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in Tertiary Education“

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## **Declaration of Authenticity**

I confirm to have conceived and written this thesis in English all by myself. Quotations from other authors and ideas borrowed and/or paraphrased from the work of other authors are all clearly marked within the text and acknowledged in the bibliographical references.

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## **Abbreviations**

CERF	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
EC	European Commission
ECB	European Central Bank
ECTS	European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
EEA	European Economic Area
EIL	English as International Language
ELF	English as Lingua Franca
ELT	English Language Teaching
EU	European Union
OeAD	Austrian agency for international mobility and cooperation in education, science and research
OECD	The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
VWU	University Preparation Programme of the Vienna Universities

## 1. Introduction

English is one of the most prestigious languages worldwide. Its international status is associated with economic and professional values within various domains. It is not only the predominant language of communication among speakers with different language backgrounds, but it also functions as the language of scientific discourse at universities and in university education. Nowadays, students are expected to study abroad for a certain period of time and universities and higher education institutes need to be able to answer to this international student mobility.

Universities in Austria offer study programmes or individual courses to a greater extent in English. International students who wish to enrol in a study programme have to prove, amongst other things, a certain level of English competency and in some cases also German. Therefore, international students in Austria attend German foreign language courses in order to meet the language qualification requirements of their university's institutes.

International student mobility leads to heterogeneous German as foreign language classrooms with regard to the students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In this international context, English can be considered to be a common factor in the multilingual and multicultural situation of the German as a foreign or second language classroom. Moreover, English plays an important role not only as language of instruction but also as language of interpersonal exchange and communication.

The aim of the thesis is to analyse the role of English in the German as a foreign language classroom. A qualitative content analysis will be conducted on the basis of collected interview data from eight semi-structured interviews with Austrian teachers of German as a foreign language who teach beginners' classes at university language training centres.

Chapter two will provide relevant background information and outline some of the key elements for this study. This comprises the motivation for this study and the introduction of the target group chosen for the empirical study. In addition, the research aim and the research assumptions will be described. The chapter closes with a short terminological differentiation between German as foreign language and second language.

Following this, the third chapter will discuss the status of English as international language and will examine which factors have contributed to its status and spread. In order to analyse the language management policies of the European Union in regard to English, language management and policy from a general perspective will be introduced.

The fourth chapter explores the issue of English as language of science and its influence on the internationalisation of Austrian universities. Internationalisation processes are closely connected to student mobility and exchange which will be presented from a general perspective and also with special regard to Austria.

The fifth chapter then explores teaching methods and approaches in foreign language teaching. It discusses these prevalent teaching methods from a monolingual as well as from a multilingual perspective. In the context of multilingual language teaching the concept of German after English will be presented. This L3 teaching approach will show that the students' language and learning experience constitutes a beneficial part in tertiary language teaching. Following this, general teaching methods and approaches will be discussed that are part of the language classroom regardless of the language used.

In order to provide a coherent presentation of the empirical study, chapter six will describe the methodological background of the study. The interview guide, which constitutes the basis for the interviews, as well as the interview settings and the interview participants will be provided. Additionally, the transcription convention applied for the transcription of the spoken interviews into written language for the analysis will be given. This chapter then closes with the presentation of the coding system.

The seventh chapter will introduce the findings of the interview analysis on basis of interview excerpts which will be set in relation to the findings in the literature. In addition, this chapter presents the results of the research assumptions.

The final chapter will provide a summary of the findings of the interview analysis and present a final interpretation of these results.

## **2. Description of the Study**

This aim of this chapter is to provide the background and some of the key elements of this study. The first section discusses and describes the motivation for this study and shows its relevance in regard to the recent literature. The second section provides a definition of the chosen target group for this study. Following this, the third section outlines the aim of the research and the underlying assumptions. Finally, a brief terminological differentiation between German as foreign and second language will be provided.

### ***2.1. Motivation for this study***

The motivation for this study originally derived from my personal interest and experience as a German as foreign language teacher for international students. Due to my experiences in the classroom, I became increasingly interested in the subject of multilingual teaching and particularly in the area of teaching German after English.

International students have a lot of questions and worries before and during their exchange period, which need to be met and answered. In all communication situations, either by e-mail or later in personal conversations, the language used is English, since it is the only common language spoken by students and university personnel alike.

German as foreign language courses for international students are also one of their first classes at, and first close contact with, the new university and a new educational system. I have always seen this as a chance to communicate administrative necessities, as well as to introduce Austrian and Viennese culture and to discuss cultural stereotypes as well as the students' personal positive and negative experiences with the new culture in English. Moreover, the English language serves to demonstrate grammatical similarities and differences between the two languages and functions as a communicative tool in the classroom. Therefore, it offers students the chance to explore not only the systematisation of the German language as such, but also the culture that it comprises and conveys as well as the people using it as main means of communication – the German L1 speakers.

Research on teaching methods and approaches in language education has a long tradition in the field of linguistics. Thus far, primary focus has been given to monolingual teaching methods and approaches which are concerned with the exclusive employment and usage of the respective target language in the language classroom (cf. Krashen 1981; 1984; Celce-Murcia 2001; Gehring 2004; Hedge 2002). Monolingual language teaching focuses on a target language only approach where language learning is regarded as being only efficient when “a *monolingual* set of norms and ideals is assumed and applied to classroom practices” (Levine 2011: 4; original emphasis).

This monolingual language perspective is contrasted by multilingual research, which has received increasing interest in linguistic research over the last fifteen years (cf. Apeltauer 1997; Cenoz 2009; Doyé 2008; Hufeisen 1998; Hufeisen & Neuner 2004; Hufeisen & Jessner 2009; Krumm 2004; Levine 2011; Neuner 2006; Wei 2008; Wilton 2009). Multilingual research acknowledges the learner’s language biography by considering this existing language knowledge as a beneficial resource for the language classroom (see section 5.2). Multilingual research comprises several closely interrelated areas of study, such as bilingualism, trilingualism, etc.

This study is part of tertiary language research and deals with the concept of teaching German after English. Tertiary language research comprises various perspectives, such as linguistic perspectives (cf. Hufeisen 1998; Hufeisen & Neuner 2004; Hufeisen & Jessner 2009; Kretzenbacher 2009), cognitive perspectives (cf. Neuner 2004; Garcia-Mayo 2012), and bilingual perspectives in English as L1 and German as L2 environments (cf. Kraemer 2006; Krammer 1996). In this study, it is argued that due to the international importance of English in various domains, English holds an essential position in tertiary education. International students in Austria are required to learn German, which is in this context the language after English.

However, in German after English research, no study has yet considered how and if German L3 teachers in Austria employ English as a teaching resource and comment on its usage in heterogeneous language classrooms. This study attempts to explore insights, to the teachers’ practical perspectives to German after English and analyses the present role of English in the German foreign language beginners’ classroom.

## ***2.2. The Target Group of the Empirical Study***

The target group defined for the empirical study (chapter 7) are German as foreign language teachers in Austria, teaching international students (section 4.5) who have already achieved their university entrance qualifications in their respective home countries and who have enrolled or wish to enrol at one of the public or private universities in Austria. These German as a foreign language students have no or almost no prior knowledge of German and start their German language education in Austria.

## ***2.3. Research Aim and Research Assumptions***

The aim of this study is to capture how teachers of German as a foreign language describe their employment of English as a teaching tool in their beginners' classrooms and how they comment on its usage. The questions of the interview guide, presented in section 6.2, are based on the following research assumptions.

It is assumed that:

1. There is a connection between the interviewees' self-evaluation about their level of English proficiency and the degree of employment of English in the German as a foreign language classroom. It is expected that teachers with a higher self-evaluation are more likely to employ English as a teaching tool than teachers with a lower self-evaluation.
2. Teachers preferring a deductive teaching approach are more likely to use English in order to facilitate the students' understanding of grammatical language aspects by means of analogies and differences than teachers preferring an inductive approach.
3. The more diverse the students' L1 backgrounds in the classroom are, the more likely English functions as main common language in the classroom.
4. Administrative course requirements, such as course assessments, tests, homework, class participation, etc. are communicated in English, due to the students' insufficient German language knowledge.

5. Teachers motivation to employ English in the German language classroom is influenced either by extrinsic (external course criteria) or intrinsic motivation and teaching objectives.
6. In a German monolingual language classroom, the students choose English to communicate with each other or the teacher.
7. Teachers who employ English in the German as a foreign language classroom do this based on methodological and didactical considerations.
8. Teachers change the language of instruction in specific situations.
9. Regardless of the teacher's language employment, the students may answer in English for two reasons: First, because their German competency level is too low to provide the answer in the target language. Second, the students may be reluctant to speak the target language for various reasons.
10. The employment of English may at a certain language level be discontinued.

#### ***2.4. Terminological Considerations***

The title of this study refers to both German as a foreign and second language. German as foreign language typically applies to language learning outside German speaking countries, whereas German as second language is concerned with the context of language learning within a German speaking country (Krumm 2010: 47). In order to provide a clear terminological differentiation and to avoid any possible confusion in regard to multilingual research discussed in section 5.2, only the term German as a foreign language is being used for the discussion of this study.

### **3. English – an International Language**

The presence of English can be noted in many areas of our daily lives. In domains such as education, science, and business the increasing influence of English has become a crucial factor for institutions, striving for presence in an international or even global market. In a world with a “multitude of languages” (De Swaan 2001: 1) English enhances contact, communication, and exchange



for institutions and people from different linguistic as well as cultural backgrounds. Considering this role and function of English in international contexts and the given involved economic relevance (Ferguson 2006: 113), it can be said that nowadays English can be regarded as a compulsory basic competence. Therefore, countries need to address the necessity of promoting the acquisition of the English language and they have to take the consequently required educational measures (ibid.).

This chapter discusses the role of English as an international language in various contexts. The first section deals with the question of how the English language received this internationally acknowledged character and which factors are considered to be determining in the research literature. Based on this first part, the second section analyses the role of the English language within the European Union, based on the theoretical concept of language policy. Due to the variety of languages of its member states, the EU defines itself as multilingual. This is why the language management policy of the EU is, on the one hand, discussed with regard to its own multilingualism and, on the other hand, to the role and status of the English language within the EU.

### ***3.1. The Status of English as an International Language***

Before going into the specifics of English as an international language, it is necessary to define the relevant terminology for this study. The field of English as a language with increasing importance is an intensively discussed research area within sociolinguistics. This in-depth research has given rise to different concepts that have been used synonymously to refer to the development, status, and consequences of English as one of the most prestigious languages in the world. These include: “Global language” (Crystal 2009; Pennycook 2006), “World English” (Brutt-Griffler 2002), “International Language” (Bull 2012; Jenkins 2000; Ammon 2001), and “English as a Lingua Franca” (Berns 2009; Seidlhofer 2001). Brutt-Griffler (2002:1), for example, entitles her first chapter “Images of World English: Writing English as an International Language”, which illustrates the terminological and consequently conceptual overlaps in the literature. To avoid this conceptual overlaps it is necessary to make clear distinctions (Bull 2012: 57).

*The Oxford Dictionary of English* (2010) defines the lexeme *global* as “relating to the whole world; worldwide” (Oxford Reference Online, 5 September 2012). This would imply that English is present and of importance everywhere in the world. However, as Haberland and Mortensen (2012: 1; original emphasis) point out “English is *not* spoken in *every* corner of the world, just in more places than any other language before”. With regard to the notion of World English, *The Oxford Dictionary of English* (2010) defines the lexeme *world* in its first meaning as “(usu. the world) the earth, together with all of its countries and peoples” (Oxford Reference Online, 5 September 2012), which corresponds to the above given definition of *global*. In its second meaning it is associated with “a particular region or group of countries: the English-speaking world” (Oxford Reference Online, 5 September 2012). This meaning is again vague, because it is not constituted what the English-speaking world comprises. By setting the expression *English-speaking world* in relation to the expression *German-speaking countries*, it can be understood as referring to countries where English is the official language or one of the official languages.<sup>1</sup>

In addition, it is necessary to make a further distinction between English as an International Language (EIL) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Berns (2009: 192) referring to Jenkins (2000: n.a.) specifies that “ ‘EIL’ includes native speakers”, and at the same time according to Ammon (2001: 356), “[t]his would be a variety, or a set of varieties, of English for which not only the English-speaking countries themselves would define the norms”. ELF “is the identification of the formal features of English characteristic in the speech of non-native speakers when using this language for communication in international contexts” (Berns 2009: 192). In consideration of the above specified definitions of the various concepts in the literature, the term English as International Language appears to be the most suitable for this study. In this conceptualisation English is understood as a language of importance across nations, serving as a bridge for communication between them and their diverse linguistic and cultural repertoires.

Apart from these terminological differentiations the question arises how English has reached this status internationally and which factors have

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<sup>1</sup> In this conceptualisation English is equated to the concept of the world, which highlights the global character and dominance that is being assigned to the language. In contrast, other languages, e.g. German are limited to specific countries.

contributed to its spread. In order to be able to find an answer to this question, one needs to take a historical perspective. According to Brutt-Griffler (2002: 22) “there are two levels of language change: variation across speech communities and the variation within the same speech community over time”. Both influence and effect each other, since they are part of “the sociohistorical development” (2002: 110). For this study it is of special concern to describe the features that have been identified as decisive for the spread of the English language and to which Brutt-Griffler (2002: 22) refers to as “variation across speech communities”. Given that there is no singular historic event that can be stated to have motivated the increasing international importance of English, several aspects have to be taken into account. According to Brutt-Griffler (2002: 110) there are “four central features” which contribute to the emergence of an internationally recognised language:

- (1) Econocultural functions of the language;
- (2) The transcendence of the role of an elite lingua franca;
- (3) The stabilization of bilingualism through the coexistence of world language with other languages in bilingual/multilingual contexts;
- (4) Language change via the process of world language convergence and world language divergence.

This first function, the econocultural function is set in correlation with the world’s “economic” and “cultural [...] development” (ibid.). She argues further that due to the needs of the global market and intensified trade relations the requirements for the emergence of an international language are being created (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 111). This view is shared by Crystal (2009: 5), who describes this function as a “desire for commercial, cultural or technological contact” of those who adopt and acquire a new language. Hence, it can be concluded that the foundations for the spread of English can be found in an economic as well as cultural strength and value that is attributed to the language. Crystal (2009: 10) places this in relation to “British political imperialism” when he states that “[i]t may take a militarily powerful nation to establish a language, but it takes an economically powerful one to maintain and expand it”.

Considering the historical developments with the first British settlements in North America, Canada, and Australasia, it can be said that the key features for the language’s econocultural strength were being established. These were

again reinforced by the colonisation of the Caribbean islands, South Asia, and South Africa (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 113ff.; Crystal 2009: 29ff.). Another significant aspect in the context of econocultural features is the exportation of knowledge (Crystal 2009: 80). Due to successful industrialisation processes in Britain and North America new technologies and scientific advances brought a considerable expansion of knowledge and skills, which consequently led to changes in the “English lexicon” (ibid.). Additionally, these technological inventions and scientific advances led to an exportation of knowledge and language, because “[t]he more England gained control of the world market [...] the more the international extension of trade and production relations inevitably transmitted English” (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 115). People from other language backgrounds than English needed to acquire certain language skills in order to be able to successfully import and implement these latest advances in their respective home countries; an argument that is still valid today, because “a person is more likely to be in touch with the latest thinking and research in a subject by learning English than by learning any other language” (Crystal 2009: 111).

Furthermore, in the context of knowledge and the spread of English, Ammon and McConnell (2002: 11) show that at the beginning of the twentieth century French, German, and English were the international languages of science. Even though English had not yet been as influential as German and French, its status gradually increased due to the underlying economic strength. With German and French as scientific languages, researchers were able to publish their work in either of these languages (Ammon & McConnell 2002: 13). During the First World War, scientific exchange between German researchers and scientists from other countries came almost to a halt, which was one of the first disruptions for German as a language of science. After the First World War German lost its place as international language, as a result of the Treaty of Versailles (Ammon & McConnell 2002: 14). Alongside French, English became one of the negotiation languages of the Treaty of Versailles and later the “official language of the newly founded League of Nations” (ibid.). Germany lost its former colonies, which consequently restricted the language to the European continent. Additionally, Ammon and McConnell (2002: 15ff.) point out that after the war “the boycott against German as a language of science” led to “a ban

from German from international scientific communication". Of further significance for German as a scientific language was the Second World War. The Nazi regime forced many German speaking scientists to flee while others were "expelled from the country" (ibid.). Ammon and McConnell (2002: 16) aptly describe this as a "brain drain [that] has continued until today".

The second feature, "the transcendence of the role of an elite lingua franca" (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 110), deals with the argument, provided in Ferguson (2006: 117), that during British rule in the colonies, the English language was imposed onto the colonised against their will. Brutt-Griffler (2002: 121) contradicts this view, when she argues that the acquisition of an international language is not confined to an economically strong intellectual elite, because "[t]he cooptation of English as a means of resistance led to its spread beyond the bounds of an elite lingua franca". This is supported by Ferguson (2006: 117) who stresses that it was in fact in the interest of the British colonisers to "withhold" the acquisition of English, in order to maintain their political power and supremacy. He argues further that especially in countries with a multitude of different indigenous languages, the acquisition of English functioned as a linguistic unifying factor "into a common struggle against colonial rule" (ibid.).

The third factor "the stabilization of bilingualism through coexistence of world language with other languages in bilingual/multilingual context" (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 110), addresses the international spread and presence of English. This spread "established bilingual/multilingual contexts" in which English exists "alongside other languages without replacing them" (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 121). The acquisition of the first language is a "non-stop process" and not confined to regulated hours of learning as is the case in second language acquisition (Bisong 1995: 125, quoted in Brutt-Griffler 2002: 123). Languages enhance a person's "linguistic repertoire and [...] consciousness" enabling bilingual or multilingual communication (ibid.). Furthermore, an international language enables "mutual intelligibility" (Crystal 2009: 22) across diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Languages as such determine and express our role within a society and across cultures, by creating, or being used to create, identity among its speakers (Thornborrow 1999: 137), thus "distinguish[ing] social groups from another" (Crystal 2009: 22). Certain linguistic behaviours such as language choice, lexical or grammatical preferences, pronunciation,

registers, etc. do not only identify speakers as belonging to a specific group (in-group), but mark them at the same time specifically as members of an out-group (Thornborrow 1999: 143). According to Crystal (2009: 22) bilingual or multilingual contexts are characterised by changing from one social context to another, i.e. from mutual intelligibility to personal social settings. The international function of English enables the participation on an international market “without thereby establishing itself as the basis of the local economy (the internal market)” (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 122). Only by giving a language the status of a national or official language are the local varieties in danger of decreasing in value and status (ibid.). Crystal (2009: 21) points out that due to the increasing international status of English the awareness for the rights and preservation of minority languages has considerably grown.

The fourth feature focuses on the correlation of English as a national language as well as international language (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 123). “The development of World English is part of the transition from language spread as a function of national language development to language spread as the expression of world language development” (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 124). A national language is being consciously selected “and ideologically constructed” for identification purposes, communication and unification needs (Patrick 2001: 4<sup>2</sup>) of a nation, thus establishing “monolingualism”<sup>3</sup> within a society (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 124). The selection of a national language involves a process by which one variety has “been standardized and legitimized” (Patrick 2001: 4) and other varieties of the language are being neglected and consequently are likely to decline in status and prestige. In contrast, English in its role as international language is determined by econocultural and political qualities (ibid.). Additionally, as was discussed above, an international language characteristically exists alongside other languages, thus establishing bilingual or multilingual contexts.

In contrast to these features discussed above, it is vital to point out that the reasons for the spread of the English language and its consequences are strongly questioned and subject to debate in the literature (e.g. Patrick 2001; Pennycook 1994; 2006; Phillipson 2007). Surveying the literature, two main

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<sup>2</sup> The page number indicated refers to the printed version (pdf) of the online article.

<sup>3</sup> Monolingualism here refers to a whole language system and comprises regional variations and dialects.

theoretical approaches appear to be of relevance: the concepts of language dominance and linguistic imperialism. Even though both concepts can be regarded as interrelated, they differ in certain key aspects.

Following Patrick (2001: 1) language dominance can be described as “the notion of ‘linguistic hierarchy’ and of the social, political, and ideological dimensions of attributing power and prestige to particular language varieties and their speakers”. When referring to something as *dominant* or *powerful* it implies that at the same time something or somebody is being *dominated* or *powerless*. In the context of languages it can be argued that for the most part the languages of minority groups, which can be defined as having “less political, economic, and social power” (ibid.), are neglected and overlooked. With regard to English as international language it can be argued that it obtains a role of prestige and power. The concept of language dominance is closely connected to language management policies from the individual domain to the supranational domain (Spolsky 2009: 206) – with the latter having significantly more influence and power. A more detailed account on language planning and policy with regard to the role of English within the European Union (EU) will be provided in section 3.2.

Linguistic imperialism on the other hand emphasises the “hegemony” (Phillipson 2007: 279) of international English as based on the colonial politics and post-colonial interests of the United States and Britain (Ferguson 2006: 113). In this respect Pennycook (2006: 81) argues that

[t]he extent to which English is involved in the political, educational, social and economic life of a country is clearly a result of both the historical legacy of colonialism and of the varying success of countries in warding off the threats of neo-colonialism.

Within linguistic imperialism theory the spread of English is not perceived as “natural, neutral and beneficial” (Pennycook 1994: 9) as it is often described by scholars who ascribe the increased position of English to “inevitable global forces” (ibid.). Pennycook (1994: 9) even stresses this when he states that “it is considered beneficial because a blandly optimistic view of international communication assumes that this occurs on a cooperative and equitable footing” (ibid.).

Another important concept in linguistic imperialism is that of inclusion and exclusion of social status and education with regard to the international

dominance of English. The acquisition of English is perceived as an essential competence for those who wish to obtain a certain status within a society and are thus included in a society's social and econocultural developments (Pennycook 1994: 14). In this context Pennycook (2006: 80) describes English "as a gatekeeper to positions of prestige in society". The prerequisites for the necessary language acquisition are managed and organised by the respective educational system of a country. Especially in further education English is an essential competence and as Pennycook (2006: 82) illustrates:

[S]tudents around the world are not only obliged to reach a high level of competence in English to pursue their studies, but they are also dependent on forms of Western knowledge that are often of limited value and extreme inappropriacy to the local context.

The briefly outlined critical views show that the field of English as international language is subjected to controversial opinions, based in historical, social, econocultural developments and interrelations which are seen as crucial for its spread. Keeping the various factors in mind, the next section discusses the language management policies of the EU with regard to the role of English in education.

### ***3.2. The Role of English in the European Union***

In line with the theoretical discussion in the previous section, the focus is now directed at the language management policies of the European Union (EU) with regard to its multilingual member states in general and English as international language in particular.

#### **3.2.1. Language Management Policy – a General Perspective**

The study of language policy and management is an intensively researched and controversially discussed field in the literature (e.g. Herbert 1995; Ferguson 2006; Shohamy 2006; Spolsky 2004; 2009; Phillipson 2006; Ricento 2000).

For the following discussion, I will apply Spolsky's (2004: 8) terminology about language management in comparison to what is often referred to as language planning in the literature:

In studying language policy, we are usually trying to understand just what non-language variables co-vary with the language variables.



There are also cases of direct efforts to manipulate the language situation. When a person or group directs such intervention, I call this language management.

Language policy and management are two closely intertwined areas that can be regarded as mutually dependent. Ferguson (2006: 16) defines language policy as “referring to decision-making processes and the setting of goals” and language management as “the implementation of plan for attaining these goals” (ibid.). Shohamy (2006: 45) on the other hand expresses a more critical view when she describes language policy as “the primary mechanism for organizing, managing and manipulating language behaviours as it consists of decisions made about languages and their uses in society”. She emphasises further that it “acts as a manipulative tool in the continuous battle between different ideologies” (ibid.). As can be inferred from these definitions a single operative body or group of bodies needs to be involved in language decision-making processes and their implementation (Ferguson 2006: 16). In this context, Shohamy (2006: 48) points out that language management policy “can exist at all levels of decision making about languages”, from “individuals” to “families” and “schools”, from “cities” to “regions” and “nations”, and from “territories” to a “global context”. Spolsky (2009: 3), referring to Fishman (1972: n.a.), suggests the use of the term *domain* when referring to the different operative levels of decision making. He defines domain as “distinguished by three characteristics: participants, location, and topic” (Spolsky 2009: 3). *Participants* “are characterised [...] by their social roles” depending on the respective domain, e.g. daughter, assistant, executive manager, chief financial officer, teacher, politician, etc. This means that across domains participants fulfil different social roles at the same time (ibid.). The second characteristic, the *location*, refers to the place of a certain domain which “usually connect[s] social and physical reality – people and places”. An example would be a family home when the boss is invited for dinner (ibid.). The last characteristic of domains, *topic*, regulates “what [...] is appropriate to talk about in the domain”, e.g. the register, certain taboos, what can be considered as bad or good language, etc. (ibid.). Based on these characteristics we can therefore distinguish between domains such as family, workplace, government, supranational domain, etc. (ibid.). Summing up it can be stated that domains are an essential constituent in

language policy, in so far as each domain, although on a different scale, participates in and manages decisions about language(s).

