results that are collected on the whiteboard can be saved as a screenshot.

The drawbacks of the system are that multiple users can possibly mess up the structure on the board and, due to time lapses in the system, it sometimes takes a while before students see the result of their work on the whiteboard. Thus, other digital tools like Wooclap or Padlet seem to be better suited when it comes to organising course content and structuring information. The fact that Oncoo complies with data protection regulation standards, however, is a strong point.

2.4.4 Padlet

Padlet (https://padlet.com; 24-04-2023) and Taskcards (https://www.taskcards.de) – a German highly similar platform – represent useful interactive board apps to organise and structure information, to share content (text, audio, video files, links) and show timelines and developments. For example, it is possible to use individual wallpapers, canvases, shelves, streams, grids, timelines, and maps. Thus, the platform spurs students' individual creativity and aims to “support and protect the freedom of speech” (Content Policy, https://legal.padlet.com/content 24-04-2023). According to the evaluation of the website by The Digital Teacher (https://thedigitalteacher.com; 24-04-2023), this tool provides for great user experience and interactivity and is suitable to disseminate knowledge in a group or to a wider audience via QR code.

During the pandemic, educators and teachers oftentimes organised their course contents on such pinboards and received feedback from peers. Professional organisations, e.g. for German as a Foreign Language, and conference organisers used Padlet to release their programmes because it is easy to add, change or delete information. In this context, Padlet is an ideal tool to keep information up-to-date and release it to users immediately. Padlets were employed in various scenarios during the pandemic and proved to be effective in class as an interactive database and content dissemination tool for class collaboration and interaction like brainstorming and the structuring of knowledge, which Warwick (2017) already underlined in her review of the tool about six years ago

Our LSP team first created a padlet as a database to list available digital resources and their application scenarios categorised along receptive and productive language skills (https://padlet.com/busch0lauer/luq6at9ljw9s2xtt; 15-04-2023) Participants of the Digital Didactic Dinner (DDD) format (Section 2.5) shared their experience with digital tools and apps gained in class. This overview, which is still available today, was gradually supplemented by further materials, links and reports. It also contained a valuable collection of websites and platform links where teachers could find further information on the availability and user evaluations of digital tools. In the meantime, more and more categories for brainstorming, the training of listening comprehension, expanding technical, business and other special-language vocabularies as well as poll systems, screen recorders and gamification have been added so that this padlet (and many more) now represents a valuable collection of digital tools and information which can be used by instructors.

Padlet also represents an effective tool when it comes to adding authentic and up-to-date materials to topics discussed in the classroom. Links to YouTube videos relating to the respective topics can be added as well as fact and task sheets.

Padlet was used for the “30-day Vocab Challenge” and the “Word of the Day” competition among students in the autumn term of 2020 and spring term of 2021. The former addressed the expansion of vocabulary and the latter, hard-to-pronounce or difficult English words. The instructor entered one word a day, and students were competitive in adding more words which they felt were difficult to manage. A list of neologisms was created as was a list of German business terms that occurred in the lecture on business administration. Thus the language course could improve students’ comprehension of the lecture. It is in particular international students who often have problems analysing and using terms in lectures and so the padlet challenge was of great help in this context to store and explain terms and phrases, thus providing add-on information.

In February 2021, TaskCards (www.taskcards.de; 24-04-2023) was first launched, which can be regarded as the German alternative to Padlet and which better conforms to the required standards of data protection regulations. Similar in functionality, TaskCards was used to organize the entire course programme for a project in which Serbian train drivers were educated in both German and train driving to prepare for a work permit licence in Germany.

In summary, digital pinboards or whiteboards, such as Padlet or TaskCards, have become valuable tools because they offer diverse functionality and multiple application scenarios. They can be accessed fast anytime and anywhere. Instructors may make creative use of them and also spur their learners’ creativity. These pinboards can serve diverse tasks in heterogeneous groups and courses. They are helpful for collecting, storing and disseminating information, but also for interaction in processes of language learning, teaching and skill development. Easy access and user-friendliness are key to the success of these pinboards. The only negative aspects that need to be considered are the costs of using the respective premium releases, their limited storage capacity and some privacy issues when it comes to data protection.

2.4.5 Etherpad and Yopad Whiteboards

At Zwickau University of Applied Sciences, the collaborative online editor Etherpad (https://yopad.eu; 24-04-2023) was selected as the tool of choice for developing group writing. The tool is user-friendly and intuitive, and everybody can use it straight after receiving the respective URL. Thus, writing tasks such as describing graphs or writing argumentations can easily be administered in the BBB breakout rooms combined with the collaborative use of the respective pad. Students can simultaneously edit a document and track in real-time who made changes because the individual author’s text is marked in a specific colour without disclosing the person’s identity. This means that peer editing can be performed without students’ names being released. A chat box in the sidebar also allows for metacommunication. Individual changes can be traced and revisions can be made. The final text can be stored in diverse formats (e.g. PDF) and used for further processing or evaluation

The Etherpad whiteboard is an excellent tool to write, correct and revise group texts. It can be used to rewrite course content and prepare for examinations. Students’ interest in modern technology and Yopad’s general accessibility were decisive in

overcoming students' reluctance to write in class and prompted their interest to experiment with this tool.

2.5 The Digital Didactic Dinner as Hands-on Experience of Using Digital Tools

Due to the plethora of digital tools and the abundance of opportunities in using them, our LSP team at the UAS Zwickau developed the Digital Didactic Dinner exchange seminar format to enable a forum for hands-on experimentation and discussion of electronic tools in the language classroom (both for German and English). In these bi-monthly events, using the BBB videoconferencing platform in 2021, we in particular focused on languages for specific purposes (LSP) and how to apply one or the other digital tool in the context of teaching LSP. With 15 to 20 participants per event, we established an interesting and fruitful collaboration between colleagues in Germany and from abroad. Throughout 2021, we performed five events for German as a Foreign Language and two events for English for Specific Purposes.

The metaphor of a dinner (cf. Digital Didactic Dinner) was used since it resembles the methodological classroom structure in which warm-up activities are used as 'starters', a topic to be considered as the 'main course' and the 'dessert' to round up the 'meal' where we invited well-known guest speakers to report on selected ideas as well as incite the discussion on the results achieved in their digital classes. The programmes worked out well which can be seen by the growing number of international attendees.

The first 90-minute Digital Didactic Dinner, focusing on German as a Foreign Language, was held on 25 February 2021. Starting with a Story Dice tool, in which participants developed short texts from the words of the digital dice, the main course considered business German, looking at the corporate profiles of start-ups and a fundraising competition through elevator pitches. Since BBB allows for video use, the pitches could be presented and their effectiveness evaluated. In the LSP classroom, students could also watch these videos and report about themselves, their projects or any other interesting topic of their own choice, in the form of short video clips. The guest speaker at this event, Professor Thorsten Roelcke, introduced the DAAD (German Academic Exchange Service) Dhoch3 programme, in particular the structure and importance of Module 5 devoted to professional and specialist communication, which is directed towards the education of students of German as a Foreign Language. Dhoch3 is very useful for self-instructed study and for further qualification of German lecturers abroad. A Kahoot! quiz was finally used to round up the event with a glance at the importance of dialects in Germany in order to cope with the challenges of professionals at the workplace.

The first 90-minute Digital Didactic Dinner focusing on English was held via BBB on 20 April 2021. In this event, neologisms and abbreviations in English chats were considered, since these were often used by students in the BBB classroom chat, and not all of them knew the short forms and their meanings. Then a corresponding chat dialogue exercise was used on a Yopad, where participants were asked to compile a dialogue using chat language exclusively.

Oftentimes, students do not cope with listening tasks in class. The Wannalism app (cf. https://www.wannalisn.com/; 24-04-2023) which can be employed to improve listening comprehension using authentic materials, was introduced and tested during 'dinner' time. Wannalism draws on authentic materials, words and phrases in short dialogues. It can be used anywhere, anytime in self-instructed study to train listening and pronunciation and responds to different proficiency levels. Then the 'main course' of the English dinner was served on the topic *Man & Machines*. A video on dancing robots was presented first showing what excellent quality automation and robotics have achieved in the last few years. Then a discussion on the pros and cons of robot use followed, relating it to the new style of future work and the use of robots, chatbots and algorithms like GPT-3 in diverse industries and for language learning in the future. For elaborating on this topic, Jamboard and Oncoo were presented and tested hands-on.

The dessert was presented by Geoff Tranter (Dortmund Technical University) with a 'gourmet' paper defining and discussing what a native speaker is and what this concept implies. For a round-up of the event, Mentimeter was used to evaluate the event and to brainstorm for the next dinner where Bobbi Reimann (Catholic University of Eichstätt) presented an overview of digital tools for video and audio recordings and discussed the effectiveness of the tools she used in class.

This brief report on the experimental and testing phase of digital tools for classroom use clearly demonstrates that a closer examination and intensive exchange was required at that time to define what types of digital tools are well-suited for teaching languages to students from various degree programmes and which ones to use to better collaborate with colleagues.

Drawing on the multi-faceted experience made during the three online semesters, we can state that under the given circumstances we had to cope with during the three online semesters described here, it was the most practical approach to try and test tools and to consider learners' feedback so as to make a better selection from the plethora of available apps, learning snacks, and digital tools.

2.6 Evaluation Criteria

The results of this brief consideration point to the need for continuous systematic digital tool analysis based, for example, on a set of criteria to allow for their more purposeful and user-centric selection. In the future, such analyses should refer to various parameters such as:

- Functionality:

  What functions does a tool offer?

  Which ones can teachers make use of in their courses?

  Does the tool suit the defined teaching goals to be pursued in class and does it meet the needs of the target group?

- Accessibility:

  Is it necessary to register and open an account for using the tool?

Is the tool expensive?

Are there any (class) licenses and, if so, for what period of time?

- Linguistic and pedagogical aspects:

  In what way does the tool advance learners' skills?

  Is it merely usable for one required goal, e.g. vocabulary exercising, or can it be used for multiple scenarios?

  Are learners' achievements and progress stored in a database or a server location somewhere or does the tool ignore user privacy?

  What is the best application scenario for the tool from a methodological point of view?

  Does the tool meet the learners' expectations and do they accept the tool to be used to improve their language skills?

Such an examination of the tools to be selected will allow for conclusions on their use, demand, and the tool market.

By spending more time reflecting on the above questions, it will be possible to better benchmark and shortlist digital tools for the languages-for-specific-purposes market. Teachers no longer need to undergo a long test-and-trial period but can rely on sound, scientifically based evaluations. Questionnaires and surveys among teachers and students could also be a rich supplementary source of information to evaluate the existing tools and the demand for other tool types that implement technological advancement, for example including future techs, such as virtual or augmented reality, goggles, and artificial intelligence in the form of chatbots, dialogue systems or avatars.

3 Conclusion: Digital Tools as Major Contributors to Borderless Learning Scenarios

This paper was meant to be a brief retrospective report on the practical experience gained throughout three digital semesters which revolutionized teaching and learning in a way not expected in pre-pandemic times. Our conclusion is that digital tools can indeed be regarded as major contributors to provide for teaching and learning scenarios that are borderless regarding time, space and the medium. This evaluation draws on the experience of different types of digital tools (learning management systems, videoconference systems, software, platforms and apps) which have opened up a new era for teaching and learning anytime and anywhere. These tools allow for completely borderless study scenarios. Stakeholders in the study process have quickly adapted to their new roles in new, digital situations. Teachers have increasingly turned into advisors, and students, into autonomous, self-responsive learners.

After three digital semesters, teachers and students have gained sufficient experience in how to can take advantage of digital formats. The transition from face-to-face to digital teaching turned out to be successful in our special German and English language courses at UAS Zwickau, and we are certainly not the only ones to have gained this positive experience. However, we have also come across disadvantages,

which were revealed in critical comments by our students. The partial divide of opinions on the efficiency of digital courses, also from professional societies, indicates that there is a need to follow up on digital formats and studies on the use and benefits of new AI-based tools, as well as an increased exchange of opinion on best practice scenarios for course design. These are the lessons we have learned.

Digital transformation is on its way with all its pitfalls and bumpy roads behind and in front of us. We should take the challenge and transform education and foreign language learning a step further into a future that will see even more digitalization with new experiences in a virtual, augmented and mixed-reality world. In the next step, for example, tertiary educators need to think about developing digital hubs as clusters for teaching and learning which allow for smooth cross-border teaching. We need to develop strategies and solutions for hybrid teaching scenarios (combining on-site, online, hybrid, synchronous and asynchronous approaches) and should also accelerate the further exchange of ideas for the purposeful use of AI in the classroom as an ongoing process to keep and expand students' and our own motivation for borderless teaching and learning.

Overviews of digital tools provide very good guidance for structuring and using such applications in digital courses as described by Niedernhuber et al. (2021), Eickelberg & Krätzschel (2021), and Wipper & Schulz (2021). In addition, the permanent collegial exchange is an important source of innovation as stated by Hartinger, Kramel & Stahl and Rusch in Busch-Lauer & Hartinger (2021) and Busch-Lauer (2023).

Even now, but especially in the future, 'digital' will be the new 'normal' and it is up to us to use and optimize this 'new normal' in the best possible way. To this end, a strong link between LSP research, corpus linguistics, LSP methodology and artificial intelligence is required in order to follow up on the dynamic linguistic, intercultural and textual changes in LSP communication, to document them and to make them applicable in a borderless classroom, borderless communication practice and a borderless world.

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Developing Bilingual Education – A Blueprint of CLIL Methodology

Bernd Klewitz (Marburg, Germany)

1 Bilingual Practice

1.1 The German School in Melbourne

Deutsche Schule Melbourne ('German School Melbourne'; DSM) combines the Australian Curriculum (Victorian Essential Learning Standards) with adaptations from the German Thuringia curriculum and has been in operation since 2008, with currently 140 children from the so-called *Pinguin Klasse* ('Penguin Class') (Foundation) to Year 6. Many young learners share some common assumptions about bilingual classes, which need to be addressed before looking into an integrated CLIL methodology.

Despite hopes pinned on the benefits of extended exposure to a second, foreign language (L2), CLIL is not primarily about more input of the target language, but it is about using it as a working tool to learn about and deal with topics regarding the respective subject matter, for instance about political issues in Social Studies or physical laws in the Sciences. As soon as content aspects move into focus, students realise that they have to handle different lexemes, concepts and cultural discrepancies. This does not only apply to linguistic phenomena like idiomatic expressions but becomes apparent when stereotypes and ideological problems are discussed, as in the case of Nazi terminology (*Reichskristallnacht* 'Night of Broken Glass') or other historical contexts (*Völkerwanderung* - 'Migration Period'). One of students' realistic considerations is the question of how bilingual content is going to relate to their previous knowledge and whether they would be gaining or losing existing connections, according to the motto "forget all the stuff we learned in German". Depending on the actual school context and the teaching strategies employed the (exclusive) use of the L2 (English in this case) and the role of the respective mother tongue are also issues to be considered. The (academic) evaluation of the DSM practice features some of the characteristics of their educational approach:

> Bilingual education provides an excellent basis for children's learning. It has benefits for literary and numeracy development in English and in this case German, as well as for children's understanding and experience of the world around them. The model of learning at the Deutsche Schule Melbourne (DSM) is clearly defined, well developed and supported, and highly regarded in Australia. The benefits of bilingualism to an individual and to society cannot be understated. Bilingual education of the kind provided at this school should be available to all school children in this country. – Professor John Hajek, University of Melbourne, School of Languages and Linguistics. (DSM 2023)

On their part, DSM has adopted an immersion approach and starts at a very early age for children who come from a diverse social and linguistic backgrounds where they grow up bilingually and bi-culturally with German and English as the languages of instruction:

> From Foundation Year to Year 6, we focus on content and language integrated learning (CLIL). This involves running classes in both German and English – and teaching the cultural values of each country. In line with current research on children from both bilingual and monolingual backgrounds, students learn to read and write in German and English concurrently. In Year 1 and 2, 80% of classes are taught in German. The proportion of classes taught in English gradually increases so that by Year 6, it will amount to approximately 50% of teaching time. Students starting in Foundation Year at our school do not need to have German language skills. We structure classroom activities to assist students who do not speak German as one of their main languages
> (DSM 2023b)

The adaptation of two curricula from different contexts (the Victorian and the Thuringian school systems) provides smooth transitions from one to the other, additional flexibility and cultural awareness, but in case there are academic differences between the two approaches, the higher academic standards are adopted. Topics from both cultures are included in classroom activities with students benefiting from the bilingual and bicultural education. A one-teacher-one-language approach is followed, similar to the OPOL principle, described in Section 2.2, so that each language is modelled by native speakers.[1]

1.2 The Victorian CLIL Experience

In general, bilingual education in Australia follows European models, and CLIL approaches are frequently introduced on the basis of scientific counselling used in the past. At the beginning and until ten years ago, such programs remained rather episodic, but in 2013, the Department of Education and Early Childhood (Victoria) initiated a CLIL trial project involving three primary schools and three secondary colleges with a “seeding grant” of $ 30,000 for each school. The aims and objectives were to develop a CLIL program, to support language assistance, to create classroom materials and learning resources and to allow for time relief for teachers. The decision to lean on the European CLIL model and include aspects from the Canadian-style immersion was confirmed by the positive results documented in empirical detail:

> CLIL is an innovative model for Languages education developed in Europe in the mid-1990s. It emerged from the evidenced-based, well-documented success of the Canadian immersion model for language teaching, in which mainstream curriculum content (e.g. Science) is delivered through the students’ non-native language (e.g. French). Focusing on the interrelationship between *content, communication, cognition, and culture*, CLIL is underpinned by a set of flexible but theoretically robust principles that support teacher practice across a range of different contexts. CLIL’s flexibility is a key point of distinction with immersion, which relies heavily on certain conditions being met to be viable. In the last decade, CLIL has had considerable impact on Languages education reform and policy within the European Union due to its effectiveness in promoting

[1] Based on: https://www.dsm.org.au/en/bilingual-school-concept/curriculum; 10-05-2023)

> high-quality gains in language proficiency, student engagement, and retention. (Cross 2013: 6; original emphasis).

One of the oldest and most successfully established bilingual programs in Victoria is in accordance with these findings and goes back to the 1980s: Bayswater South Primary School (BSPS) has ever since provided a German bilingual program in which all children's instruction is in German (50%) and English (50%). The school uses the CLIL framework to plan for language and content outcomes to be taught through German. They also include a focus on literacy in the German program and provide students with opportunities to apply their German skills, especially in outdoor education: they regularly visit a retirement home in their vicinity, which is run by the Templer Society[2]. The German-speaking elders of this community enjoy when Bayswater children read stories to them, engage them in conversations and share traditional customs throughout the year's season with them.

The school's mission is exclusively grounded on CLIL tenets and lists the strong points and benefits affirming that bilingual education provides advantages in thinking and learning skills (cognition), language skills, and social skills. Among the cognitive advantages presented are the development of flexible thinking skills, brain functions, concept formation, and categorising skills, whereas language advantages are to be seen in the improvement of communicative skills – with language and metalinguistic awareness and social skills being embedded in cultural awareness –, local and global benefits and socio-economic and employment opportunities. (BSP 2023)

Parents' and students' expectations and questions are met with arguments that confirm recent research in bilingual programs and address two pertaining issues consistently raised in CLIL programs, namely whether (1) students' learning of English or their mother tongue is harmed and (2) if their learning in subjects like Maths or Science is affected when taught through German:

> (1) Research consistently shows that learning an additional language enhances a student's first language development (Baker 2014). This is because the student's brain is constantly comparing the similarities and differences between the two languages in relation to vocabulary, grammar, spelling rules and sentence structures. This creates a better understanding of both languages, no matter how different the languages are from one another. The greater the understanding of the second language (German at BSPS), the greater the benefits and enhancement towards English and any other languages students use at home or in the community. (BSP 2023)
>
> (2) Learning another language increases and enhances students' deductive and problem-solving skills. Having a frequent practice in working out meaning, making links, and drawing conclusions in the language class enhances these skills in a broader sense in other areas of the curriculum and in life in general. Research involving scientific analysis of brain activity in bilinguals compared to monolinguals strongly supports the assertion of

[2] A group of Templars from Palestine were brought to New South Wales during World War II. Most of them decided to stay in Australia after the war and settled in Melbourne, where they built their own community, a retirement home, and bilingual schools in their vicinity to foster their native language of German. Started as primary schools in Bayswater South and West, these became successful institutions feeding into the state system and spreading modern teaching ideas of bilingualism, which became a mainstream part of modern foreign language teaching on the 5th Continent. (B.K. – author's note)

language-enhancing cognition. Students exposed to a bilingual education do as well, if not better, in other subjects (Maths, Science etc) compared to students only taught in a single language. (ibid.)