Spolsky (2004: 5) proposes three significant factors which constitute language policy: “language practices”, “language beliefs and ideologies”, and “language intervention, planning or management”. Language practices “actually take place (are practiced)” (Shohamy 2006: 52) and “embrace conventional differences between levels of formality of speech and other agreed rules as to what variety is appropriate in different situations” (Spolsky 2009: 9).

Taking a historical perspective, these factors can be seen as determining in the selection of a certain variety as the standard language or official language of a nation which are closely connected to “state formation processes” (Ferguson 2006: 17). The literature distinguishes between state-nations, e.g. Britain and Spain, and nation-states for instance Germany. The former refers to already established political entities, such as “state[s]” or “kingdoms”, where the primary focus was given to its borders which “were fixed and stabilised first” (ibid.). Afterwards the focus shifted to “cultural, religious and linguistic unification” (ibid.) of the heterogeneous population. In contrast, nation states derived from formerly different, smaller self-governing entities that formed a political entity. However, nation building processes require, amongst other aspects, linguistic decisions. These decisions involve “the structure of language itself (corpus) vs. decisions relating to language use and choice (status)” (Shohamy 2006: 48). Status refers to “the functions of language(s) in society” (Ferguson 2006: 20), such as the selection of a certain variety as the standard or official language. This consequently involves the standardisation and codification of the language – the corpus. All linguistic decisions and processes are part of a selection in which all domains interrelate and influence each other (Brutt-Griffler 2002: 63).

A further aspect in regard to language policies and practices is concerned with the degree to which language policy is being documented. Explicitly stated language policies comprise the declaration of certain languages as having official or national status and their planned implementation and treatment in educational curricula (Shohamy 2006: 50). For instance the EU explicitly states the regulations regarding its language use. This statement is

given in the “Regulation No 1 determining the languages to be used by the European Economic Community” (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/site/en/consleg/1958/R/01958R0001-20070101-en.pdf>, 11 September 2012). In contrast, implicit language policies can only be deferred from “de facto practices”. The United States of America for instance provide “no explicit and stated language policies that specify the status and uses of the English language” (Shohamy 2006: 50).

The second factor of language beliefs and ideologies refers to “the beliefs about language and language use” (Spolsky 2004: 5) shared among specific domains. This comprises the cultural knowledge and the reflected beliefs and ideologies in what is being communicated, such as the speaker’s social status, gender, age, education, etc. These beliefs and ideologies are shared among and across specific domains operating as “conventional rules, not unlike grammatical rules, which are learned by members of the speech community as they grow up” (Spolsky 2004: 9).

The third aspect identified by Spolsky (2004: 5), is connected to “any specific efforts to modify or influence that [language] practice”. Crystal (2009: 4) states in this respect that when a language is “made a priority in a country” it is necessary to make the language “available” to all members of a community. This can be primarily achieved via the educational domain, which, in Ferguson’s (2006: 33) words, is “one of the key agencies of socialisation”. In this context, Shohamy (2006: 49) specifies that

language education policies, [...] specify in very accurate terms the exact languages, even the exact hours and methods, students will be required to learn as well as the specific situations in which these languages should be learned and the language tests needed to demonstrate knowledge of the languages.

Language management policies reflect the practices and beliefs of a specific domain or group of domains. It comprises linguistic decisions about varieties and their codification. Furthermore, both language management and policy are influenced and shaped by the culturally intrinsically conveyed beliefs and ideologies within domains. Especially in the educational domain language management policies are being reflected due to their crucial function in the econocultural development ambitions of a domain.

### 3.2.2. Multilingual Europe and the Role of English

In reference to Spolsky (2009: 210), the EU as an “international organisation” functions as a supranational domain. With regard to language management policy it is necessary to distinguish between two policy levels of the supranational domain: the “domain-internal policy and the organization’s efforts to influence the policy language or otherwise, of its member states” (Spolsky 2009: 208). The EU as supranational domain has “no common language policy, because language policy is understood to be the responsibility of the member states” (House 2008: 63). However, it can be argued that due to the multilingualism of its member states and the recognised official and working languages, the EU follows a certain domain-internal policy. In addition, the European Commission states that “[t]he goal is a Europe where everyone can speak at least **two other languages** in addition to their own mother tongue” ([http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/index_en.htm), 10 September 2012; original emphasis). Hence, it can be inferred that the EU indeed influences the language policies of its member states by providing guidelines, proposals, and goals with regard to language(s).

Currently, the EU comprises twenty-seven member states<sup>4</sup> with six candidate countries<sup>5</sup> ([http://europa.eu/about-eu/countries/index\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/about-eu/countries/index_en.htm), 10 September 2012). Within the EU twenty-three official and working languages<sup>6</sup> and “more than 60 indigenous regional and minority languages” ([http://europa.eu/about-eu/facts-figures/administration/index\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/about-eu/facts-figures/administration/index_en.htm), 10 September 2012) are being recognised. Due to shared common official languages between member states, the number of member states differs from the number of official languages. “In Belgium, for example, the official languages are Dutch, French and German, whilst in Cyprus the majority of the population speaks Greek, which has official status” (ibid.).

EU citizens have the proclaimed right to contact EU institutions in their respective official language and are being granted to receive an answer in this

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<sup>4</sup> Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.

<sup>5</sup> Croatia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Montenegro, Serbia, Turkey.

<sup>6</sup> Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovene, Spanish and Swedish.

language. Furthermore, “regulations and other legislative documents” are provided in all twenty-three languages ([http://europa.eu/pol/mult/index\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/pol/mult/index_en.htm), 12 September 2012). The European Parliament, however, “provides translation into different languages according to the needs of its Members” ([http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/eu-languages\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/eu-languages_en.htm), 12 September 2012). House (2008: 63) points out that “in different EU organs the actual number of working languages varies”. Indeed, the website of the European Commission states that three working languages are being employed: English, French, and German ([http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/eu-languages\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/eu-languages_en.htm), 12 September 2012). Furthermore, each of these three working languages is given different emphasis depending on the EU institution and body. “Internally, the institutions operate with slimmed-down procedures in the name of efficiency, speed and cost” ([http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/pdf/doc3275\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/pdf/doc3275_en.pdf), 14 September 2012). For instance the international language of the Court of Justice is French, but cases are being heard in all twenty-three official languages ([http://eulita.eu/sites/default/files/Interpreting at the Court of Justice of the EU.pdf](http://eulita.eu/sites/default/files/Interpreting_at_the_Court_of_Justice_of_the_EU.pdf), 13 September 2012). In contrast, the European Central Bank (ECB) focuses on English.

In regard of the different language choices of EU institutions and bodies, the European Ombudsman received 2006 a complaint regarding the language choice of the European Central Bank. One of the main points of this complaint was “that information on the ECB's website is provided only in English, except for a reference to the website of the French Central Bank, which is in French” and the complainant argued further that “the ECB was justifying language discrimination because of practical difficulties” (<http://www.ombudsman.europa.eu/decision/en/061008.htm>, 13 September 2012). Amongst other things the ECB's reply states that

Regulation 1/58 confers on the institutions and bodies the possibility to determine, in accordance with their operational needs, the modalities of their internal language policies and to opt explicitly to use one (or more) language(s) as their "working language(s)". The use of such language(s) becomes therefore obligatory for all the documents, in all meetings and correspondence concerning the activities of that institution.

The ECB did not make a choice to use one (or more) "working language(s)", but adopted a "differentiated" linguistic regime,

according to its operational needs. In this way, in practice, the principle of complete multilingualism is applied each time it is necessary (ibid.).

The complainant's case was closed after the European Ombudsman's decision, which was in accordance with the ECB's reply. However, the European Ombudsman states a "further remark" which notes that "[t]he ECB could consider informing the European citizens, through its website, of the possibility of requesting translations of its documents" (ibid.).

In this context it is interesting to note that all official EU languages hold the status of working or procedural languages. Yet, despite this proclamation of the EU not all languages are given the same status throughout EU institutions, with English, German, and French as dominant languages. Furthermore, depending on the respective EU institution's or body's operational needs, language choices are being made. It can only be assumed that these language needs reflect certain historical traditions of a branch or institution. However, from the facts above mentioned it can be concluded that the domain-internal language policy of the EU is twofold: On the one hand the multilingual reality of its member states is being acknowledged and thus "the symbolic claims of all member states" (Spolsky 2009: 208) are met. On the other hand, institutions and bodies are given the possibility to apply their own linguistic regime, thus excluding people or groups of people from accessing documents and information of public interest in their first language.

It is repeatedly argued in the literature (e.g. House 2008; De Swan 2001; Spolsky 2009) that due to the complexity of obligatory and necessary translations the costs and efforts going into translational processes are extremely high. De Swan (2001: 191), taking an economical perspective, states that "these expenses already represent the largest item on the institutional budget". This argument contrasts with the European Commission's website, which states that the estimated cost for all translation services "in all EU institutions amounts to **less than 1% of the annual general budget of the EU**" ([http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/faq/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/faq/index_en.htm), 14 September 2012; original emphasis). Nevertheless, House (2008: 64) proposes that "it would be more efficient to operate in EU institutions with but one language", with English

being “the only realistic candidate”. The implementation of English as the main language of the EU is also supported by De Swan (2001: 189) who claims that

if transmission from one language to another is so tricky and troublesome, and inevitable nevertheless, then it had better be restricted to the native language and one widespread lingua franca. Between Finnish and Portuguese there may be no more pitfalls than between Finnish and English, but the problems with translation to and from English are much better known.

According to a publication of the European Commission it can be argued that English is already given a central position within the EU institutions and bodies. In 2011, translations with the target language English are indicated with 12,3%, followed by French with 7,9%, and German with 6,5% ([http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/whoweare/translation\\_figures\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/whoweare/translation_figures_en.pdf), 14 September 2012). Setting these figures in correlation to the EU member states with English as their official language, it can be shown that English has already gained a significant status within EU institutions and bodies and that it “has defacto become the connecting language of the European Union” (De Swaan 2001: 161)

In line with the previous discussion and in regard to the given central position of English within the EU, the following arguments can be repeatedly found: *budget, efficiency, operational needs, speed and cost, practical difficulties*. This indicates that English is associated with economic and professional values – factors that are considered crucial in “contemporary capitalism” (Bull 2012: 65).

As is shown by Spolsky (2009: 208), supranational institutions are in a comparatively difficult position with regard to languages: On the one hand, they need to consider economic factors which can be accounted for by a higher degree of efficiency and are offered by “a monolingual operation”. On the other hand, they need to consider the “symbolic claims of all member states” (ibid.). The European Commission as supranational domain values the linguistic diversity of its member states:

EU language policies aim to protect linguistic diversity and promote knowledge of languages – for reasons of cultural identity and social integration, but also because multilingual citizens are better placed to take advantage of the educational, professional and economic opportunities created by an integrated Europe.

The goal is a Europe where everyone can speak at least **two other languages** in addition to their own mother tongue. ([http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/index_en.htm), 10 September 2012; original emphasis).

As was already pointed out above and as communicated in this statement, the European Commission acknowledges the multilingual reality of its member states. Furthermore, it proposes the objective that every EU citizen should be able to speak two languages in addition to their first language. Emphasising a communicative value Castorina (2010: 45) describes “[t]he ideal Eurocitizen [as] a plurilingual speaker who owns the skills to communicate with native and non-native users of different European languages”. In his view, this is in accordance with “a qualitative shift” in languages where “native-like accuracy becomes less important than international intelligibility” (Castorina 2010: 45).

However, Spolsky (2009: 213) dismisses the aim of the European Commission and claims that due to increasing globalisation processes and the involved importance of English “there is little need to argue for such a policy”. Spolsky (2009: 213ff.) argues further that the plurilingual competence reflects “the hope that languages other than English will be adopted to the regular school program”, such as French, German, and Spanish. Taking a bilingual language perspective, he reasons that the “[n]ational language plus English would achieve the pragmatic goal” (Spolsky 2009: 214). Statistical data published by the EU shows that Spolsky’s pragmatic goal is in fact already implemented in the primary and secondary educational sector in the EU. In primary education, English is the first foreign language learned in most countries, where “a clear majority of pupils (choose to) study English” ([http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics\\_explained/index.php/Foreign language learning statistics](http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Foreign_language_learning_statistics), 29 October 2012). This is also the case for children studying in secondary education, where English was learned by 92.7% of the pupils in 2010 (ibid.).

Besides the multilingual objectives of the EU, English has reached an undeniable status internationally and is associated with economic value and proliferation. As is pointed out by Ferguson (2006: 112) “economic prosperity requires a strong research infrastructure, and this means a significant cadre of persons with the language skills to access English language scientific



publications". Therefore, the aim of the next chapter is to discuss the role of English in the tertiary education giving special emphasis to Austrian universities.

#### **4. The Role of English in (Austrian) Tertiary Education**

So far it has been shown that due to different historical developments, English is an essential part in various domains. In contrast to the EU's stated acknowledgement of its language diversity, English is the primary language of EU institutions and bodies. Additionally, it is one of the most widely taught first foreign languages in school curricula within the EU, thus strengthening and expanding its current position. Furthermore, it is not only considered to be valuable for people from different language backgrounds, but also to be an economic asset with regard to competing world markets. The aim of this chapter is to discuss the role of English in the context of universities and higher education institutes. In a first step, focus is given to the status of English as a scientific language and the subsequent implications for researchers from other language backgrounds than English are considered. Subsequently, attention will be given to the development of the international university in general and in Austria in particular. Finally, international student mobility as promoted by the EU and as an indicator for the internationalisation of universities and higher education institutes is presented.

##### ***4.1. English, the language of science<sup>7</sup>***

As was presented in section 3.1, at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century German, French, and to some degree English were the international languages of science. Therefore, German or French speaking scientists were able to publish in these languages, gaining recognition throughout the scientific community of their time. According to Ammon and McConnell (2002: 13) "[t]he international standing of each language will, as a rule, grow as a result of these publications, roughly in proportion to their number and, of course, also their quality". Due to

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<sup>7</sup> Science is understood in its general term, referring to all sciences. It is only specified when necessary, e.g. technological science, economic science, social sciences, etc.

various historical developments, the status of German and French as international languages in science has decreased. As a result of the diminishing status of these two languages and in correlation with economic considerations from various domains, publications in either of these languages were consequently reduced, giving way to English as the prevalent language of science, which “has no competitor at present” (Haberland & Mortensen 2012: 2).

Given the predominant status of English in science and the correlating necessity for scientists to publish their work in English, the question arises how this affects scientific communities from language backgrounds other than English. In this context two aspects seem particularly relevant: First, the scientific community’s acceptance and attitude towards the prevalent language of science and second the level of language competency as a condition to participate in the latest scientific discussions and publications. In regard to the first aspect, Ammon (2001: 351) defines the shift from one international scientific language to another as a correlation between “the degree of language loyalty to the own language” and “linguistic distance of one’s own language from English”. Hence, scientific communities whose first language once held the status of an internationally recognised language of science show a higher degree of loyalty to their own language. This can be seen, for instance, in the cases of German or French (*ibid.*). In contrast, “scientists of the smaller language communities have never had the chance to develop a strong loyalty to their own language [...] since they have always been dependent on some other language for their international communication” (*ibid.*).

The second aspect, however, can be seen in the context of first, second or third language acquisition and learning. Academic discourse per se demands in every language a high level of language competence in regard to register, lexicon, coherence etc. According to Ammon (2001: 354), first language speaker competence is considered as standard and the “norm expectations tend to be rather rigorous”. This is in fact a difficulty for non-first language speakers of English (*ibid.*), presuming that English was not part of their higher educational careers. In order for all language speakers to obtain the same opportunities as first language speakers, Ammon (2001: 356) suggests international English, which he describes as “a variety, or a set of varieties, of

English for which not only the English-speaking countries themselves would define the norms”.

Furthermore, it is argued that it is essential for scientists to communicate with the society they are involved in (Ammon 2001: 352), which is of special concern for researchers in Social Sciences and the Humanities. Consequently, both research and results from these studies, which are of value for a society, are carried out in the language of the respective society (Ammon & McConnell 2002: 21). Moreover, in relation to the terminology applied within a certain scientific field, non-first language scientists of English are in a difficult position. Ammon (2001: 350) illustrates this language discrepancy in the following way:

An example is the term *Bekräftigung* of the Russian psychologist Pavlov, who gained his international reputation through German. It was translated to English *reinforcement*. From there it was retranslated to German *Verstärkung* [...] though the new term [...] captures less of the concept than the old one.

As topicalised in this quote, scientific terminology is translated between languages. Due to the status of English as scientific language, terminology coined in another language is being translated and retranslated, consequently leading to semantic and meaning changes.

It has been shown previously that English is generally associated and connected with economic value and profit. These are factors that are regarded as fundamental and crucial for the well being of a society. Haberland and Mortensen (2012: 2) point out that the economic value and the choice for a particular language of science are closely interrelated. In connection with English they argue that “[i]f it is considered the language of globalism [...] the choice [for] English as academic lingua franca is determined by market forces” (ibid.). Ammon (2001:353) demonstrates the economic value in science by pointing out that, for instance, publishers were forced to shift to English in order “to survive economically”. This consequently influenced the language of the international scientific domain to write publications in English. Therefore, it can be argued that scientists are not given much choice in regard to language, if they want to actively participate in the research and discussions in their research area. Furthermore, the interrelation between economic profit and scientific knowledge is shown by Ferguson (2006: 112) who argues that “economic prosperity requires a strong research infrastructure”. However,

Martel (2001: 32ff.) takes a more critical perspective by identifying three factors that have contributed to the language “paradigm shift” in science, by showing their connection to underlying economic aspects. “First, researchers can no longer claim allegiance to none other than science” (ibid.). Due to the fact that research is increasingly more often funded by private institutions from small to supranational domains, science and economic interests and profit become closely interwoven.

The second factor identified by Martel (2001: 33) shows that “the physical sites of research are increasingly moving from universities to industries, hospitals, public research centres” and other business industries. The economic interests of these businesses support the employment of English in regard to efficiency, speed and costs.

The last crucial factor defined by Martel (2001: 33) for the language paradigm shift is that “communications between researchers are no longer horizontal among peers, but subjected to the vertical judgement of other spheres in society, particularly from businesses and industries”. Due to the influence of economically oriented institutions, research is evaluated according to its “usability on the global market” (ibid.), which enhances and intensifies the correlation between science and business industries.

Summing up, it can be stated that the role and status of English as international language of science affects the scientific domain considerably. English language knowledge is correlated with economic considerations and values (Martel 2001: 28), leading to an deepening correlation between science and business industries with English being one of the essential common factors. What is more, according to De Cillia and Schweiger (2001: 364) “there is a strong reciprocal influence between scientific instruction and research”. As a result of English being the international language of science, universities “invariably have to take English into account” (Haberland & Mortensen 2012: 1). The aim of the next section is to describe the change from formerly local universities to international universities with special emphasis on Austrian universities.

#### **4.2. The Internationalisation of Universities**

Given the predominant role of English in science and the increasing pressure for economic profit, universities<sup>8</sup> are required to position themselves internationally. This can be achieved by focusing either on a local market or on an international market.

In her study about two universities, Bull (2012) shows how they can successfully position themselves by focusing on the local market. The Sámi University College in Norway is an indigenous institution with Sámi as the language of administration, research, and instruction. At the University of the Faroe Islands “[t]he language of instruction is Faroese” and the “relevance for the Faroese society is a *sine qua non* for any discipline” (Bull 2012: 63).

However, it can be argued that the majority of universities focus on internationalisation, thus “broaden their recruitment and boost student numbers” (Söderlundh 2012: 89). Furthermore, one prerequisite to meet the requirements of internationalisation is an increasing implementation of English as medium of instruction in study programmes and courses. Given that English is a determining factor, the question now arises what other aspects contribute to an international orientation of universities. The introduction of the Bologna Process in 1999 can be regarded as a vital part in the development of international universities. By 2007 forty-six countries<sup>9</sup> had signed the agreement. The Bologna Process is marked by six essential objectives which were extended and further developed in the following years ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/EHEA2010/BolognaPedestrians\\_en.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/highereducation/EHEA2010/BolognaPedestrians_en.asp), 16 September 2012). The basic objectives stated are as follows:

- adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees;
- adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles, undergraduate and graduate;
- establishment of a system of credits – such as in the ECTS;

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<sup>8</sup> By university or universities all higher education institutes in Austria are being referred to, e.g. University of Applied Sciences, private universities, etc.

<sup>9</sup> Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, Croatia, Cyprus, Liechtenstein, Turkey, Albania, Andorra, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Holy See, Russia, Serbia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova, Ukraine, and Montenegro.

- promotion of mobility by overcoming obstacles to the free movement of students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff;
- promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance;
- promotion of the necessary European dimensions in higher education.

(ibid.)

As can be perceived from this quote, the Bologna Process promotes and emphasises exchange and mobility among the member state universities. As a result, this initiated several changes in the higher education area in the participating countries and their universities. Amongst other changes, these included the initiation of the three-cycle system with Bachelor, Master, and Doctorate and involved the “recognition of qualifications and periods of study” ([http://ec.europa.eu/education/higher-education/doc1290\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/higher-education/doc1290_en.htm), 16 September 2012).

In order to enable a cross-national comparison of students’ university studies with the accreditation of their courses and exams, it was necessary that universities and higher education institutes introduced means that enabled an international comparison, such as the introduction of the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) and of the diploma supplement ([http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/ects\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/ects_en.htm), 14 September 2012). The ECTS indicates the hourly workload needed to finish individual university courses successfully. This does not only comprise the time students spend in direct contact with their teachers during a course, but also includes the time for individual course work such as assignments, research, etc. One credit point “corresponds to twenty-five to thirty hours of work” ([http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/ects/guide\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/ects/guide_en.pdf), 16 September 2012). Even though the value of one credit point has different validity in each country, for example in Austria one credit equals twenty-five hours’ work, whereas in Germany thirty hours, and in the United Kingdom twenty hours (ibid.), courses or parts of studies can be recognised by other universities. The European Commission for instance acknowledges the fact that credits and learning outcomes are likely to differ among study programmes and recommends

a flexible approach to recognition of credits obtained in another context [...]. ‘Fair recognition’ rather than perfect equivalence is to be sought. Such ‘fair recognition’ should be based on the learning

outcomes – i.e. what a person knows and is able to do - rather than on the formal procedures that have led to the completion of a qualification or its component (ibid.).

As can be taken from this quote, the European Commission pronounces recommendations on the recognition of credits, but does not provide any further information about how an evaluation of a student's knowledge and ability can be assessed by another university. However, in general, ECTS enable the academic transfer of students' university education to other universities and higher education institutions.

A further component in the context of the recognition of qualifications is the diploma supplement, which is an additional document “issued to graduates of higher education institutions along with their degree or diploma” (<http://europass.cedefop.europa.eu/en/documents/diploma-supplement>, 16 September 2012). It is specially directed at universities and employers outside the student's respective country “making [the information] more easily understood” (ibid.). The diploma supplement comprises a comprehensive summary about the student's acquired knowledge and skills during their studies. Amongst others, the above mentioned changes were implemented to promote and facilitate student and staff mobility among universities by establishing a comparable system for universities and other higher education institutes. A more detailed discussion about international student mobility is provided in section 4.4. It can be concluded from this brief overview that the implementation of the changes that were agreed upon in the Bologna Process marked a first step towards the internationalisation of universities.

### ***4.3. The Internationalisation of Austrian Universities***

Universities and higher education institutes in Austria are part of the Bologna Process and have continually implemented measures to meet the requirements. In regard to this international positioning of universities in Austria, the Federal Ministry for Education, the Arts, and Culture published the following general statement on its website:

Aufgrund der engen internationalen Verflechtung von Wirtschaft, Politik und Kultur gewinnt internationale Zusammenarbeit zunehmend an Bedeutung. Globalisierung und demographische Veränderung in den Gesellschaften erfordern eine gut abgestimmte

Auslandspolitik [...] im Hinblick auf geopolitische Regionen und auf Themen, die für das österreichische Bildungssystem, aber auch für die gesamte Gesellschaft von Relevanz sind. [...] Eine entscheidende Rolle für die Entwicklung und Funktionsfähigkeit dieser Netzwerke und einer aktiven regionalen Zusammenarbeit kommt einer dynamischen bilateralen Bildungspolitik zu, die den Austausch und die Zusammenarbeit im Bereich der Aus- und Weiterbildung mit europäischen und außereuropäischen Ländern fördert. (<http://www.bmukk.gv.at/europa/bibildung/index.xml>, 20 September 2012)

This quote demonstrates that the Austrian Ministry aims at internationalisation and cooperation in education. It is interesting to note, however, that this is explicitly set in relation to the interconnection of economy, politics, and culture. As has been shown previously, economy and the choice for English are intrinsically interrelated. Based on this, it is assumed that universities in Austria increasingly employ English as language of instruction.