These experience-based answers are consistently confirmed in worldwide CLIL research findings and give direction to the study and evaluation of the underlying methodological principles of bilingual education. The Australian perspective of CLIL, in part as a result of the difficult stance of Languages other than English – commonly labelled as LOTE programs – and the Anglo-Saxon less developed enthusiasm to learn them, blends with more general findings about two interrelated issues: the advancement of content matter in a second language – LOTE in that case – and the development of linguistic skills from social to academic discourse (Section 3.3) as two building blocks with others to complement them. Equally important is the resolution of some tenacious myths surrounding bilingual education, spelt out in many research projects, i.e.:

- the existence of a default monolingual norm (Klewitz 2021: pp. 22),
- a native-like command of L2,
- an unbalanced use of L1 and L2 in the bilingual classroom,
- the disadvantages of code-switching – sometimes labelled as the *language macaronic mix* (Meisel 2019: 8),
- childhood bilingualism impeding both linguistic and cognitive development,
- increased language practice at the expense of content learning,
- problems caused by the fusion of two linguistic systems, and
- a competition between a stronger and a weaker language.

(Klewitz 2021: pp. 22, Meisel 2019: 8, Wolff: 2011)

These myths can best be overcome when looking at the building blocks of content-driven activities, which provide opportunities to concentrate on current topics and relevant issues. They enable learners to focus on language functions before dealing with their form, true to the *Weimar Bauhaus* principle *form follows function* – translated into *language follows content* (Please indicate a source here). Content that precedes language skills works best in CLIL modules, containing topics already covered by other activities in a student's mother tongue, but with terms and concepts developed accordingly, which might differ considerably in L2.

2 Methodological Principles

The history of bilingualism is neither new nor spectacular. It started in ancient times and even the Romans had to learn Greek to usurp their neighbours' culture and rule the Aegean region. Yet, acquiring modern languages nowadays is not a question of dominating another culture or ruling other people, but rather learning about their perspectives and ideas in an inter/transcultural way and meeting in a Third Space of respecting and embracing new cultural concepts and traditions. The growing importance of bilingual teaching is pointed out widely in the literature. A summary of scientific studies can, for example, be found in Wolff's contribution to the innovative

methodological concept of CLIL (2011) the essential results of which are delineated below.

CLIL opens up new perspectives with regard to the subject content and the language involved. Through the methodological requirement to provide rich and authentic learning environments, CLIL creates access to activities and learner orientation. The learners' foreign language competence is enhanced, especially in their discourse skills and foreign language registers. The methodological approach to language-sensitive teaching (Leisen 2005) represents innovative opportunities for schools.

In research, these assumptions have been corroborated multiple times (e.g. Coyle et al. 2010, Marsh et al. 2012, Mehisto 2012). The results of the DESI Study (*Deutsch-Englisch-Schülerleistungen-International*) still point the way confirming that, compared to the comparison groups, classes with bilingual subject teaching achieved far above-average results in all language skills (DESI-Konsortium 2008).

The further development of communicative approaches provides opportunities of opening a window in foreign language discourse. Proponents of the CLIL concept describe this option as a chance for foreign language teachers to transcend the boundaries of their teaching activities, attributing to CLIL the role of a catalyst for change:

> CLIL presents an opportunity and a threat to accepted EFL practice. The so-called communicative dimension of language teaching, where the language is treated as a functional tool rather than the explicit object of study, is moving into the realm of authentic subject teaching. (Marsh 2012: 255)

For this to eventuate, the following building blocks of CLIL need to be considered.

2.1 Intercultural Competence and the Third Space

Under the umbrella term of CLIL, different concepts can be realised, which keep a variety of design possibilities open for bilingual instruction. They include both foreign language instruction, through the integration of subject matter and foreign language teaching (FLT), and a control function of content learning, which expands the respective subject matter by topics relevant to the target country and enables multi-perspective learning with the initiation of intercultural competencies. On the one hand, this range of bilingual programs challenges the creativity of both teachers and students, but on the other hand, it also leaves enough room for the interpretation of a balanced approach – as it is expressed in the guidelines of the German Conference of Ministers of Education (*Kultusministerkonferenz (KMK)*):

> In der Fachliteratur umfasst der Begriff CLIL ... den bilingualen Unterricht, findet aber auch gelegentlich Ausprägungen, die einen starken fremdsprachendidaktischen Schwerpunkt setzen, wie beispielsweise bei dem integrierten Sachfach- und Fremdsprachenunterricht oder bei Immersionskonzepten. Das Konzept der deutschen Länder ist auf das Sachfach ausgerichtet, hinzu kommt ein interkultureller Schwerpunkt. In Bezug auf das Fremdsprachenlernen steht der Anwendungsaspekt im Vordergrund. Zusätzlich zu den curricular vorgegebenen Themen und Inhalten werden gegebenenfalls Themen aus der Sicht des Landes bzw. der Länder der Unterrichtssprache behandelt, sodass der bilin-

> guale Unterricht mehrperspektivisches Lernen anregt und dadurch zum Erwerb interkultureller Kompetenz beiträgt. (KMK 2013: 3)

According to this Conference, the term *CLIL* encompasses bilingual instruction and focuses on the subject matter and intercultural education. In addition to topics and content specified in the curriculum, the perspective of countries of the language of instruction is included. In this context, Hallet's Bilingual Triangle (Hallet: 1999) has been widely used, at least in the German-speaking world. It has become a major building block of the CLIL approach although its static concept of culture has been criticised in subsequent years (Breidbach 2012: 10). Hallet's definition highlights the multi-perspectivity of his model and additionally describes the three discourse fields of bilingual education:

> Im bilingualen Unterricht ist mit dem multiplen Materialinput eine Multiplizierung der kulturellen Perspektivierungen verbunden. Als praktisches Planungsmodell und Entscheidungsgrundlage hat sich in der Materialwahl das *Bilingual Triangle* bewährt. Es fokussiert auf die kulturellen Diskurssphären, denen Texte und Informationen entnommen werden, und erlaubt bewusste Schwerpunktsetzungen und perspektivierende Gewichtungen. Unterschieden werden (I) die lebensweltliche und schulpraktische Diskurssphäre, (II) die fremdsprachliche Diskurssphäre und (III) die Sphäre der transkulturellen, mehrkulturellen und globalen Diskurse. Zusammen mit den Schüler- und Lehrertexten konstituieren die Texte, Materialien und Informationen den transkulturellen Diskursraum des Bilingualen Unterrichts. (Hallet et al. 2013: 206; original emphasis)

Hallet's *Bilingual Triangle* can be implemented as a practical planning model and basis for the selection of material in order to constitute the transcultural discourse space of bilingual education. Essential are the distinctions between the three spheres of everyday and school-based, foreign language and transcultural discourse. This requires the development of intercultural communicative competence, which is also referred to as a transcultural competence. In the Hessian Core Curriculum of Modern Languages it is described as follows:

> Interkulturelle Kompetenz (im Sinne des Stiftens kultureller Kohärenz): Menschen aus verschiedenen soziokulturellen Kontexten und Kulturen vorurteilsfrei und im Handeln reflektiert begegnen; sich kulturell unterschiedlich geprägter Identitäten, einschließlich der eigenen, bewusst sein; die unverletzlichen und unveräußerlichen Menschenrechte achten und sich an den wesentlichen Traditionen der Aufklärung orientieren; wechselnde kulturelle Perspektiven einnehmen, empathisch und offen das Andere erleben; Ambiguitätstoleranz üben. (HKM 2022: 9)

Correspondingly, not only the ability and willingness to perceive different cultural perspectives, to respect them and to learn from them are aimed at, but what is also required is awareness of one's own culture and other cultures as well as knowledge about human rights and the tradition of the enlightenment. This raises the question of how to deal with different cultural lifestyles and how this will affect the practice of bilingual teaching. It needs to be considered how different cultures and communities – with and without a migration background, with and without international exchange experiences – can communicate with each other in meaningful ways and how effectively language activities – understood as the accomplishment of communicative tasks – can be initiated in this context. Although the term *transculturalism* has not achieved wider acceptance – apart from formulations in some bureaucratic docu-

ments such as the Hessian Core Curriculum of Modern Languages mentioned above – the concept behind it is certainly worth considering:

> Transculturalism or rather the newer acceptance of Intercultural Communicative Competence aims at integrating meaningful aspects of foreign cultures into one's own perspective in order to guarantee a 'peaceful' co-existence of cultures. (De Florio-Hansen 2018: 235).

In this light, the inter/trans juxtaposition seems obsolete if not counterproductive:

> On closer inspection, however, the distinction between 'inter' and 'trans' is highly problematic. As a culture theory, interculturality is inclusive of highly diverse practices. Indeed, this is also true of transculturality ... . [Even] the *inter* stands for an in-between space where fixed borders begin to disappear in a process of negotiation, and where new borders are drawn, which, however, remain open to redefinition. Furthermore, the partners involved in these encounters are not treated as monoliths but as complex subjects with unique life histories, particular interests and multiple cultural affiliations.
> (Delanoy 2012: 160)

The Franco-American scholar Claire Kramsch (1998, 1999) developed a somewhat personal attitude within the concept of Intercultural Communicative Competence; married to a German and living in the United States as a teacher of German as a foreign language, her interpretation of the in-between space in the encounter of cultures describes a new level:

> From one's own view – forged by the cultures of the mother tongue – and the view of the other a Third View emerges that is not identical with one's own perspective and that of the counterpart. (De Florio-Hansen 2018: 233-234).

When people exchange their views in interactions with persons from different cultural backgrounds, a mixing of different viewpoints is inevitable (Delanoy: 161). Also referred to as the Third Place, the dynamics of intercultural learning are delineated in a convincing way:

> The metaphor of the 'third place' (Kramsch: 1993) aptly captures the nature of this interculture in its fluidity and ambiguity. Perceiving language-learning in this way allows one to look beyond the traditional dichotomous views and approaches to culture and identity in ESL settings and to describe properly the enriching process of creating new identity and new cultural space that is greater than the sum of individual cultures.
> (Xuemei 2004: n.p.)

Personally, I prefer the term Third Space here – in contrast to *place* and *view* – because, beyond its effect as a metaphor, it also captures the socio-cultural conditions under which such a discourse can take place on what is, at least intended to be, neutral ground. As, apart from cultural imprints, linguistic acts and related activities as well as (social) projects are always to be seen against the background of the actors' respective life realities, that '*otherness*' is often not a question of cultural inclusion or exclusion, but of marginalisation, xenophobia and Western arrogance.

In a nutshell,

> Intercultural skills involve: the ability to bring the culture of origin and the foreign culture into relation with each other ... the capacity to deal effectively with intercultural misunderstanding and conflict situations. (Byram 2008: n.p.)

– also known as critical incidents

> intended to engage participants … as they examine attitudes and behaviours that might be critical to their effectiveness in the roles they are already performing or preparing for. (Apedaile 2008: 7).

Critical incidents, in the examples below, discussed at the University of Edmonton's International Campus, can relate to learners' daily lives (what is it like here, what is it like for others?) as well as to general life situations, e.g. in other countries:

> In Canada students make lots of mistakes but the teacher says 'good'. Teachers should criticise children (students); it is good for children to remember their mistakes. (...) When a student makes a mistake here, the teacher says 'good, good' and doesn't correct. If it is wrong, it is wrong, and the teacher's job is to correct our mistakes. **Discuss**: do you agree? (ibid: 66-67).

> A young woman had recently arrived in Canada ready to start a new life. She found the weather a little cold but still enjoyed wearing the same style she wore at home: tight skirts and tight tops that had low necklines. After about a month she began to notice people staring at her. She thought they were looking at her because she was a foreigner. Then one day someone told her that only prostitutes dressed that way. She felt angry and insulted. (ibid.: 59)

In these situations, language – beyond the linguistic sub-competencies – becomes the learning medium itself and enables language socialisation in different multilingual societies as well as

> code-switching between languages in CLIL settings as a positive pedagogic strategy, rather than a default position to address breakdowns in comprehension. (Coyle 2010: 159).

Furthermore, mediation tasks in bilingual classes do not only generate their own momentum, but also empower the intercultural speaker: this is because, in my own understanding, mediation based on real-life and everyday situations fulfils the conditions of authentic learning scenarios and thus prepares for interlingual and intercultural realities of life beyond school. (Klewitz 2021: 193)

2.2 The 4 Cs Framework

The Aberdonian scholar Do Coyle developed a 4 Cs Framework connecting content and language, including the (teaching) context:

- CLIL is complex and context-sensitive;
- There are general parameters for CLIL;
- These are: Cognition, Culture, Content, Communication;
- Any particular CLIL model or methodology needs to consider the relative value / importance of the parameters above;
- Language as a learning tool operates in three ways: of – *for* – *through* (Section 3.2). (Gierlinger 2023)

The four parameters set the agenda for both planning bilingual teaching units and a checklist when evaluating CLIL sequences. They are also intended to answer the question of how the tension between language and content in the learners' Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD; also Scaffolding in Section 3.1) can be bridged in order to integrate both in the bilingual learning process (Coyle 2010: 41-47; 74-85). It is important, however, to note that these four elements do not exist separately from each other, but have a reinforcing reciprocal effect on each other.

At this, *content* refers to the knowledge, skills and understanding to be acquired. The selection of curricular content is guided by the competencies to be developed with a focus on subject-specific knowledge. In the foreground would be the questions of what new content is to be dealt with and how a change of perspective can be achieved.

Cognition (also: *learning*) describes the process of acquiring knowledge and is based on the taxonomies of Bloom and Anderson & Krathwohl including a list of task-verbs such as *remembering*, *understanding*, *applying*, *analysing*, *evaluating*, and *creating* (ibid. 31; Section 2.3).

Communication (also: *language*) includes the linguistic aspect with the distinction of language *of, for and through* learning (ibid: pp. 61). Here, the principle "*one person, one language*" (OPOL; Meisel: pp. 118) represents a useful strategy.

Culture refers to the reality and particularities of the target language country, which can also be evaluated in critical incidents that relate both to learners' everyday life (How is it with us? How is it with the others?) and to cultural differences and mis-understandings (Klewitz 2013: 22).

The 4 Cs Framework is particularly useful as a planning tool for CLIL teaching units and can be applied by answering the following guiding questions:

- Content:
    - What are the requirements in the school curriculum?
    - What CLIL-specific content is available?
    - How are different perspectives presented, e.g., through the use of authentic texts from different countries?
    - Which professional competencies are being developed? Is the content appropriate for students and understandable? What content scaffolding is used?
- Cognition (Learning):
    - Which questions are used (assertive questioning)?
    - Are questions related to cognitive challenges?
    - Is formative feedback used to ensure learning progress?
    - What learning strategies are suggested?
- Communication (Language):
    - Are language showers (especially for younger learners) used?
    - What are the overall opportunities for language acquisition?
    - Is there a link to existing language skills?
    - How are they extended?
    - How are oral skills trained?

    - Is language awareness (reflection on language) cultivated?
    - What language scaffolding is used?
- Culture:
    - What is the understanding of otherness and self?
    - What occasions for a change of perspectives are created?
    - What transcultural competencies are being cultivated?
    - Is outdoor education part of the curriculum?
    - Is the cultural domain enriched by digital media, video links and internet communication?
    - What international exchange opportunities are available?

  (according to Coyle 2010: 17)

2.3 The Task Design Wheel

Communication and (language) learning appear as a constituent part of the 4 Cs Framework, but as linguistic skills do not develop casually and incidentally, learners need to be equipped with a repertoire of discourse functions, such as textual, subject-based and generic competence as well as subject-based discourse ability. Linguistic work, however, has to serve content learning rather than language acquisition itself and is not in the immediate focus of bilingual programs (Vollmer 2013: 125). However, the primacy of the subject content must be linked to an improvement in the learners' ability to communicate in the respective foreign language. General vocabulary and subject-related vocabulary, semantic and syntactic categories must be continuously improved, and syntactic categories should be continually expanded and deepened (Albert 2017: 7). Basic technical terms need to be taught both in the L2 and in the L1, although the focus is on developing competence in the subject, and the foreign language still retains a functional, serving role (ibid.: 12).

At the same time, experience shows that knowledge of content and the corresponding linguistic skills to verbalise it can be at odds with each other so that a "pedagogical dilemma" might arise because of the difference between cognitive and linguistic competence:

> If dialogic learning takes place in a context where learners are encouraged to construct their own meanings from activities requiring interaction with peers and the teacher in the vehicular [foreign] language then learners will need to be able to access language relating to the learning context. For example, if a younger learner needs to use the past tense in the CLIL language to describe an experiment in science, and if the past tense has not been learned in a formal grammar class, then the CLIL class will need to provide access to the appropriate use of the tense in that context. In other words, the language needed in CLIL settings does not necessarily follow the same grammatical progression one would find in a language-learning setting. Therefore, in addition to making choices about the grammatical forms needed to support language learning in context, an alternative approach to support language using in CLIL classrooms is required. (Coyle 2010: 35)

A convincing way out of this dilemma is to consider language as a learning tool making use of task verbs when they are embedded in a content-based discourse strategy. In this context, the Task Design Wheel, an advanced development of Bloom's Taxonomy (Coyle 2020: 31) offers task verbs for six cognitive levels which can be selected and applied in correlating learning tasks and products (*target activities*). In

this way, a practical balance between content and language learning is effectively being achieved (ibid.: 35):

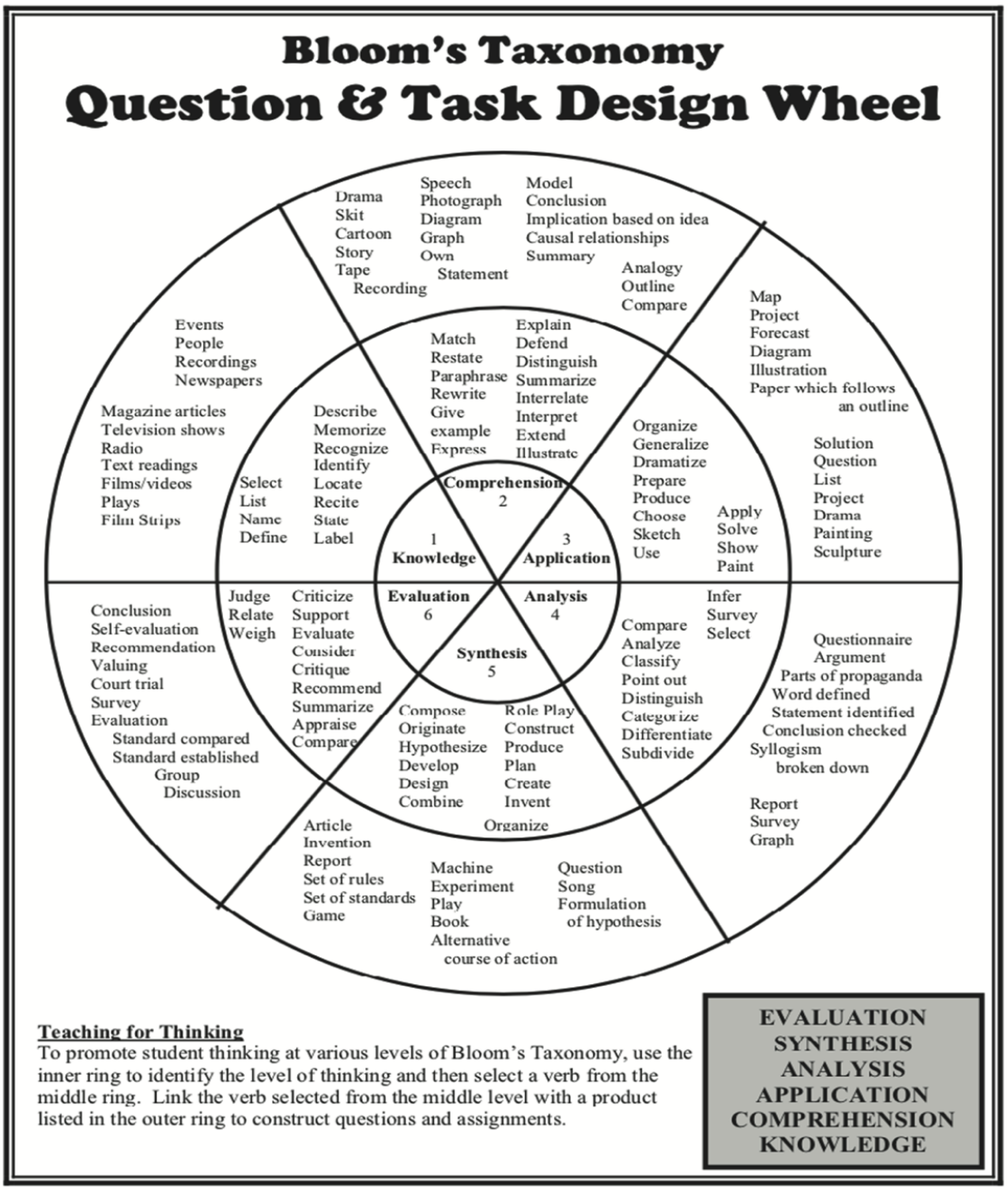

Figure 1: The Task Design Wheel (Kharbach 2023)