De Cillia and Schweiger (2001: 365) show that “there is no national institution responsible for language planning and policy co-ordination [in Austria]. As a rule language-related measures are taken in response to political trends”. It can be concluded from this that each educational institute in Austria can choose its language management policy regarding the language of instruction.

Due to the fact that no concise data on the language(s) of instruction at Austrian universities was available and in order to obtain informative data on this subject, it was necessary to explore information on university and institutional websites. The first step included a brief empirical Internet search on three main Austrian university websites and/or their online course catalogues. The second step comprised the database on International Programmes offered at Austrian universities, provided by the Austrian agency for international mobility and cooperation in education, science and research (OeAD).

The brief online search of the three main Austrian universities' websites yielded the following results: The University of Economics and Business (WU) (<http://www.wu.ac.at/programs/master>, 19 September 2012) offers fifteen Master degree programmes of which seven are taught entirely in English and eight are taught in German (ibid.). The University of Graz states on its website that ten percent of all courses are taught in English (<http://www.uni->



[graz.at/de/lehren/lehrende/lehren-in-englisch/](http://online.uni-graz.at/kfu_online/wbSuche.LVSuche), 19 September 2012). By consulting the online course catalogue filters could be set according to the language of instruction. The course catalogue for the winter term 2012/13 yielded 397 search results for courses in English and 3274 results for courses in German ([https://online.uni-graz.at/kfu\\_online/wbSuche.LVSuche](https://online.uni-graz.at/kfu_online/wbSuche.LVSuche), 19 September 2012). The University of Vienna provides no information on the website regarding its language management policy in study programmes or courses. However, via the online course catalogue it was possible to retrieve some information about courses taught in English. The online course catalogue also offers the possibility to set search filters according to the language of instruction (<http://online.univie.ac.at/vlvz?extended=Y>, 19 September 2012). The search results for courses held in English during the winter term 2012/13 were generated not stating the actual amount of courses, but as an extensive online list<sup>10</sup> with numerous courses at various institutes. Therefore, no specific data can be provided ([http://online.univie.ac.at/vlvz?extended=Y&lang=en&titel=&match\\_t=substring&zuname=&vorname=&match=substring&lvnr=&sprachauswahl=108.28&von\\_t=&von\\_m=&von\\_j=&wt=&von\\_stunde=&von\\_min=&bis\\_stunde=&bis\\_min=&semester=W2012&extended=Y](http://online.univie.ac.at/vlvz?extended=Y&lang=en&titel=&match_t=substring&zuname=&vorname=&match=substring&lvnr=&sprachauswahl=108.28&von_t=&von_m=&von_j=&wt=&von_stunde=&von_min=&bis_stunde=&bis_min=&semester=W2012&extended=Y), 19 September 2012). Nevertheless, it is important to point out that the search results also include the study programmes of the Department of English where courses are traditionally taught in English.

The online database of the OeAD shows study programmes and/or courses that are part of what are called International Programmes which are defined on to the website of the OeAD as:

- programmes taught in languages other than German (mostly English)
- joint degree programmes and double degree programmes as well as Erasmus Mundus programmes
- programmes based on specific international agreements (e.g. Cotutelle – binational conferrals of doctoral degrees)

(<http://www.oead.at/?id=132>, 20 September 2012)

The OeAD offers on its website a database, which provides information about international programmes according to language(s), subject area, university

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<sup>10</sup> Yet, if printed, the number of courses taught in English would amount to 388 A4 pages across all study programmes and courses.

type, and degree. It is interesting to note, however, that on the one hand many study programmes and/or courses from the universities' online course catalogues are not included in the database as international programmes, even though they are taught in English. But on the other hand, for instance the study programmes of the Department of English at the University of Vienna are included. (<http://www.oead.at/?id=132>, 20 September 2012). It can be concluded from the above discussed results that Austrian universities indeed offer numerous study programmes and/or courses in English and therefore strive for an international market. Furthermore, providing students with study programmes and/or courses in English accounts for the status of English as international language and as language of science.

In this context and in regard to language(s) of instruction it appears relevant to include one further aspect, namely necessary language prerequisites in order to be able to enrol in a study programme at an Austrian university. Regardless of the language of instruction and the degree of officially stated internationality, students have to fulfil the respective language entry requirements. This means that international students who wish to enrol in a study programme taught in English have to prove a certain level of English competency or in some English study programmes even German, depending on the university institute's policy ([http://www.oead.at/welcome to austria/education research/study in austria/international programmes/important information/EN/ - c1135](http://www.oead.at/welcome%20to%20austria/education%20research/study%20in%20austria/international%20programmes/important%20information/EN/-c1135), 20 September 2012). In contrast, Austrian students, who wish to enrol at an English study programme, do not need to proof their language competency in English. This has to do with the fact that in most cases the first foreign language taught in Austrian secondary education is English, even though, "no comments may be made on their degree of language proficiency" (De Cillia & Schweiger 2001: 366).

Summing up, it can be said that there are different language prerequisites for international students and Austrian students. Regardless of the language of instruction, international students have to prove their English and/or German level of competency depending on the university's language policies. Furthermore, given the significance of English in science, it is important for students to have the opportunity to explore their respective subject(s) in English

in order to learn the necessary terminology, to be able to access the latest research, and “to improve their skills in the global language” (Ammon & McConnell 2002: 84). At the same time English as language of instruction makes universities more “accessible to foreign students” (ibid.). Universities as teaching and researching institutions highly benefit from international students, because different cultural backgrounds enrich the otherwise predominantly homogenous discourse of a society by bringing in new viewpoints, ideas, and ways of thinking, which constitute additional assets in learning and the development of alternative perspectives. Moreover, international student and staff mobility increases a university’s reputation as research facility internationally.

It has been shown in this section that universities in Austria focus primarily on an international market. Furthermore, English is employed as “a medium of instruction” throughout universities in Austria (Berns 2009: 195). As Berns (ibid.) states

[t]he role [of English] has been expanding in part due to the internationalization of the student population in many universities, encouraged by European Union (EU) policies and by ever larger numbers of students from outside the EU attending universities.

This notion is shared by Haberland and Mortensen (2012: 1), who claim that the international university is “the university as we experience it today with increased – and in some cases drastically increased – transnational student and staff mobility”. Therefore, the objective of the next two sections is to discuss international student mobility in general and in Austria in particular. Furthermore, in regard to the presented empirical study, incoming student mobility in Austria is of special interest, because in most cases international students have to attend compulsory German as a foreign language courses.

#### ***4.4. International Student Mobility***

In line with the argumentation in the previous section, Söderlundh (2012: 89) states that “[e]xchanges are one of several strategies for moving individual universities towards a global rather than a local context”. The European Commission promotes international student mobility with a wide range of measures ranging from exchange programmes in different education sectors

and placements to financial support. Student mobility is highly evaluated by the European Commission, which states that

[s]tudent mobility contributes to individuals' personal development and thus supports the broader development of Europe's economies and societies. Learning abroad equips individuals with a wide range of competences and skills that are increasingly valued by employers – from foreign languages to adaptability and greater intercultural awareness. In these ways, mobility boosts job prospects and encourages labour market mobility later in life.  
([http://ec.europa.eu/education/pub/pdf/higher/erasmus1011\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/pub/pdf/higher/erasmus1011_en.pdf), 15 September 2012)

In view of the developments on the labour market and the increase of internationalisation processes of various institutions, it can be argued that international experience during a student's educational career is nowadays considered to be the status quo. Due to different circumstances such as the employment of a foreign or new language in real life contexts and unfamiliar cultural environments, student mobility is considered a valuable experience and a benefit for young adults. Therefore, the EU offers several mobility programmes within the EU and outside, for people at different stages of their education. Some of the main programmes emphasising mobility between EU member states are: Comenius, Erasmus, Leonardo da Vinci, and Grundtvig. The aim of the Comenius programme is exchange between pupils and staff in primary or secondary education. The Erasmus programme focuses on students and staff mobility at universities, whereas the Leonardo da Vinci programme is directed at people in "vocational training and education" (cf. [http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learningprogramme/ldv\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learningprogramme/ldv_en.htm), 23 September 2012). The Grundtvig programme is targeted at people participating and teaching in adult education (ibid.). It should be pointed out that for this study international student mobility is of primary interest, thus emphasis is given to student exchange programmes in and for the tertiary education sector.

Generally, it can be said that the EU supports student mobility worldwide and not solely within EU member states. Several programmes, projects, and initiatives have been implemented to support student mobility. For this reason, only the programmes considered most prominent are considered. The Erasmus programme is one of the most prestigious exchange programmes of the

European Commission, inaugurated in 1987. Apart from the EU 27, participating members are Switzerland, Norway, Croatia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, and Turkey. The Erasmus programme is named as one of the main contributing factors in internationalisation processes of universities, including the Bologna Process. One of its objectives is to create a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) which offers equal degree structures and comparable university systems ([http://ec.europa.eu/education/pub/pdf/higher/Erasmus1011\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/pub/pdf/higher/Erasmus1011_en.pdf), 23 September 2012). According to the European Commission's publication during the academic year 2010/11, a total of "231 408 [Erasmus] students went to another European country to study or train" (ibid.), with Spain, France, Germany, United Kingdom, and Italy as the main receiving countries (ibid.). During an Erasmus exchange period, students have the opportunity to stay abroad for the duration of three to twelve months.

A further programme promoted by the EU is the Erasmus Mundus programme which is an extension of the successful Erasmus programme. It markets "scholarships and academic cooperation between Europe and the rest of the world" (cf. [http://ec.europa.eu/education/external-relation-programmes/mundus\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/external-relation-programmes/mundus_en.htm), 23 September 2012). This includes joint Master and Doctorate degrees, networking agreements with universities outside the EU, and several projects that support the promotion of the EHEA globally (ibid.). In addition to the Erasmus Mundus programme the EU has initiated the TEMPUS programme, which geographically aims at a more specific area. It is described as

the European Union's programme which supports the modernisation of higher education in the Partner Countries of Eastern Europe, Central Asia, the Western Balkans and the Mediterranean region, mainly through university cooperation projects. ([http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/tempus/index\\_en.php](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/tempus/index_en.php), 23 September 2012)

Thus, the central focus of this programme is on supporting reforms and presenting specific structural measures in higher education institutes (cf. <http://www.oead.at/index.php?id=544&L=1>, 23 September 2012). For a more exhaustive list and further information about student mobility programmes, cf. [http://www.oead.at/welcome to austria/grants scholarships/eu third countries educational collaboration programmes/EN/](http://www.oead.at/welcome%20to%20austria/grants%20scholarships/eu%20third%20countries%20educational%20collaboration%20programmes/EN/) (23 September 2012).

Considering the fact that student mobility and exchange offers not only a high benefit, both for students but also for universities and that the role of English in these contexts is a large one, it can be said that English steps into the function of the connecting language in exchange settings. Taking a more general perspective in this context, De Swaan (2001: 193) describes the advantage of English in the following way: “it allows them [the students] to attend university, seek the most rewarding jobs at home or abroad [...]: it opens the world to them”. Furthermore, English does not only fulfil a mere professional function between people from different language backgrounds, but also an “interpersonal” function (Berns 2009: 195). As Berns aptly describes:

The interpersonal use of English is represented in social contacts between and among Europeans of all ages in various settings – while travelling, socializing after work, participating in school or student exchanges – as well as between and among Europeans and non-Europeans in these very settings. (ibid.)

Hence, English fulfils an important social function for students studying abroad. Apart from its mere professional function, it enables private exchange and communication with other international students and to a certain degree with the local community.

However, studying in another country for a certain period of time comprises numerous administrative activities on part of the student and the sending and receiving universities. Although students are supported by their respective International Departments, it can be said that the main communication is taking place between the student and the receiving university directly. This comprises the recognition of previous studies and courses, confirmations, information about the courses at the receiving institute, the selection of courses, accommodation, necessary payments, etc. In these communicative situations students have mainly two language options: to use the language of the receiving university or English. It should be pointed out, however, that students who do not speak the local language of the receiving country have the possibility to attend language courses prior to their departure. Additionally, universities offer language courses for international students to acquire the local language and to facilitate communication in the local context.

#### **4.5. Student Mobility in Austria**

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2010: 32) distinguishes between two types of students participating in student mobility: international students and foreign students. “Students are classified as “international” when they leave their country of origin and move to another country to study. Students are classified as “foreign’ if they are not citizens of the country in which they are studying” (ibid.). According to this classification, all students from EU member states are by definition considered to be international students whereas students from outside EU member state countries are considered to be foreign students.

Depending on the student’s country of origin, different residence laws become effective. EU and European Economic Area (EEA) students are allowed to reside in Austria for the duration of their studies and “are in principle on an equal footing with Austrian citizens” (<https://www.help.gv.at/Portal.Node/hlpd/public/content/148/Seite.1480500.html>, 24 September 2012). In contrast, foreign students who wish to enrol at an Austrian university must, additionally to the universities’ admission requirements, fulfil the Austrian entry regulations for foreign citizens, i.e. the respective visa entry regulation laws (cf. <https://www.help.gv.at/Portal.Node/hlpd/public/en>, 24 September 2012). Additionally, both international and foreign students have to meet the admission requirements of the university in question in order to be able to enrol at an Austrian university. Therefore, the term international student is applied in this study to all students outside Austria, regardless of their country of origin.

In this context a further distinction has to be made between students participating in an exchange programme and students enrolling at an Austrian university by themselves. International students, who are participating in an exchange programme on the basis of Bilateral Agreements between two universities usually stay at the host university only for a limited time and return to their home universities. These students, usually referred to as incoming students, attend selected courses in English at their respective host universities, provided that they have no sufficient knowledge of German. Incoming students can only attend classes taught in German when they fulfil the German language requirements of the university. At any rate, most universities

in Austria offer additional German language courses for incoming students. International students, who enrol at an Austrian university on their own account usually intend to complete their studies in a study programme. These international students need to fulfil the university entrance qualifications as required.

Amongst other university entrance qualifications, the Austrian Federal Ministry for Science and Research issued in regard to German the following statement:

Von allen Bewerber/inne/n werden ausreichende Kenntnisse der deutschen Sprache verlangt (z.B. durch Reifezeugnis), um sicherzustellen, dass sie in der Lage sind, den Lehrveranstaltungen zu folgen. Wenn ein/e Bewerber/in die deutsche Sprache nicht in ausreichendem Maß beherrscht, ist vom Rektorat ihm/ihr die Ablegung einer Ergänzungsprüfung vor Aufnahme des Studiums aufzuerlegen. [...] Umfang der Ergänzungsprüfung aus Deutsch: Die für die gewählte(n) Studienrichtung(en) notwendigen Kenntnisse in Wort und Schrift sowie der Gebrauch der deutschen Sprache in dem Umfang, wie er für das Verständnis der einschlägigen Texte unbedingt notwendig ist.

([http://www.bmwf.gv.at/startseite/studierende/studieren\\_in\\_oesterreich/postsek\\_bildungseinrichtungen/universitaeten/informationen\\_fuer\\_auslaendische\\_studierende/](http://www.bmwf.gv.at/startseite/studierende/studieren_in_oesterreich/postsek_bildungseinrichtungen/universitaeten/informationen_fuer_auslaendische_studierende/), 24 September 2012).

As can be taken from this quote, German is considered a basic requirement in order to be able to enrol at an Austrian university. International students, whose German competency level is regarded as insufficient, are accepted “as non-degree programme students (außerordentliche Studierende)” at Austrian universities ([http://www.oead.at/welcome\\_to\\_austria/university\\_preparation\\_programmes/vienna\\_vwu/EN/](http://www.oead.at/welcome_to_austria/university_preparation_programmes/vienna_vwu/EN/), 24 September 2012). In these cases, the University Preparation Programme of the Vienna Universities (VWU) offers German language preparation courses. Depending on the student’s German competency level, these courses usually take up to one year.

Each semester approximately 800 students who have been admitted by one of the six universities attend courses at the VWU. They come from 75 to 80 countries from all over the world. (ibid.)

After students have successfully finished their German courses, they are accepted as degree programme students at the respective university.

After having outlined some of the differences and language requirements in regard to international students in Austria, a more general perspective can be



taken. According to the data provided by the Statistik Austria (2012) during the winter term 2011/12, a total of 360,495 students were registered in one of the higher education institutes in Austria. From these students, a total of 81.578 students from other countries than Austria attended study programmes at Austrian universities, with 8.862 non-degree programme students and 63.781 degree programme students at a public university, and a total of 8.935 foreign students, who participated in study programmes in other high education institutes.

Furthermore, international students enrolling at Austrian universities have already acquired university entrance qualifications in their respective home countries. Depending on the stage in their studies, first year students or already attending a university, international students possess a high educational level, which is at minimum equivalent to the Austrian Matura. It can therefore be argued that international students are part of an educational elite, whose learning experiences and already acquired knowledge and skills, can be employed in the German as a foreign language classroom. Additionally, considering the status of English at Austrian universities and its predominance as language of science, English obtains a fundamental role in tertiary education.

## **5. Teaching Methods and Language Approaches**

The aim of this section is to discuss various language teaching methods and approaches in regard to the employment and usage of language(s) in the beginners' classroom. Language teachers have a variety of choices and options concerning the employment of language(s) in their beginners' classroom, depending not only on their personal methodological considerations and preferences, but also on the respective institute's language management policies. From a general perspective, it can be argued that language teachers basically have two options: either they focus primarily on the target language – as language of instruction as well as target – or they employ further language(s), such as English, as tool(s) for instruction.

The first section of this chapter provides a discussion of teaching methods and approaches that focus primarily on the target language as language of instruction, thus prioritising “a *monolingual* set of norms and ideals

[that] is assumed and applied to classroom practices” (Levine 2011: 4; original emphasis). Following this, the next section contrasts these teaching methods and approaches and introduces the concepts of multilingual language teaching methods and approaches, giving special emphasis to the concept of German after English. Finally, this chapter closes with a brief discussion on teaching methods that are considered relevant for both monolingual as well as multilingual teaching methods and approaches in the language classroom.

Before going into the discussion on the various teaching methods and approaches in the beginners’ language classroom, it is necessary to consider the differentiation between language *acquisition* and language *learning*, even though this distinction is not consistently considered in the literature, with both terms often used synonymously.

Following Apeltauer (1997: 14ff.), language acquisition on the one hand refers to the context of comparatively uncontrolled, unconscious, and incidental acquisition of language(s). It primarily takes place in informal contexts and “is usually the result of particular language constellations in the immediate environment of an individual” (Wilton 2009: 54). Language learning on the other hand refers to the formal processes of learning a foreign or additional language and is “predominantly learned in a formal context” (Wilton 2009: 54). According to Apeltauer (1997: 14) acquisition and learning function not as distinct separate categories but are interrelated. He argues that for example adult language learners also acquire a language during formal language education, provided they live in the target language environment as second language learners (ibid.). Additionally, the aspect of age is relevant in the differentiation between language acquisition and learning. Considering the fact that foreign language learning is part of school curricula worldwide, it can be argued that international students are highly educated young adults with an extensive language learning experience. This means that they can benefit from their existing knowledge about what Hedge (2002: 46ff.) defines as “components of communicative language ability”. Oksaar (2003: 109) states in this context:

Die Funktion der Sprache als Werkzeug, auch ihre diskursrelevante Funktion und Verwendung, hat der Lerner [sic] einer Zweitsprache, je nach Alter, schon beim Erstspracherwerb gelernt. Er [sic] hat stets einen Vorsprung der Erfahrung.

In the context of discourse relevant forms of language, Apeltauer (1997: 13) shows that the language requirements for adult language learners differ considerably from the requirements that are part of first language acquisition processes and contexts:

Alltagssituationen, mit denen Jugendliche oder Erwachsene konfrontiert werden, [sind] komplexer. Sie verlangen vielfach Stellungnahmen, Erzählungen, Berichte oder Kommentare. Auch wenn manches davon ritualisiert ist, so erfordert es doch die Beherrschung längerer Äußerungen, die sich häufig nicht – wie in Spielsituationen – durch einfache Handlungen substituieren lassen. Mit anderen Worten: Ältere Lerner müssen sich von Anfang an mit komplexen Situationen und Sprachformen auseinandersetzen, die schwerer zu erfassen und zu verarbeiten sind.

As can be taken from this quote, adult language learners need to be able to deal with complex language situations that require not only the knowledge of functional language aspects, e.g. grammar and lexicon, but even more importantly the experience of various discourse relevant situations. Additionally, it can be argued that international students studying German as foreign language in Austria are confronted with complex language situations, such as visa or registration requirements, etc. Situations like these demand a high language competence in every language and can be considered particularly demanding for foreign language beginners.

### **5.1. The Monolingual Classroom**

The subject of language teaching and its methods and approaches is an intensively discussed research area, proposing numerous methods, approaches, and classifications. Gehring (2004: 101), for instance, classifies teaching methods as either traditional or alternative, whereas Celce-Murcia (2001: 3; original emphasis) distinguishes between “*getting learners to use a language* (i.e., to speak and understand it) versus *getting learners to analyze a language* (i.e., to learn its grammatical rules)”. However, due to the scope of this study only the most salient methods and approaches mentioned in the literature can be discussed: The Grammar-Translation Method, The Direct Method, The Audio-Lingual Method, The Audio-Visual Method, The Natural Approach, Cognitive Approach, and Communicative Language Teaching (cf. Celce-Murcia 2001; Edmondson & House 2006; Gehring 2004; Hedge 2000;

Levine 2011; Widdowson 1999). The aim is to present teaching methods and approaches that are still relevant for and present in language classrooms. Apart from these considerations, focus is given to teaching methods and approaches which focus and promote the target language as the sole language of instruction and in learning activities in the classroom.

The Grammar-Translation Method derived from teaching Latin, which was the scientific language up to the nineteenth century. When other languages such as German, French, or English gained importance, the Grammar-Translation Method was adopted for the teaching of modern languages ([http://www2.uni-wuppertal.de/FB4/anglistik/multhaup/methods\\_elt/3\\_grammar\\_translation\\_method.htm](http://www2.uni-wuppertal.de/FB4/anglistik/multhaup/methods_elt/3_grammar_translation_method.htm), 07 October 2012). In the Grammar-Translation Method languages are regarded as primarily rule governed and therefore focus is given to “grammatical parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words” (Celce-Murcia 2001: 6). Additionally, the language of instruction is only the respective first language (ibid.). Due to the fact that the written mode of language, i.e. reading and writing skills (Edmondson & House 2006: 115), is regarded as essential, emphasis is given to translating between the two languages. This results in an understanding of language learning as an intellectual practice (Edmondson & House 2006: 114) with language learners who are not expected to be able to communicate in the target language (Celce-Murcia 2001: 6). This means that learners achieve a profound knowledge about a language’s systematicity and a certain level of exclusively receptive proficiency. According to Edmondson and House (2006: 115) three aspects of the Grammar-Translation Method are still considered relevant for language teaching: language learning functions as an intellectual practice, the notion that a foreign language is learned on the basis of the first language, and consequently the role of translating in foreign language learning (Edmondson & House 2006: 115).

The Direct Method can be described as “a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Method and its failure to produce learners who could communicate in the foreign language they had been studying” (Celce-Murcia 2001: 6). Language learning is equated to the language acquisition of children. Therefore, focus is given on the spoken aspects of language, i.e. speaking and understanding (<http://www2.uni-wuppertal.de/FB4/anglistik/multhaup/methods>

[\\_elt/4\\_direct\\_method.htm](#), 07 October 2012), with grammar being taught inductively by employing the language in the classroom and on the basis of texts (Celce-Murcia 2001: 6). Due to the focus given to the target language and an acquisition-like approach, the respective first language is being ignored in the classroom, resulting in a target language only approach. Again Edmondson and House (2006: 116) illustrate the relevance of this teaching method in today's classroom, by referring to Berlitz, one of the pioneers of this method, whose language schools have gained renowned importance and until today describe this method as part of the schools' teaching philosophy ([http://www.berlitz.de/de/berlitz\\_company/tradition/berlitz\\_methode/](http://www.berlitz.de/de/berlitz_company/tradition/berlitz_methode/), 07 October 2012).

The Audio-Lingual Method is close to the methodological considerations of the Direct Method, but adds principles taken from structural linguistics and behavioural psychology (Celce-Murcia 2001: 7). Behaviourism goes back to the beginning of the twentieth century and “tended to link organized patterns in behavior and perception to learning and conditioning” (De Mey 1995: 1). In the context of language learning the behaviourist B. F. Skinner formulated three learning principles, which are illustrated by Edmondson and House (2006: 92ff.). The first principle *Law of Frequency* is based on the interrelation of stimulus and response. The more frequent a stimulus is associated with a certain response, the more likely this stimulus will lead to the same response again (ibid.). In language learning this contributes to the significance of exercises (ibid.) or as Widdowson (1999: 11) describes it as “habit formation”. *Law of Effect*, the second principle established by Skinner, claims that a certain behaviour is more likely to be effective and repeated, if correlated with positive experiences (Edmondson & House 2006: 93). The third principle *Law of Shaping* is based on the assumption that a certain behaviour can best be learned by presenting it in small and consecutive sequences (ibid.). The aim is to avoid any negative learning experiences. However, the influence of structural linguistics lies on its “emphasis on the processes of SEGMENTING and CLASSIFYING the physical features of UTTERANCE [...], with little reference to the abstract UNDERLYING structures” (Crystal 2008: 457)<sup>11</sup>. As Celce-Murcia (2001: 7) points out, language learning is “based on the assumption that language is

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<sup>11</sup> This was later strongly criticised by “Chomskyan approach to language” (ibid.).

habit formation”, which can also be described as imitation and reinforcement. “Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively” (ibid.). Edmondson and House (2006: 116) describe pattern-drills and the memorising of dialogues as characteristic for this method. The four skills, i.e. speaking, listening, writing, and reading, are taught according to a believed natural acquisition sequence: “die mündlichen vor den schriftlichen, die rezeptiven vor den produktiven” (Edmondson & House 2006: 116). Furthermore, similar to the Direct Method, only the target language is part of the classroom interaction (ibid.).

The Audio-Visual Method is similar to the Audio-Lingual Method, yet emphasis is given to visual input on the basis of pictures and videos (Edmondson & House 2006: 117). “[E]ine direkte Verbindung zwischen Lauten und Bildern ist anzustreben” (ibid.). Therefore, strong emphasis is given to speaking and listening skills, with an exclusive employment of the target language in the language classroom (ibid.).

One of the most influential and debated methods is The Natural Approach, developed by Stephen Krashen (1981; 1984) and Tracy Terrell. Similar to the Direct Method, the natural approach is based on the assumption that second language learning follows a natural acquisition process. Thus, language is acquired and not learned. Krashen (1984) establishes five hypotheses that are considered crucial in second language acquisition processes: i) the acquisition-learning distinction, ii) the natural order hypothesis, iii) the monitor hypothesis, iv) the input hypothesis, and v) the affective filter hypothesis.

The acquisition-learning hypothesis refers to the dichotomy of language acquisition and learning. According to Krashen (1984: 10) adult learners can both learn and acquire a language as he claims that the ability to acquire a language “does not disappear at puberty”. The third hypothesis, the Monitor hypothesis, corresponds to the acquisition-learning hypothesis. According to Krashen (1984: 15) “learning has only one function, and that is as a Monitor, or editor”. It can be said, that the Monitor processes explicitly learned language and functions as a correction device “of our utterance, after it has been ‘produced’” (ibid.). In addition, the Monitor or the application of learned language rules can only be applied when speakers have enough “time”, “focus

on form”, and “know the rules”. The second hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, corresponds to “the finding[s] that the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order” (Krashen 1984: 12). In each language certain grammatical structures are acquired earlier than others, for instance in English “the progressive marker *ing* [...] and the plural marker */s/*” (ibid.) are adopted earlier than “the third person singular marker */s/*” (ibid.). The input hypothesis is based on the question of how language is acquired (Krashen 1984: 20ff.). The fourth hypothesis, input hypothesis, proposes Krashen’s model of language acquisition as  $i+1$ : “We acquire by understanding language that contains structure a bit beyond our current level of competence ( $i+1$ ). This is done with the help of context or extra linguistic information” (Krashen 1984: 21). In his view, first meaning is being established “and as a result, we acquire structure!” (ibid.). Krashen’s (1984: 30ff.) fifth hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, is related to a student’s success in acquiring a second language, depending on the students’ motivation, their self-confidence, and the level of anxiety (Krashen 1984: 31). For instance, a student with high motivation, self-confidence, and a low level of anxiety is considered to acquire the second language more easily than students with low motivation, little self-confidence, and a high level of anxiety (ibid.)<sup>12</sup>.

The question that now arises is how Krashen’s (1984) hypotheses have influenced the language classroom. Based on the understanding of natural language acquisition, strong emphasis is given to communicative language activities which aim at fostering listening and speaking skills. Consequently, the target language is regarded as the sole instrument of language teaching with as much language input as possible, in order to facilitate acquisition processes. Additionally, error correction in spoken language is regarded “as [having] little or no effect on subconscious acquisition” (Krashen 1984: 11) and is therefore ignored in communication. “The Monitor hypothesis implies that formal rules, or conscious learning, play only a limited role” (Krashen 1984: 16), giving priority to inductive grammar teaching.

Contrasting the above outlined teaching methods, the Cognitive Approach is regarded as response to behaviourist features and “became the

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<sup>12</sup> For a more detailed account on Krashen’s Second Language Acquisition approach, cf. Krashen 1981; 1984; Widdowson 1999; Edmondson & House 2006.

dominant orientation in the seventies” (De Mey 1995: 1). Contrary to behaviourism, “[l]anguage learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation” (Celce-Murcia 2001: 7) and builds on “kognitivem methodischen Vorgehen” (Edmondson & House 2006: 119). Language learning is understood as a system building on the respective first language and for this reason it is considered important to develop the students’ language awareness (ibid.). From a cognitive perspective this can be achieved by establishing an explicit grammatical knowledge, which can be taught both deductively or inductively (ibid.). Furthermore, all four skills are given equal importance (Celce-Murcia 2001: 7). In addition, the individual learner and her or his language learning processes are for the first time explicitly recognised, with “learners [being] responsible for their own learning” (ibid.).

Communicative Language Teaching can be described as the prevalent method in language teaching, incorporating pragmatic concepts and findings. Yet, following Widdowson (1999: 117; original emphasis), “we need to be clear whether the term is meant to refer to the *purpose* or to the *process* of learning”. A similar claim is made by Edmondson and House (2006: 119ff.) who argue that communicative language teaching is not a method but comprises various communicative didactical concepts and propositions. “Das Hauptmerkmal dürfte sein, daß [sic] beim Lernen kommuniziert werden sollte” (ibid.). Hedge (2002: 46ff.) determines five components in communicative language teaching: “linguistic competence”, “pragmatic competence”, “discourse competence”, “strategic competence”, and “fluency”.

Hedge (2002: 46) describes linguistic competence as the “knowledge of language itself, its form and meaning” and she argues further that “linguistic competence is an integral part of communicative competence” (Hedge 2002: 47). The problem is thus not whether to “aim for a high standard of formal correctness” (ibid.) as such, but involves decisions about classroom activities that focus either on form or the “negotiation of meaning and aim at fluency”. The component of pragmatic competence refers on the one hand to a student’s ability to achieve “certain communicative goals or intension[s]” (Hedge 2002: 48) and on the other hand to the necessary “social knowledge” (Hedge 2002: 49). Discourse competence in this sense describes a learner’s ability to produce coherent spoken and written texts “and to understand them” (Hedge 2002: 50).



A student's ability in a communicative situation to rephrase or convey meaning by means other than language in order to achieve her or his communicative purpose is defined as strategic competence. The fifth and last component in Communicative Language Teaching is fluency, which is referred to as "the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation" (Hedge 2002: 54).

Considering these five components it can be argued that Communicative Language Teaching aims at providing students with as much "genuine" (Widdowson 1999: 45) language input as possible. In this context it should be pointed out that the authenticity of language experienced in the classroom is subject to debate (cf. Widdowson 1999: 44ff.). However, the language represented in genuine teaching materials goes beyond constructed textbook texts or listening comprehensions, tailored to the ascribed needs of the language student and offer the language learner the chance to experience language as it is actually present in the L1 speakers' every day lives. Nevertheless, it can be argued that the presentation of authentic language material, such as newspaper articles, spoken texts on answering machines, SMS, etc. depends on the learners' language competencies. Consequently, authentic language material in the way it is experienced by the first language speaker can only be used at a more advanced stage of language progression. It can be taken from this brief discussion on Communicative Language Teaching, that the objective of authenticity necessarily involves a primary focus on target language use in the classroom.

Summing up it can be stated that present-day teaching methods and approaches assign different emphases, influenced by scientific findings and ways of thinking. Nevertheless, it can be argued that all share the notion of the monolingual classroom, not only concerning the language of instruction, but also as language of communication in the classroom. Additionally, the majority of these methods and approaches have been influenced, to a varying extent, by the findings of behaviourist theory. In this context Neuner (2004: 16) states that,

[i]n the behaviourist language learning theory concept the fundamental assumption with respect to foreign language learning was that there is a strict separation of linguistic inventories of specific languages in a person's memory [...] Mixing the languages during foreign language learning was considered to be a source of error (interference). This led, among other things, to the principle of

monolingualism in teaching, i.e. the strict exclusion of the mother tongue from foreign language learning.

Furthermore, it can be stated that not only the first language is being excluded but also all further second, third or further foreign languages. The aim of the next section is to provide a comprehensive discussion on the multilingual language classroom, with special focus to the German as foreign language teaching situations.

## **5.2. The Multilingual Classroom**

The concept of multilingualism builds on the understanding that all languages, varieties, and dialects that an individual speaks influence and affect the learning of further language(s). It is argued that the acquired or learned language knowledge can be productively used and referred to in the German as a foreign language classroom.

The term *multilingualism* can be regarded as an umbrella term, referring to “the number of languages involved either as languages spoken by an individual, as languages present in a society, speech community or institution, or as languages used in a stretch of discourse of conversation” (Wilton 2009: 45). As can be taken from this quote, various levels of multilingualism are considered within multilingual research. For the purpose of this study, individual multilingualism is of primary interest, because the learner’s pre-language knowledge is regarded as a beneficial resource that can be referred to in the German as a foreign language classroom. This view is supported by Hufeisen and Jessner (2009: 110) who emphasise the learner’s “multiple language learning” as the basis for individual multilingualism. Wilton (2009: 45), quoting Wei’s (2008: 4) definition of multilingualism, states that “[a] multilingual individual is anyone who can communicate in more than one language, be it active (through speaking and writing) or passive (through listening and reading)“.

In multilingual research, the learners’ language biographies are seen as a beneficial resource for language teaching. Languages are learned in different stages during a person’s life and not in a strict sequence up to a certain degree of proficiency. A varying number of languages are acquired as first languages, whereas at least one foreign language is learned during primary or secondary

education, and one or more additional language(s) may be learned during a person's adult life. Consequently, "[w]ith an increasing number of languages, their combination and their dominance vary greatly in different phases of life" (Wilton 2009: 61). In addition, Levine (2011: 13) emphasises the importance of acknowledging the multilingual reality of language learners, when he argues that, "[a] multilingual approach as the basis for language classroom communication can be viewed as an acknowledgement of the 'privilege of the intercultural speaker'". With regard to the German as a foreign language classroom, Fritz (2012) claims that,

[e]s geht auch darum, die Mehrsprachigkeit auszunutzen und zu zelebrieren. Man sollte sie sichtbar machen und schätzen, das ist psychologisch für die Leute sehr wichtig, denn das motiviert. [...] Jedenfalls heißt Mehrsprachenunterricht nicht, dass Deutsch nicht mehr vorkommt, sondern dass die Erstsprachen der Leute zugelassen werden. Wir leben in einer mehrsprachigen Realität, davor die Ohren zu verschließen ist naiv.

This quote shows that the multilingual classroom considers the learners' language pre-knowledge as an important teaching resource for learning a new and additional language. Furthermore, it is shown that by employing or referring to the learners' previous languages, "the learner and the learner perspective" (Neuner 2004: 13) are given explicit relevance, apart from the learner's achieved target language competence.

Es gibt ja auch diesen Druck, Deutsch zu lernen und alles andere zu vergessen. Die Leute werden nicht darüber definiert, dass sie schon fünf Sprachen beherrschen, sondern dass sie nicht Deutsch können. (Fritz 2012)

From a monolingual perspective it is often argued that by employing other languages in the foreign language classroom, the aim of learning the target language is disrupted and hindered (cf. section 5.1). This is based on the notion that the students can benefit and learn the new language only by receiving provided target language input. Contrasting this, Fritz (2012) argues that

Deutsch ist für alle das Ziel und gleichzeitig das Werkzeug, aber eigentlich das schlechteste Werkzeug, das sie haben. Wenn ich Deutsch erst lerne, ist es die Sprache, mit der ich die größten Kommunikationsprobleme habe. Und sie als einziges Mittel einzusetzen ist in Wahrheit verrückt.

In this quote Fritz (2012) demonstrates that in the concept of monolingualism, the target language fulfils too many different roles at the same time: it is the language of instruction, the language to be learned, the tool for communication between teachers and students, and for communication among students especially in communicative classroom activities.

As has been pointed out above, multilingualism can be considered as an umbrella term comprising different research areas such as plurilingualism, bilingualism, trilingualism, etc. (cf. Wilton 2009: 47ff.). The term plurilingualism is closely related to the above given definition of multilingualism, as both terms are often used synonymously in the literature (Wilton 2009; Cenoz 2009; Levine 2011; Hufeisen & Neuner 2004). For instance, Cenoz (2009: 4) defines plurilingualism as “[i]ndividual multilingualism”, whereas Wilton (2009: 51) describes plurilingualism also as “multilingualism denoting the individual and plurilingualism the social phenomenon”. Considering the apparent terminological and conceptual overlaps between multilingualism and plurilingualism, and taking into account Wilton’s argument that term plurilingualism “does not seem to have gained any ground in the research literature” (ibid.), it appears reasonable for the purpose of this study to apply the term multilingualism.

Bilingualism refers to “more than one, i.e. two” (Wilton 2009: 47) languages and is associated with second language acquisition or language learning after the first language (Wilton 2009: 49). Due to the “belief that the most important differences are to be found between the acquisition of a first and another language and not between a second and third or following language”, bilingualism is an intensively discussed research area (Wilton 2009: 48).

Research in trilingualism is based on the assumption that the learning of additional languages is different from the learning of the first or second language. Thus, languages are “regarded as unique constellations and [are] investigated as such” (Wilton 2009: 50). Furthermore, it can be argued that trilingualism emphasises the fact that language learners, especially on a tertiary educational level, “often have [at least] one foreign language in their linguistic repertoire” which has “increasing relevance to foreign language teaching” (ibid.). The concept of trilingualism can be regarded as closely interrelated to what was referred to and discussed as individual multilingualism in this section.

In regard to the empirical part of this study, the concept of tertiary language teaching is being introduced in the following sub-section.

### **5.2.1. Tertiary Language Teaching – German after English**

Tertiary language teaching investigates the “teaching [of] subsequent foreign languages” (Hufeisen 2004: 7) such as German after English. The aim of this teaching concept is to “creat[e] synergies in the learning of German as an L3 after learning English as an L2, which is a very common order of language learning worldwide” (Hufeisen & Jessner 2009: 119).

In addition, the students’ previous language experiences and knowledge are explicitly taken into consideration in tertiary language teaching. The findings in brain research in connection with language show that the brain in its entity functions as a speech organ (Boeckmann 2008:7) and that “*learning generally* occurs in such [a] way that new knowledge is only permanently stored in the memory if it can be integrated and anchored in the existing knowledge inventory” (Neuner 2004: 16; original emphasis). Neuner (ibid.) further shows that “we do not learn words in a new language in complete isolation, but attempt to relate them to words of other languages that we already know” (ibid.). In accordance with these language learning processes and the experiences learners bring into the language classroom, Hufeisen (2004: 9) states that “it is possible for L3 foreign language teaching to begin at a higher level, for faster progress to be made and for the content to be more demanding”.

Neuner (2004: 13) points out that in traditional teaching methods and approaches comparatively “little attention was paid to learners, since foreign language teaching was provided to a relatively homogenous elite in terms of age, origin, general education and willingness to perform”. Due to the status of English as international language and due to interrelated internationalisation processes in the tertiary educational domain and its increasing student mobility, “new groups of learners” (Neuner 2004: 13) come into view. These new groups of learners have already experienced foreign language learning and, consequently, have developed certain “techniques and strategies” that support them in the L3 (Hufeisen & Jessner 2009: 124).

Although the students’ previously acquired languages play a vital role in L3 language teaching, it is indicated that L3 teachers do not need to be

proficient in the respective L2, for instance English, because it is the “learning potential established during the learning of preceding languages” (Hufeisen 2004: 9) that is of relevance.

In this respect, Neuner (2004: 19ff.) proposes several teaching approaches that can be employed to support L1 and L2 language students in learning further languages. In regard to L1 school teaching, Neuner (2004: 19) defines two essential aspects: “The development of sensitivity to language and languages and the development of language awareness”. These aspects can be met by L1 teachers by, for instance, “including dialects”, “developing awareness of language registers”, “playing with language”, [t]he alienation of the pupil’s own language”, referring to the structure and the rules of the first language, thus developing the students’ “declarative” and “procedural knowledge” (Neuner 2004: 19ff.). Furthermore, with the first foreign language, the language student is faced with new and different ways of thinking, which are expressed and conveyed through means of language determined and structured exclusively by the learner’s first language(s) (Neuner 2004: 22). Following Neuner (ibid.), L2 language teaching can help students to approach the new language by showing analogies as well as illustrating language “links” and “traps” between the two languages. In the context of L1 and L2 language learning and in regard to demonstrating similarities and differences between languages, it is important to consider the aspects of transfer and interference. These issues are discussed in more detail in section 5.2.2. Apart from formal and discourse relevant aspects of the L2, students develop an increasing awareness of their individual learning strategies and “behaviour[s]” (Neuner 2004: 23). L2 teachers can support their students during these awareness processes by demonstrating and offering them different possible learning strategies.

In regard to tertiary language teaching in general, Neuner (2004: 27ff.) proposes “five didactic principles”: “cognitive learning”, “understanding as the basis and starting point for learning”, “the orientation of content”, “the orientation of texts”, and “economy in the learning process”.

The cognitive learning principle comprises the learner’s “[l]anguage awareness and language learning awareness” (Neuner 2004: 28), which can be stimulated and developed by discussing and reflecting learning processes and

language aspects and by “conscious activation of all the language knowledge and language learning experience that the learners have stored in their minds” (ibid.).

The principle of understanding is directly linked to the cognitive principle, as both principles are closely interrelated. According to Neuner (2004: 29), understanding refers to “questions of information processing, that is of the perception, integration and anchoring of new information [...] in the inventory of knowledge and experience already existing in the memory”. Thus, understanding can be initiated and facilitated by conscious language awareness and language learning awareness processes as proposed by the cognitive learning principle.

The third principle defined by Neuner (2004: 30), the orientation of content, is based on the fact that tertiary language learners are “older than they were when they learned their first foreign language”. As a result, each language student brings her or his own learning experiences, “learning behaviour”, and “different interests” into the classroom (ibid.). Due to the aspect of age, it is argued that the topics in the third language classroom should differ from the topics used in first language education (ibid.). Integrating topics that relate to the students’ language experiences and general interests allow the learners not only to explore and experience the new language, but also increase their motivation to become an active part in the language classroom (ibid.).

In relation to the fourth principle, the principle of content, orientation of texts emphasises the importance of various “text types: reading and listening comprehension texts, pictures, videos, the Internet, etc.” (Neuner 2004: 31). These enable the language learners to experience and to get in contact with “the foreign world” (ibid.). The integration of texts allows an “[i]nductive exploration of language systems” and the “[d]evelopment of global comprehension strategies”, with texts that consist of “internationalisms and anglicisms”, especially in the beginners’ classroom (ibid.).

The last principle, economy in the learning process, refers to time constraints, which are an important aspect in tertiary language teaching (Neuner 2004: 31). In contrast to first foreign language teaching, which usually starts during primary education, tertiary language education starts at a later point in the students’ education. In addition, course schedules, language exams

as well as institutions' internal politics or external politics require from teachers to meet a predetermined time framework. Thus, less time is available and provided for teaching the L3. Despite these given time constraints, L3 language students are expected to achieve "the same level of language proficiency" as in their first foreign language (ibid.). This, in consequence, influences the L3 classroom:

Usually, this means that the teaching material is covered faster and more compactly – and often more abstractly – and that there is less time for exercises and hardly any time to revise. This often leads to a *concentration simply on going through the grammar!* (ibid.; original emphasis).

Hence, teachers of German as foreign language have to find efficient and fruitful ways to enable faster language progress in comparatively less time (ibid.). In this respect, Neuner (2004: 31ff.) states to explicitly discuss and show not only similarities and analogies between the L2 and the L3, but also differences and contrasts. Thus, valuable "transfer bridges" are used to facilitate the students' understanding (Neuner 2004: 31).

In regard to the five didactic principles in teaching German after English discussed above, Hufeisen (1998) points out that by employing English in the German classroom it is not only the students' previous language experiences that are being referred to, but also explains that: "Englisch als Metasprache einzusetzen bedeutet, [...] Erklär- und Zielsprache getrennt zu halten" (Hufeisen 1998: 8). The same claim is made by Fritz (2012), as quoted above.

It can be concluded from this that English plays two fundamental roles in tertiary language teaching: as a tool to communicate linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects and as a communication language in the classroom in order to access, experiment with, and experience the new language. In addition, it can be argued that by employing English, teachers in the German beginners' classroom can use language to convey and explain language and meaning and are not limited to time consuming and creative explanations by drawing, mimicking, sketching, and gesturing.

Apart from the advantages discussed above, Krumm (2004: 46) addresses "risks and constraints" that need to be taken into consideration in German after English language teaching. He points out that the promotion of this teaching concept should not lead to "[t]he general impression [...] that



anyone who wants to learn German must first learn English” (ibid.). In addition, he indicates that not all learners in the German beginners’ classroom may have had English as foreign language and that therefore “materials for ‘German after English’ must be designed in such an open way that they will also be acceptable for such learners” (2004: 47). He further argues that “not everyone will have positive memories of their English instruction” and that this could have a negative motivational effect for some language students (ibid.). Moreover, he expresses that English should only be an integral part of the German language classroom provided that “differences at all levels of language system, texts and contents” are considered. Krumm (ibid.) indeed emphasises valuable considerations in regard to teaching German after English, yet it can be argued that, regardless of the language used as teaching language, students may have negative emotions and memories concerning their former language instruction in general. This aspect has to generally be taken into consideration in language teaching.

In summary, it can be said that teaching German after English offers L3 teachers to integrate and to refer to the students’ learning experiences and language knowledge. It has been shown that English can be productively employed as a teaching tool in the German beginners’ classroom as a means of communicating linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects and as a language of communication.

### **5.2.2. Language Transfer**

Within the concepts of multilingual language research, transfer constitutes an important aspect in language learning (cf. Apeltauer 1997; Doyé 2008; Hufeisen & Jessner 2009; Hufeisen 1998; Neuner 2004). Doyé (2008: 36) provides a useful definition of transfer, which he quotes from Reber (1985: 785):

[T]he process whereby experience on one task has an effect (either *positive* or *negative*) on performance on a different task subsequently undertaken. The underlying notion is that the knowledge or skill acquired in the first task either facilitates or interferes with carrying out the subsequent task.

In the context of language learning this means that one language system influences a learner’s productive and receptive skills when learning a new language. The term transfer generally refers to all linguistic and extra-linguistic

aspects of language that are applied and transferred by learners from one language to another (Hedge 2002: 147). Additionally, as is pointed out by Hufeisen and Jessner (2009: 116), “[i]n a multilingual system”, transfer can occur between, “the L1 and the L2, but also between the L2 and the L3, and the L1 and the L3” and is not restricted to the sequence of the languages learned.

In its stricter meaning, however, transfer or positive transfer is used to describe all linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects of one language that are being adopted into the new language successfully. In regard to German after English, transfer comprises, for instance, words that share the same language roots (Neuner 2006: 137), such as parts of the body “*nose*” – “*die Nase*”, “*chin*” – “*das Kinn*”, or Anglicisms such as, “*Event*”, “*surfer*”, *cruisen*, etc. (Neuner 2006: 138).

In contrast, the term *interference*, also described as negative transfer, refers to language knowledge that influences the “understanding and the production” (Hedge 2002: 147) of the new language negatively. An example for interference are *false friends*, i.e. words in two languages that look or sound alike but have different meanings, for instance *become* – *bekommen*, “*mist*” – “*der Mist*”, etc. (Hufeisen 1998: 43).

### **5.2.3. The Aspect of Code-Switching**

Code-switching occurs when a speaker changes the language or variety she or he uses during an utterance or conversation. These switches can take place on various linguistic and extra-linguistic levels, for instance on a lexical or syntactical level, between speaker turns (Edmondson 2004: 156), on a psychological level. e.g. expressing identity (cf. Elwood 2008) etc. In regard to multilingualism Wilton (2009: 64) describes code-switching as “[a] very common phenomenon of conversations among multilinguals with active knowledge in the same languages”. In multilingual language learning and contexts both conversational partners may have differing productive and receptive language skills, leading to situations where each interlocutor talks in a different language, provided that each “possesses sufficient receptive skills” in the language of the other (ibid.).

Code-switching was seen as a sign for lack of proficiency in a language. Wilton (ibid.) illustrates that code-switching was long considered a defect and that recent research has changed this presupposition:

Having been viewed in earlier research by purists as contamination of the language, by psychologists as evidence of poor competence in either language or as interference and by teachers as mistakes, code-switching has received intensive attention in more recent studies, which have shown it to be a highly complex and creative feature of multilingual conversation and a unique competence of multilingual individuals. [...] However, with respect to the (foreign language) classroom, such practices are often still viewed as undesirable [...] and are subject to negative comments or even sanctions.