2.4 The Core Elements of CLIL

In contrast to traditional language courses, bilingual teaching makes use of extended discourse functions – as outlined in the above-mentioned task-verbs – and depends on a rich and authentic content and language input:

> The cognitive neurosciences also stress the need for powerful learning environments. Yet for various reasons, including teaching approaches and availability of time within the

> curriculum, not enough language education is spent encouraging learners to engage in higher-order thinking about meaningful content. There is now an intersection between the neurosciences and education, which acts as a driver in developing innovative approaches to learning such as CLIL (Marsh 2012: 258)

As far as linguistic skills are concerned, innovative teaching strategies such as scaffolding (Section 3.1) are indispensable, and the transition from social to academic discourse (Section 3.2) is part of developing subject-specific study skills and moving learning into the realm of higher order thinking (HOTS). Learning (foreign) languages in authentic contexts and environments also generates potential in re-orienting language instruction and increasing its communicative function: “teachers have aspects of motivating content at the back of their mind” (De Florio-Hansen 2018: 241). Beyond this, authentic content-based teaching proves as an option to change traditional FLT:

> CLIL is a form of language learning, but it is rarely a form of language teaching. Language teaching definitely plays a key role, but it has to be done in conjunction with authentic content teaching and learning. Content drives most CLIL implementation. This is because it is more often within the domain of subject teaching, rather than language teaching. Ideally, these would be done in a complementary way (as is the case in some countries), but this is often not the case (Marsh 2012: 255).

2.5 Literary CLIL

In the Anglophone world, literature is a subject *sui generis* and defines – for example for the Australian final school examination – its own discourse on literature, which has been tried and tested for many years, i.e. the *VCE Literature Study Design* (VCE = Victorian Certificate of Education, Secondary School graduation after Year 12). This study design covers the last two years of school in four units.

The study design focuses on the cultural background of authors and texts and can – with minor modifications – also be used as a basis for a literature curriculum yet to be developed in Germany. One advantage is that it primarily refers to English-language works of literature and maps the range of target language countries, focusing on short stories, poems, novels and other literary texts. The modular structure of the four VCE units allows for flexible adaptation to the circumstances of CLIL courses, and with their help, the implementation of Literary CLIL proposed here becomes effective in practice as a particular variant of bilingual teaching.

In Literary CLIL, learners will be able to gain real-life information about Anglophone countries and geographical, historical and political facts can, embedded in cultural studies, be analysed, as well as varieties and special features of the target cultures such as sociolects, regiolects, and dialects. Learners can thus further develop their knowledge and linguistic skills. Literary tasks include interdisciplinary studies and are instrumental in integrating elements of lower and higher thinking skills in the learning process:

> Unit 1: Approaches to Literature
> Students focus on the ways in which the interaction between the text and its reader creates meaning.

> In Unit 2: Context and Connections
> Students draw connections, contrasts and parallels between texts.
>
> Unit 3: Form and Transformation
> Students analyse how the form of a text affects meaning and how writers construct their texts.
>
> Unit 4: Interpreting Skills
> Students create critical and analytical responses to texts (ideas, style of the language and points of view).
>
> (VCE 2016: 9-19)

My version of Literary CLIL is based on the approaches of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe 2001) and is expressly favoured there as the aesthetic use of language:

> Imaginative and artistic uses of language are important both educationally and in their own right. Aesthetic activities may be productive, receptive, interactive or mediating (...) and may be oral or written. They include such activities as: singing (nursery rhymes, folk songs, pop songs, etc.), retelling and rewriting stories, etc., listening to, reading, writing and speaking imaginative texts (stories, rhymes, etc.) including audio-visual texts, cartoons, picture stories, etc., performing scripted or unscripted plays, etc., the production, reception and performance of literary texts, e.g.: reading and writing, texts (short stories, novels, poetry, etc.) and performing and watching/listening to recitals, drama, opera, etc.
>
> This summary treatment of what has traditionally been a major, often dominant, aspect of modern language studies in upper secondary and higher education may appear dismissive. It is not intended to be so. National and regional literatures make a major contribution to the European cultural heritage, which the Council of Europe sees as 'a valuable common resource to be protected and developed'. Literary studies serve many more educational purposes – intellectual, moral and emotional, linguistic and cultural – than the purely aesthetic. It is much to be hoped that teachers of literature at all levels may find many sections of the Framework relevant to their concerns and useful in making their aims and methods more transparent. (Council of Europe 2001: 56)

If the extension of this approach to include Literary CLIL consistently incorporates authentic learning occasions, the dialectic of language and content will have taken on a new dimension. What would change if English-language literature could enrich the bilingual teaching approach as a new subject? A simple answer is: not very much. After all, the selection of suitable literary sources follows content-related criteria rather than considerations that are indebted to the principles of traditional foreign language teaching (FLT), which is oriented towards linguistic aspects. The focus shifts more clearly to the content-related work and the cultural traditions of the target language country or countries – entirely in the sense of intercultural communicative competencies, which already guide the learning of a foreign language as an overriding learning objective.

Bilingual literature teaching is not really prolonged FLT but means a reorientation insofar as literary-historical content forms the basis for foreign language learning processes here – also because Literary CLIL does not attempt to compete with con-

ventional FLT. On the contrary, the former can enrich the latter and, wherever possible, be used in a modular way (as envisaged in the Thuringian curriculum). CLIL will also change FLT where authenticity, change of perspective and intercultural discourse competence (De Florio-Hansen 2018: 232) are important. One can also think in the opposite direction and plan bilingual literature lessons as an extension of CLIL within FLT, especially if a task-oriented approach is chosen. In any case, Literary CLIL provides the necessary concept and system of task-verbs. However, the significance of the mother tongue (L1) in bi-lingual discourse with regards to the respective foreign language (L2) is discussed quite controversially in the literature (Section 3.3).

3 Teaching Strategies

3.1 Hard and Soft Scaffolding

The metaphor *scaffolding* is used in the Anglophone literature to describe a support system on the road between start and finish – in a learning process that gradually enables learners to act independently. Scaffolded instruction follows a teaching and learning strategy that imparts new skills and abilities in communicative interactions otherwise being unattainable:

> In education, scaffolding refers to a variety of instructional techniques used to move students progressively toward stronger understanding and, ultimately, greater independence in the learning process. The term itself offers the relevant descriptive metaphor: teachers provide successive levels of temporary support that help students reach higher levels of comprehension and skill acquisition that they would not be able to achieve without assistance. (Glossary 2015: n.p.)

Scaffolding supports the learning process with the development of subject and language competence, whereby a distinction can also be made between *input* and *ouput scaffolding*. On the one hand, it is about acquiring subject knowledge, on the other hand, it is about securing the necessary text comprehension. Task verbs (Section 2.3) have a central function in this context because, with their help, every activity is focused on specific cognitive processes according to the task or assignment (Zydatiß 2010: 3).

Thus, as an instructional strategy, scaffolding refers to a special form of assistance that is closely tailored to the individual learning group and their learning context. The assistance is oriented towards the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in Vygotsky's (1962) sense. This zone describes the gap between students' current and potential learning levels. With the teacher's support, many learners succeed in acquiring more knowledge and skills than they could on their own. From this perspective, learning is particularly effective when it can occur *within* the student's ZPD:

> Scaffolding is widely considered to be an essential element of effective teaching and all teachers – to a greater or lesser extent – almost certainly use various forms of instructional scaffolding in their teaching. In addition, scaffolding is often used to bridge <u>learning gaps</u> – i.e., the difference between what students have learned and what they are expected to know and be able to do at a certain point in their education. (Glossary 2015: n.p., original emphasis)

The term *scaffolding* goes back to the research of the American psychologist Jerome Bruner, who, like Vygotsky, assumes an active role of the adult – e.g. the instructor in Teaching Foreign Languages (TFL) – in promoting learning processes. Bruner had used the term *scaffolding* since the mid-1970s to describe learning aids for children who want to achieve a certain goal and where adults or more knowledgeable others decide about support, helpful structures and withdrawal when appropriate. In this respect, this support concept is compatible with Vygotsky's ZPD, which is also about the target area in learning processes and the supporting steps leading there, which are planned by the teacher and appear necessary or become obsolete from the learners' point of view:

> This sociocultural approach to learning recognizes that, with assistance, learners can reach beyond what they can do unaided, participate in new situations and take on new roles. (...) This assisted performance is encapsulated in Vygotsky's notion of the zone of proximal development, or ZPD, which describes the 'gap' between what learners can do alone and what they can do with help from someone more skilled. This situated help is often known as 'scaffolding'. (Gibbons 2009: 15)

Closely linked to the learners' ZPD, the concept of scaffolding is already well-received as a teaching strategy in traditional TFL (Klewitz 2017). Scaffolds bridge the distance between the learners' existing and intended level of knowledge, linguistically and – in CLIL particularly relevant – also in terms of content. Particularly for CLIL with its "bifocal lesson planning" (Klewitz 2021: 288), supportive and encouraging guidance on the part of the teacher, in advanced phases also through peer support, is particularly meaningful and necessary in order to bridge two deficits or close gaps within the ZPD. In terms of content, it is about the difference between the learners' prior knowledge and related subject-specific terms, concepts, topics and skills to be taught. In the case of linguistic competencies, it is also important to promote language acquisition oriented towards the subject matter, to close existing linguistic gaps and to develop a discourse ability with the learners that enables them to communicate appropriately about the subject contexts in question.

Two types of support are distinguished: soft and hard scaffolds, as can be understood from Brush at al. 2002:

Soft Scaffolds	Hard Scaffolds
Dynamic aid, provided by teachers	Static support, planned in advance, based on students' prior knowledge
Situation-specific support	Using advance organisers (learnscapes, herringbone technique) (Section 3.5)
Continuous diagnosis of learners' comprehension	Support structures embedded in hyperlinks
Timely support, based on students' responses	Multimedia and hypermedia software
Students' progress monitored	Database with conceptual links
Intervention when support is needed	

Table 1: Soft and Hard Scaffolds

Regardless of the importance of discourse skills, it is relevant to note that language learning in bilingual teaching needs to serve content learning. The provision of subject-related topics, and conceptual and linguistic support play a crucial role in content learning. Such scaffolding brings orientation and convergence of language *and* content (Vollmer 2013: 129). In this dual scaffolding, reinforced by formative feedback, linguistic aids depending on the respective content are provided, which relate both to input (in particular comprehension support) and the intended output (above all, phrases to facilitate linguistic production) (KM Niedersachsen 2014: 7f.).

In relation to CLIL, dual scaffolding gains special significance for both directions of foreign language learning and shows "the methodological affinity of a modern, student-centred, task-oriented language classroom and of best practice in CLIL-teaching" (Sudhoff 2010: 33). However, it remains a special CLIL component because content learning takes place in the foreign language, and special scaffolding strategies become necessary,

> (...) such as modelling (providing examples for imitation), bridging (building on previous knowledge and understandings), contextualizing (adding context to academic language), schema building (providing thinking frameworks such as charts or advance organisers), representing text (using a new genre to present the same content), and developing meta-cognition (building learning skills strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating). (Walqui: 2006 in Mehisto 2012: 291)

3.2 The Language Triptych

Task-verbs (Section 2.3), as used in the Task Design Wheel, need to be embedded in a discourse strategy following Lower Order Thinking Skills (LOTS) or Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS), and they are implemented in a Language Triptych developed by Do Coyle (Coyle 2010: 36). The Language *of* Learning describes those linguistic elements which are derived from the respective content of subject lessons, the Language *for* Learning comprises linguistic skills needed for solving the respective task(s), and Language *through* Learning refers to language acquisition in a particular context: "grasping emerging language in situ" (ibid.: 38). Coyle mentions the following examples: "key vocabulary – asking, comparing, classifying, distinguishing, retaining, using, predicting" (ibid.: 81). Again, a recourse to the above mentioned task-verbs is obvious and makes sense

> **Language *through* learning** is based on the principle that effective learning cannot take place without active involvement of language and thinking. When learners are encouraged to articulate their understanding, then deeper level of learning takes place. The CLIL classroom demands a level of talk, of interaction and dialogic activity which is different to that of the traditional language or content classroom. (…) In CLIL settings, new meanings are likely to require new language. This emerging language needs to be captured, recycled and developed strategically by teachers and learners. In other words, learners need language to support and advance their thinking processes whilst acquiring new knowledge, as well as to progress their language learning. (ibid.: 37-38)

3.3 Social and Academic Discourse

The development of discourse competence in bilingual education is closely related to the 4 Cs Framework – from a school-based everyday language to propaedeutic language concepts, from BICS to CALP, also labelled as social and academic discourse. The two acronyms were introduced in 1979 by the Canadian linguist Jim Cummins. His starting point is the language used in everyday communication as BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and which can be regarded as a linguistic survival strategy. The language competence aimed at by CLIL programs clearly goes beyond this, enables content-related and appropriate discourse and can be assigned to propaedeutic goals as CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). The degree of specificity and depth of content depends on the topics, areas of study, grade levels, and content goals.

At a closer look, subject-related language use in CLIL is of a different nature from everyday communication situations: in CALP "kommt ein objektsprachlich stärker differenziertes, lexikalisch dichteres und abstrakteres Sprach- und Diskursrepertoire zur Anwendung[3]" (Zydatiß 2013: 132). Considering the transitions between BICS and CALP, content-based language and discourse functions are implemented by the verbalization of subject-related ways of thinking and acting, and are expressed by task verbs like *describe, explain, conclude, evaluate* or *identify, classify / define, describe, explain, conclude / argue, evaluate* (already laid out by the Council of Europe (2001).

In this continuum of transition from BICS to CALP, one can definitely assume hybrid learning processes that can be integrated into bilingual modules as well as into (advanced) FLT lessons. The main difference between CLIL and FLT, however, is that the former is primarily content-driven, while FLT serves first and foremost to promote language acquisition and the development of intercultural and transcultural competencies, although these competencies in particular show many similarities with CLIL modules.

More recent research findings of language acquisition and learning remain indecisive as to what extent the exclusive L2 usage in CLIL lessons leads to the adequate development of a subject-based discourse competence as in CALP. Apart from this, the inclusion of L1 in content-based lessons can be a valuable scaffold for less advanced or slower learners and also provide a deeper understanding of the subject matter for more advanced students. (Elsner et al. 2019: 49)

3.4 The Teaching Clock

In the Australian school network "Visible Learning" – monitored by John Hattie – consequences are drawn for the implementation of teaching processes, which are available to all teachers as *Principles of Quality Teaching*. They are used in every school classroom involved and form a binding framework for the duration of learning sequences, from the beginning of planning right to the evaluation of lesson units. A

[3] In CALP a more object-language differentiated, lexically denser and more abstract language and discussion repertoire is implemented.

short quote from the recommendations shows that they are completely adaptable to CLIL:

> **The Hook** - Grab students' attention and put them in a receptive frame of mind. Make the learning intentions and success criteria clear to students. Activate prior knowledge and review prior learning. Explicitly teach concepts and skills. (...) Ask your students to apply the concepts or skills in different contexts etc. (McKinnon Secondary College: 2018)

Figure 2: McKinnon Pedagogical Model: The Teaching Clock
(McKinnon Secondary College 2018, n.p.)

3.5 Advance Organisers: Learnscapes and Herringbone Technique

Advance Organisers are – according to their "inventor" David Ausubel (1960) – based on a structure presented by a teacher at the beginning of a learning process to help students work with new information. This is achieved by directing their attention to important aspects of the material at hand, highlighting relationships and providing a reminder about relevant prior knowledge. An advance organizer also helps students to comprehend and analyse the essential items of a lesson or teaching unit.

A case in point is the The Learnscape, originally developed as a learning landscape for environmental education in New South Wales (Australia), which is adapted here in a double function: as a bridge within the ZPD between students' existing knowledge and their targeted competencies and skills and as a mediation of historical and current events, processes and issues at hand. It can serve as the illustration of a complex learning task, a work plan for analysing a selected issue or the assessment of compiled texts and other sources tracing intertextuality and cultural relations.

Forward lesson planning and learning processes will relate to a particular topic, like a current narrative. In volume one of his autobiography "A Promised Land" (Obama 2020) Barack Obama recounts the first term of his US presidency - up to the Nobel

Peace Prize and the capture of Osama bin Laden. His memories can be interpreted in different ways: as self-justification or a serious balance of his administration and activities. In any case, they enable unique and complex impressions of recent and historical events from the viewpoint of the first black American president. Using a Learnscape, created from Obama's autobiography in this essay, students will be able to focus on events and issues outlined in the autobiography, select their choice of interest and find the timely connections as part of guided or independent research. The x- and y-axes provide guidance and in the lateral direction, an increasing level of HOTS is marked and can be implemented as a tool of learning differentiation:

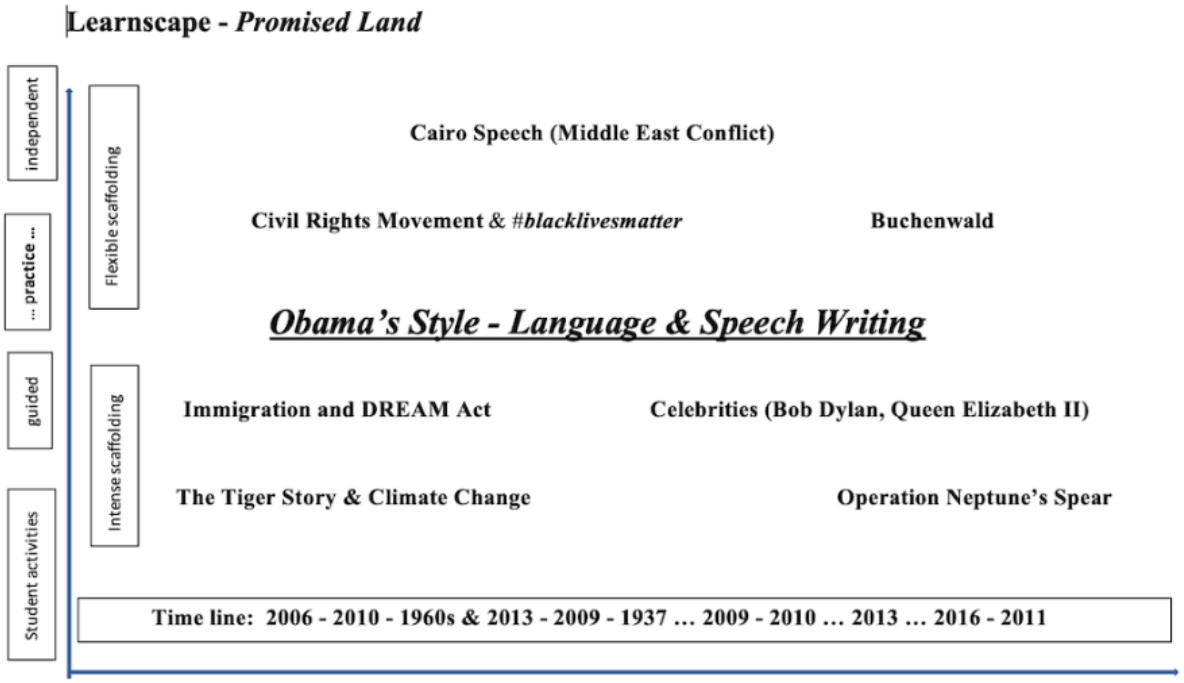

Figure 3: Obama's *Promised Land*

Using The Herringbone Technique facilitates a summary and interpretation of the narrative of a given literary text. Students are enabled to focus on the six so-called *wh*-questions: *who, what, when, where, why* and *how*. They improve their comprehension skills as well as competencies in organising, structuring and remembering information. They fill out a herringbone graph (Klewitz 2018b: 20) and determine the main ideas and concepts of the story at hand. Furthermore, they take a look at the language involved. It is not only what is said but also how things are being said that gives a deeper insight into personalities and circumstances. Points of interest can also be examples of humour and the language devices used by an author.