Even though the belief about code-switching has changed in research, Wilton's quote also shows that this change of perspective seems to have not yet reached the foreign language classroom. The above described concept of tertiary language teaching with special emphasis to teaching German after English (see section 5.2.1, has shown that English can be employed as a teaching tool in the German language classroom. Thus, English represents in this setting the "common language" (Edmondson 2004: 156) among students and teacher and students. In this respect, code-switching is a decisive factor and can be defined as "change-over from common to target language or from target to common language in the foreign language classroom" (ibid.). In multilingual language teaching Edmondson (2004: 158) argues that "the instruction or teaching may however be carried out using the common language". This means that code-switching occurs in teaching situations where the teacher communicates and refers to aspects that not directly aim at "target language practice" (Edmondson 2004: 161). Amongst others, these situations can allude to,

- marking the beginning and end of the 'lesson'
  - exercising 'discipline'
  - announcing a plan or procedure for the lesson in hand
  - giving instructions regarding activities to be carried out subsequently (e.g. homework)
  - being deliberately 'friendly' [...]
- (ibid.)

With this distinction, Edmondson (ibid.) provides not only a useful addition to code-switching in the language classroom, but also broadens the concept of

how English can be employed as a teaching tool in the German as foreign language classroom.

### **5.3. General Aspects of Teaching**

The aim of this section is to provide a brief outline of additional aspects in language teaching<sup>13</sup> that are relevant for the empirical study provided in chapter 7.

#### **5.3.1. Deductive – Inductive Teaching**

Apart from sequential presentation and the “contextualisation” (Hedge 2002: 159) of grammar, teachers also have to decide on the “degree of explicitness” in teaching and presenting grammatical aspects (Hedge 2002: 160). In an inductive teaching approach “students infer the rule or generalizations from a set of examples” (Celce-Murcia 2001: 264). An example for an inductive teaching approach would be, for instance, the introduction of a new tense. For this purpose the teacher introduces certain classroom activities or students are given texts where these grammatical features are prevalent. Subsequently to these classroom activities or texts, students are asked to identify, mark, and/or comment on these new features, which are different from their previous language knowledge. In a deductive teaching approach, however, “students are given the rule and they apply it to examples” (ibid.). In this approach students first learn about the grammatical rule, which is then practised in various exercises and classroom activities. In this context, Celce-Murcia (ibid.) points out that the rules provided should not be “oversimplified or [...] metalinguistically obtuse”, because the learner should neither concentrate on deciphering the meaning of the provided rule nor on rules which leave out significant aspects for sake of simplification, but on the application of these rules in the language.

Furthermore, it can be argued that both approaches should be part of language teaching, because the choice which approach to use depends on the learners and their needs (ibid.).

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<sup>13</sup> For a profound presentation of teaching methods, approaches, and aspects cf. Celce-Murcia (2001) and Hedge (2003).

### **5.3.2. The Self-Directed Learner**

In language education it is considered important that students become independent and aware language learners (Neuner 2004: 31). In this respect Hedge (2002: 82) argues that “[s]ocieties which value independence of thought and action may view the self-determining person as a desirable end result of education”. According to Hedge (2002: 85) basically three factors account for self-directed and independent learning: “classroom learning”, “self-access learning”, and “independent learning at home”. Teachers can support their students to create awareness about learning and ways to achieve self-directedness via various activities in class and at home (Hedge 2002: 86ff.).

However, Hedge (2002: 101) argues that even though the terms self-directedness and independence in learning seem to be straightforward she shows that they comprise several different approaches and that teachers value different aspects as determining. She points out that “[s]ome teachers interpret it in a procedural way”, others as a “capacity to carry on learning independently throughout life” and some as “classroom-based study”. Considering these different emphases assigned to self-determined and independent learning, it can be argued that the above mentioned views and factors are contributing parts in this process.

With regard to international students it can be argued that part of their learning independence is closely connected to extra-linguistic situations, which demand pragmatic, discourse, and strategic competence, and fluency (Hedge 2002: 46ff.). Adult learners studying in a different linguistic environment have to be able to deal with many situations that demand not only language competence but also experience about cultural practices and norms. Therefore, the language needs of international students differ considerably from the language needs of learners in secondary education. This means that international students need phrases and language chunks already at the beginning of their language learning that build a certain foundation and which support the students in handling these situations in their new environment in a self-directed and independent manner.

This chapter has discussed various teaching methods in the language classroom with special regard to the prevalent views of language employment in the classroom. Monolingual language teaching methods and approaches

have a long tradition in language teaching and considerably influence the language classroom. Dalton-Puffer et al. (2011: 189) show that “monolingual teacher training is the norm”. In relation to multilingualism they state that “although the cognitive component of teachers’ awareness is compatible with the state of the art multilingualism research, teachers perpetuate the monolingual ‘habitus’” (ibid.). Considering, that multilingual language education as teaching method is a rather recent area of scientific research it can be argued that its methodological and didactical approaches are not yet an integral part in foreign language teaching, because “how ‘multilingual’ teachers teach depends greatly on the learning experiences they have had themselves” (ibid.). In addition, the choice for specific teaching methods and approaches depends on “specific conditions in a region and even within a particular group of learners” (Neuner 2004: 27).

The following chapter now leaves the theoretical framework for this study and presents the methodological framework and the research data for the empirical study.

## **6. Research Methodology and Data**

This chapter presents and discusses the applied research methodology of this qualitative study and outlines the background of the concerned research data. In a first step, the chosen methodology for this study is argued for and outlined. Second, a detailed description of the development of the interview guide with its main structure and relevant concepts is provided. The interview guide established the basic guidelines for all interviews in this study. In a next step the interview participants are introduced and the interviews settings outlined. In the following section, the criteria established for the transcription of the spoken interview data are presented. In a final step, the coding system established for the analysis and interpretation of the transcribed data is provided.

### **6.1. Methodology**

The methodology chosen for this qualitative study is based on a qualitative content analysis of eight semi-structured interviews. All interviews were

conducted on the basis of an interview guide (see section 6.2), which was composed prior to the first interview.

The aim of this study is to capture and describe how teachers of German as a foreign language employ English as a teaching tool in their beginners' classrooms and how they comment on its usage. Therefore, the central focus of this study is on the individual stances and personal experiences of German as foreign language teachers concerning their employment of English as a teaching tool in their beginners' classroom for university students. In order to be able to capture the teachers' individual approaches and to gain insights into the teachers' language choices in their classrooms, interviews provide the most suitable "qualitative method of inquiry" (Dörnyei 2007: 134) for this study. Interviews offer the researcher the possibility to ask open-ended questions, which allow a collection of data that "hold[s] out the possibility of *understanding* the lived world from the perspective of the participants involved" (Richards 2009: 187). For this reason, interviews provide the chance to obtain first-hand information and insights in order to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' experiences and viewpoints.

The specific type of interview suitable for a study like this, is semi-structured. Following Dörnyei (2007: 136) and Richards (2009: 186), this type of interview offers two main advantages: first, the structure provided by an interview guide allows the interviewer to follow a comparable pattern across the interviews. The second advantage is the inherent openness of this type of interview, which enables the interviewer as well as the interviewee to explore, follow and elaborate on certain aspects that emerge during the interview. These new concepts consequently enrich the gathered data by adding new aspects and perspectives to the study (Dörnyei 2007: 136).

Interviews collect "recorded spoken data" (Dörnyei 2007: 246), which is transformed into written texts by the researcher. Content analysis is adopted in order to enable an analysis of the transcripts, based on the categorisation and systematisation of the data. Wilkinson (2008: 183) describes the characteristics of content analysis as "based on examination of the data for recurrent instances of some kind; these instances are then systematically identified across the data set, and grouped together by means of a coding system". Assigning certain codes to recurring themes and topics in the data reduces the gathered content

of the interview transcripts to a manageable size for interpretation (Dörnyei 2007: 250). A detailed description of the coding system for this study, is given in section 6.5.

## **6.2. The Interview Guide**

This section presents the development and structure of the interview guide which provided the basis for the interviews. Furthermore, the interview guide was developed in view of the target group, as defined in section 2.2. It was compiled in two phases: a pilot phase and a final phase. Each phase consisted of several developmental stages. The first phase included the compilation and organisation of the first questions, and the performance of two sample interviews. The final phase comprised the organisation of the main structure, the formulation and wording of the questions, and the inclusion of additional information in the form of keywords in brackets.

The questions for the pilot phase derived from my own background as a German as a foreign language teacher and were drawn from my experiences in the foreign language classroom. In order to gain new insights and concepts that could later be integrated into the interview guide, a friend conducted a preliminary interview with me. In a following step, a first “trial interview” was conducted with a colleague (Richards 2009: 188), who is a German as a foreign language teacher at a higher educational institute in Austria. The findings from both interviews generated further valuable questions and subject areas, which were then structured into particular thematic clusters, providing a first general outline for the interview guide.

In its final structure the interview guide consists of ten main topics each including a varying number of questions and sub-questions. Following Dörnyei (2007: 137), who emphasises the relevance of the first questions as “particularly important [...] because they set the tone and create initial rapport” for the interview, the main function of the first three subject areas *Sprache(n) & GER*<sup>14</sup>, *Englisch*, *Auslandsaufenthalt*, *Werdegang als DaF/DaZ Lehrende/r*, and *Derzeitiger Unterricht* is to lead the interviewee into the interview.

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<sup>14</sup> Gemeinsamer Europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen (GER), is the German equivalent to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).



The first topic *Sprache(n) & GER, Englisch, Auslandsaufenthalt* considers the languages the interviewees speak and their self-evaluation of their language levels according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework\\_EN.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf), 04 July 2012). In this context special attention was given to English, because it was considered that there would be a relationship between the interviewees' self-evaluations of their English language competencies and their employment of English in the German as a foreign language classroom. The third aspect in this topic investigated the possibility that the interviewees had spent some time abroad during or after their higher educational career and thus had experienced foreign language learning by means of different teaching approaches in an international context themselves.

The topics *Werdegang als DaF/DaZ Lehrende/r* and *Derzeitiger Unterricht* are concerned with the interviewees' respective educational backgrounds and their recent work situations as German as foreign language teachers. Before going into the specifics about the students and the beginners' classroom, it also appeared relevant to assess how the interviewees evaluate the importance of teaching grammar in general and whether they prefer the inductive or deductive teaching approach in this context. The question *Welchen Stellenwert hat für Sie Grammatikvermittlung im Unterricht?* relates to the hypothesis that teachers preferring a deductive teaching approach are more likely to use English in the German as a foreign language classroom than teachers following an inductive teaching approach. This hypothesis is based on the assumption that due to the characteristics of the deductive teaching approach teachers refer to other languages to facilitate the students' understanding of grammatical occurrences by showing analogies or contrasts between languages.

In the topic *Hintergrund der Lernenden* focus is given to the interviewees' students and their educational and national backgrounds. The questions are built on the assumption that the more diverse the students' national backgrounds are, and consequently the first languages represented in the classroom, the more likely English functions as main common factor in the German as a foreign language beginners' classroom.

In consideration of the target group as defined in section 2.2, the topic *AnfängerInnenunterricht* is concerned with the interviewees' teaching approaches in the foreign language beginners' classroom. It can be assumed that the students at this stage can neither communicate with the teacher in German nor among each other, and therefore the teacher is required to find efficient ways to convey the new language to her or his students. This does not only concern teaching the German language as such, but also communicating administrative necessities and prerequisites to the students, including the assessment of the course such as tests, final exams, homework, and class participation. Further aspects in this topic include the teacher's intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and objectives, which were expected to influence her or his decision to use English in the German as a foreign language classroom. Extrinsic motivation involves teaching objectives that are, amongst others, prescribed by the institute or by language certificates. These influence the teacher's choice of teaching methods and approaches in order to be able to meet the external course criteria. As a result the teacher may choose English to enable faster understanding when transferring the structure and meaning of the German language to the students. In contrast, intrinsic motivation reflects the teacher's personal methodological approach and preference, including her or his choice and considerations to employ English in the German as a foreign language classroom.

Given that the interviewees' point of view about the employment and usage of English in the German as a foreign language beginners' classroom could not be anticipated before the interview, it was necessary to be able to choose between two different sets of topics. This allowed the participants' individual approach and perspective to be followed during the interviews. The first strand is directed at interviewees who explicitly stated that they taught only via the target language German, comprising the subject areas *Nur Deutsch* and *Antworten auf Englisch*. The second strand focuses on the employment of English in the German as a foreign language classroom, comprising the subject areas *Einsatz von Englisch im Deutschunterricht*, *Antworten auf Englisch*, and *Progressionsstufe & Einsatz anderer Sprache*.

As pointed out above, the topic *Nur Deutsch* is directed at teachers who use only German as language of instruction in the German as a foreign

language classroom. In this topic special emphasis is given to the teacher's motivations and reasons for choosing this teaching approach. Despite the teacher's employment of German in the classroom, it is assumed however that the students are likely to use different languages during or between lessons when communicating with each other or the teacher. In this respect, the teacher's perception of the languages used by her or his students and how these different language usages are managed and dealt with in the German classroom by the teacher are of further interest.

In contrast to the monolingual approach of language teaching, the topic *Einsatz von Englisch/andere(n) Sprache(n) im Deutschunterricht* is concerned with the teacher's employment and usage of English in the German as a foreign language classroom. This topic comprises two main aspects: first, the teacher's motivation and reasons for choosing this teaching approach and second, the respective teaching situations identified as relevant by the interviewee for the employment of English. The intention behind the first aspect was to obtain a comprehensive understanding about the teachers' methodological and didactical criteria for choosing English as a teaching tool in the German as a foreign language classroom. The second aspect is based on the assumption that German as foreign language teachers, who are using English as a teaching tool, change the language of instruction in specific situations. Amongst others, these situations include non-linguistic areas such as administrative prerequisites, as well as language based topics and grammatical explanations.

The topic *Antworten auf Englisch* is interested in students who regardless of the language of instruction used by the teacher in the German as a foreign language classroom, occasionally employ English as means of communication with their teacher. It is assumed that some students may feel that they cannot express themselves well enough in spontaneous German language situations. Additionally, for some reason, they may be reluctant to speak in the target language, but nevertheless want to participate in classroom activities. In this context the teacher's perception and acceptance of spoken or written student answers in English is of special interest.

The aim of the topic *Progressionsstufe & Einsatz anderer Sprache* is to assess up to which level of language progression English plays a role in the German as a foreign language classroom. On the basis of various

methodological considerations the teacher may decide to discontinue employing English as a teaching tool in the German as a foreign language classroom. Among other factors this decision may be motivated by the students' progressed German competencies, which enable them on both a receptive and a productive level to relate to different cultural as well as linguistic aspects of the language.

With the final topic *Abschluss* "the interviewee is given the opportunity to have the final say" (Dörnyei 2007: 138). At this point the interviewee is explicitly invited to remark or elaborate on any topic that she or he wishes to emphasise or feels that has been left out during the interview.

After structuring the topics and phrasing "the key questions" (Richards 2009: 188), the second step in constructing the interview guide focused on the final formulation and wording of the questions. This step was particularly important, in order to avoid any "leading questions" and "loaded or ambiguous words and jargon" (Dörnyei 2007: 138). Taking this into consideration, the aim was to produce unbiased open-ended questions which allow the interviewees to form and express their personal experiences and opinions.

### **6.3. Participants and Interview Setting**

In order to meet the conditions of the target group as described in section 2.2, I sent interview requests via e-mail to several universities and language institutes that offer German language courses for international students. From the replies I received I chose teachers from different universities and institutes to achieve a broad spectrum of individual teacher responses. As one interview partner requested to stay unnamed, all participants as well as institutes are presented anonymously.

**Table 1 Interviews**

Participant	Institute	Length	Teaching Experience German as Foreign Language	Languages	Self-Evaluation English (CERF)
T1	IA	00:38:32	About 10 years	German (L1), English, French	C
T2	IA	01:36:49	20 years	German & Greek (L1), English, French, Russian, Italian, Swahili	Very fluent
T3	IB-1	01:14:21	8 months	German & Croatian (L1), Bosnian, Serbian, English	B2
T4	IC	00:56:41	About 12 years	German (L1), English, French, Spanish, Czech	C1
T5	IB-2	00:48:49	About 10 years	German (L1), English, French, Spanish	B2
T6	IA	01:11:34	More than 20 years	German (L1), English, French, Italian, Spanish	B2
T7	IB-3	00:49:37	10 years	German (L1), English, French, Spanish	Between B1 & B2
T8	ID	01:09:15	28 years	German (L1), English, Spanish	Between B1 & B2

As shown in table 1, a total of eight teachers from six different institutes participated in the interviews. Participants T1, T2, and T6 teach at the same institute, indicated in table 1 as IA. Participants T3, T5, and T7 work at the same type of educational organisation, marked as IB-\*, but at three different institutes located throughout Austria which are independent from each other – this difference is indicated as IB-1, IB-2, and IB-3. All interview participants teach German as a foreign language for international students, with their work experience ranging from eight months to more than twenty years.

Institutes IA, IC, and ID work with international students who are already part of the Austrian higher educational system, but need additional certificates to be able to participate as regular students in university curricula throughout Austria. In contrast institutes IB-\* actively engage in international student mobility and cooperate with higher education institutes worldwide.

All eight interview participants have German as their first language, with two bilingual interview participants who indicated German as their main or strongest first language. All teachers speak more than one foreign language, with English being the main common foreign language among them. The teachers' self-evaluation about their English competency level ranges from B1 plus to C. Only T2 declined to evaluate his English competency level according to the CERF, but chose instead to describe it.

All interviews were conducted face-to-face within a period of one month. Five out of eight interviews were recorded in public cafés in Vienna, allowing for

a casual and conversational atmosphere. The settings for the other three interviews provided more privacy with one interview taking place in the interviewee's private apartment and the other two in the participants' offices at their respective institutes.

I started each interview by giving my recent educational background and the motivation for this thesis (Dörnyei 2007: 140) so that the interviewees could get a better impression of whom they were sharing their experiences with. Afterwards, I pointed out the main structure of the interview as given in the interview guide. Special emphasis was given to the aim of the interview by stressing that the interviews were specifically intended to capture the interviewees' personal experiences and viewpoints on the topic. This introductory phase enabled me to create a welcoming and relaxed atmosphere before the interview (Dörnyei 2007: 139), thus avoiding an uncomfortable abrupt start into the interview.

During the interviews any emerging topics were met and followed (Richards 2009: 186), which consequently led to a rearrangement in the order of the interview questions and produced a different emphasis in each interview. Depending on the detail with which the interviewees answered and whenever I wanted to encourage the participant to elaborate further on a topic, I summarised the main points of what the interviewee had said before. This was also done to confirm that I had attentively listened to what had previously been reported and it gave the interviewee the opportunity to reconceptualise their arguments and to make additional adjustments.

The recordings of the interviews ended when the interviewees stated that they had nothing else to add. In order to leave the interviewees with a positive feeling and to avoid an abrupt ending of the interview, I subsequently engaged my interview partners in an open conversation and exchange of experiences. The length of each interview depended on the participant's answers, the shortest being 38:32 and the longest 1:36:49.

#### **6.4. Data Transcription**

Recorded interviews provide naturally occurring spoken data, which needs to be transformed into written language for the purpose of analysis. Consequently, the rules and occurrences of spoken discourse such as hesitations, false starts,

repetitions, stress, etc. have to be adjusted to the rules of “written discourse” (Kvale 2010: 93). This means that, “all transcription is representation, and there is no natural or objective way in which talk can be written” (Dörnyei 2007: 247). Taking these variations into account, several aspects had to be considered in order to provide a coherent transcription framework for the interviews.

The first aspect deals with the question of how much linguistic detail should be realised in the transcripts. Since the aim of the interviews is to capture the interviewees’ experiences and opinions, the transcription focuses not on mirroring linguistic features but rather on the content shared by the interviewees (Dörnyei 2007: 247). This means that linguistic features such as hesitations, repetitions, pauses, backchannels, laughs, interruptions etc. are not represented in the transcripts.

The second questions that has to be considered concerns the degree of grammatical correctness. Due to its characteristics, spoken language often contains errors such as case mistakes, wrong noun-verb correspondences etc. Errors like these were corrected accordingly to the rules of the written Austrian standard variety and consequently not transcribed. Nevertheless, in order to keep the natural flow of speech, utterances such as *‘Nein, wollte er nicht, weil er kann viel besser Englisch.’*, *‘Vor allem es ist ja auch die eigene Erfahrung.’* and tags such as *‘nein’*, *‘ja’*, *‘nicht’* were regarded as distinctive part of the interviewee’s way of speaking and therefore not corrected but transcribed as uttered (Dörnyei 2007: 248).

The third aspect involves the distinction of utterances and sentences. Spoken language consists of utterances, which have to be altered into sentences in order to meet the requirements of written language. This was realised on the basis of subject matter and content which contribute to structure spoken language into meaningful units of written discourse. Linguistic features such as pauses, changes in the speaker’s intonation or rephrases are regarded as indicators for units and transcribed as sentences, whenever the content and the stream of speech allowed for it.

As was mentioned in section 6.3, five interviews were conducted in cafes in Vienna. Due to these public settings, background noises occasionally affected the recording of an interview, leading to unintelligible parts of speech. These occurrences were indicated as *[inaudible]* in the transcripts. All names

mentioned during the interviews were anonymised as *[name]*, in order to maintain and assure the privacy of those referred to.

Table 2 provides an outline of the transcription conventions applied in the interview transcripts.

**Table 2 Transcription Conventions**

Spelling convention	Austrian standard variety
Numbers	‘fünfzehn’; ‘achtundzwanzig’
Years	1996; 2003
Other peoples’ names	<i>[name]</i>
Dialect and lexical items	‘hab’ → ‘habe’; ‘ne’ → ‘eine’; ‘g’sagt’ → ‘gesagt’; ‘seh’ → ‘sehe’; ‘was’ → ‘etwas’; ‘net’ → ‘nicht’; etc.
Linguistic examples	<i>Guten Morgen; Grüß Gott</i>
Phonemic examples	/j/; /st/
Tags	‘ja’; ‘nein’; ‘nicht’
Reported Speech	“... ‘Oder ich frage überhaupt “Fällt Ihnen etwas auf?” ‘ ‘Ja, die Frage „Wie funktioniert das in ihrer Sprache“, die gibt es schon oft.’
Inaudible Speech	<i>[inaudible]</i>
Researcher comments	<i>[German pronunciation]; [slow and accentuated pronunciation]</i>

### 6.5. Coding

As was briefly discussed in section 6.1 above, content analysis is based on categories that “are derived inductively from the data analysed” (Dörnyei 2007: 245), thus establishing relationships between the texts, i.e. the interview transcripts. According to Dörnyei (2007: 246) the transcription of the interviews, which “already contains interpretive elements”, can be described as the first step in establishing codes for the analysis. “[A] ‘code’ is simply a label attached to a chunk of text intended to make the particular piece of information manageable and malleable” (Dörnyei 2007: 250). These codes are subsequently categorised to enable a systematic analysis of the data and “are aimed at reducing or simplifying the data while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to broader topics or concepts” (ibid.).



The coding process of the data mainly follows the structure provided by Dörnyei (2007: 250ff.), who suggests the following steps: pre-coding, initial coding, second-level coding, interpreting the data and drawing conclusions.

The compilation of the interview guide and the transcription of the interviews formed the pre-coding of the data set. After the transcription of the interviews, relevant emerging patterns in the interviews were highlighted and labelled in the initial coding phase. In order to establish meaningful codes across the interviews, I used a mind-map document (see Appendix C: Mind Map) to visualise the generated codes and to group surfacing topics. This closely interrelates with the phase of second-level coding, for which a bottom-up approach allowed to cluster the relevant topics and themes. Therefore, a useful pattern for the presentation of the data analysis was created. In the final phase the topics were then organised into “overarching themes” (Dörnyei 2007: 257), which permitted to draft a meaningful pattern in the presentation of the analysis.

## **7. Interview Analysis**

In line with the methodological considerations presented in the previous chapter, this chapter aims to present the results and findings of the interview analysis. The presentation of the results is structured as follows: The first sub-section deals with the basic question whether or not the teachers employ English as a teaching tool in the German as foreign language classroom. The second sub-section addresses some of the negative aspects of English in the German language classroom mentioned by the interviewees. Following this, the third sub-section discusses the interviewees’ reasons for the employment of English. The following sub-section then deals with the specific situations in which English is being employed as a teaching tool in the interviewees’ classrooms. The fifth sub-section focuses on the teachers’ perspectives and presents some of the findings concerning the research assumptions as defined in section 2.3. This chapter then closes with the presentation of the findings based on these research assumptions.

### **7.1. Employment of English**

From the eight interview participants, only T2 explicitly stated not to employ English in his classroom. As excerpts 1 and 2 show, his approach was further confirmed during the interview. T2 regards the employment of English as counterproductive, since in his view it signals students that learning German is not important and speaking English is sufficient enough.

1. T2: Der Einsatz einer anderen Sprache im Deutschkurs erfüllt den Zweck, dem Studenten beizubringen, dass er kein Deutsch zu lernen braucht.
2. T2: Und was hat das für einen Sinn den Leuten klar zu machen, dass ich mit denen auf Englisch sprechen kann, aber dass sie Deutsch lernen müssen. Warum zum Kuckuck noch mal? Was soll der Blödsinn? Warum soll ich Deutsch lernen, wenn alle Leute in meiner Umgebung Englisch reden?

All other seven interviewees employ English in the German classroom to a different degree. Excerpts 3 and 4 show that English as international language is generally recognised and used as a teaching tool.

3. T6: Englisch ist einfach, das wissen wir, die internationale Sprache und so die wichtigsten Sachen verstehen sie dann schon auch auf Englisch. Also auch die, die wenig Englisch können.
4. T6: Nein, aber Englisch ist eine gute Hilfssprache, das ist überhaupt keine Frage.

It is interesting to note, however, that most teachers indicated prior to the interview to follow a German monolingual language approach only, but during the interviews it became apparent that English plays a role in their language classrooms. As can be taken from the interviews, teachers show a great ambivalence and insecurity concerning the employment of English. This is further demonstrated in the following two sections.

### **7.2. Negative Aspects of English**

As was pointed out above, seven out of eight teachers employ English in their German classrooms to a different degree. Nevertheless, these interview participants also regard the usage of English as a teaching tool negatively.

Excerpts 5 and 6 demonstrate the interviewees' two main arguments against the use of English:

5. T3: Natürlich versuche ich nur auf Deutsch zu unterrichten, ab und zu ist es ja nur natürlich, dass man auch Englisch sprechen muss, obwohl das nicht pädagogisch ist oder so. Man hat uns immer beigebracht überhaupt kein Englisch zu verwenden, sondern alles zu zeigen und zu erklären und Pantomime.
6. T4: Weil ich glaube, dass wenn sie wirklich gut Englisch können, es schwierig ist, aus diesem englischen Umfeld und aus dem allen herauszukommen. Weil wenn sie nämlich wirklich gut Englisch können, dann sprechen sie oft auch im Studentenheim nur Englisch, das habe ich schon oft gehört, und so weiter. Man kann ja in Wien perfekt mit Englisch leben!

Excerpt 5 illustrates that an employment of English is considered as unpedagogical and contrasting prevalent language teaching methods taught in teacher education. This statement is in accordance with Dalton-Puffer et al. (2011: 189), who argue that teachers' teaching education and their own language education influence the predominance of monolingual teaching methods and approaches (cf. section 5)

Excerpt 6 relates to the statement made by T2 in excerpt 2 that international students in Austria use English as the language for communication. This demonstrates its important interpersonal function as was pointed out in section 4.4. It is argued that by using English in the German classroom on the part of the teacher, the importance of learning the target language is neglected, which communicates the wrong message to the students.

### **7.2.1. Discrimination of students**

It is repeatedly directly and indirectly argued by the interviewees that not all students are able to communicate efficiently in English. Therefore, the employment of English as a teaching tool is perceived as a form of discrimination and excludes those students as part of the language learning classroom. As is shown in excerpts 7 and 8, by speaking English to the whole class, some students would not be able to participate:

7. T4: Also man muss sich das so vorstellen, dass ich das, also vor der ganzen Klasse Englisch sprechen, das kann ich nicht, weil da

schließe ich gewisse Mitglieder der Klasse prinzipiell aus, das geht nicht.

8. T8: So natürlich schon, aber nachdem die meisten Englisch können, aber nicht alle oder nicht unbedingt alle, wäre es auch nicht fair.

Moreover, some teachers report that some students complain about the teacher's usage of English. T6 in excerpt 9 shows that students demand a monolingual German language classroom although they are aware of the importance of English in tertiary education:

9. T6: Bei uns ist das so, dass die Studierenden sehr viel profitieren, weil sie brauchen Englisch natürlich auch für die Uni und deswegen ist es auch sehr beliebt, also wenn es alle können, gar keine Frage. Es gab aber schon Beschwerden, weil es ja eigentlich Deutschunterricht ist.

Excerpt 10 reveals that students sometimes request to avoid English as a teaching tool, because they want to support their classmates who cannot speak English:

10. T6: Vor allem, wie haben ja sehr selbstbewusste junge Studierende und sobald da einer nicht Englisch kann, gibt es sowieso ein Riesenproblem. Also ich hatte immer ein Problem, wenn ich zu viel Englisch „Warum, das ist eine Gemeinheit!“, „Warum sprechen Sie das?“.

It is articulated in these excerpts that an employment of English can exclude some students from participating in the German language classroom. This supports Krumm's (2004) claim that in a German after English teaching approach it should not be taken for granted that all students have learned English (cf. section 5.2.1).

In addition, as excerpts 9 and 10 show, sometimes students request to be taught only in German. In excerpt 9, students are aware of the importance of English at universities but request monolingual German language teaching. It can be concluded from this that multilingual language teaching as a methodological concept is still unfamiliar and that students impose their expectations and habits of language tuition.

### **7.2.2. Students' Bad English**

It is repeatedly argued in the interviews that the students' English language competency is insufficient and that teachers tend to refrain from employing English as a teaching tool for this reason. T8 states in excerpt 11 that from a certain level of German onwards students are restricted in their English language competence.

11.T8: Manches Mal, so ab B1, sind auch die Englischkenntnisse oft schlechter als die Deutschkenntnisse.

T2 supports this notion but in his view insufficient English is already an issue from the beginning.

12.T2: Die weil ich es ja sehe, deren Englisch ist manchmal schlechter als deren Deutsch.

Summing up, it can be stated that English is rejected as a teaching tool for primarily four reasons: The interviewees' respective teacher education, the teachers' considerations about the students' employment of English outside the German as foreign language classroom, possible language discrimination of students who have no or little command of English, and the teachers' evaluation of their students' English competency.

### **7.3. Why English is Employed**

However, despite the above given negative aspects of English as a teaching tool, teachers use English in their classrooms. Excerpt 13 is in stark contrast to the above discussed discrimination of students who cannot speak English sufficiently. In this excerpt, T5 defines English as a positive aspect in the foreign language classroom, because it is the language shared by his students. The same reason was also given in excerpts 3 and 4.

13.T5: Englisch ist halt einfach die Sprache, die alle verstehen, weil das Englisch immer eigentlich die Zweitsprache ist, ja.

Excerpt 14 shows that although some students might be excluded from the language classroom by employing English, it is used as a teaching tool, because it allows teachers to reach most of their students directly and efficiently:

14.T1: Du erreichst auf jeden Fall mehr Leute. Das ist einmal der erste Vorteil, also das es schneller geht

Similar statements as in excerpt 14 are made by other interviewees who use English in specific situations to communicate with the majority of their students. In these situations, teachers are aware that some students might be excluded from the explanation, but count on those students who understand English to share the given information in other languages.

Furthermore, excerpt 15 shows that the employment of English allows teachers to reassure themselves that their students have understood explanations and instructions the way they had been intended by the teachers:

15.T3: [...] dass sie es gecheckt haben, ja, deswegen würde ich dann Englisch.

This shows that English allows teachers and their students to interact more closely with each other and to negotiate meaning. Moreover, if necessary, the teacher can elaborate on specific aspects in question in more detail.

It can be taken from these excerpts that English is regarded as a beneficial resource in the foreign language classroom. Its status as L2 or international language allows teachers to reach most of their beginner language students efficiently. In addition, teachers can negotiate meaning and receive feedback from their learners already in the first stages of language learning.

### **7.3.1. Recognising the Learner**

It was already pointed out in section 5.2 that in multilingual teaching approaches, the learner as such is recognised, since the language beginner cannot yet communicate her or his views and thoughts. By giving them the chance to communicate and speak in English, this reduction of the students' personality is diminished.

In excerpt 16, T5 states the importance of integrating the learner into the language classroom with all their individual aspects:

16.T5: Die müssen sich ja auch ausdrücken können. Es ist ja sowieso, wenn ich eine Sprache lerne, bin ich ja eh schon gehandicapt, weil ich es nicht sagen kann und wenn ich dann noch einen Lehrer habe oder Lehrerin habe, die das nicht akzeptiert, sondern wo ich Deutsch sprechen muss, dann denke ich mir „Habe mich gern“. Die

müssen das ja auch einmal sagen können, was sie meinen oder fragen oder so. Das ist schon wichtig.

In addition, T5 argues in excerpt 17 that, by focusing on a monolingual German language approach only, the learning processes of the language are acknowledged but not the students as such.

17. T5: Man reduziert sonst alles auf den Spracherwerb und dann baue ich eine Barriere auf.

In this context, it can be argued further that adding English as a teaching tool to the German language classroom allows both teacher and student to cooperate with each other, as the student is not only seen as what she or he cannot master in the new language.

### **7.3.2. Time Saver**

It was shown in section 5.2.1 that L3 language learning usually starts at a later point in life than the L1 and L2 language education. At the same time, when learning the L3 in the country itself, L3 language students are expected to achieve a high level of language proficiency during a shorter learning period. This time constraint has to be met by language teachers. T6, confirms this limited timeframe in the beginners' classroom in excerpt 18:

18. T6: Also um in kurzer Zeit dieses B2 Niveau zu erreichen. Das sind im Prinzip neun Monate.

It is stated by the majority of the interview participants that in order to enable their students to reach the necessary German competency level as requested by the study programmes, they have to find efficient ways to save time. As is reported by the interviewees, the employment of English allows teachers to shorten explanations and to convey meaning in a faster way. In excerpt 19, T1 argues that by explaining something in German he needs more time and creativity, but by explaining it in English he saves time and is able to provide a direct explanation:

19. T1: Weil man halt viel mit Händen und Füßen erklären muss, nicht, und natürlich sagst dann immer wieder einmal was in Englisch, weil es einfach schneller geht, das ist halt so. Eher eine Zeitfrage.

Other interview participants also mention the importance of saving time in the L3 German classroom. It is often expressed that explanations in German are time consuming, tiring, and ask for a lot of creativity on the part of the teacher.

Taking this into consideration, it can therefore be argued that in a German monolingual teaching approach teachers need more time in order to explain, describe, and clarify certain aspects. This aspect of time refers to the principle of economy in the learning process which relates to these unavoidable time constraints in tertiary language teaching (cf. section 5.2.1). Moreover, the aspect of time and time constraints supports Hufeisen's (1998: 8) and Fritz's (2012) suggestion to use another language than the target language for explanations (cf. section 5.2.1) and that the target language fulfils too many functions at the same time (cf. section 5.2). Therefore, it can be concluded that the employment of English in the German language classroom does not only help teachers to save time but can even assist them to communicate effectively with their students.

### **7.3.3. Enhances Progression**

In line with the discussion in the previous sub-section, the employment of English helps teachers not only to save time but also to increase language progression. As was pointed out in section 5.2.1, due to limited time frames in L3 language teaching, the teaching content has to be "covered faster and more compactly" (Neuner 2004: 31). T1's statement in excerpt 20 affirms this argument:

20. T1: Geschwindigkeitssteigerung, das ist wirklich ganz wichtig.

Moreover, five out of eight interview participants teach German language students who are preparing for their university language qualifications. This means that the students have to be able to master the language very quickly and at the same time also have to be able to operate with the target language in complex situations:

21. T1: Das heißt die Uni und die Uni, also für meine Leute jetzt, und die Uni, das ist natürlich anspruchsvoll. Da sind die konfrontiert mit Vorlesungen, Seminaren et cetera, sie müssen dann irrsinnig viele Skills haben.



Two interviewees pointed out that, although fast language progression is an essential factor in L3 language teaching, it also depends on the students' ability to process and learn the new language:

22.T4: Wenn du pro Woche fünfzig Wörter in deinen Kopf reinkriegst, dann kriegst du nur fünfzig Wörter in deinen Kopf rein, als mittelmäßiger Lerner sag ich mal, ja.

Summing up, it can be stated that time constitutes an important aspect for both teachers and students. Therefore, the employment of English allows teachers to save time and to boost language progression. However, in regard to faster language progression teachers have to take into consideration whether an increased language progression supports students in language learning or creates a hindrance for them in achieving their goal.

#### **7.3.4. Students request English**

It is repeatedly mentioned in the interviews that students request language relevant information in English. This clearly contrasts with the interviewees' statements in section 7.2.1 which have shown that some students refuse language tuition via English. As is expressed in excerpt 23, some students directly request information from their teacher in English:

23.T5: Und es ist auch oft der Wunsch da „Was heißt das auf Englisch?“.

The student's self-responsibility in excerpt 23 relates to the aspect of the independent and self-directed learner as was pointed out in section 5.3.2. It can therefore be argued that English enables students to become active language learners and to participate as independent, self-directed learners in the language classroom.

#### **7.4. When English is Employed**

This sub-chapter deals with the specific situations in which English is being employed as a teaching tool in the German foreign language classroom.

#### **7.4.1. Last Resort**

An argument for the employment of English that can be taken from the interviews is that it sometimes functions as what can be described as a form of last resort. This refers to situations in which teachers explain certain aspects that are not understood by the students although the teacher has tried different ways to convey the meaning or information. This is expressed in excerpt 24:

24.T6: Also Englisch hat schon die Funktion wenn gar nichts mehr geht, dann Englisch.

In these instances the status of English as international language enables teachers to provide explanations in situations where no other way seems available. In this context, it can be argued that the role of English as the last resort is primarily relevant for teachers who favour and practise a monolingual teaching approach.

#### **7.4.2. Administrative Issues**

Apart from attending a course and studying the language, students have to meet certain administrative requirements to successfully finish a language course. These are for instance the number of possible unexcused absences, regular homework, e-learning platforms, etc. The relevance to communicate these administrative course requirements is reported by several interview participants. Due to the students' beginner status in German and in order to ensure that the students are aware of certain rules, this communication is employed via English. T5 illustrates the importance of English in connection with administrative aspects in excerpt 25:

25.T5: Organisatorische Sachen. Die Sachen, die funktionieren müssen, ja.

T4 adds a further aspect in excerpt 26. He shows that English allows him to support students in administrative situations that are not relevant for the course per se, but which constitute an important factor for the students' and their educational careers:

26.T4: Also so richtig, Kommunikation auf Englisch mit Studenten, mach ich nur bei administrativen Dingen. Auch im Anfängerunterricht. Also bei wirklich wichtigen Dingen, ja, wenn es ums Visum geht, oder irgend so was.

This excerpt confirms that German beginners are already confronted with discourse relevant language situations (cf. section 5) that require a high language competence in German. Therefore, these administrative or bureaucratic issues need to be communicated via English. It can be inferred from these excerpts that English allows teachers to provide their students with clear course relevant instructions and to support them in other administrative situations.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that in both extracts it is strongly emphasised that English is employed to communicate *important aspects*. For this reason, it can be argued that administrative requirements are communicated in English, because they are considered as hard, unchangeable facts that set the framework for the language course.

#### **7.4.3. Interpersonal Role**

Due to the students' beginner status in German as foreign language, teachers can only communicate with their students in a very limited way and any other aspects than those already covered in class have to be left out or completely neglected. In order to be able to interact with their students or to lighten up the atmosphere during class, some interview participants report that they employ English in these situations. In extracts 27, T3 illustrates directly that the students cannot express themselves sufficiently in German when they wish to tell or narrate something.

27. T3: [...] weil sie nichts zu sagen haben auf Deutsch [...]

In extract 28, the teacher wants to interact with his students in a talkative manner and to encourage them to chat with him:

28. T3: also wenn ich einfach reinkomme und erfahren will, was sie am Wochenende erlebt haben oder so was, natürlich dann frage ich erst immer auf Deutsch und dann frage ich auf Englisch. Weil das ist noch nicht, das ist schon ein Teil des Unterrichts, aber so ein freier Teil würde ich sagen, wo wir fünf, zehn Minuten reden, einfach sprechen, oder so was, und dann verwende ich schon Englisch.

In addition, some interviews show that the students communicate with their teachers in English during breaks or after class, as T3 illustrates in excerpt 43:

29. T3: Es ist immer nach dem Unterricht gleich Englisch. Es ist dann leichter.

These excerpts show that English obtains an interpersonal function between the teacher and the students during class and during breaks. As has been pointed out in section 4.4, this interpersonal function of English in communicative situations between teacher and students allows both to get more familiar with one another.

#### **7.4.4. Homework**

It can be taken from the interviews that the majority of teachers employ English when explaining homework that goes beyond from self-explanatory, predictable language tasks or aims at special language aspects. As illustrated in excerpt 30, T7 explains that English allows her to ensure the students' understanding of the task given when explaining homework,:

30. T7: Ich versuche das auch in erster Linie auf Deutsch und die ultima ratio ist dann immer auch sich mit einer Fremdsprache zu behelfen, eben meistens Englisch [...].

In excerpt 30, T3 illustrates that due to time constraints and the students' low German competency, he sometimes assigns homework only in English to save time and also to make certain that his explanation has reached all students:

31. T3: Nur das ist meistens am Ende, die letzten fünf Minuten, wo ich dann sage „Ok. Hausaufgaben“ und dann habe ich ja auch keine Zeit jetzt da herumzutanzen oder so was und auf Deutsch zu erklären, dann sage ich es halt einmal auf Deutsch und wenn sie dann wieder so anschauen, dann sage ich es noch einmal auf Englisch.

It can be argued that homework is an essential part in language teaching in general. Furthermore, because of the students' learning experience they are aware of its function in language learning and it provides them with individual feedback about their progress or aspects they need to revise. By providing homework explanations in English, the teacher limits the probability that these assignments are misinterpreted and realised differently by the students. Consequently, teachers help students to avoid possible frustration.

#### **7.4.5. Disciplinary Measures**

In the interview with T5, an interesting aspect arises that is not mentioned by

the other interview participants. In this interview it is shown that the teacher also employs English for disciplinary measures:

32. T5: Allein zum Beispiel, wenn jemand in der ersten Reihe sitzt und eine SMS schreibt dauernd, ja, und ich rede auf Deutsch alles ganz langsam, dann sage ich auf Englisch, dass ich kein Problem habe, wenn er da kein Interesse hat, aber dass er eingeladen ist ins Restaurant zu gehen, da kann er alles machen, ja. Ganz charmant, so ein bisschen durch die Blume, das muss ich auf Englisch sagen.

In this excerpt, T5 uses English to communicate with the student and to express her discontent. By using English, T5 can ensure that the student will understand the message and to emphasise the importance of the situation. Additionally, it allows T5 to do this in a subtle way. This aspect can be set in relation with situations that demand further explanations and the interpersonal role of English, as for instance discussed in section 7.4.3. In addition, the employment of English enables T5 to achieve the communicative goal and to remind the student of her or his social knowledge as is suggested in communicative language teaching (cf. section 5.1.).

#### **7.4.6. Lexicon**

During the interviews several teachers reported that they use English to explain or circumscribe German words, when they either cannot find other ways to make their meaning clear or they are not able find a suitable explanation right away. Excerpts 33 and 34 illustrate these instances:

33. T1: Ja natürlich, bei der Suche nach Erklärungen von Wörtern [...].

34. T3: Aber manchmal geht's wirklich nicht, weil manchmal wenn so Wörter kommen, wo ich mir in dieser Sekunde oder Minute, ich habe keine Idee was ich mache, wie soll ich das zeigen, dann sag ich's halt auf Englisch, ja.

In this context, some teachers explicitly mention that they translate words from German to English. In excerpt 35, T4 describes that his motivation for translating is to save time because otherwise his students would have to look the word up in their dictionaries, which takes time:

35. T4: [...] bis auf einzelne Wörter, ja, Übersetzungen, damit sie nicht im Vokabelbuch nachschauen müssen die ganze Zeit.

A similar statement is made by another interview participant who illustrates that she provides the information on her e-learning platform in German and English in order to avoid misinterpretations and disorganisation.

It is shown in these excerpts that the employment of English allows teachers to explain or to find explanations for words that are unknown to the students or that need further explanations. In this role English does not only save time (section 7.3.2) but enables teachers to give explanations that might otherwise not be close at hand or even possible, because the lexicon of beginners is limited and consequently the possibility for paraphrasing. Moreover, it can be argued that by using English semantic meaning can be demonstrated and illustrated in more detail.

In addition, by providing information in German and English the teacher ensures that the students are able to use additional learning devices independently. In this role, translations relate to administrative issues, as discussed in section 7.4.2.

#### **7.4.7. Grammatical Analogies and Differences**

In regard to grammatical analogies and differences between German and English, the interviews show that most interview participants teach grammar exclusively in German. T1, in excerpt 35, argues that German beginners can understand relevant grammatical aspects and this also offers him the chance to provide additional language input:

36.T1: Nein, das ist übertrieben. Das würde ich nicht machen, das sollte schon auf Deutsch sein, weil da ja auch Wörter vorkommen, die interessant sein könnten, nicht, und die sie auch verstehen. Sie sollen das ja verstehen. Nein, nein, nein, das würde ich nicht machen.

In extract 36, T3 takes a similar perspective as T1 above, but uses single words in English to signal grammatical clues in order to help his students to define or conceptualise which grammatical aspect or category is of relevance:

37.T3: Also Englisch kann ich nur, also in dem Sinne benutzen, wenn ich jetzt sagen will, dass ich von der Vergangenheit rede oder so, *yesterday* oder so irgendwas, ja. Nur ein kurzes Wort, damit sie es überhaupt, aber nicht viel.

In contrast, T6, in extracts 37 and 38, states that she addresses grammatical analogies between English and German. Especially in the beginners' classroom English allows her to introduce and explain the importance and function of German articles:

38.T6: Also diese Dinge und grammatikalisch einfach die Artikel, die Wichtigkeit der Artikel im Deutschen, welche Funktion sie auch haben. Und da kommt Englisch zum Beispiel zumindest metasprachlich bei mir sofort wie im Englischen, unbestimmter, bestimmter Artikel, ja.

39.T6: Aber wenn ich Analogien verwende oder Ähnlichkeiten in den Regeln, definite, indefinite, *he*, *she* auch manches Mal, *him*, gerade aus dem Persischen, die haben das ja nicht, die unterscheiden in der dritten Person nicht zwischen männlich und weiblich und können aber oft sehr gut Englisch und damit hilft ihnen das auch.

Both excerpts show that T6 refers to her students' English language knowledge by showing grammatical analogies between the two languages.

In addition, T6 mentions in excerpt 38 that Farsi does not distinguish between third person male and female pronouns. A similar statement is made by another interviewee, T8, who refers to Asian languages and the difference in the perception and concept of time, hence their representation in grammatical tense. As excerpt 38 shows and T8 indicates in his interview, English helps to activate the students' language knowledge by referring to similar concepts the students are already familiar with.

40.T6: Weil ich habe schon eine Regel gelernt und das brauche ich dann nur nehmen und für die andere Sprache aktivieren.

By explicitly showing analogies and differences between the L2 and the L3, as shown in excerpts 37 to 39, T6 uses cognitive "transfer bridges" to facilitate the students' understanding (cf. Neuner 2004; 31; section 5.2.1).

Summing up, it can be argued that the interviewees have diverse opinions and approaches to grammatical comparisons between English and German. The majority of teachers completely rejects this aspect of grammar teaching, one teacher uses some grammatical aspects to direct his students into a particular direction, and one interviewee employs grammatical analogies in teaching. However, it is interesting to note that those interview participants who use English to illustrate grammatical analogies do not indicate to discuss grammatical differences as well.

Furthermore, these findings were surprising, because they contrast with the results in the literature, as discussed in section 5.2.1. The cognitive principle and the principle of understanding in tertiary language teaching (Neuner 2001: 27ff.) show that the students' understanding can be initiated and facilitated by conscious language awareness and language learning awareness processes, which are addressed by explicitly discussing similarities and differences between languages.

#### 7.4.8. False Friends

As was pointed out in section 5.2.2, false friends are instances of interference. They are repeatedly mentioned in the interviews as examples for the students' transfer from English to German. In excerpt 41, T4 argues that due to his students' good English competency they transfer the modal verb *must not* directly to German *nicht müssen*:

41. T4: False Friend, *nicht dürfen*. *You mustn't go there*. Das sage ich schon so. Weil einfach die Hälfte meiner Studenten, das ist mir auch bewusst, die Hälfte meiner Studenten spricht so gut Englisch, dass dieser Anglizismus einfach doch oft vorkommt. Die sagen halt dann nicht *du darfst nicht*, sondern *du musst nicht*.

The same is reported by another interviewee who indicates the occurrence of false friends in connection with verbs, such as *become – bekommen*.