Advance Organisers, then, contain information presented by an instructor at the beginning of a learning process to help students organise new incoming information within their ZPD. Learnscapes and the herringbone technique are examples of teaching strategies relying on the so-called backward design as a feature of teacher preparation for a lesson or unit as a whole. When a teacher plans the teaching and learning process, he or she also has to organise (with the help of backward design) in which way and to what degree students have to show their learning outcomes in a concrete way. For example, students are to learn how to write a summary of a news-

paper article. At best, the teacher will have a worked example of a summary so that he or she can see if the learners correspond to his or her expectations. In other words, backward design is a planning instrument for teachers in order to ascertain that (most) students will reach the fixed goals.

4 Conclusions

As could be seen, CLIL and TFL approaches are based on similar aims, objectives, and complement rather than contradict each other. As long as the similarities prevail, the choice as to whether to adapt a content-based language programme or a language-driven teaching strategy largely depends on the *context* of curriculum provisions and structural conditions that can vary significantly from school to school, state to state and country to country.

A closer look at the 4 Cs, the essential building blocks of CLIL, has confirmed that, apart from the common ground of linguistic requirements, bilingual programmes tend to go further than traditional TFL in terms of subject domains and effective language acquisition. Each of these building blocks can be designed in such a way that their elements are used for multi-perspective dimensions and plurilingual concepts – e.g. by creating a Third Space and avoiding Critical Incidents. Linked in a more systematic manner and opening up to interdependencies instead of being randomly implemented in traditional language teaching, they will intensify both content knowledge and language skills significantly. It is therefore, as a final consideration, useful to take into account the requirements of these different curricular and school contexts - as a supplement of the 4 Cs and as their fifth dimension, ie. the C5.

The pedagogical context in which CLIL programmes are implemented is indeed not defined as one of the 4 building blocks (the 4 Cs) but crucial as a foundation for a learning environment for the successful realisation of bilingual approaches. Basically, as could be shown in the examples from Victorian, Canadian and German schools, this context describes the conditions, working framework and integration of CLIL classes into the mainstream system for diverse local settings and curricular requirements. A number of questions need to be addressed to guide student learning processes in their ZPD, supported by appropriate scaffolding and considering how CLIL is anchored in the respective school profile. What international certificates are offered to establish succinct success criteria (e.g. the Baccalaureate or the Cambridge Language Certificate)? Which subjects, modules or sequences are being taught bilingually? How will peer group cooperation be organised? What is the connection to the core curriculum?

In this context, Literary CLIL can work as a bridge between TFL and CLIL, because learners, apart from gaining real-life information about the target countries involved, are able to hone their language skills by experiencing varieties and special features of the L2. In interdisciplinary studies, elements of lower and higher-order thinking skills can be integrated into students' learning processes. Although there are only random examples of a distinct 'Literature' subject in bilingual programmes and related curricula, the Australian variety of *Literature Study Design* (VCE) can serve as a useful model for (plurilingual) approaches to literature in drawing connections,

contrasts and parallels between different texts, analysing form and transformation, and enhancing interpreting skills.

Overall and beyond subject matter and literary variations, CLIL approaches integrate content into language learning in such a way that TFL does not and cannot intend to do. This is not meant to imply that existing TFL programmes need to be curbed in favour of more specialized or even content-based teaching approaches. Increasing subject-related content, however, will not only enrich language learning in authentic, real-life and motivating situations but also enhance learners' language skills and subject knowledge. The innovative potential of bilingual teaching can be assessed as being very high, and CLIL is suggested as the platform for the further development of foreign language teaching. Moreover, the influence of CLIL building blocks on traditional FLT is confirmed by practitioners as having a decisive impact on language learning and should be perceived both as an opportunity and a challenge.

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Which Border to Cross? A Comparison of Two English Placement Tests Currently in Use in Japan

Thomas H. Goetz (Sapporo, Japan)

1 Introduction

Borders are for discovery. Communication across borders requires proficiency in the target language with it, doors open to new worlds, jobs, and relationships. Along the way, learners discover new goals most attainable, but starting often means placement testing. This study considers placement testing as a type of border crossing. Which border to cross can be seen as which placement test to use. By comparing two English placement tests currently in use in Japan, it is hoped that such a look will assist program administrators who must make important border-type decisions within fixed budgets, benefit teachers with purposely sorted students into level-appropriate classes, and finally deliver program-level excellence to students who will be most affected. This article will consider placement testing as a type of border crossing. Which border to cross can be seen as which placement test to use.

2 Framework

The placement testing system is in no way perfect but given the constraints of time and budget, institutions work within their frameworks. And placement testing needs to be seen in a larger context of a much wider, overall learning experience. Knight et al. (2014) rightly state that learning happens in a “middle space.” They argue that to understand just what constitutes a middle space within an overall learning experience one needs to apply learning analytics.

As stated, epistemology is the philosophical study of what knowledge is and what it means for someone to 'know' something. When seen in conjunction with two other dynamics, the need to assess, and the way pedagogy is shaped, there is a triad where these three aspects interact depending upon curricular design, needs for assessment, and the knowledge for study:

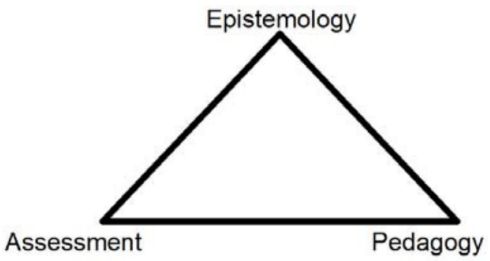


Figure 1: The Epistemology–Assessment–Pedagogy triad (Knight et al. 2014)

For the present article, the knowledge for study is to what extent learners of English as a foreign language know English. The need to assess is for intentionally placing them into classes where teachers will not merely pass along knowledge, but challenge their students at the individual and the class level with materials that reflect the pedagogy or teaching methods.

By looking at the triad, one might wonder just where one would place the placement test. In short, it would be along the bottom half between. Ideally, as time would progress, knowledge is gained and language is acquired, it would rise, approaching the triad's apex.

Placement tests tend to remain the same from year to year and are often perceived as high stakes (Bostian 2017). Typically, individuals taking a test only have a single opportunity to exhibit their proficiency in areas such as vocabulary, listening, reading, and grammar. Mason et al. (2010) conducted a study which revealed that middle school students were able to recall their online learning experience and describe its level of complexity as well as their level of certainty or uncertainty about it. How distant or close they felt to the target knowledge as a source of knowledge. And, how they justified their acquisition of knowledge or lack thereof at the different levels of sophistication (Mason et al. 2010: 69).

Of particular interest to our study are Mason's dimensions of knowledge or "epistemic belief". By regarding knowledge as levelled in degrees of simplicity, the learner perceives acquisition as a linear process in which one moves from one compartment to the next until all subparts constitute an entity. By regarding knowledge in degrees of certainty, the learner sees beyond immediate doable tasks to tasks that are at present beyond their ability. Certainty of knowledge means that it represents a tentative and evolving dynamic (Mason et al. 2010: 69).

Within the context of an online placement test, teachers and test administrators are at a disadvantage in that they are not able to see each student directly. In smaller programs, a mandatory interview could reveal much-needed information about a learner's approach to language learning and the preconception of the knowledge needed. In light of this limitation, one must intentionally construct a placement test which contains items that will suggest, or allow for inference, a participant's predisposition for language learning.

Noticeably, a lack of vocabulary is a major cause for failure according to the perceptions of the test takers (Carrió-Pastor & Martín 2018). So, the type of test with its component parts has serious implications for the test-taking constituency. Grammar is a secondary concern, and reading questions, for participants with a deficient vocabulary, will not be able to demonstrate much beyond the words familiar to them.

In the present study, two placement tests in current use in Japan will be considered. Both tests have a rich bank of vocabulary items together with other salient aspects. One test employs Item Response Theory to determine a score, and the other, a publisher-provided test tailored for a textbook series with score rankings based upon a large population of previous test-takers, will be examined, the CASEC Test and the Cengage Learning Placement Test for the World Link series.

3 Research Design

We hope that our analysis of two English Placement Tests that are currently in use in Japan will help program administrators, who must make important, border-type decisions within fixed budgets, to benefit teachers with purposefully sorted students into level-appropriate classes and finally deliver program-level excellence to students, who will, after all, be most affected.

3.1. The CASEC Test

The CASEC Test is an online instrument to evaluate a test taker's ability to communicate in English. It has so far been taken by around one million candidates. The acronym *CASEC* stands for Computerized Assessment System for English Communication (CASEC 2010):

In CASEC, the underlying framework is Item Response Theory (IRT). The CASEC test evaluates English proficiency and consists of four sections: knowledge of vocabulary, knowledge of phrasal expressions and usage, listening ability – understanding of main ideas, and listening ability – understanding specific information (Obari & Lambacher 2012). The results of the CASEC test are indexed to correspond with other tests. CASEC has created a table that aggregates scores to TOEIC, EIKEN, and TOEFL (CASEC 2021). For example, a learner who takes the CASEC test and obtains a score of 623, his or her score for TOEIC would be 590, and for TOEFL, it would be 473. As an added adjunct to the experience, automated feedback in the learners' preferred language is provided to suggest areas for improvement in vocabulary, expressions, and listening comprehension (CASEC 2021). The CASEC test is available by subscription: a single session costs ¥ 500 or € 3.90. As a stand-alone test, it is not limited to a particular publisher textbook series. As in the case of Obari & Lambacher (2012), the CASEC test was the pre- and post measure in their study about Digital Storytelling and Blogs (Obari & Lambacher 2012).

3.2 The Cengage Learning Test

As mentioned earlier, Cengage Learning provides placements for various titles. For the purpose of this study, the World Link Placement Test was used. Instructors of classes using the World Link program may reproduce materials for classroom and or program-level use. Otherwise, no part covered by the copyright may be reproduced or used in any form or by any means, graphic electronic, or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, taping, Web distribution, or information storage. With written permission granted, essential materials for the placement test were digitized and uploaded to the university's Moodle platform.

The World Link Placement Test is a comprehensive test that selects materials from four WorldLink books: *Intro, Book 1, Book 2*, and *Book 3*. It is free with the purchase of any of the corresponding teacher's manuals and program-level adoptions. There are two versions (A and B) available. The World Link Placement Test Package was developed to help teachers place students in the most appropriate level of the World Link program (Stempleski 2008). In both versions, the World Link Placement test

evaluates English proficiency and consists of four sections: knowledge of vocabulary, knowledge of grammar, listening ability – understanding of main ideas; and reading for understanding either specific or general information. In the present study, Version A was used:

Figure 2: The World Link Series

3.3 Instrumentation Concerns

The two tests mentioned before are very different in terms of their casting, but in the end, they accomplish exactly what they set out to do, thus blurring their differences.

3.3.1 The Format - Questions per Page

The World Link Placement test was formatted to accommodate 57 questions on a single page. This is similar to the TOEIC in that students can scan for the 'easy' questions and then plan their remaining time in accordance with what they perceive that they can do. This setting also frees up students from clicking the advance button, thus enabling them to spend more time on the task. Considering that a single mouse click involves a total of two seconds from the time of mouse-reach to the next page loading enough for attenuation, with nearly 60 items, one is taking away, by design, two minutes. Additionally, if there is a time limit, then, in reality, it is less than what the test-taker expects. (It is not quite clear what you are getting at. Why is this so important? Similar time constraints also play a role on other tests, don't they?)

With that in mind, a timer was set at 30 minutes for the World Link Placement test in that if they had not completed the test, then Moodle would conclude their attempt and save their data. Another reason for the time limit was to facilitate a rotation of students within a 90-minute period. There were two sessions, one early and the other late. This provided a level of operational convenience for the administrators to channel new students through a larger new-student orientation schedule.

In contrast, there is the CASEC test, in which students need to advance for each question. There is no time limit, however, as the publishers state that the CASEC test usually takes between 40 to 50 minutes. Within a session, it is undetermined how many questions a CASEC test taker will take. Normally, a variety of easy and difficult questions are selected, followed by easier ones. Such can be a factor in

test-taker fatigue in that one does not know for certain the end nor what is coming next. CASEC test-takers are unable to skim and scan as a test-taking strategy.

3.3.2 Anxiety and Fatigue

The notion of test-taker fatigue is well-established. In her article, Lee (2020) states that there are factors which can undermine student test performance. With difficult questions come anxiety as well as fatigue that can hinder test performance (ibid). In the case of the World Link Placement test, a timer clock provided by Moodle was positioned in the upper left of the screen. The rationale was that since there is a time limit, students ought to know. Equally so, it could be alleged that such a clock could be a constant 'watchful eye' on the student who is not progressing through the inventory.

As for the CASEC test, there was no time limit. The test ends when there are no more test-taker questions available by way of its algorithm. Any further questioning would no longer contribute to their score. This factor makes the CASEC test a difficult test to administer within a limited amount of time.

A notable difference is that with the CASEC test, all questions given to the participant must be answered, or else the test is incomplete. With the World Link Placement test, should a user abandon it, Moodle will regard all unattempted questions as incorrect, and thus award zero points for each.

3.3.3 Overall Form and Content

In the case of the World Link Placement Test, the test-taker is exposed to a variety of questions that correspond to the various chapters of the four-level series. These questions include vocabulary, grammar, listening, scanning for information, and reading for meaning. The local setting had the questions shuffled for each test-taker. This would help to personalize the overall experience and reduce the likelihood of cheating.

The CASEC test, quite similarly, exposes the test-taker to a variety of communicative situations very similar to the World Link Placement test: vocabulary, grammar, and listening from casual to business registers reflecting general language variety. The use of item response theory in essence affords a shuffled-like manner that, in effect, personalizes the test-taking experience making it unique to the student.

Both the CASEC and the World Link Placement test include a wide vocabulary up to the B2 level (if not beyond) of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), so, if a test-taker cannot answer questions correctly, he or she can skip it with the World Link Placement test. But with the CASEC test, he or she must answer the questions in order to proceed. This may appear to be a disadvantage, but the advantage is that students won't encounter questions at that level of difficulty. This can take time, especially for an advanced learner. Difficult questions will continue to come up until a higher level is no longer available.

The overall theme of the CASEC test focuses on business English, its vocabulary, and communicative situations. But with the World Link Placement test, the focus is not only on business English but also on many other topics indicative of the units and lessons offered in the textbook series. In both tests, the range of vocabulary is so wide that it would be next to impossible to prepare for the vocabulary.

3.3.4 Tricking the Tests

Both tests are appropriate to the situation for sorting students into level-appropriate classes. Therefore, there is a need for concern about test-takers tricking the test.

If anything, one ought to be concerned about test-takers who deliberately hobble their own score to get into an 'easy' class. Such value to that approach is minimal in that after a class or two, the teacher senses who the advanced students are and then teaches them accordingly, or alternatively, boredom sets in when the learners figure out that there is nothing new that could interest them.

In the case of CASEC, there are no past exam papers as it is available strictly online. As for the World Placement Test, one would have to acquire the resource CD, which could happen, but is most unlikely.

In summary, the two tests are, from a test-taker's point of view, similar enough in what they set out to do, and deliver an altogether commensurate amount of anxiety and fatigue indicative of tests of this nature.

4 Method

The intent of each test is twofold: 1) to sort first and second-year students and 2) impress upon them that the overall program is intentional for their maximum benefit in learning English. In the present study, the two tests were compared by way of managing the data from all participants. The characteristic of the local program is that it is entirely populated by students who are non-English majors. This program, known as the Cross-Departmental Program (CDP), attracts students whose English is so good that they are likely to test out after being assigned to a class, or who do not feel that English has any potential to be taken seriously other than credit gained.

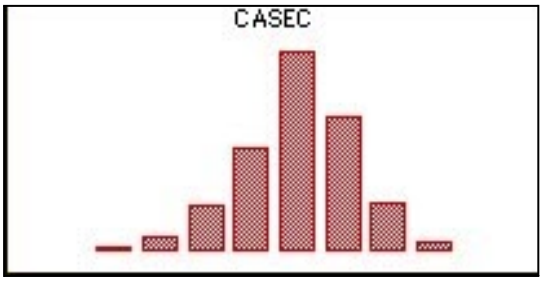
The data from the two tests were checked for similarity. To accomplish this check, a correlation was run. Statistics were generated by Stat View SE Plus Graphics 1.3 on a 1996 Power PC Macintosh 7600/120 using system 9.2.1. Survey data were collected with SurveyMonkey. The World Blank Placement test was adapted from the Publishers Exam View Resource CD to Moodle Quiz Module.

5 Results

5.1 Correlation, Covariance, and R-Squared

Stat View reports that there was a correlation of .98737 between the World Link Placement Test A and the CASEC test. As becomes evident in the graphics, a basic

representation of the Histograms of each shows that they are visually similar:



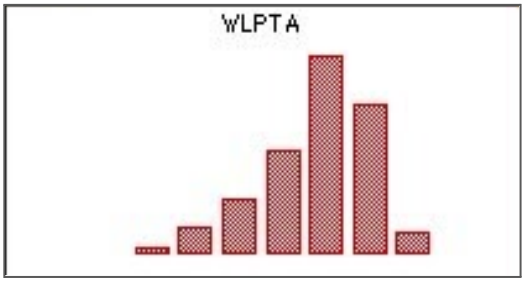


Figure 3: Test Histograms

Among the test-takers, the results were significant at $p<0.05$. The scores generated show altogether similar distributions such that whatever differences there are, are insignificant:

Stat View Basic Statistics	**Correlation**	**Missing Data Deletion: Casewise. N=388.**
N: 462 All cases	**World Link Placement Test**	**CASEC Test**
World Link Placement Test	1.00000	0.98737
	p< .05	p< .05
CASEC	0.98737	1.00000
	p< .05	p< .05

Table 1: Correlation

Correlation	**Coefficient**	**X1: World Link Placement Test**	**Y1: CASEC**
Count: 388	Covariance: 861.912	Correlation: 0.987	R-Squared: 97.5%

Table 2: R-Squared

With a total population of 462 of unequal size, Stat View adjusted for the missing data by deleting 74 cases with N=388. The Correlation Coefficient is 0.98737 at $p< .05$ indicating significance. This is to say that among the test-takers, the scores generated showed similar distributions such that whatever differences there are, are insignificant.