All interview participants regard instances of false friends from English to German as an opportunity to clarify and work on these lexicological differences in more detail, with the exception of T2, who rejects English as a teaching tool in his classroom (cf. section 7.1). In this respect, T2 takes a different approach and etymologises words wrongly and pretends not to understand English:

42. T2: Ich etymologisiere die Wörter falsch. [...] Jemand hat gesagt, wir waren heute im Kaffee, Outdoorunterricht, und wir haben diskutiert über Trinkgeld. Und der Amerikaner, der hat gesagt „Tip. Tip. Tip“. Da sagte ich „Tipp, Tipp ist eine Idee. Ich geb dir einen Tipp“. [...] Das Wort *tip* im Sinne von Trinkgeld verstehe ich nicht.

It can be inferred from these excerpts that instances of interference from English to German allow teachers to raise students' "language awareness" and to work on the students' "language awareness processes" (cf. Neuner 2001: 27ff).



## **7.5. Teachers' Perspectives**

This sub-section focuses on the teachers' perspectives in relation to their students, their institutes, and various teaching relevant aspects, which are partly based on the research assumptions provided in section 2.3. The findings of the research assumptions will be provided in sub-section 7.6 of this chapter.

### **7.5.1. Employment of English during their career**

In regard to methodological and/or didactical changes during their careers as German as foreign language teachers in the beginner classroom, most interview participants describe these changes based on gathered experience and increased confidence. An interesting aspect that derived from other interview participants' answers concerns their employment of English in the German language classroom. T1, in excerpt 43, states that at the beginning of his career he only employed a German monolingual teaching approach but changed this approach during his career. In contrast to this, T5, in extract 44, states that she employed English as a teaching tool more often when she started teaching:

43. T1: Am Anfang habe ich das nicht so gemacht, da habe ich alles auf Deutsch gemacht und da habe ich gemerkt, dass ich eigentlich viel länger brauche und dann habe ich schon Englisch verwendet hin und wieder.

44. T5: Ja. Ich rede weniger Englisch.

These two excerpts show that the employment of English as a teaching tool is approached very differently among teachers. It is interesting to note, that even though both T1 and T5 have a teaching experience of about 10 years they represent contradicting teaching approaches to German after English.

### **7.5.2. Teachers' Motivation**

Based on the research assumption provided in section 2.3, the interviews show that the majority of the interview participants describe their motivation in the language classroom as a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. As T4 indicates in excerpt 45, teachers have to meet external course criteria such as language course length or external language exams. It is also pointed out in this

excerpt that the teachers' language choice is influenced by such external criteria.

45.T4: Also meine Grundeinstellung ist diejenige, dass ich also nur in der Sprache bleiben will. Die Frage ist dann, inwiefern das gelingt, weil es einen Rahmen gibt und du weiterkommen willst und so weiter.

46.T5: Also Tests sind ja an und für sich extrinsisch [...].

As can be seen from excerpts 45 and 46, teachers have to teach German within a limited time frame. This can be put in relation to the discussion provided in sections 7.3.2 and 7.3.3 which showed that, by employing English in the language classroom, teachers can save time and boost their students' language progression. In regard to intrinsic motivation, it is stated by some teachers that their own motivation derives from teaching per se and the aim to help and support students in learning the language. Therefore, this intrinsic motivation can be put in relation to the findings in the previous sub-sections. The results in these sub-sections confirm the teachers' intrinsic motivation.

### **7.5.3. Institutes' Language Directives**

During the interviews the subject about the institutes' language directives emerged. Based on the interviews it can be shown that institute IA, teachers T1, T2, T6 and institute ID, teacher T8 explicitly advise to use a German monolingual teaching approach, whereas institutes IB-\*, teachers T3, T5, T7 provide no language directives. Language directives from institute IC, T4, are not given. Excerpts 47 and 48 illustrate these institutional language directives:

47.T6: Wobei Englisch ja bei uns nicht so beliebt ist. Ist auch so eine Vorgabe.

48.T8: Das war eigentlich immer schon so, Firmenpolitik auch.

These language directives show that language institutes follow different language management policies, which are consequently reflected in the language classroom. Moreover, this indicated that the majority of language institutes regard monolingual language teaching as state of the art and it reflects expectations and traditions in language teaching.

However, it is interesting to note that despite these language directives teachers use English as a teaching tool in their German language classrooms. In this context it can only be assumed that this language discrepancy puts the teachers in a difficult position due to the demands of their employees, their teaching choices, and the needs of their language classrooms.

#### **7.5.4. Importance of Grammar**

Seven out of the eight interview participants explicitly state that grammar constitutes an important factor in their language classroom. Formal correctness in language use is given a high value by all interview participants. This view is exemplified by T6 in excerpt 49:

49.T6: Einen relativ großen. Einen relativ großen und zwar deswegen, weil unser Zielpublikum ja doch Studierende sind und die formale Richtigkeit ist sehr, sehr wichtig.

At the same time the interview participants emphasise to teach grammar via different types of texts and examples, as is stated by T7 in excerpt 50:

50.T7: Für mich ist Grammatik wichtig, wobei ich jetzt mit meinen Studenten nicht den Stoff runterpauke, sondern ich versuche es eben anhand von Beispielen auch oder anhand von Situationen dazulegen, warum Grammatik wichtig ist.

As can be seen from these interview excerpts, grammar teaching is regarded as a significant part in the language classroom. Furthermore, the results of this sub-section can be put in relation to linguistic competence as formulated in communicative language teaching (cf. section 5.1). Linguistic competence does not only refer to formal correctness but also to the interrelated communicative value (Hedge 2002: 46), which is exemplified in excerpt 50.

#### **7.5.5. Inductive, Deductive Grammar Teaching**

In line with the sub-section above, the majority of the interview participants clearly follow an inductive teaching approach (cf. section 5.3.1). Some interviewees express that they regard a mixture of both of these two teaching approaches as most appropriate, depending on the situation and the content. This is exemplified in excerpt 51.

51.T5: Es gibt ja immer mehr Zugänge.

T5, in excerpt 52, illustrates her inductive teaching approach, which is based on different types of authentic texts that address certain linguistic aspects:

52. T7: Es ist schon so, dass ich eher über Texte, ich versuche mir dann Texte aus dem Alltag zu nehmen und habe im Hintergrund schon dann ein Ziel, dass ich sie zu der Grammatik hinführe, also zum Beispiel Perfekt.

Based on the findings of the interviews, it can be stated that none of the interviewees reports to utilise a deductive grammar teaching approach. In addition, in relation to section 7.4.7 and the findings in section 7.5.4, it can be stated that the majority of the interviewees teaches grammar via a monolingual teaching approach while one teacher employs English to show analogies between English and German.

#### **7.5.6. Heterogeneous Classroom**

It was pointed out in section 5.2.1 that tertiary language teaching typically takes place at a later point in a person's life. The interview participants all teach language students that are either intending to study in Austria or that are already students in their home countries. These diverse national and cultural backgrounds are represented in the interview participants' classrooms. Based on the research assumption provided in section 2.3, teachers confirmed that their students form a heterogeneous group based on their national and cultural backgrounds.

53. T8: Schon heterogen.

54. T6: Sehr heterogen.

Some interviewees indicate that in certain cases specific nationalities are in the majority, e.g. Spanish, Turkish, French etc., but that this is not the case every semester.

55. T5: Quer durch. Kann man gar nicht sagen. Also wirklich. Letztes Jahr haben wir Französisch Schwerpunkt gehabt, heuer haben wir Spanisch Schwerpunkt [...].

These excerpts show that the learners in German as foreign language classrooms form a heterogeneous group with regard to their linguistic and

cultural backgrounds. In addition, based on what has been shown so far it can be argued that although some groups of students in one classroom share the same language background, English takes the role of the common language among speakers with different language backgrounds.

### **7.5.7. Group work**

Group work can be described as an essential teaching and learning task in the language classroom. Based on various different group activities, learners work in pairs or groups to analyse, discuss, or solve specific language tasks. It was shown in the previous section (7.5.6) that in tertiary language learning heterogeneous classrooms constitute the norm. Depending on the students' languages some teachers separate their students during group activities in order to avoid that the students communicate among each other in their L1 or in English. T4, in excerpt 56, separates his students during group activities to ensure that they only communicate with each other in German:

56. T4: Also wenn ich einen sehr hohen Anteil von türkischen Studenten habe zum Beispiel, dann zähle ich die zuerst durch „Eins, zwei, drei, vier, fünf, sechs, sieben“ und zähle dann die anderen dazu. Also dieses Grundsatzargument, das erkläre ich einmal und das wird immer akzeptiert ist, damit sie Deutsch sprechen, kommt ein türkischer Student in der Regel zu einem anderen.

In contrast, some teachers state that their students can work in the groups they prefer or want to, regardless of their language backgrounds. T8, in excerpt 57, regards it as more important that the learners can discuss the language task and help each other:

57. T8: Ich versuche da auch immer offen zu sein, egal ob das jetzt in Deutsch oder in der Muttersprache ist, also auch untereinander, sich erklären, helfen, Kontakt aufnehmen können.

Depending on the aim of the activity T2's students can either work on language tasks in their first languages or they are put in groups of learners with German as their only common language. T2 reports that for grammar based tasks the students can work in their preferred groups but that he separates the students for activities which aim at cultural and communicative experiences and exchange:

58.T2: Gut, also sie müssen ihre Muttersprache sprechen oder Deutsch, sie sollen nicht eine dritte Sprache mit ins Spiel bringen.

These excerpts show that teachers follow different approaches in regard to their students' language usage. Allowing students to work on language or communicative tasks in their own languages or English enables them to access, experiment, and experience the new language in more detail (cf. section 5.2.1). Therefore, students can "talk about language tasks or talk to negotiate completion of language tasks" (Levine 2011: 137). In contrast, by separating students based on their linguistic backgrounds, teachers emphasise a German monolingual language approach. Consequently, the students have to use German in order to be able to complete the language task. This means that the students cannot reflect and discuss specific language aspects with their partners.

#### **7.5.8. Student Responses**

It was shown in section 7.4.3 that beginner students cannot communicate or express their thoughts in the new language yet. Therefore, English has an important communicative and interpersonal role in the beginners' language classroom. The majority of the interviews show that regardless of the language used by the teacher in the classroom, their students occasionally provide spoken and/or written answers in English. T2, in excerpt 59, expresses that his students answer in English frequently.

59.T2: Kommt am laufenden Band vor. Am laufenden Band.

This is confirmed by interviewee T7, in excerpt 60, who acknowledges the students' change of language based on their need to express themselves and being part of a group:

60.T7: Weil anders bringt es das nach meiner Erfahrung nicht, weil sich diese Studenten dann irgendwann zurückziehen und so Außenseiter der Gruppe werden. So dieses „Ich möchte das jetzt sagen, ich kann es aber nur auf Englisch“, das ist, ich möchte ja den Menschen auch wahrnehmen und dass er sich gerade nicht in der Fremdsprache oder zu lernenden Sprache ausdrücken kann, doch aber etwas zu sagen hat, das möchte ich einmal respektieren, ja.

In excerpt 61, T6 illustrates the frequency of her students' language change in writing:

61.T6: Na das kommt immer wieder vor. Lexikfehler, also Lexik. *Next Jahr.*

Only two interviewees indicate that their students do not use any other language than German in these situations.

It is shown in these excerpts that students' employ English to achieve a communicative goal. It should be pointed out that some teachers describe the reason for this based in the students' laziness to activate the language knowledge they have already learned in German. However, the interviews show that the teachers' reactions to answers in English, written or spoken, are different. Some teachers report that they help the students to express their utterances in German and use it as an opportunity to involve the class in the process. Other interviewees accept an answer or comment as a full answer. One teacher indicates that he completely refuses to understand the student in English and he pretends not to hear the answer at all. This interviewee also expresses that he only allows the students to speak in their first languages or in German. In line with the findings in previous sub-sections it can be argued that students employ English as a communicative tool in order to participate actively in the German language classroom and to show that they are part of the group.

#### **7.5.9. End of English**

Based on the research assumption that English may at some point be discontinued due to the students' increased language competency, the interview participants define different language levels. Only T1, in excerpt 62, states that English can be employed as a teaching tool at all levels of language learning:

62.T1: Kann man immer verwenden, da gibt es kein Ende.

These excerpts confirm that the employment of English as a teaching tool is regarded very differently among teachers. Furthermore, it can be concluded from this that an employment of English in the German language classroom is considered appropriate mainly in the first levels of language learning.

#### **7.5.10. Students – the Educational Elite**

It was shown in section 4.5 that international students in Austria are part of an educational elite. They have finished their secondary education in their home countries and have acquired learning experience, knowledge, and skills. The students' learning experience is also repeatedly mentioned in the interviews. T4, in excerpt 63, illustrates the students' educational background and learning experience in regard to English:

63.T4: Ja. Und in unserem Kontext kommt dann auch noch dazu, dass eine dieser Lernerfahrungen auch ist, dass man schon Englisch kann. Weil wenn du, es ist ziemlich gleichgültig, ob du aus Serbien, aus Bosnien, aus der Ukraine, aus Russland oder aus der Türkei bist, wenn du aus einem bildungsnahem Kontext kommst, kümmern sich im Regelfall die Eltern darum, dass du auch Englisch kannst.

Similar statements are made by other interviewees who indicate that their students' language learning experience is a beneficial resource, because they are aware of the different aspects of languages, such as grammar. This can be linked to Neuner's (2004: 30) third principle, the principle of content, provided in section 5.2.1. In addition to the students' age this principle also refers to the learners' learning behaviour and interests which are brought into the language classroom.

#### **7.5.11. Self-Directed Learner**

The interviews show that teachers regard it important that their students become independent language learners who know where and how to get information and that they can communicate to some degree as early as possible in the new language. A variety of aspects that are considered as basic competence for becoming self-directed language learners and users are mentioned in the interviews. One teacher defines it as important that the students' are aware that they are learning the language for their university qualification and that university students are expected to be able to work independently. Other interview participants state for instance, that they regard it as essential that the students know about basic grammatical aspects such as parts of speech in order to be able to work independently with grammar books and dictionaries. However, the majority of the interviewees consider it important



that their students can employ the language in daily situations. These teachers work with phrases and language chunks in order to provide their students with a basic communicative competence in the new language. Excerpts 64 and 65 demonstrate the interviewees' view:

64. T3: [...] diese Phrasen, die sie wirklich im Alltag brauchen können. Das ist mir wirklich wichtig.

65. T6: [...] das ist so eine survival Geschichte [...].

In addition, some interview participants state that due to the students' cultural backgrounds some learners in their classrooms have great difficulty to adapt to the way of thinking and learning, which hinders the students' independence. Excerpts 66 and 67 illustrate very clearly some of the main obstacles for these language students and consequently their teachers:

66. T4: Na ja, die kommen halt aus Erziehungssystemen, in denen man das macht, was der Lehrer anschafft und wenn der Lehrer nichts anschafft, dann macht man es nicht.

67. T6: Vor allem gerade in Ländern, die Diktaturen sind, die haben ein Schulsystem, wo sie nur auswendig lernen und das ist sehr gewöhnungsbedürftig für die Unterrichtenden.

Summing up, it can be stated that even though the interview participants assign importance to different aspects on how to attend to their students becoming self-directed and independent learners, teachers regard this ability as indispensable.

One aspect that is emphasised by almost all interview participants is to provide their students with phrases and language chunks, as was illustrated in excerpts 66 and 67. These phrases and language chunks relate to the discourse relevant forms of language according to Apeltauer (1997: 13) and Oksaar (2003: 109), provided in section 5. Adult language learners are confronted with communicative situations that demand a high language competence. In addition, phrases and language chunks can be put in relation to pragmatic competence which enables the students to achieve "certain communicative goals or intension[s]" (Hedge 2002: 48), as discussed in the context of communicative language teaching in section 5.1. Therefore, it can be argued that the employment of English in this context allows teachers to

communicate these phrases effectively and to discuss their pragmatic and discourse relevant meaning.

## **7.6. Research Assumptions**

The aim of this sub-section is to discuss the findings in regard to the research assumptions, provided in section 2.3 at the beginning of this study.

Research Assumption 1: It was assumed that there is a connection between the interviewees' level of English proficiency and the degree of employment of English. Based on the findings in the interviews, no relation between the interviewees' self-evaluation of English and the degree of employment of English as a teaching tool can be identified.

Research Assumption 2: It was presumed that teachers preferring a deductive language teaching approach are more likely to use English in their classrooms. The findings show that the participants in these interviews favour an inductive teaching approach or a mixture between the two. Therefore, this research assumption cannot be confirmed.

Research Assumption 3: It was assumed that a great diversity in the students' language backgrounds enhances the probability of English being the common language in the classroom. This research assumption can be confirmed, because heterogeneous language classrooms constitute the norm in this interview data and all interviewees teach in such classes.

Research Assumption 4: It was assumed that administrative requirements are being communicated in English in order to ensure the students' understanding. This research assumption can be confirmed, since the findings in sub-section 7.4.2 show that English is being employed in these instances.

Research Assumption 5: The underlying assumption was that teachers are motivated to use English as a teaching tool based on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. It has been shown in sub-section 7.5.2 that the interview participants' motivation is based in extrinsic course criteria and intrinsic motives to help their students to achieve their language goals. Based on the findings in this sub-sections teachers show a high awareness of external course criteria they have to meet. These criteria influence the interviewees' language choices as was shown for instance in sub-section 7.3.2, English saves time, and sub-

section 7.3.3, the employment of English boosts the students' language progression. The teachers' intrinsic motivation is shown in sub-sections 7.3 and 7.4, which addressed the reasons and situations teachers use to employ English as a teaching tool in their classrooms. Based on these findings, this research assumption can therefore be confirmed.

Research Assumption 6: It was assumed that students employ English or other languages in German monolingual language classrooms. It has been pointed out that only one interview participant explicitly follows a German monolingual language teaching approach. Based on the findings in his interview, it has to be specified that T2 in his role as a teacher only allows the students' L1 or German. Based on the findings in several sub-sections this research assumption can therefore be confirmed.

Research Assumption 7: This research assumption was based on the notion that teachers employ English as a teaching tool based on methodological and didactical considerations. According to the interview data and the results presented in this sub-section, it can be argued that the areas of English employment are based on general methodological and didactic considerations but they only partly reflect some of the considerations presented in the literature. For these reasons this research assumption cannot be clearly confirmed or contradicted.

Research Assumption 8: It was assumed that teachers change to English in specific teaching situations. It has been shown in sub-sections 7.4ff. that teachers employ English in specific situations. Therefore, this research assumption can be confirmed.

Research Assumption 9: This research assumption was based on the notion that students sometimes answer in English regardless of their teacher's language choices. Based on the findings provided in sub-section 7.5.8 this research assumption can be confirmed.

Research Assumption 10: It was assumed that the employment of English may at a certain language level be discontinued. The findings in sub-section 7.5.9 show that some teachers stop using English in their classroom, whereas others continue to employ it as a teaching tool. For this reason this research assumption can only partially be confirmed.

## 8. Resumé

The aim of this chapter is to provide a coherent summary of the findings of the interview analysis presented in chapter 7. In addition, overall conclusions are presented.

The analysis of the interviews was derived from eight semi-structured interviews on the basis of an interview guide with German as foreign language teachers in Austria. All interview participants teach German to international students who are either studying German for their university entrance qualifications or are participating in exchange programmes for a certain period of time in Austria.

The interview analysis was structured according to the following five main categories: Employment of English in the German as foreign language classroom, negative aspects of English, why English is being employed as a teaching tool, in which situations English is part of the German foreign language classroom, and the teachers' perspectives.

From the eight interview participants only one teacher strictly excludes English from his classroom and follows exclusively a monolingual language teaching approach. The other seven interviewees employ English in their German language classrooms to a certain degree and depth. Many of these teachers at first indicated to follow a German monolingual language approach only, but at a later point during the interviews it became apparent that English plays a certain role in their language classrooms.

The findings of the interview analysis show that teachers regard the employment of English also negatively. It is considered as unpedagogical and as contrasting proper teaching methods. This aspect is further discussed later in this section. In addition, it is argued that an employment of English in the foreign language classroom would signal to students that learning the target language is not important, because they can communicate in English not only in the classroom but also in situations of everyday life. The findings further show that English in the language classroom can discriminate against students who have little or no competency in this language. For this reason and due to the students' experience of language instruction, students also request to be taught in German. Furthermore, the findings show that teachers refrain from employing

English in their classroom, due to some students' insufficient English language competency.

According to the findings of the interview analysis, teachers indicate four main reasons why they use English in their German language beginners' classroom: in order to recognise the learner, the timesaving and progression-boosting aspects of its employment, and because the students request it. The employment of English in the beginners' classroom allows teachers to communicate with their students, who can participate in the classroom activities and express themselves in a way that would not be possible in a German monolingual classroom. In addition, due to time constraints in the L3 classroom, teachers have to find ways to save time and boost progression. In this case, English enables teachers to provide explanations and to convey meaning in a faster way, which in return accelerates a possible language progression within a given time frame. As is indicated in the interview analysis, students request to receive information or further explanations in English which accounts for their self-directed learning.

The interview analysis shows that teachers use English in their language classroom in several situations. One reason stated for the use of English is that it sometimes functions as the last option to provide explanations or to convey meaning, although the teacher has already tried to give the explanation in various different ways. Furthermore, the employment of English allows teachers to communicate administrative course requirements. Teachers can thereby ensure that their students are aware of and have understood compulsory requirements that build the framework for their course. Additionally, home assignments that differ from traditional assignments can be explained in more detail and the students can accomplish the given tasks. This helps students to fulfil the intended task and to avoid frustration that may arise from working on assignments in the wrong way.

The clear majority of teachers rejects English when teaching grammar. According to the interview analysis, only one teacher uses it as a teaching tool in the beginners' classroom to illustrate grammatical analogies between the two languages. However, no teacher uses it to show grammatical differences. In this respect, the only exception can be found on a lexical level, where teachers work with emerging interferences between the languages and highlight their

semantic differences. In addition to these findings, it is shown that teachers use English to explain or to find explanations for words that are unknown to the students or that need further explanations. In this role, English does not only save time but enables teachers to give explanations that might otherwise not be close at hand or even possible, because the lexicon of beginners is limited and, as a consequence, so is the possibility for paraphrasing.

In situations that do not directly aim at instruction of the target language, it is shown that teachers use English to communicate with their students. Due to the students' beginner status in German, the communication between teachers and students is very limited and any aspects that go beyond the content covered in class cannot be part of the conversation. In this respect teachers use English because they want to establish a more personal relationship with their students. A further aspect that derived from the interview analysis was that one teacher employs English to be able to express her discontent with her students. In this situation, the change in language does not only enable the teacher to achieve the communicative goal but also to emphasise the importance of the situation.

The third part of the interview analysis is based on the research assumptions provided in sections 2.3 and 7.6 and deals with the teachers' perspectives in relation to their students, their institutes, and some teaching relevant aspects. The interview analysis shows that the majority of language institutes follows a German monolingual language directive, which puts teachers in a difficult position in between their employees, their students, and their own teaching choices and methodological considerations, and, thus, their employment of English in the German beginners classroom. In addition, it is shown in the interview analysis that most teachers indicate general changes in their teaching methodology and approaches based on increased teaching experience and confidence. Only two teachers described how their use of English in the classroom changed as well. This aspect is further discussed later in this section.

Furthermore, the motivation for teachers derives from both external and internal motivational criteria. External course criteria such as language exams, duration of the course, etc. influence the teachers' language choices in the classroom. In order to enable their students to achieve the respective language

level for their exam or during a specific course it is shown that teachers are likely to use English. In regard to intrinsic motivation, the interview analysis shows that most teachers described it as deriving from their intention to help students to achieve their language goal. A further area in the analysis shows that grammatical correctness is given a high value by the majority of interview participants, who, furthermore, all prefer an inductive teaching approach.

Due to the students' different national and cultural backgrounds the learner groups in the German language classroom are typically heterogeneous, even though specific nationalities are in the majority during some semesters. During class activities teachers deal with their students' linguistic backgrounds differently. Some teachers regard it as important that students with the same or a shared linguistic background work with each other in German whereas others think that the students' shared language(s) support(s) them to approach, discuss and explore the new language from a different perspective. Furthermore, it is shown that, regardless of the teacher's language employment in the classroom, students occasionally answer in English. Some interview participants see this as a chance to help the student express her or his utterance in German and some accept the answer in English as such. In this respect, one teacher stresses that he completely ignores the student's answers given in English.

In addition, according to the finding in the interview analysis, teachers regard different levels of German as an appropriate moment to cease the employment of English as a teaching tool. The employment of English is considered appropriate mainly in the first levels of German language learning. The findings of the interview analysis further show that teachers acknowledge their students' learning experience and educational background, which also involves English as part of their educational career. Moreover, the analysis shows that teachers consider it important that their students are self-directed and independent language learners. In this respect, teachers indicate different aspects that are considered important for a student to become a self-directed and independent language learner. The majority of interview participants regards teaching language phrases and chunks as most relevant. Given the students' age they encounter language situations that demand a high language competence. In this context, English enables teachers to communicate phrases

and to discuss pragmatic and discourse relevant meaning in detail. However, it is mentioned that the cultural and educational background sometimes hinders this process, because some students have not learned to work independently.