A visual from the Matrix Scatterplot shows the similarity with low, middle, and high-level performers sharing similar kurtosis or profiles:

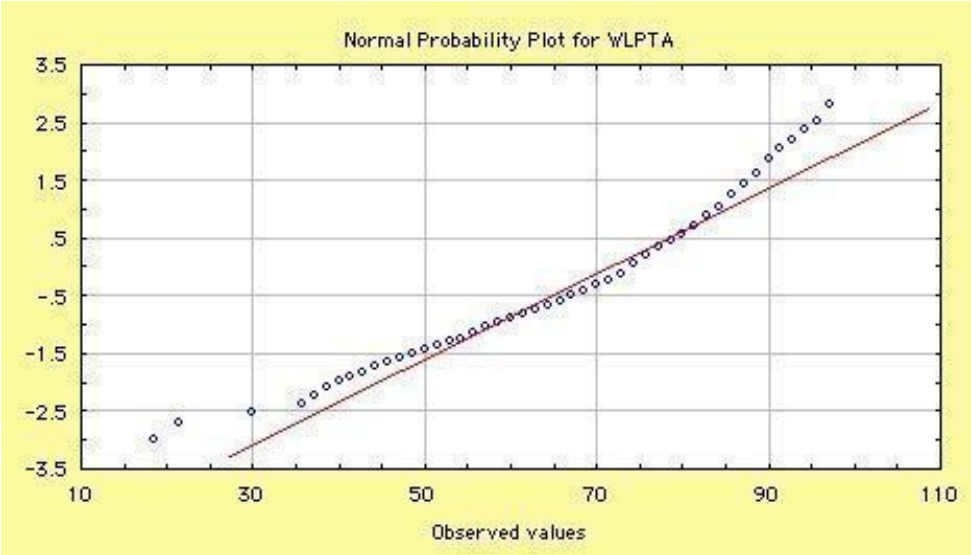


Figure 4: Matrix Scatterplot - World Link Placement Test

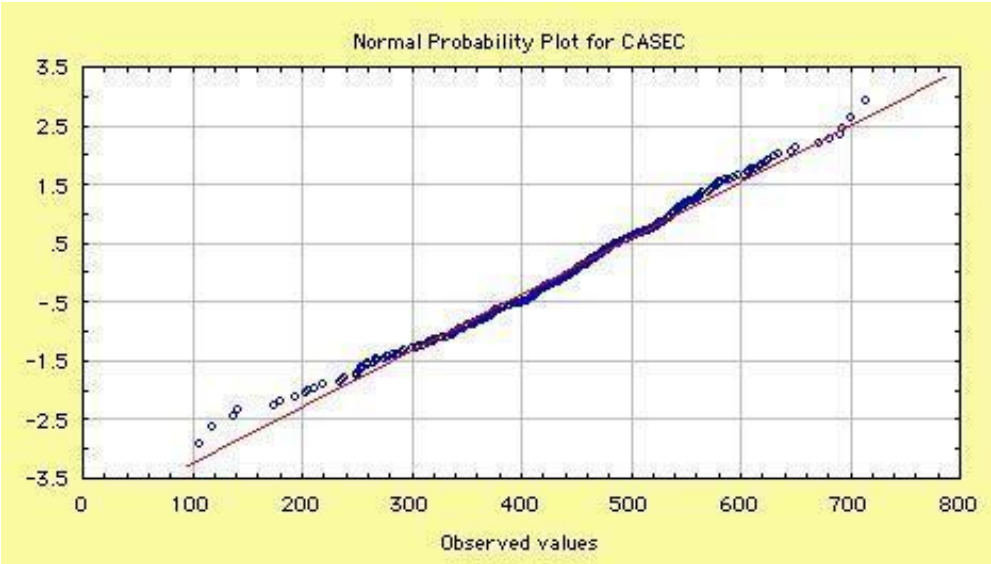


Figure 5: Matrix Scatterplot - CASEC Test

The Covariance indicates the direction of the linear relationship between the two tests. In this case, the Covariance is very strong. Correlations measure both the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the two tests. In this case, there is a strong correlation, as reflected in the highly significant R-Squared.

Normal probability plots demonstrate the normal distribution of data sets. The data points are plotted against a theoretical normal distribution, with the goal of creating a straight line. Deviations from this straight line indicate that the data is not normally distributed. Here, it can be seen that the plotted points in both plots fall very close to

a straight line, and hence the normality condition appears to be satisfied for both types of tests (NIST 2023). Correlations provide a restricted perspective since they are bivariate in nature, capturing only the degree and direction of the association between two variables. This approach, however, fails to consider the perceptions and opinions of the participants who contributed to the data. One must also consider these factors to fully understand the assessment provided by test providers. Hence, when evaluating the accuracy and usefulness of a test, these factors need to be considered.

At this point, the present study becomes more ethnographic. Ethnographic studies are those that can have several dynamics which centre around participants' opinions, likes, and dislikes. In this case, the data are survey-based. As typical of ethnographic research, the researcher to some degree interacts with the subjects, which makes the researcher a participant concurrent with the others. Participants remain free to contribute as much or as little as they please.

The statistics used are descriptive, easy to present, and understandable. Variables may emerge and hence be grouped together, thus forming sub-groups. New trends may emerge or not with the arrangement of variables. Empirical conclusions are best reserved and examined as a whole.

In short, when asking students how they liked a particular placement test, one is really asking about where they felt they belonged. This is known as the art of creating intentional spaces (Bauwens 2008). Students, teachers, and administrators have needs at every level of university life. Placement testing is more than sorting students, it is building community. Intentional spaces are created within a dynamic that is informed and applicable.

5.2 Survey Data

Below are the results of the survey conducted using SurveyMonkey, which collected feedback from a limited number of participants about their test-taking experience (CASEC N=28, World Link Placement Test N=29):

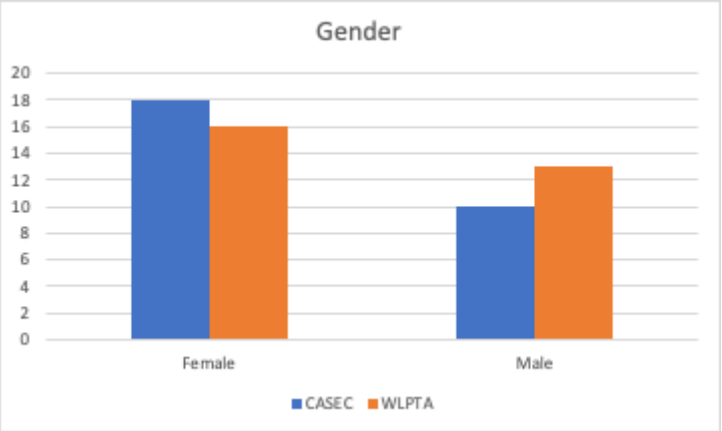


Figure 6: Gender Profile

Reflecting the demographic of the local university, there was a predominance of females.

5.2.1 Time Needed

It's imperative to investigate the underlying factors contributing to positive or negative test-taking experiences in order to determine which factors contribute to those experiences. Mainly first-year students took the World Link Placement Test while second-year students took the CASEC test. The time needed to complete each was an important factor. 70% of the CASEC participants felt that they needed forty or more minutes to complete it:

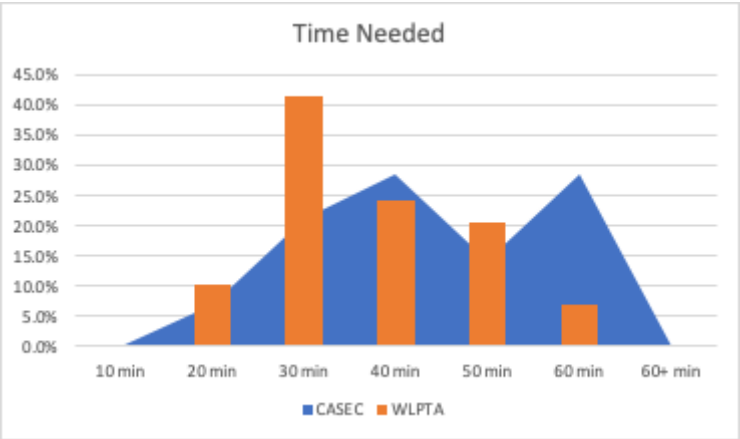


Figure 7: Time Needed for Completion

This is in contrast to an aggregate of 90% indicating that the participants felt that thirty or more minutes were needed to complete the World Link test. Already, one can see a divergence emerging not only with the time needed but where the time was needed. 50% of the World Link test-takers needed 30 minutes or less. This is in contrast to roughly 30% who needed 30 minutes or less to complete the CASEC test. In short, the CASEC test asked for more time from the students.

5.2.2 Appropriate Length

According to the survey responses, a total of 25 students provided feedback that the CASEC test had a considerable length, but that it was acceptable, while the World Link test was perceived as relatively shorter but still somewhat lengthy. On a negative note, three out of four students mentioned that the CASEC test was longer than the World Link test (Figure 8 below).

The length of the CASEC test was longer. One needs to bear in mind that the CASEC test uses Item Response Theory in determining participant scores. That being said, when using this theory, it should be expected that more time will be needed in establishing the test-takers' level.

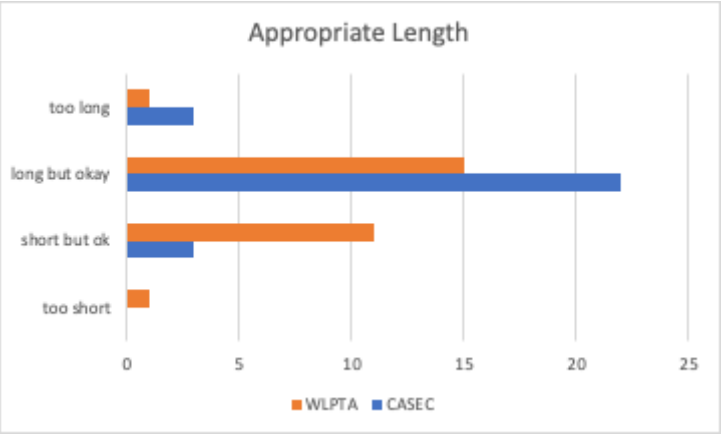


Figure 8: Appropriate Length

5.2.3 Technical Quality

The audio quality, which could refer to anything ranging from the hardware used, such as the headphones or the audio files embedded was estimated to be satisfactory by the students. Worthy of highlight is that the audio environments of both the CASEC and World Link Placement tests were observed to be highly similar, indicating a positive and promising finding:

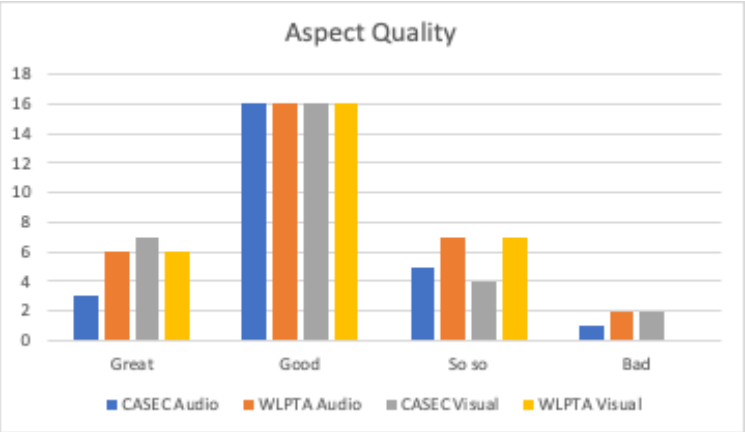


Figure 9: Visual Aspect Quality

Some teachers and students commented that the CASEC graphics were loaded too slowly. Background images were common in CASEC whereas, in the World Link test, background images were not used in favour of lightweight JPEGS, only when absolutely necessary.

In short, both tests were satisfactory with regard to the audio and visual aspects which require participant attenuation.

5.2.4 Overall Quality

With regard to overall test quality, students showed some reservations about the CASEC test. Equally so, the World Link Placement Test gathered more outright disapprovals while both being more or less evenly balanced with approval ratings over 70%. But given the limited number of respondents, one should exercise caution:

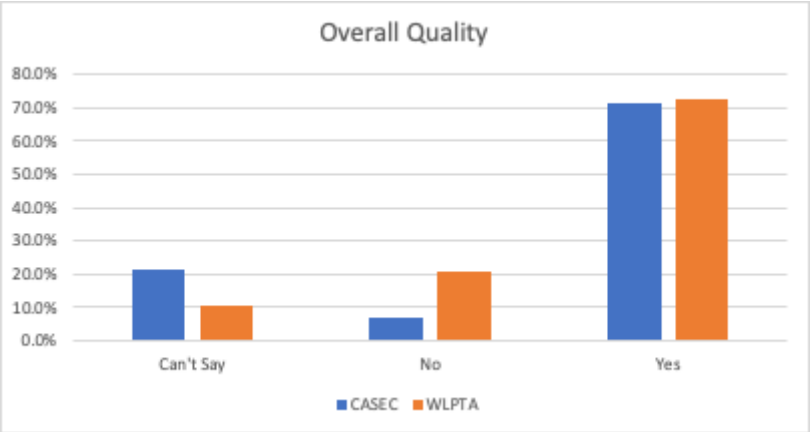


Figure 10: Overall Quality

6 Observations

The survey data show feedback from students that arguably could endorse both tests. Additionally, feedback was collected verbally from the office staff and colleagues. Such additional feedback illustrates the importance of matching the right placement test with the right setting, with respect to academic, financial, and administrative concerns.

When the various considerations of this study are seen in the aggregate, a picture comes into clear focus. With regard to the students, they prefer the World Link test *vis-à-vis* the time needed to complete and the tests' overall lengths.

Professors saw advantages and disadvantages to both regarding ease of implementation, cost, and support.

The office secretary felt that both tests were equally easy to set up. The office accountant, however, showed a preference for the World Link Placement test in terms of price.

The CASEC has the advantage of a more or less worry-free experience that came with professional support when a representative from the company was present. Given the context, a relatively high-stakes environment with no margin for failure is a major concern. Placement tests are often given only a matter of days, or even hours, before classroom memberships must be published, thus creating a perceived high-stakes environment. The more reliable product is the one that is usually adopt ed. The CASEC test delivers, and to this end, one recognizes its selling point. But,

with convenience comes an expensive price.

As for the World Link Placement Test, it is budget-friendly but someone needs to assume responsibility, thus ensuring its reliability and usefulness. Such was accomplished. On a side note, a paper backup was prepared but never used.

The World Link Placement Test can accomplish the same task as the CASEC test when in the hands of competent Moodle users – faculty, staff, and students inclusive. Significant savings of ¥1,500,000 (€12,000) were realized with the same outcome. The World Link Placement test benefited this local program as it faced shrinking budgets. Students could be placed accordingly and in a timely manner.

Earlier, it was discussed that the learners' 'middle space', i.e. the interplay between epistemological, assessment, and pedagogical factors, plays a crucial role in the design and implementation of educational programs, including placement tests. As learners navigate this middle space and transition to higher levels of education, it becomes important to consider placement test metadata.

One cannot access question-level metadata in the CASEC test, likely due to the item response theory algorithm employed, thus rendering the use of discriminative and facility indexes irrelevant. In short, the test designers at CASEC had, prior to releasing their test to the market, presumably established the respective levels of difficulties of each item through thorough testing, and then created their item response theory chain.

As for the World Link Placement test, once it is available within a Moodle environment, admins, and teachers with editing privileges will not only be able to access the metadata in the quiz statistics pane, they will also be able to adjust weights at the question level according to their preferred metadata tags, most commonly the Facility Index and Discrimination Index. For the Cross-Departmental Program, question-level metadata from the Facility Index has been used in subsequent years to adapt question weights awarding students who correctly answered more difficult questions over and against those who did not (Goetz 2020).

7 Discussion

A placement test is essential to creating an effective learning environment for students. This critical step ensures that teachers are matched with the most suitable materials and that students are guided toward achieving their desired performance levels. Teachers can expand their teaching horizons and reach more students by selecting an effective placement test.

However, while an effective placement test is undoubtedly an essential tool for educators, it is also important to recognize that learners ultimately bear responsibility for appropriating the knowledge presented to them. As such, teachers must remain attuned to their students' needs and learning styles while recognizing the importance of providing more precise guidance when necessary.

By maintaining a clear focus on the present tasks at hand and reinforcing their initial

sense of calling to the teaching profession, educators can continue to cultivate a sense of purpose and passion in their work. Ultimately, this sense of purpose and passion is a vital foundation for successful teaching. It provides the necessary inspiration and motivation to ensure that students receive the best education.

From the outset, it was asked which placement test was best. By collecting data, running a correlation, then conducting a survey and finally following it up with discussions, the World Link Placement turned out to be the better fit. While the CASEC test may have had some attractive aspects, budgetary concerns weighed in. Seen in this light, the World Link Placement test is more in compliance with the MAYA Principle than the CASEC test.

In placement tests, teachers, students, and administrators form a dynamic that pushes and pulls each other into creating an overall intentional space for teaching. In this way, with the right test in the right place, a learning community is established.

From this point, people's involvement and focus shift more towards the opportunity where they feel they belong (Bauwens 2008). Hopefully, teachers will discover that they are teaching smart by choosing what is best rather than working hard and focusing strictly on fidelity to the syllabus and end-of-term student feedback surveys. On its best day, a practical and effective placement test can open doors for teachers to explore new approaches while staying within their zones of familiarity and comfort, leading to enhanced student learning outcomes and overall success

8 Conclusion

The present study considered two placement tests currently in use in Japan: the CASEC and the World Link Placement tests. The CASEC test is available by subscription and features Item Response Theory in determining student proficiency level in the target language regardless of textbooks used. The World Link Placement Test is freely available for programs that adopt the World Link Series. It is based upon previously accumulated data in constructing a norm-referenced environment where test-taker outcomes may be compared and ranked accordingly. While markedly different, the intent of each is to sort students within a short amount of time. A correlation between the two showed compatibility.

The two placement tests that were examined in this study have been positively received by both students and colleagues. The methodical and purposeful nature of these tests makes them effective tools for assigning students to level-appropriate classes. Notably, the World Link test stands out as a cost-effective alternative to the CASEC test while being equally efficient. On the other hand, the CASEC test is a more advanced tool that is particularly useful in contexts with a specific local need that requires a pre- and post-test environment to evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum or treatment provided. These tests, therefore, represent valuable options for teachers and educators who seek to create intentional learning spaces for their students.

The results from our student feedback survey showed favour towards the World Link test. The largest benefit was budgetary but competent local talent is needed to set

up this test and troubleshoot it if necessary. Program administrators who must make important, border-type decisions with fixed budgets can deliver program-level excellence at savings.

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Third-Mission Transfer in a University Mediation Class as a Contribution to Society

Cornelia Gerhardt (Saarbrücken, Germany)

1 Introduction

The two classic missions of universities, teaching and research, have recently been complemented by a third mission (TM), transfer, paraphrased as “a contribution to society” (Compagnucci & Spigarelli 2020: 1). Hence, not only technology transfer, but also knowledge transfer and cooperation with social actors, such as associations, initiatives, or governmental institutions, can constitute a core pillar in tertiary education (Hachmeister et al. 2016, Kümmel-Schnur et al. 2020). This chapter investigates the inclusion of a practical project carried out in a foreign language classroom in the framework of the initiative to include a third mission in tertiary education, a project also in line with task-based teaching (Ellis 2003).

While many university subjects, such as computer science or engineering, have obvious practical contributions to make that can be integrated into teaching, for the humanities or philology, the inclusion of civic engagement becomes less clear. Hence, the present chapter critically evaluates transfer learning in a mediation class for university students of English at Saarland University (Saarbrücken, Germany). Within the framework of *DaTa-Pin*, a major university initiative strengthening digitalisation (Universität des Saarlandes 2021), the project *SaarPreneur* offers students the opportunity to play an integral part in the development of a Moodle course fostering entrepreneurial thinking at the university and beyond.

Students of English Philology were integrated with the development and implementation of content. As part of a mediation class, their task was two-fold: on the one hand, they had to find German specimens of texts which are necessary or helpful in the process of starting a business in Saarland. On the other hand, they were supposed to make the process of founding a business in Saarland accessible to non-German speakers, e.g. by translating, devising explanatory texts, and, essentially, by implementing a Moodle course.

By integrating students into this project, we hope to (1) raise students’ awareness of mediation processes, (2) offer future teachers first hands-on experience in the role of instructors in Moodle, (3) motivate students utilising an applied digital project with an actual product, and (4) include students in the transfer of knowledge as part of the third mission of universities.

This chapter[1] will explore the benefits, limitations, and constraints of this project. Hence, the research question is whether transfer orientation is feasible in tertiary education in the foreign language classroom given the contextual framework of fixed curricula. The empirical data consist of student work, observations by the instructor, and evaluations by different stakeholders in the *SaarPreneur* project.

In the following sections, a short overview of the literature on mediation and transfer as a third mission for universities will be given, followed by a section explaining the wider context of the project and the mediation class. The main section presents the assignment, students' work, observations by the instructor, and evaluations. The chapter concludes with a critical discussion and future directions.

2 Literature Review

With the advent of the two Companion Volumes (Council of Europe 2018, Council of Europe 2020) to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe 2001), mediation has become a more integral part of foreign language teaching. In university contexts, transfer has been proposed as a third mission, besides research and teaching. Both more recent developments will be examined in the following two sub-sections.

2.1 Mediation

According to the CEFR, mediation activities occupy an important place in the normal linguistic functioning of our societies. In addition to cross-linguistic mediation, this also encompasses mediation related to communication and learning, as well as social and cultural mediation (Council of Europe 2001: 14). The authors took this wider approach because of its relevance in increasingly diverse classrooms and in relation to the spread of Content and Language Integrated Learning (Gerhardt & Neumann 2012 and 2013 for another Saarland project in foreign language teaching and learning). Hence, mediation is increasingly seen as part of all learning, but especially of all language learning (Kohler 2015):

> In both the receptive and productive modes, the written and/or oral activities of mediation make communication possible between persons who are unable, for whatever reason, to communicate with each other directly. Translation or interpretation, a paraphrase, summary or record, provides for a third party a (re)formulation of a source text to which this third party does not have direct access. (Council of Europe 2001: 14)

The 2020 Companion Volume offers several descriptors which cannot all be reproduced here. Overall, the C1/C2 level portrays a mediator not only with near-perfect

[1] This paper was presented at the 6th Saarbrücken International Conference on Foreign Language Teaching "Communication across Borders", held online from 27 - 29 October 2021. I would like to thank the Conference Chairman, Thomas Tinnefeld (Saarland University of Applied Sciences), and Sylwia Kossakowska-Pisarek (University of Warsaw) for hosting the session on Mediation. I would also like to acknowledge the helpful comments made by Alice Spitz and the assistance I got from Maren Luthringshauser.

language competencies, but also with sociocultural and linguistic awareness, and key competencies such as diplomacy (Council of Europe 2020: 91). The different mediating activities and strategies are diverse and comprehensive (Section 5). The action-oriented approach to language teaching taken by the CEFR (Piccardo & North 2019) perfectly complements this mission since its theoretical underpinning conceives students as social agents. Also, third mission projects can be interpreted as task-based teaching and learning (Ellis 2003).

Since the mediation task within *SaarPreneur* includes translations from German documents into an English-language Moodle course, the following aspect from the 2020 Companion Volume 2020 is of special interest. When translating a written text, Language A and Language B may be

> different languages, varieties of the same language, registers of the same variety, modalities[2] of the same language or variety, or any combination of the above. (Council of Europe 2020: 102)

We will see that the mediation task used within this project is highly complex in this respect (Section 4).

In the German context, a number of publications localise mediation in the school system and its curricula, also providing hands-on activities for different levels and school types (e.g. Philipp & Rauch 2010 and Rausch 2017 for English). Pertinent German journals for English or foreign language teachers published special issues devoted to mediation (e.g. Englisch 2013 (24), Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht 2019 (161), Unterricht Englisch 2008 (93), Praxis Fremdsprachenunterricht 2008 (5)). Cultural awareness is a key goal of mediation activities (Bubel & Spitz 2013 for a regional Saarland context).

In tertiary education, a large number of studies are concerned with mediation tasks by students of other subjects such as rehabilitation science (Korai & Papadima-Sophocleous 2021), law (Chovancová 2016, García-Sánchez 2022), engineering (Pop 2010) or medicine (Liontou and Braidwood 2021), often as part of foreign language requirements within their courses of study. Studies concentrating on the formation of foreign language teachers or C1/C2 level classes are scarce: Gadomska showcases a Moodle class on mediation for future English teachers (2019). This article will help fill this gap by providing good practice for a mediation class on C1/C2 level for future English teachers.

2.1.1 Third mission: Transfer

The following section will provide a concise overview sufficient in the context of a publication on foreign language learning. The *third mission* is “currently both the most crucial mission and that which most requires innovation in the organisation of universities” (Compagnucci & Spigarelli 2020: 18). As a more recent development in tertiary education in Germany, *transfer* has been proposed as a third mission for universities, next to research and teaching. In addition to classic technology transfer,

[2] The term *modality* here refers to the inclusion of sign language in the CEFR, not the multimodality of CMC.

e.g. by engineering departments or the natural sciences, this transfer of knowledge does not only target the industry or companies but also other social agents, including municipalities, associations or local initiatives, to contribute meaningfully to society (Kümmel-Schnur et al. 2020: 9, also 'service learning' in the US, e.g. Astin et al. 2000):

> Der Aktivitätsbereich von Hochschulen lässt sich kaum noch auf die Kernmissionen Lehre und Forschung beschränken. Hochschulen prägen nicht mehr nur ihre Studierenden durch die Lehre und die „Scientific Community" durch die Forschung. Sie produzieren – oftmals in Kooperation mit externen Akteuren – wertvolle Beiträge für die Gesellschaft. Aus Partnerschaften zwischen Hochschulen und Unternehmen, Forschungseinrichtungen oder zivilgesellschaftlichen Akteuren entstehen Innovationen, welche der Allgemeinheit zugutekommen. (…) Wissenschaftliche Erkenntnisse werden der Bevölkerung in der nahen Umgebung zugänglich gemacht, Studierende und Alumni wirken als kreativer Motor und beleben die Region durch Input in den kulturellen, politischen oder ökonomischen Bereich. Diese Leistungen von Hochschulen, die in wechselseitigem Austausch mit der Gesellschaft entstehen, können als Dritte Aufgabe – Third Mission – von Hochschulen begriffen werden[3] (Hachmeister et al. 2016: 7).

Thus, the impact of universities on society is and should be much more important than what is usually called technology transfer. Essentially, the transfer of knowledge and practical cooperation with other social stakeholders should be reinforced: on the one hand, by intertwining research, teaching, and transfer, on the other hand, by making the transfer more visible and an integral part of tertiary education (Hachmeister et al. 2016). Transfer-oriented teaching and civic engagement should be seen as an opportunity for universities rather than a burden (Kümmel-Schnur et al. 2020).

Potential contributions by students in the framework of teaching include "an exhibition, a film, cooperation with pupils, encounters with business people or politicians, (…) a module for an online course of an institution" (Kümmel-Schnur et al. 2020: 18). Fundamentally, activities from all three pillars should be interlocked rather than sequentially organised. The close intertwining of the third mission with research and teaching will generate results that are not possible without outside co-operations. As regional activities, as is the case for *SaarPreneur*, the third mission also represents service learning (Hachmeister at al. 2016: 10).

In Europe, the initiative for and debate about transfer has been on since the beginning of the millennium, while US American Universities have closely collaborated with local partners since the passing of the Land-Grant College act in the 19th century (Compagnucci & Spigarelli 2020: 2). *Third mission* is a fluid concept which has been conceptualised as an entrepreneurial university, knowledge transfer (including

[3] Universities do not only have an impact on their students through teaching and on the scientific community through research anymore. Oftentimes by cooperating with external partners, they also make valuable contributions to society. Innovations for the benefit of the general public are created from partnerships between universities and companies, research institutions, or civic partners. (…) Scientific knowledge is made accessible to the population in the area; students and alumni act as a creative force and stimulate the region with input into cultural, political, or economic sectors. This output of universities, achieved in cooperation with society, can be seen as the third mission of higher education (translation, C.G.).

entrepreneurship education) and community engagement to "contribute to the social, economic and cultural development of the region in which they (the universities; C.G.) operate (Agasisti et al. 2019 in Compagnucci & Spigarelli 2020: 14). The authors deplore that "existing studies mainly focus on universities in accomplishing their traditional missions, or they offer a narrow perspective of the TM (third space; C.G.)." (Compagnucci & Spigarelli 2020: 1)

The *SaarPreneur* Project, designed with a view to fostering entrepreneurship at the university and beyond and practically developed and implemented by students of English together with other relevant stakeholders, represents a good example for the third mission in tertiary education outside of the sciences. The present chapter will show that third-mission projects are doable and desirable, even in the foreign language classroom.

3 The Context

3.1. *DaTa-Pin* and *SaarPreneur*

A foundation for innovation in university teaching founded in Germany and its different states provides funding for the digitalisation of university teaching (Stiftung Innovation in der Hochschullehre 2020). Saarland University successfully submitted a project called *DaTa-Pin*.

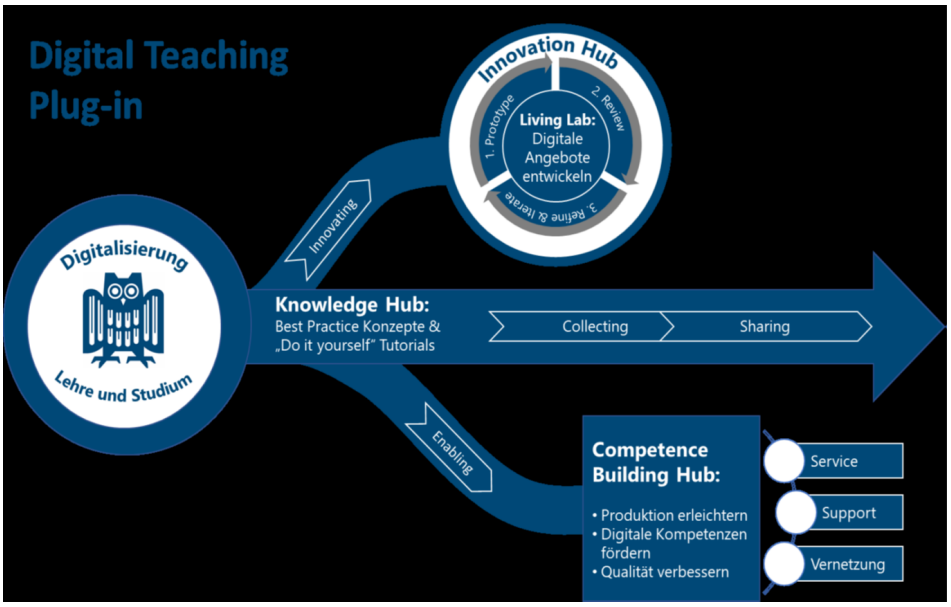


Figure 1: *DaTa-Pin*

DaTa-Pin consists of three hubs:

1. an innovation hub, the living lab, in which innovations are developed,
2. a knowledge hub in which best practice concepts and tutorials are collected and shared, and

3. a competence-building hub in which university teachers and other partners can find support.

Within the innovation hub, we find the so-called 'innovation projects', one of which is *SaarPreneur*.

The Moodle course which has been developed in the framework of this project will allow non-German speakers to simulate starting a business in Saarland. While *SaarPreneur* may be helpful for immigrants to Saarland in general, it mainly focuses on helping the growing start-up scene at Saarland University. The self-learning course will simulate all necessary steps in the process of founding a company and provide links to institutions offering advice and support. *SaarPreneur* can be used for start-up simulations and it can be integrated into classes on entrepreneurship. It will be developed in cooperation with the Division Digitalization and Sustainability of Saarland (*Stabsstelle für Digitalisierung und Nachhaltigkeit*, henceforth *DaTa-Pin* in their role as principal investigator), the junior professorship of Digital Transformation and Entrepreneurship in the Faculty of Human and Business Sciences (Dr. Benedikt Schnellbächer, henceforth WiWi) as well as the Liaison Office for Knowledge and Technology Transfer (Kontaktstelle Wissens- und Technologietransfer; KWT) of Saarland University:

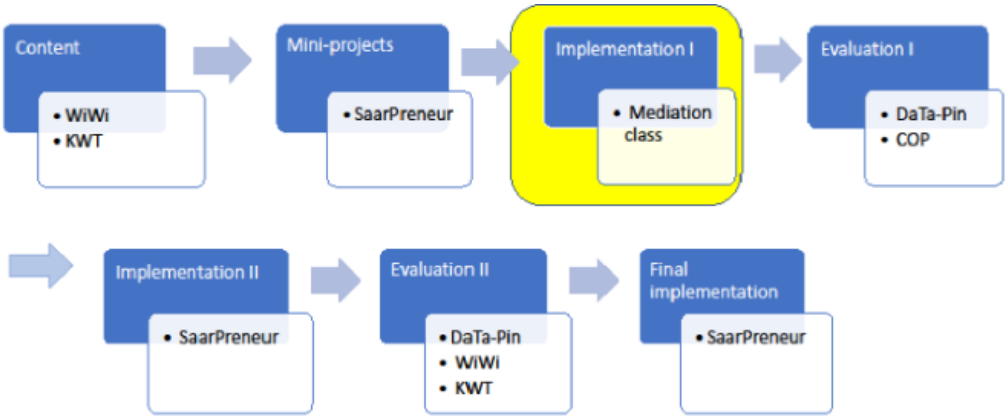


Figure 2: The Reeling of *SaarPreneur* regarding the Mediation Class

The role of the mediation class in the overall reeling of *SaarPreneur* can be seen in Figure 2. Content provided by WiWi and KWT[4] is turned into mini-projects within *SaarPreneur* to provide material suitable for inclusion in the mediation class. The mediation class spends three sessions on the mediation assignment within *SaarPreneur*. This will be the main focus of this subsection on integrating the third mission into foreign language teaching. After this step, two rounds of evaluations develop the Moodle blocks to arrive at the final publishable version. In the first round of evaluations, Master's students will also be involved as part of their Module Career Orientation and Professionalisation (COP).

Each semester, two cohorts of students work on the *SaarPreneur* assignment in mediation, one in the first half of the semester, and the other one in the second half.

[4] The KWT has recently been integrated into Thriathlon (https://www.uds-triathlon.de/), representing the new partner of SaarPreneur.

Hence, the sequence illustrated in Figure 2 will run in parallel with roughly three months intervals so that all participants will work concurrently, feeding into each other's performances. While one mini-project is implemented in Moodle by the students from the mediation class, simultaneously, the next one is prepared for the next cohort of students, and the former one is evaluated and finalised by the different partners within Saarland University. We will see that the embedding of students' efforts in a sequence of steps and a network of competent partners is helpful for the successful inclusion of transfer projects in teaching.

3.2 The Student Body and Curricular Constraints

The student body at the English department consists of those of English in teacher training as well as Bachelor's and Master's students in American studies, British studies, and English linguistics. The Master's students are integrated as potential business founders into the project during the first evaluation phase (COP in Figure 2) as they are international and more mature students. In the framework of this chapter, the focus will be on the contribution of the students from the mediation class.

For teacher-training students in the English department of Saarland University, the *mediation class* is part of their studies of foreign language methodology, and it has to be taken in the second half of their studies (semester 6-10, 15 weeks of 90-minute sessions for 2 ECTS)[5]. Some Bachelor's students also take this class as part of their practical language courses. According to the competence descriptions in the module catalogue, in mediation, students practise summarising texts and transferring their meaning and content from English to German and vice versa, orally or in writing. They also analyse cultural differences and their mediation. The class is part of the module Oral and Written Communication. Hence, mediation is also part of the practical language classes. Students' language proficiency usually is at a B2/C1 level, and the teacher candidates have to attain a C2 level to be able to fulfil the language requirements for their studies.

As can be seen, the mediation class has multiple complex goals with a focus on different competencies, so the question arises whether the inclusion of a practical project could not represent a burden rather than an opportunity in this context (Kümmel-Schnur et al. 2020).

4 Teaching Mediation with a Transfer-oriented Perspective

One important decision which makes the integration of *SaarPreneur* into the mediation class a feasible option was to turn the task of "Implementing a Moodle course for future company founders" into mini projects doable in three ninety-minute sessions. Essentially, during the semester's remaining twelve sessions, the mediation class consisted of input phases and classroom exercises in written and spoken mediation,

[5] The class is graded based on a written and a spoken mediation task, not on the assignment discussed in the framework of this chapter. It is team-taught by a native German and a native English teacher, and every group has seven sessions with each teacher.

mainly based on current German literature (e.g. Rausch 2017, Kolb 2009). In other words, the classic teaching of mediation frames the *SaarPreneur* block. This scaffolding is not only necessary to fulfil the requirements of the curriculum (cf. § 5.2), but also to lay the foundation for the advanced mediation task in *SaarPreneur*.

The assignment for *SaarPreneur* proves to be complex since students have to mediate on different levels:

1. From one language to another: German to English
2. From one mode to another: written texts to computer-mediated communication, potentially including hyperlinks, videos, etc.
3. From one register to another: formal jargon-laden 'officialese' or 'bureaucratese' to basic, everyday instructional language
4. From one intended audience to another: foremostly native (German) speakers to non-native (English) speakers
5. From / to different genres such as official forms to the instructional context of Moodle.

This list depicts the complexity of the task and emphasises the importance of a sound preparation and feedback phase.

The following subsection is concerned with the first mini-project (block in Moodle) which was devised for *SaarPreneur* (first cohort, winter semester 2021/2022). To begin with a straight, more forward task, it focussed on the registration at the trade supervision department ('Gewerbeamt') found in each German municipality. The second cohort (winter semester 2021/2022) worked on the registration with the trade register ('Handelsregister'), to give two examples. The students' work was used as a springboard for the final product with the help of different feedback and evaluation mechanisms that are outside of the scope of this paper (Figure 2 for an overview).

4.1 The Assignment

The assignment was ungraded. The first cohort from the winter term 2021/2022 consisted of 15 students so five groups of students with three members each were formed. The students had access to an empty Moodle class, taking the role of 'editing teachers'. Hence, they had the necessary rights to create content.

Students' assignment was as follows:

> **Scenario**: An Irish and a Turkish student from the Master's programme *American Studies / British Studies / English Linguistics* have just finished their studies and decided to start their own business in Saarland. Unfortunately, their German is still very poor. Saarland University is preparing a Moodle class that helps its alumni create a business in Saarland. You are part of that team and want to help those students understand the process.
>
> **Material**: We will use the following German-language website from Saarland as our springboard: https://gruenden.saarland.de/ Depending on your prior knowledge, you

might have to do further research. We will concentrate on the last step, the actual foundation of the company.

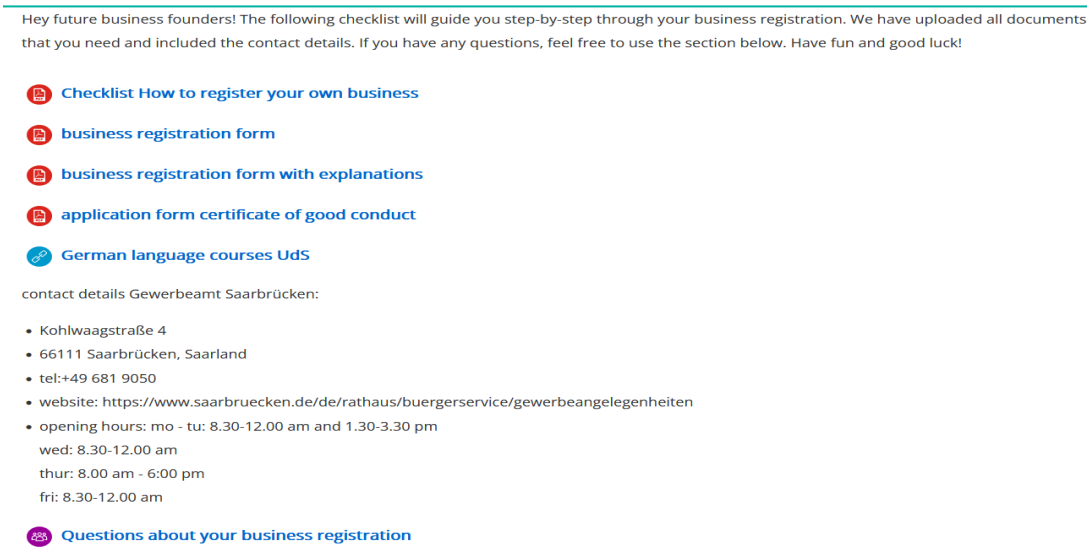
Task: Devise a block in Moodle that prepares our founders for registration with the Trade Office (Ger: *Gewerbeamt*).