It needs to be pointed out that the results of the interview data indicate several aspects that appear contradicting. On the one hand teachers state that they employ English because it is the international language that is widely understood and due to the students' educational background English was part of their education. On the other hand teachers claim that they do not use English as a teaching tool, because the poor English language competency of some students hinders its usage as a teaching tool and also discriminates those students who either have no or only limited command of English. Additionally, it is illustrated that students refuse German language tuition in English based on their expectations in the language classroom. At the same time students request to get information or further explanations in English. These contradictions show that an employment of English depends to a great extent on the group of students and their educational and cultural backgrounds.

Based on the findings of the interview data, it can be argued that teachers do not fully accept the employment of English in the German foreign language classroom as a methodological teaching approach and that they regard its usage with insecurity and ambiguity. The reasons for this can only be speculated upon. On the one hand the multilingual language classroom can be described as a rather recent area of interest in scientific research. Therefore, it can be presumed that it has not yet reached foreign language classrooms as an accepted *modus operandi*. Also the dominance of monolingual teaching methods such as Krashen's input hypothesis (section 5.1), and the prevalent communicative language teaching methods have influenced the foreign language classroom considerably. On the other hand, despite these facts, teachers turn to multilingual teaching methods for pragmatic reasons in their everyday classroom practice.

Furthermore, it can be inferred from the interview data that the employment of English is accompanied by the notion of being unpedagogical and being a sign of inexperience. For instance, T6 states in excerpt 44 that she used English in her classroom more often at the beginning of her career. It can be concluded that she here refers to the notion of inexperience when English is



employed as a teaching tool in the German as a foreign language classroom. In addition, T3, in excerpt 5, refers to English as a teaching tool as unpedagogical, because it is not part of his teacher training. It is interesting to note in this context, that T3 has only little teaching experience in comparison to the other interviewees. This shows that “monolingual teacher training [still] is the norm” (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2011: 189; section 5.2), thus the prevalent method in language teaching. Moreover, the data do not yield any relation between the interviewees’ teaching experience and their usage of English in the language classroom.

In relation to the subject of code-switching, as discussed in section 5.2.3, teachers and students alike change the language between utterances and for different purposes. On the part of the students, several instances of code-switching have been reported, for instance in the sub-sections student responses 7.5.8, recognising the learner 7.3.1, and interpersonal role of English 7.4.3. In addition, it was shown that teachers change the language of instruction during explanations as well as communicating administrative requirements, homework explanations, to save time and boost progression, etc. Moreover, it was shown that code-switches also occur in teaching situations that do not aim at “target language practice” (Edmondson 2004: 158). Taking a general perspective it can be argued that all instances of English employment in this study can be considered as code-switches.

Summing up, it can be stated that the overall result of the interview analysis shows that teachers approach the subject of employing English in their German foreign language classrooms very differently and with great ambiguity. Despite the teachers’ shared approaches in some of the concepts, it can be said that each teacher employs English as a teaching tool in her or his classroom to a different degree. In regard to the contradicting statements mentioned above, it has to be emphasised that the employment of English in the language classroom depends on the needs of the learners and their educational and cultural backgrounds. Nevertheless, the analysis clearly shows that English plays a role as a teaching tool on many levels in the German language classroom and that it supports teachers and students alike. Furthermore, its employment enables teachers and students to communicate

effectively with each other in the foreign language beginners' classroom, to learn the foreign language, and to negotiate meaning.

## **9. Conclusion**

The main objective of this study was to analyse the role of English in the German as a foreign language classroom. Therefore, the factors that contributed to the status of English and that have influenced its development as international language were discussed. Furthermore, a general perspective on language management and policies has been applied to the language management policies within the EU.

The EU officially acknowledges the official languages of its member states and recognises them as its official and working languages. Despite its official language policy it has been shown that the EU assigns English a special position which is also strongly associated with economic and professional values.

This economic relevance assigned to English is reflected in its significant position as language of scientific discourse. Therefore, English constitutes an intrinsic part in tertiary education and affects universities and educational institutions which are striving for presence and reputation internationally. In this respect it has been shown that internationalisation processes of universities are constituted by international student and staff exchanges among universities.

In this context it has been shown that universities increasingly employ English as language of instruction in all areas of research and as part of the students' university education. University institutes in Austria can independently choose the language(s) of instruction of complete curricula or single courses. Due to the presence of English in tertiary education as language of science and language of instruction, it has been shown that English constitutes a basic requirement for students in order to participate in the discourse of their scientific community.

Depending on the institute's language policy, international students who wish to enrol in a study programme in Austria have to proof their language competency. This means that international students, who register for an English study programme in Austria have to prove a certain level of English competency or in some cases even German. Therefore, international students in Austria

attend German foreign language courses in order to meet the language qualification requirements of their university's departments.

In view of the empirical research various teaching methods in language education were the focus of the further discussion. Thereby, teaching methods and approaches were compared that either focus on monolingual or multilingual teaching approaches. The concept of German after English has been presented in the context of multilingual language teaching. In this L3 teaching approach it has been shown that the students' language and learning experience constitutes a beneficial part in tertiary language teaching. Following this, attention has been given to general teaching methods and approaches which were relevant for the empirical study, regardless of the language(s) of instruction chosen in the classroom.

The findings of the interviews presented in the empirical study indicate that English is used as a teaching tool in the German foreign language beginners' classroom. Despite some negative aspects that were mentioned as reasons for refraining from employing English as a teaching tool, it has been shown that teachers use English in various teaching situations in the classroom. In this respect, it has been found that the employment of English supports teachers to meet external course criteria such as language exams and duration of courses. Furthermore, the interviews revealed that the use of English expands the possibility for communication between teachers and students considerably as a tool of language instruction, communicating and negotiating meaning on a language relevant as well as on an interpersonal level. Notwithstanding the fact that English is regarded as a beneficial teaching resource in the foreign language classroom, teachers approach the subject of English in the German foreign language beginners' classroom differently and with ambiguity. In addition, it has been shown that the employment of English in the language classroom depends on the needs of the learners and their educational and cultural backgrounds.

However, the findings of this study do not imply that English is generally employed as a teaching tool in German foreign language classroom. It should be pointed out that due to the limited data range of the interviews the findings of the interview analysis cannot be generalised. Despite its limited scope this study has provided interesting implications for our understanding of the role of

English in the German foreign language beginners' classroom in tertiary education and provides a useful synopsis about tendencies and patterns within the subject of teaching German after English.

A quantitative investigation building on these results might be needed in order to shed light on the intensity of English used in German as foreign language teaching. Further classroom observations would provide complementary findings and insights about the employment of English of what is happening in the classroom in detail.

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## **Appendix A: Abstract English**

This thesis discusses the role of English in German as a foreign language beginners' classrooms in tertiary education. A qualitative analysis based on eight semi-structured interviews with Austrian foreign language teachers shows how they describe and comment on their employment of English.

The theoretical frame of the empirical study is given by the status of English as one of the most prestigious languages worldwide that is associated with economic and professional values in various domains. On basis of the language policy of the European Union (EU) the relevance of English in this multilingual environment is illustrated. Furthermore, English is also considered as language of science. Due to the increasing internationalisation of universities, study programmes offer individual courses and/or study programmes in English.

For students it becomes more and more important to study abroad. Depending on the study programme, international students have to prove their English and/or German knowledge in order to enrol at an Austrian university. Due to the internationality of the students, German as foreign language courses in Austria usually consist of heterogeneous learner groups. English, within this heterogeneity of cultures and languages, does not only play an interlinking role as a classroom language but also as a language of interpersonal exchange and communication.

This thesis demonstrates that English is a part of German as foreign language classes and that it is used as a teaching tool by teachers with different intensity. Furthermore, it shows that German after English, is described with great ambivalence.

## **Appendix B: Abstract German**

Die vorliegende Arbeit beschäftigt sich mit der Rolle des Englischen im Deutsch als Fremdsprachenunterricht für AnfängerInnen im universitären Bereich.

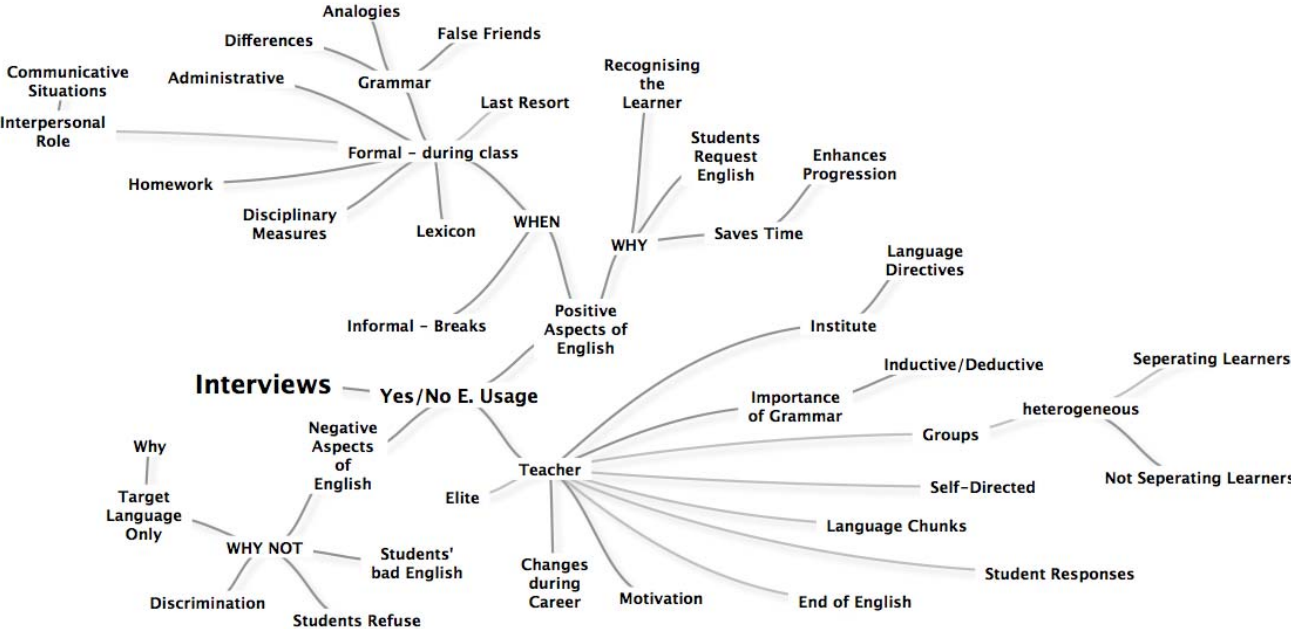
Eine qualitative Inhaltsanalyse basierend auf acht semistrukturierten Interviews mit österreichischen Fremdsprachelehrenden zeigt, wie diese den Einsatz von Englisch in ihrem Unterricht kommentieren und beschreiben.

Den theoretischen Rahmen der empirischen Studie bildet der Status des Englischen als eine der prestigeträchtigen Sprachen weltweit, die in verschiedensten Domänen mit wirtschaftlichen Werten und Professionalität assoziiert wird. Anhand der Sprachenpolitik der Europäischen Union (EU) wird die Bedeutung des Englischen in dieser multilingualen Domäne aufgezeigt. Englisch gilt auch als Sprache der Wissenschaft und damit auch der universitären Lehre. Aufgrund der zunehmenden Internationalisierung der Universitäten bieten Studienprogramme einzelne Kurse oder auch ganze Studienrichtungen in Englisch an.

Für Studierende ist es von immer größerer Bedeutung für eine bestimmte Zeit außerhalb des eigenen Kultur-, und Sprachraumes zu studieren. International Studierende müssen für ihre Inskription oder ihre befristete Teilnahme an einer österreichischen Universität je nach Studienrichtung ihre Englisch-, bzw. Deutschkenntnisse vorweisen können. Aufgrund der Internationalität der Studierenden setzen sich Deutsch als Fremdsprachekurse in Österreich typischerweise aus heterogenen LernerInnengruppen zusammen. In dieser sprachlichen und kulturellen Heterogenität hat das Englische nicht nur eine verbindende Rolle als Unterrichtssprache sondern auch als Sprache des zwischenmenschlichen Austausches und Kommunikation.

Es wird in dieser Arbeit gezeigt, dass Englisch einen Bestandteil im Deutsch als Fremdsprachenunterricht darstellt und von Lehrenden in verschiedener Intensität als Unterrichtsmittel eingesetzt wird. Darüber hinaus wird gezeigt, dass Deutsch nach Englisch mit großer Ambivalenz beschrieben wird.

# Appendix C: Mind Map





## Appendix D: Interview Guide

### Interview Guide

Vielen Dank für Ihre Zeit und Ihre Bereitschaft bei diesem Interview mitzumachen!

In meiner Diplomarbeit beschäftige ich mich mit der Frage nach der Rolle von Englisch im DaF/DaZ Unterricht. Dabei sind meine Zielgruppe Deutschlehrende die internationale Studierende in Österreich unterrichten.

Ziel dieses Interviews ist es die Sichtweise und Erfahrung von Ihnen als DaF/DaZ Lehrende/r einzufangen und wie Sie persönlich Ihren Zugang und/oder Einsatz von Englisch im AnfängerInnenunterricht beschreiben.

### *Persönlicher Hintergrund*

#### **Sprache(n) & GER, Englisch, Auslandsaufenthalt**

1. Welche Sprache(n) sprechen Sie und wie würden Sie sich selber einstufen? (GER)

1.1. Wie würden Sie Ihre Englischkenntnisse einstufen?  
(Maturaniveau, darüber hinaus – GER; Studium Anglistik; englischsprachiges Studium)

2. Englisch: In welchem Ausmaß haben Sie in Ihrem Alltag mit Englisch zu tun? Sowohl beruflich als auch privat?

2.1. Produktive Anwendung der Sprache (Bekannte, Freunde, beruflich) // Rezeptiv, Input (Fernsehen, Radio)

2.2. Wenn Sie an eines Ihrer letzten Gespräche in Englisch denken, war Ihrer Meinung nach die Kommunikationssituation erfolgreich?  
(Missverständnisse, Vokabelschwäche(n), konnten Sie ausdrücken was Sie sagen wollten).

3. Haben Sie sich während Ihrer Ausbildung oder danach im Ausland aufgehalten? (Austauschsemester/Auslandspraktikum)

3.1. Wenn ja: in welchem Land waren Sie und mit welchem Ziel?

3.2. Welche Sprache(n) wurden dort von Ihnen gesprochen oder vor Ort gelernt?

## Werdegang als DaF/DaZ Lehrende/r

4. Wo haben Sie Ihre Ausbildung zum DaF/DaZ Lehrenden gemacht?
5. Warum haben Sie sich für die Ausbildung zum/r DaF/DaZ Lehrenden entschieden?
6. Wie lange unterrichten Sie bereits DaF/DaZ?
7. Welchen Stellenwert hat für Sie Grammatikvermittlung im Unterricht?

7.1. Wenn Sie an Ihren Grammatikunterricht denken: wie würden Sie Ihre Vorgehensweise beschreiben – deduktiv (Thema – Bildung – Übung; Systematisierung) oder induktiv („Grammatik entdecken“)

8. Wenn Sie an Ihre Anfänge als Lehrende/r denken, hat sich Ihre Art zu unterrichten im Laufe der Jahre geändert?

- 8.1. Wenn ja, wodurch?  
(Erfahrung, Sicherheit, neue Erkenntnisse, etc)
- 8.2. Können Sie kurz beschreiben, wie sich/in welcher Art Ihr Unterricht geändert hat?

## *DaF/DaZ Unterricht Allgemein*

### Derzeitiger Unterricht

9. Wo, an welchen Institutionen unterrichten Sie derzeit?
10. Welche Sprachstufe(n), nach GER, unterrichten Sie derzeit?
11. Welche Art(en) von Deutschkursen werden dort von Ihnen unterrichtet?  
(MigrantInnen, Alphabetisierung, Integration, **Vorstudienlehrgang**, FH, Uni)
12. Unterrichten Sie häufig AnfängerInnen?
13. Unterrichten Sie derzeit einen AnfängerInnenkurs oder mehrere?
14. Haben Sie persönliche Präferenzen bezüglich der Niveaustufen der Lernenden? (unterrichten Sie lieber Fortgeschrittene oder AnfängerInnen)
15. Wodurch unterscheidet sich Ihrer Meinung nach der Unterricht von AnfängerInnen und Fortgeschrittenen?

## Hintergrund der Lernenden

16. Wenn Sie an Ihre AnfängerInnengruppen<sup>15</sup> denken, wie setzen sich diese Gruppen typischerweise zusammen?  
(Nationalitäten, Herkunft der Lernenden)

16.1. Würden Sie diese Gruppen als heterogen bzw. homogen beschreiben?

17. Welches Bildungsniveau/welchen Bildungshintergrund haben Ihre Lernenden?  
(Unizugang In/Aus – Maturaniveau)

18. Wissen Sie, welche Sprache(n) Ihre Lernenden beherrschen bzw. welchen L1-Sprachhintergrund diese haben?

18.1. Wie gehen Sie mit der sprachlichen Vielfalt in Ihrem Unterricht um?

## AnfängerInnenunterricht

19. Was ist für Sie im AnfängerInnenunterricht ein besonderes Ziel, was erachten Sie für besonders wichtig?  
(schnelle Progression – Input, Allgem. Sprachverständnis, LK, Selbstständigkeit der Lernenden)

20. Würden Sie dieses Ziel als vornehmlich extern motiviert (Zertifikate) beschreiben oder intrinsisch?

21. Wie würden Sie Ihren Unterricht bei AnfängerInnen beschreiben? Gibt es für Sie eine typische Vorgehensweise?

22. Wenn Sie an die erste bzw. die ersten Stunden im AnfängerInnenunterricht denken, wie/wodurch fördern Sie die Gruppendynamik?

23. Wie würden Sie den Stellenwert von Gruppendynamik für sich persönlich beschreiben?

24. Wie kommunizieren Sie mit Ihren Studierenden im AnfängerInnenunterricht?  
(Sprachlich, Erklärungen, etc)

25. Wie erklären Sie im AnfängerInnenunterricht Aufgaben, Übungen etc. oder wie leiten Sie die Lernenden an?

26. Benutzen Sie außer Deutsch auch andere Sprache(n) im AnfängerInnenunterricht?

26.1. Wenn ja, worin sehen Sie für sich persönlich Vorteile, eine andere Sprache, z.B. Englisch, im AnfängerInnenunterricht einzusetzen?

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<sup>15</sup> Wenn nicht mehr AnfängerInnen – dann: erinnern Sie sich bitte an die Zeit wie Sie noch AnfängerInnen unterrichtet haben.

## Nur Deutsch

27. Sie haben gesagt, Sie verwenden ausschließlich Deutsch, im AnfängerInnenunterricht? Warum?

28. Verwenden Ihre Lernenden manchmal eine andere Sprache, z.B. untereinander, oder in Antworten?

28.1. Wenn Ihre Lernenden eine andere Sprache während des Unterrichts benutzen, wie würden Sie die Häufigkeit der Benutzung beschreiben?

28.2. Wie gehen Sie damit um?  
(Ignorieren, Tadeln, Sie antworten auf Deutsch)

29. Warum haben Sie sich nicht für den Einsatz von Englisch im AnfängerInnenunterricht entschieden?

30. Können Sie sich vorstellen Englisch im AnfängerInnenunterricht einzusetzen?

30.1. Wenn ja, warum?

30.2. Wenn ja, wie?

30.3. Wenn nein, warum?

30.4. Wenn nein, wie gehen Sie in Ihren AnfängerInnenkursen vor?

30.5. Wenn nein, wie kommunizieren Sie mit Ihren Lernenden?

30.6. Wenn nein, welche anderen Sprache(n) setzen Sie ein? Wie kommunizieren Sie mit Ihren Studierenden?

## Einsatz von Englisch im Deutschunterricht

31. Wie sehen Sie den Einsatz von Englisch oder einer anderen FS im DaF/DaZ Unterricht?

32. Nach welchen Kriterien entscheiden Sie sich für den Einsatz von Englisch oder anderen/mehreren Sprachen im Unterricht?

33. Bei welchen LernerInnengruppen sehen Sie den Einsatz von Englisch als sinnvoll?

34. Wenn Sie an Ihren Unterricht denken: in welchen Situationen wechseln Sie die Sprache (also weg von Deutsch)?  
(Erklärung - der Hausübung, grammatischer Regeln; Administratives; Strenge, Lob)

34.1. Warum gerade in der/den Situation(en)?

34.2. Wenn Sie grammatische Regeln oder sprachliche Mittel in Englisch erklären, können Sie beschreiben wie Sie dabei vorgehen und ein Beispiel nennen?  
(Übersetzung, wie Analogien hergestellt werden)

34.3. Um noch beim Grammatikunterricht zu bleiben: Wann, in welchen Situationen greifen Sie auf Englisch zurück und wie würden Sie die Häufigkeit beschreiben?

34.4. Sie haben vorher gemeint, dass Sie Ihren Grammatikunterricht als induktiv/deduktiv bezeichnen würden. Wie sehen Sie das im Zusammenhang mit Englisch?  
(deduktiv: Verstärkung durch Englisch; induktiv wird durch Englisch aufgehoben oder verstärkt).

35. Warum setzen Sie im DaF/DaZ Unterricht eine andere Sprache ein?

35.1. Welche Aspekte, welche Funktion erfüllt dabei Englisch für Sie im Unterricht?  
(Vermittlungssprache, Kommunikation, Verkürzung)

### Antworten auf Englisch in einer anderen Sprache

36. Während des Unterrichts akzeptieren Sie da Antworten der Lernenden in Englisch bzw. der anderen Sprache?  
(Frage Deutsch – Antwort in Englisch z.B. Grammatik)

36.1. Warum akzeptieren Sie Antworten in einer anderen Sprache?

36.2. Akzeptieren Sie dabei Antworten nur mündlich oder auch schriftlich?

36.2.1. Wenn nein, warum mündlich aber nicht schriftlich?

36.3. Bis zu welchem Grad/Ausmaß akzeptieren Sie Antworten in Englisch oder in einer anderen Sprache?  
(Lexikalische Ebene, Sätze, Texte)

37. Gibt es Situationen, in denen Sie Antworten in Englisch (der anderen Sprache) nicht akzeptieren? In welchen Situationen ist das?

### Progressionsstufe & Einsatz anderer Sprache

38. Bis zu welcher Progressionsstufe (GER) verwenden Sie Englisch (oder die andere Sprache) als Unterrichtsmittel/Hilfsmittel?

38.1. Welche Sprache(n) verwenden Sie ab dieser Stufe?

38.2. Warum verwenden Sie Englisch zu diesem Zeitpunkt nicht mehr als Unterrichtsmittel/Hilfsmittel?

38.3. Warum wechseln Sie zu diesem Zeitpunkt ausschließlich auf Deutsch?

### Abschluss

39. Möchten Sie vielleicht noch etwas ergänzen oder anmerken?

Vielen Dank für das interessante Interview und vor allem für Ihre Zeit!

## Appendix E: Curriculum Vitae

### PERSÖNLICHE DATEN

Erika Groh 20. Oktober 1973, in Wien  
Österreichische Staatsbürgerschaft

### BILDUNGSWEG

seit 2007 Fortsetzung Diplomstudium Anglistik und DaF/Z,  
Universität Wien  
2005 – 2007 Kolleg für Kunstmanagement, Vienna Business  
School, Abschluss mit Diplom  
1994 – 1999 Studium der Anglistik und Germanistik, Universität  
Wien  
1991 – 1994 BORG Kundmanngasse, Wien, Abschluss mit  
Matura  
1984 – 1991 AHS Kundmanngasse, Wien  
1980 – 1984 Volksschule Reisnerstraße, Wien

### BERUFLICHER WERDEGANG

Okt. 2011 – Okt. 2012 Trainerin für Englisch und Deutsch als Fremdsprache:  
Ahoj Europa Neu  
Sommer 2011 English Language Camp - Benenden School (UK):  
Privatschule Obermair  
2009 – 2011 Trainerin für Deutsch als Fremdsprache:  
Fachhochschule Technikum Wien  
Okt. 2008 – Nov. 2012 Office Management: Center for International  
Relations and Cross-Cultural Education,  
Fachhochschule Technikum Wien  
Feb. 2008 – Juni 2009 Redaktion: Langenscheidt-Verlag GmbH  
Dez. 2007 – Sept. 2008 Studiengangsassistentz: Mechatronik/Robotik,  
Fachhochschule Technikum Wien  
2001 – 2005 Leased Line Management: T-Mobile Austria GmbH  
1999 – 2001 Office Management: system provider A.  
Rescheneder KEG, Theater & Tourneen  
1994 – 1999 div. Tätigkeiten

### SPRACHEN

Deutsch, Erstsprache  
Englisch, ausgezeichnete Kenntnisse in Wort und  
Schrift  
Französisch, Grundkenntnisse

### WEITERBILDUNG

Cambridge Proficiency in English, University of Cambridge  
Cambridge First Certificate in English, University of Cambridge