The Saarland website *https://gruenden.saarland.de/* offers an overview of the different steps involved in starting a business so that students gain an understanding of the general process. It also provides local information which is practically relevant to fulfil the task. This allows students to inform themselves about the process of starting a business in Saarland and to find relevant German specimens of texts. They are supposed to make one step in this process accessible to non-German speakers, e.g. by translating, devising explanatory texts, and, substantially, implementing a Moodle course.

4.2 Student Work

The students' work will be summarised in the following with regard to mediation, i.e. language choices. In the framework of this chapter, the question of whether or not potential founders receive all the relevant information or other useful resources (e.g. links to German classes or forums) will have to be left aside. Instructional design, especially regarding the practical implementation in Moodle, or scaffolding will also be a secondary concern.

Figure 3 illustrates the completion of the task using a screenshot from the Moodle class of group 1. After a short welcome directly addressing the founders in a letter format, this group of students provided a checklist (Figure 5), the actual registration form, one in German and a mediated version (including sticky notes and comments in English: Figure 4), a second form relevant for the process (which already exists in English), a link to German language classes at Saarland University, practical information, as well as a forum for asking questions. This example indicates that students managed to make the process of registering the business here in Saarland accessible to non-German speakers:


Hey future business founders! The following checklist will guide you step-by-step through your business registration. We have uploaded all documents that you need and included the contact details. If you have any questions, feel free to use the section below. Have fun and good luck!

Checklist How to register your own business

business registration form

business registration form with explanations

application form certificate of good conduct

German language courses UdS

contact details Gewerbeamt Saarbrücken:

- Kohlwaagstraße 4
- 66111 Saarbrücken, Saarland
- tel:+49 681 9050
- website: https://www.saarbruecken.de/de/rathaus/buergerservice/gewerbeangelegenheiten
- opening hours: mo - tu: 8.30-12.00 am and 1.30-3.30 pm
  wed: 8.30-12.00 am
  thur: 8.00 am - 6:00 pm
  fri: 8.30-12.00 am

Questions about your business registration

Figure 3: Screenshot Moodle Block *Gewerbeamt* (Trade Office) – Group 1

Regarding language choice, all groups predominantly used English in accordance with the assignment. This included introductory sections with greetings and instructions, the naming of the different resources and activities, language use in checklists, or the days of the week in the opening hours, as in Figure 3. German had to necessarily be retained on the so-called *Gewerbeanmeldung*, i.e. the official registration form. Some groups handled this task by providing a second PDF version with explanatory and instructional comments and post-its (Figure 4). German was also used in compound nouns, e.g. Group 2: “Book your own Gewerbeamt-Buddy” signed by “your Gewerbeamt-Buddy team”. Also, when referring to the actual building in Saarbrücken, the term *Gewerbeamt* was retained (Figure 3). Sometimes, German acronyms were left, e.g. IHK (Chamber of Industry and Commerce). Only in some cases did the groups leave both German terms together with the translation: e.g. Group 4 “The "Gewerbeamt" (Trading Supervision Department)”:

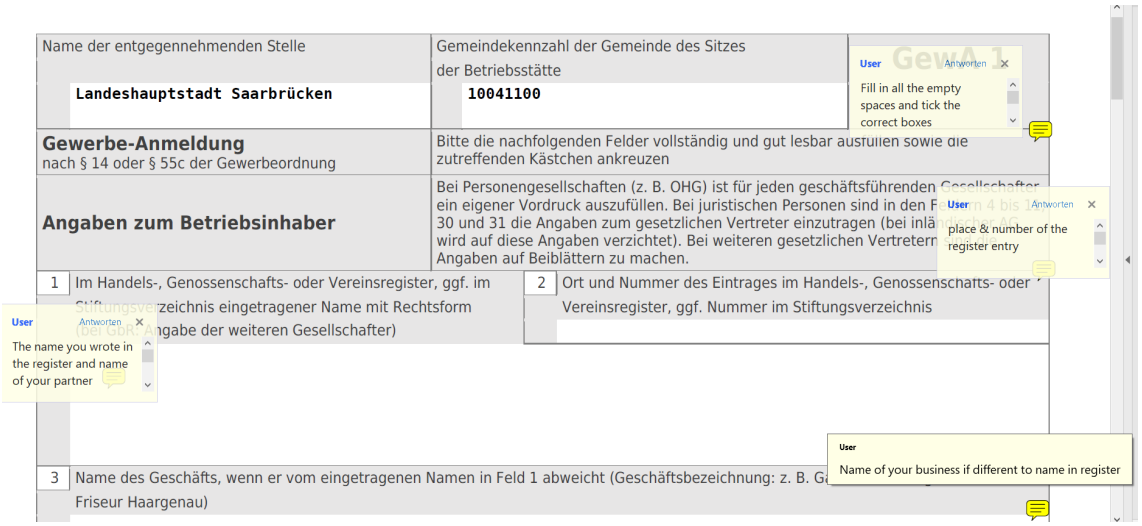


Figure 4: Mediated Version of the Official Form – Group 1

In terms of modality (written to CMC), mainly the written mode was retained. The groups made flow charts, FAQs, quizzes, forums, screenshots (e.g. of online forms), links, diagrams, photos, icons, and stickers. The mediated version of the actual form of Group 1 (“Business registration form with explanations” in Figure 3) and the checklist (“Checklist: How to register your own business” in Figure 3) serve as examples here. Figure 4 represents a screenshot of the mediated version of the actual registration form, an interactive PDF file with sticker notes and comments making the official German form accessible for non-German speakers. This may look a little confusing in the form of a screenshot. However, the comments are mouseovers or hover boxes so that they do not clutter the page, and the sticky notes can be moved if they disturb, or removed when irrelevant.

Figure 5 illustrates that the term checklist (used by Group 1; Figure 3) is a misnomer. Instead, more conveniently, the group provides a flowchart modelling the process and reiterating key points. Probably due to the limited time frame, no videos or spoken language applications were included in the Moodle blocks (apart from links to YouTube tutorials, for example):

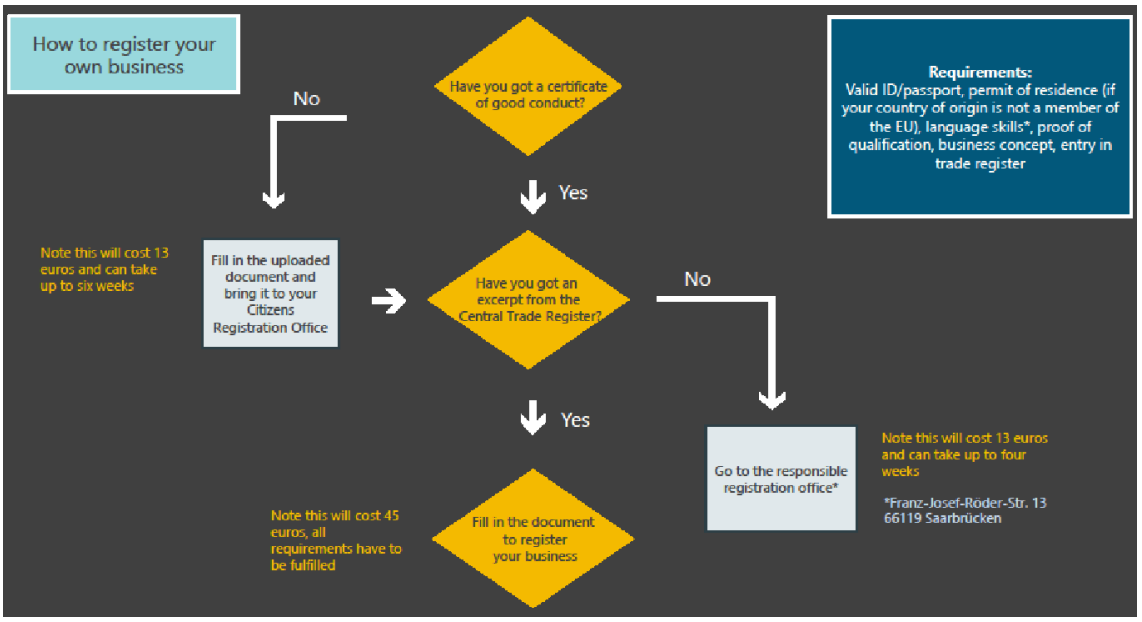


Figure 5: Checklist – Group 1

Regarding register choices, all groups opted for direct address and basic, non-technical English. Some used a conversational style (e.g. use of first-person pronouns, discourse markers, questions) and informal language like the introductory section provided by Group 1 (Section 5.1 for a discussion of language use):

> Hey future business founders! The following checklist will guide you… We have uploaded all documents that you need… Have fun and good luck!

and Group 2:

> Dear future founders, do you have an idea that you want to turn into a company? Great! We are here to help you conquer the paperwork and get started!

4.3 Feedback

As an integral part of SaarPreneur, evaluations from different perspectives were used to monitor how successful students were in mediating the content, e.g. the registration with the Trade Office. This comprised observations and an evaluation by the instructor (the author of this book chapter), peer evaluations, the perspective of an instructional designer, an economics professor, a person working at a business incubator, and a potential future user (a non-German speaking student from the Master's programme of the English Department) (Figure 2). In the following subsections, only the instructor's observations, the peer evaluations and the evaluations by the instructional designer will be described, as they are the only ones that are considered relevant in this context.

4.3.1 Instructor's Observations

While written evaluations have many advantages, the unsystematic observations made by the instructor provide an inside perspective into the classroom which merits being included to gain a fuller picture. This subsection will also comment on students' work for the mediation assignment.

Attendance is one of the relevant aspects to be stressed. While many exogenous factors play a role, it is noteworthy that no student dropped out of this class. Moreover, the online environment in which the group meetings took place (MS Teams) allowed close observations of the groups. Students' high motivation could be seen by several groups continuing their meetings after the sessions were officially finished.

In addition, the Moodle log-in data show that most groups progressed outside of their classroom sessions. Individual students would log in and add advanced activities (such as a small German course for the future founders) or resources (such as Diagram 5) throughout the three weeks. Given that the assignment was ungraded, this indicates students' more-than-average interest and motivation (Astin et al. 2000).

Finally, the Moodle blocks devised contain fewer mistakes and display more idiomatic language use than other homework assignments handed in by the same students (e.g. the peer-feedback). On top of that, all groups revised and corrected their language use thoroughly throughout the course.

The following instructor's comments complement students' peer feedback and evaluations: fundamentally, all groups managed to mediate successfully between the German municipality, its forms, and legal requirements, and the future founders. Some groups provided very detailed mediated versions of the official forms, partly by translating, and partly by adapting them, while others focussed more on explaining the purposes of the different steps.

However, the missing link between the German world with its institutions and their special jargon, and the English translations in some of the Moodle blocks seemed problematic. For instance, Group 3 listed necessary documents: "ID (or a certified copy), certificate of your criminal record,..." These translations did not indicate which specific documents were acceptable or necessary. For instance, is the "certificate of criminal record" a specific German document or does this refer to some documentation issued by the country of origin? In such cases, retaining the German technical terms for institutions or legal documents, and providing explanatory translations would have been more helpful in the mediation process.

Regarding the implementation in Moodle, students opted for more simple solutions, such as PDF files or textual elements. While it seems highly desirable to include more advanced technological solutions, e.g. H5P elements[6] or videos, in the *Saar-Preneur* Moodle course, the time frame and learning objectives of the mediation class did not make this possible. Instead, elements such as the implementation of a quiz with multiple choice questions or the inclusion of a glossary, i.e. more advanced uses of Moodle, had to be implemented at a later stage outside of the mediation

[6] H5P is a software that allows the implementation of more interactive features in Moodle.

class. Given the time frame and the focus of the mediation class, the multimodal elements used by the students were more than adequate (cf. Figures 4 and 5).

Finally, with regard to register, choosing spoken, informal language in some sections is in line with the general goal of promoting entrepreneurship and facilitating the process for the future founders (Section 5.1 for a critical consideration).

4.3.2 Peer Assessments

Writing an evaluation was another task in the mediation class following the actual assignment of creating the aforementioned Moodle blocks. Each student individually had to provide feedback on the work of another group. These formative assessments which had been practised earlier in the mediation class allowed students to gain a higher understanding through critical, reflective thinking promoting metacognitive competencies (Topping 2009).

In the Appendix, two students' peer feedback for Group 1 is reproduced for an impression of the friendly tone and positive feedback to fellow students. The discussion here attempts to draw a full picture of the feedback for all groups, again with a focus on language use and mediation.

All students commented on the language used: e.g. feedback for Group 1[7]:

> The language you used is appropriate and not too formal so that it is easy to understand.

or:

> Your comments on the business registration form are informal and convey the respective correspondence in a very understandable manner.

Apparently, from the students' perspective, informal language is easier to understand. The use of personal address, also through the use of the second person, was positively viewed as encouraging and supportive. The use of imperatives was rightly associated with the language of instruction. Simple sentence structures and short sentences were suggested. Often, students discussed whether or not some specific piece of information needed to be translated, e.g., regarding the boxes that have to be filled in in the actual registration form. The lack of mediation with regard to some institutions was criticised (e.g. IHK). Many students reflected on the differences between 'simple' translations and meaningful mediation including extra information and explanations:

> It would probably be better to mediate and describe the requirements / questions asked instead of just translating the sheet word by word (Feedback for Group 4).

[7] Students' comments are reproduced here in their original form without any linguistic corrections.

Only one student commented on cultural differences: “the general strictness of German paperwork” (feedback for Group 3). Only two students corrected mistakes in English (e.g. *instances* for the German *Instanzen*, meaning institutions).

Similar to the instructional designer (Section 4.3.3), some students suggested more clarity about the goals of or reasons for certain forms, steps, or institutions. However, mostly the students’ feedback focussed on the content of the mediation process, and the quantity and order of information provided. One group was criticised for not mediating the most relevant content, i.e. the kernel of the process, the registration form.

4.3.3 Instructional Design

An instructional designer with a background in education sciences was hired in the framework of the larger university project *DaTa-Pin* (Section 3.1) to provide pedagogical advice. He reviewed all students’ Moodle courses for *SaarPreneur*. This feedback was used to create the final version of the *SaarPreneur* Moodle Course. Also, more relevant in this context, the feedback was passed on to the students, together with the peer assessments (Section 4.3.2).

For the sake of space, only a short summary of the feedback by the instructional designer can be given. The full (German) version of the section on the registration with the trade office (‘Gewerbeanmeldung’) can be found in the Appendix, with group 1 serving as an example.

The feedback from the instructional designer was generally positive. The following principles were emphasised: clarity of information, contextualisation of information, logical order of the elements (clear link to the actual process), activation of future founders, and interactivity. The following changes or additions were suggested: use of scenarios, case studies, and H5P elements, i.e. more advanced interactive features. Also, some technical issues were raised, such as the display of certain elements on mobile devices.

Given the students’ background as advanced students in teacher training, this feedback underlines that they were able to apply some of their knowledge from their previous studies. Examples include scaffolding techniques or the formulation of assignments. The feedback from the instructional designer supplied students with an outside perspective on their work underlining the relevance of the knowledge they acquire during their studies (Section 6). The feedback from the instructional designer seems to represent one important pillar that contributes to the successful inclusion of a third mission project in a language class.

5 Discussion: Critical Stock-taking and Future Outlook

The last section will critically discuss the data presented in Section 4 regarding the feasibility of including the third mission in a language class and the outcome of this research paper for the mediation class and the third-mission project. The chapter will be concluded with a view of its contribution to the literature on both the third mission and language learning, including the limitations of the study.

The research question of whether transfer orientation is feasible in the foreign language classroom in tertiary education can be answered positively. While *SaarPreneur* is an ongoing project, the first Moodle blocks implemented by students (i.e. the registration with the trade office) demonstrate the feasibility of integrating transfer projects within a language class. Even though the mediation class under study had several complex goals with a focus on different competencies, the inclusion of this practical project clearly represented an excellent opportunity for learning. This can be seen in the positive evaluations provided from different perspectives (Section 4.3). Moreover, when comparing students' language production for other assignments in this class to their language production within the *SaarPreneur* Moodle, it becomes apparent that the same students were able to produce more idiomatic language with fewer mistakes or errors (Section 4.3.1. and students' feedback in the Appendix). Apparently, their motivation to edit their work was higher compared to other parts of the mediation class which did not involve the third mission (Kümmel-Schnur et al. 2020: 18; also, task-based learning: Ellis 2003). Corroborating U.S. results documented for service learning for college students (Astin et al 2000), this assignment enhanced students' degree of interest in their subject matter. Our data support the conclusion that *SaarPreneur*:

- raised students' awareness of mediation processes,
- offered future teachers a hands-on experience in the role of instructors in Moodle,
- motivated students by means of an applied digital project with an actual product as the outcome, and
- included students in the transfer of knowledge as part of the third mission of universities.

All in all, *SaarPreneur* can be taken as a good practice and a successful example of the integration of the third mission in foreign language learning at the university.

The present study indicates that the following three amendments have to be made regarding the mediation class, as two important aspects were not fully understood by students:

- The use of technical terms, jargon, or fixed denominations for institutions or legal documents (Council of Europe 2018: 126 or 2020: 118) has to be discussed more explicitly. Either more scaffolding could be used for the assignments or, more fruitfully, the question of which elements from the source language should be retained in the mediated text (the Moodle course) could be discussed in more detail in the future.
- Students' awareness of the communicative situation and the different social roles one may occupy in life should be raised. While a friendly, more informal choice of linguistic forms including, e.g., personal address, *that*-relative clauses, or greetings is appropriate for *SaarPreneur*, some students chose colloquial forms such as *Hey* which seems less fitting. Apparently, and this is corroborated by students' peer feedback, they envisioned the communicative situation to be student-to-student. From the assignment, it should, however, have become apparent that they acted as representatives of Saarland University rather than as students. Also, the addressees should be conceptualised

as future founders rather than as students. Hence, an accentuation of the impact of communicative situations on linguistic choices could be advantageous.

- Finally, as an outcome of this research paper, the assignment for the peer feedback was changed so that students would focus less on the process of founding a company, but – as students of English and, mostly, future teachers of English – on the mediation process proper and language matters.

Considering these three suggestions for changes regarding the mediation class, i.e. one of the outcomes of this research paper, it becomes apparent that all three can be associated with descriptors for C1/C2 level of the CEFR (e.g. C2 overall mediation "taking on different roles according to the needs of the people and situation involved", Council of Europe 2020: 91). This indicates the positive effect that the third mission has: by intertwining teaching (the mediation class), research (this paper) and Transfer (*SaarPreneur*), an extra benefit could be achieved for all the three missions and, importantly, also the students' overall curricular demands: as social agents (Piccardo & North 2019), students stepped out of the classroom to contribute to their local community as part of a foreign language class while working on attaining the ultimate goal of reaching a C2 level.

Turning to the third mission, concessions had to be made regarding the creation of the Moodle course, especially its implementation. For instance, a fuller exploitation of the different technological options in Moodle would have been desirable, such as the integration of HP5 applications. However, this was not possible in the context of an English language class since a focus on technical issues was simply too time-consuming. This again underlines the importance of including multiple partners in such a project so that no extra burden will result for students (Section 5.2).

6 Conclusion

To integrate the third mission into a given language class, this study suggests that mini-projects are possible within existing curricular constraints. The mediation class has very specific objectives regarding language learning and teaching which represent one step in the formation of future English teachers. For this reason, the transfer project had to be well integrated into the mediation class and interlocked with the other assignments, such as classic written and spoken mediation tasks. One can easily see that extensive transfer activities, such as the production of a film (Kümmel-Schnur et al. 2020) or the implementation of the entire Moodle class by one group of students, as motivating as such all-encompassing projects may be, are simply too time-consuming, given the credits assigned to the class or module (in this case, two credits). Transfer activities should therefore be designed to support students' overall progress without unnecessarily consuming more time or resources than required. All transfer activities also have to be closely monitored and critically reflected from the perspective of the learning outcomes. This step in a third-mission project must also be considered in the general timeframe when planning such a project. Hence, the study suggests breaking transfer activities down into doable parts: here, as a first step, the registration of the company only. Finally, the integration of students into a sequence of activities with several actors responsible for different steps lessened the pressure such a transfer project could potentially have: after all,

students did not have to produce the final product, but their work was used as one step towards the finished publishable Moodle course (Figure 2). Hence, although bigger, more time-consuming third-mission projects can be beneficial in many respects – especially regarding the often spurned or undervalued key competencies –, full integration of the third mission into existing curricula, module descriptions, objectives and learning goals is more desirable (Ellis 2003).

To sum up, this chapter adds to the literature on the third mission by providing critical reflection of a project that unites teaching (the mediation class and the COP class), transfer (*SaarPreneur*), and research. The project furthers entrepreneurial education, another desideratum in the third mission. Importantly, it represents one of the rarer cases from a non-traditional do- main, i.e. not engineering or the sciences, but philology. In line with most research on the third mission, it is empirical and case-based (Compagnucci & Spigarelli 2020: 3). It responds to the desideratum for increased visibility of the third mission (Hach- meister et al. 2016: 10) and for evaluating third-mission projects from the perspective of the stake-holders (Hachmeister et al. 2016: 12). The full contribution to third-mission research can only be made at the end of the *DaTa-Pin* and *SaarPre- neur* project in 2024 and in the context of journals which publish more widely in the field of the third mission (e.g. *Science and Public Policy* or *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*; Compagnucci & Spigarelli 2020: 3).

With a view to contributing to the literature on mediation, a comment needs to be made on the mediation activities and strategies proposed in the 2020 Companion Volume (Council of Europe 2020: 90). Regarding the mediation assignment in the framework of *SaarPreneur*, the materiality of present-day texts has not been fully considered there. While we do find reference to writing ("Translating a written text", Council of Europe 2020: 103), a consideration of the specific demands of computer-mediated communication is missing. One may consider the implementation of a Moodle class too specific for such a general description. However, while the CEFR explicitly does not target the world of professional interpreting or translation (Council of Europe 2020: 92), this study indicates that it would be beneficial to include linguistic specificities of computer-mediated communication with a view to students' life-world and their future professional needs (Council of Europe 2020: pp. 84 for the descriptors for online interaction).

To conclude, the present research has some limitations, especially concerning the role of different factors that could not be disentangled with the help of the material or data. On the one hand, the output of the project could have been successful because students could work on a practical task making a meaningful contribution not only to the university but also to their homeland, i.e. Saarland. On the other hand, students also knew that their work would not only be seen by the teacher, which is often the case in regular language teaching. Thus, the simple addition that their work would also be evaluated by outsiders may have made an important impact. However, it can be argued that this is one important aspect and an integral part of transfer-oriented teaching, i.e. that the students leave the often make-belief world of scenarios in foreign language teaching behind and encounter real-world people who evaluate their work from the perspective of their real-world needs.

Appendix

1 Peer Feedback

For lack of space, only the feedback for group 1 by two different students can be reproduced here. The author is willing to share more data when contacted.

Feedback by Student 1:

Your introduction to your Moodle section is really motivating and well-structured. You, as a reader or founder-to-be, get an overview about the attached documents that should help you as a founder to start your own business without being overwhelmed and frustrated. The language you used is appropriate and not too formal, so that it is easy to understand.

First, you attached a checklist. This checklist is created like a mind map and you will be guided through the list by answering different questions by “yes” or “no”. I really like this concept because you will be led through the different steps and for every answer you will get new information. Also, you attached a box in which you listed all requirements that you will need in order to start a new business in Germany. This is really helpful for new founders, because they see all requirements, they have to fulfil beforehand, or they will not be able to start a new business. Besides the requirement box and the layout of your checklist, I especially like the comments you made at different “stations”. For example, you stated how much different documents might cost and might take to arrive or stated the address of the registration office. This makes it easier for foreigners to understand the process of a German business registration. You also uploaded the form for an application of good conduct, which they will need in the process of starting their new business. It would be advisable to attach the form directly under the checklist and not at the end, because then you would have a clear “red thread” throughout your listed documents. Also, you might want to add explanations and translations here in order to ensure a correct editing.

The end of your checklist transfers to the next document that you attached: the registration form. In addition to the regular registration form you also attached a commented version of the form. This is a really good idea, because foreigners might not know what to fill in the gaps because of the language barrier. Your comments are written in a clearly understandable language, which makes it simpler to go through the document. Also, you give already answers on how to fill in the gaps, like for example number 29 or number 30. By giving away the information on how to fill in the gap, the students are quicker in filling out the form. On the other hand, it would still be an advantage if they know what the box actually states and why they have to fill in the form like you advised to. Even though you are translating a lot of information in the questions on the form, you often advise them to tick certain boxes without translating the answers. This could lead to confusion if they will be asked about these answers in the future. It could be better to translate the boxes, like you did with the other boxes as well, and then advise them on how to fill the gaps in. That way they will know the meaning of the box and then take your advice on how to fill in the box. But all in all, very good idea to comment on the form and translate certain parts to make the process easier for foreigners!

The next link that you provided is a link to German language courses at the Saarland University. A well-thought idea, because you will need German in order to start a new business that is located in Germany. English is a requirement as well, but German is obligatory due to the location of the business. To make this point clearer, you might want to add some information above the link. Why do you think that language courses are advantageous? A short description on the advantage of these courses would make this link much clearer. It might be also good to add more than one source that provides language courses, in case the German courses at the Saarland university do not suit the founders-to-be.

The second to last information you added are contact details for probably the most important office throughout this process: the commercial office in Saarbrücken. By providing them with the contact information, they do not need to look for it themselves. There might also be confusion if you do not choose the correct commercial office corresponding to your location. This way they can save time and you ensure that they have the correct contact details that will be needed. They can turn to the corresponding employees of the commercial office if there are any questions left for discussion.

A space to ask questions is also provided as the last section in your moodle course. It is very important to be available if any questions arise because this process can be very confusing and if you are not able to speak the language perfectly it might take some time to understand everything the correct way. Here you added a short description on how this forum should be used which is good. Even though you have the contact details of your corresponding office, you might want to ask somebody “not formal” first, because you might be afraid of asking too many questions or seeming too unorganised.

To sum up, you created a good moodle course. It is well-structured and every information provided transfers to another so that no information is being provided without any context, except for the link for the German language courses (the correlation between the language courses and the fact that you want to start a new business in Germany is very high, but it is not stated in a description as such). You provided enough information to register a business without overwhelming them. Providing too much information at once could be overwhelming and even demotivate someone who wants to start a business. The language you used in every document and comment you made is correct and easy to understand. Your moodle course is a great way to conquer the bureaucratic process of registering a business in Germany. Well done!

Feedback by Student 2:

Dear Group 1,

Good job! Your Moodle course is designed appealingly and clearly and will make it much easier for non-native speakers to set up a company.

But now for the step-by-step feedback starting with the *content*:

Your introduction is short, easy to understand and addresses the future founders directly using the personal pronoun "you". I also like that you mention your FAQs in the beginning, which will certainly be particularly helpful for one or the other.

Your first document, which you called "Checklist", is very nicely designed and without a doubt contains all the important information. Nevertheless, I could imagine that this document, which is in the first place of your Moodle course, unsettles the addressees. I think so mainly because there are many technical terms and specific forms in the document that will only be mentioned later in your course. For this reason, I would have placed the checklist at the end of the course. The second document (the business registration form) must be viewed in conjunction with the following document that you edited. It is the official document for business registration, which, in the typical German manner, can be very confusing and complex to foreigners. I really like your idea of translating every section of the document into English. However, the inserted comments within the PDF file appear rather disordered and seem a bit confusing. Unfortunately, in some cases, they cover the German correspondence on the document, which could make reading and then filling in the documents much more difficult. At this point, it might have been advisable to place the comments directly in the document so that no important information and / or text fields are covered.

Your last document, which includes the application for a certificate of good conduct for foreign citizens, was taken directly from the website of the Federal Office of Justice in Germany. There is no doubt that this application makes sense for the scenario given here, the document has already been translated into English and should therefore not cause any further problems.

You then added a link to German courses at the University of Saarland, which I like very much because foreign company founders who want to set up a company in Germany are certainly interested in learning German. It is also very helpful to give the address and opening times of the trade office in Saarbrücken.

Concerning *linguistic* realisation:

Your language register is appropriate and adapted to the given situation. You have succeeded in reducing the already difficult and extremely bureaucratic topic to the essential information using clear and understandable language. Your comments on the business registration form are informal and convey the respective correspondence in a very understandable manner. However, note the above-mentioned note on the design of the PDF-file.

Regarding the *interactive elements* of your Moodle course, you have little variety, but the selected content is easily accessible to everyone thanks to the PDF format and offers a good overview. At one point or another, I would have liked a link to the official documents.

To sum up, you have worked out and solved the task in a satisfactory manner. In the place of a foreign company founder, I would feel well advised thanks to your tips :-)

2 Feedback by the Instructional Designer

Group 1:

Grundsätzlich gut, die Materialien sollten allerdings durch Kontextinformationen ergänzt werden, z.B. in Anlehnung an den in der „Checklist“ abgebildeten Prozess. Das Thema eignet sich hervorragend für ein Szenario oder ein Fallbeispiel. Heißt, den Lerner aktiv als „Gründer“ in die Situation einbeziehen oder als „Berater“ für den Gründungsprozess.

Es ist ein Prozess, wie der abläuft geht aus der „Checkliste“ auch hervor, es wäre trotzdem gut, hier noch einige zusätzliche Informationen zum Ablauf (Zweck, Priorität, Reihenfolge) zu geben und die Materialien bzw. den Link explizit mit dem Prozess zu verbinden (Aspekt der Klarheit).

Das kommentierte PDF ist gut, das Material könnte mit h5p noch etwas hübscher gestaltet werden (interaktive Dokumente, Feedback zu den eingetragenen Angaben, usw.)

Ideal wäre es, die verschiedenen Materialien direkt mit der „Checkliste“ zu verknüpfen, das ist aber in Moodle nicht ganz so einfach 😉.[8]

[8] Generally well done, the material should be complemented by contextual information, though, e.g. in parallel to the processes reproduced in the ‘checklist’. The topic lends itself perfectly to the creation of a scenario or case study, meaning integrating the learner as actively as ‘founder’ or ‘consultant’ into the process of founding a business.

It is a process and how it unfolds becomes clear from the ‘checklist’, still, it would be good to provide some additional information about the unfolding (goal, priorities, order) and to tie the material and the link more explicitly to the process (aspect of clarity).

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The PDF which contains the comments is good; the material could, however, have been designed a bit more neatly using H5P (interactive documents, feedback to the specifications provided, etc.)

It would be ideal to link the different materials to the 'checklist', but this is actually not so easy in Moodle 😉 (translation, C.G.)

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Authors

Professor Ines-A. Busch-Lauer

Ines-A. Busch-Lauer is a professor of English/Communication at Zwickau University of Applied Sciences (Germany) and draws on more than 25 years of linguistic research and teaching at the tertiary level. She is in charge of the LSP department at the Faculty of Applied Languages and Intercultural Communication. In this role, she develops the teaching curricula and modules for both English and German in subject-specific courses. Her research interests include contrastive LSP text analysis, genre research and LSP methodology. She is a member of the editorial board of *Fachsprache – Journal of Professional and Scientific Communication.*

Dr Bernd Klewitz

As a teacher of CLIL programs in social science and history, Bernd Klewitz's research interests focus on science-oriented teaching of English as a Foreign Language in different contexts. After gaining his PhD in Oral History (Philipps University of Marburg, Germany), he spent a decade in English-speaking countries such as Australia, the UK and the USA employed as a language advisor and teacher trainer. Bernd worked as a grammar school teacher in the German system and advised the Hesse Ministry of Education on the introduction of competence-based language programs. More recently, he taught in the Humanities at the German Universities of Göttingen and Jena, where he obtained his habilitation, i.e. an academic qualification required to become a university professor.

Dr Cornelia Gerhardt

Cornelia (Nele) Gerhardt teaches English linguistics and language at Saarland University in Saarbrücken (Germany). She is particularly interested in teaching methodology in university contexts and in professionalizing her teaching, also with respect to digital development. Her main publications in linguistics are on (mediated) language use in the fields of food and football, and embodied interaction.

Professor Thomas Goetz

Thomas Goetz is a professor of English and Director of the Cross-Departmental English Language Program. He has been a leader in Moodle at Hokusei University (Japan), promoting blended learning at all levels. His research is in the application of computers for language learning. He has presented widely in Asia, the Americas, and Europe. He holds two Master's degrees, one in Divinity from Princeton Theological Seminary (Princeton, New Jersey), and one from Temple University (Japan).

Max Penth

Max Penth graduated in English and Romance Philology as well as Educational Sciences and presently is a doctoral student and a research assistant at the Department of Romance Languages at Saarland University in Saarbrücken (Germany). He specializes in Romance Linguistics and is a member of the EuroCom team. His research interests include digital linguistics, (foreign language) methodology, language history, pluri-/multilingualism, and text linguistics.

Dr Verbra Pfeiffer

Verbra Pfeiffer is a Senior Lecturer in the English Language Studies department at the University of South Africa. She obtained her doctorate in Language and Literacy from the University of the Western Cape and a post-doctorate fellowship at Stellenbosch University with a focus on academic writing in multilingualism. Her research interests include translanguaging, academic literacy pedagogy, academic writing, second language advocacy and multilingualism. She has a monograph titled *Moving from the Known to the Unknown in Academic Writing* and an edited book with Professor Christa van der Walt titled *Multilingual Classroom Context: Transitions and Transactions*.

Dr Stefan Rathert

Stefan Rathert has been working as a teacher of English and German as a Foreign Language for more than twenty years in Turkey. He is currently an assistant professor in the Faculty of Education (English Language Teaching Department) at Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University, Turkey. His research interests include teaching methodology, materials in language teaching and the professional development of language teachers.

Dr Christina Reissner

Christina Reissner works as a senior lecturer and researcher at the Department of Romance Languages at Saarland University where she heads the Department of Early Foreign Language Learning (French) and the Virtual Center of European Intercomprehension. Her research focuses on (Applied) Romance linguistics, pluri-/multilingualism, language policies, language learning and teaching, and border studies. Her specialities include intercomprehension and tertiary/plural language teaching-/learning approaches.

Dr Michaela Rusch

Michaela Rusch's academic background was formed by her two majors, English and German (M.A.), and her PhD project (2017) on language change in Northern Ireland about politics, identity, and gender. Besides language teaching, her research interests include LSP methodology, intercultural communication, and media. During the PhD project, she acquired multiple teaching experiences as a teacher of English and German as a Foreign Language in vocational nursing training, corporate business, and technology classrooms. In 2017, she started teaching English for Specific Purposes on upper intermediate and advanced levels (B2 to C1) in engineering, automotive and biomedical engineering at Zwickau University of Applied Sciences. Since 2019, she has been actively involved in research on languages for specific purposes, for example in a cooperation project on German as a Foreign Language for train drivers.

Iratxe Serna Bermejo

Iratxe Serna Bermejo is a PhD student in the Language Acquisition in Multilingual Settings Programme at the University of the Basque Country in Leioa (Spain). She obtained her Bachelor´s degree in Early Childhood Education from the University of Deusto. She also holds a Master's degree in Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language from the International University of La Rioja. Currently, she is a teacher in the Faculty of Education at the UBC. Her research interests centre on English Medium Instruction at the University, translanguaging, classroom interaction, multilingualism, language attitudes and motivation.

Mohamed Smirkou

Mohamed Smirkou is a PhD candidate in the field of learnability of L2 phonology in the Language and Society Laboratory. He is also a teacher of English at the Moroccan National Ministry of Education and an assistant professor in the Department of English at Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra. Mohamed Smirkou obtained a Bachelor's degree in Linguistics, a Bachelor's degree in Applied Linguistics and Language Pedagogy, and a Master's degree in TEFL. He has authored articles on second language learning. His areas of speciality are applied linguistics, CALL, phonology, and the acquisition of L2 phonology.

Nadeera Wijegoonewardene

Nadeera Wijegoonewardene earned a Master's degree at Giessen University (Germany) in Anglophone Studies, majoring in English Linguistics with a minor in Anglophone Literary, Cultural and Media Studies. In 2014, she obtained her Bachelor's degree in Arts (English Hons.) at the University of Colombo (Sri Lanka). She is also an Attorney-at-Law, having earned a Bacholor of Laws (LLB) degree from the University of London in 2011. Prior to her departure to Germany, she worked as a visiting Lecturer at General Sir Kotelawala Defence University as well as the Edulink International Campus. She is currently working as a lecturer at the Post Graduate Institute of English, The Open University of Sri Lanka. Her research interests include sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, language policy and planning as well as world Englishes.

Professor Claudia Wunderlich

Claudia Wunderlich was appointed professor of English for Specific Purposes and German as a Foreign Language at the University of Applied Sciences Würzburg-Schweinfurt in 2018. She obtained degrees from the Université de Sherbrooke in Quebec (Canada), and the University of Erlangen-Nuremberg (Germany) in teaching and linguistics. She has taught languages for specific purposes, also at the international level, for many years and has been involved in computer-assisted language learning research since her studies in Canada in the 1990s and writing her doctoral dissertation in the field of corpus linguistics.

Editor

Professor Thomas Tinnefeld

Dr Thomas Tinnefeld is a full professor of Applied Languages at Saarland University of Applied Sciences in Germany. He is the founder and chairman of the biennial *Saarbrücken International Conferences on Foreign Language Teaching* and the editor of the *Journal of Linguistics and Language Teaching* (JLLT). His research interests cover applied linguistics and language methodology, especially languages for specific purposes, grammar and grammaticography, writing research, and interculturality. He publishes widely in English, French, German and Spanish linguistics and methodology. He also serves as the President of the Language Council of Saarland (Germany)

With the Collaboration of:

Professor Douglas Fleming

Dr Douglas Fleming is a full professor at the University of Ottawa (Canada). His research focuses on English as a second language, citizenship and critical pedagogy. He is the author of over 50 publications and invited contributions and has worked on numerous professional, curriculum and material development projects for the government, school districts, teacher associations and NGOs. In 2010, he was awarded a New Scholar Fellowship Award by the Canadian Society for Studies in Education. Prior to graduating from UBC with a PhD in Language and Literacy Education in 2007, he was an administrator and teacher in the Toronto (Ontario) and Surrey (British Columbia) School Districts.

In an increasingly interconnected world, where distances dwindle and cultures interweave, the role of communication gains renewed significance. Language, our primary form of expression and comprehension, acts both as a border and a bridge for ideas, knowledge, and experiences. Amidst this complex linguistic interplay, this volume finds its purpose.

Chapters herein delve into communication surpassing geographic and linguistic boundaries. As language professionals, educators, and researchers, we navigate the challenges of this landscape where languages blend and merge. These chapters analyse and inspire queries that arise whenever linguistic borders are crossed. From exploring the functions of intercomprehension to examining the impact of digital tools on borderless language education, each chapter reveals a facet of the theme. Topics span language methodologies, language acquisition, linguistic landscapes, and the growing importance of technology in teaching, to name but a few.

Readers are invited to join us in exploring how communication shapes and is shaped by diverse linguistic environments. Together, we illuminate the threads that determine global interaction, delivering insight into the functioning of language in our interconnected world.

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