Teaching and learning German language and culture in Higher Education in Britain: Problems, challenges and didactical implications. A case study.

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Summary

The aim of this thesis is to explore key aspects and problems of the institutionalised teaching and learning of German language and culture in the context of German Studies in British Higher Education (HE). This investigation focuses on teaching and learning experiences in one department of German Studies in the UK, which is the micro-context of the present study, in order to provide an in-depth insight into real-life problems, strengths and weaknesses as they occur in the practice of teaching and learning German. Following Lamb (2004) and Holliday (1994), the present study acts on the assumption that each micro-context does not exist *in vacuo* but is always embedded in a wider socio-political and education environment, namely the macro-context, which largely determines, how and what is taught. The macro-analysis of the present study surveys the socio-political developments that have recently affected the sector of modern languages and specifically the discipline of German Studies in the UK. It demonstrates the impact they have had on teaching and learning German at the undergraduate level in Britain. This context is interesting inasmuch as the situation in Britain is to a large extent a paradigmatic example of the developments in German Studies in English-speaking countries. Subsequently, the present study explores learning experiences of a group of thirty-five first year students. It focuses on their previous experiences in learning German, exposure to the target language, motivation, learning strategies and difficulties encountered, when learning German at the tertiary level. Then, on the basis of interviews with five lecturers of German, teaching experience in the context under study is explored, problems and successful teaching strategies discussed. Ultimately, by linking the macro-analysis with teaching and learning experiences at the micro-level, the present study suggests a number of didactical implications which could potentially contribute to the optimisation and possible enhancement of teaching and learning German in German Studies in Britain.

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List of Abbreviations

'A' level	General Certificate of Education Advanced Level
ALM	Audio-Lingual Method
AVM	Audio-Visual Method
CCL	Cognitive Code Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CUTG	Conference of University Teachers of German in Great Britain and Ireland
DM	Direct Method
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLE	Foreign Language Education
FLs	Foreign Languages
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GFL	German as a Foreign Language
GSL	German as a Second Language
GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
HE	Higher Education
IA	Intercultural Approach
IGS	Intercultural German Studies
L1	Mother Tongue
NA	Natural Approach
NC	National Curriculum
RAE	Research Assessment Exercise
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TQA	Teaching Quality Assessment
UK	United Kingdom

I Introduction

"A person who has not studied German can form no idea of what a perplexing language it is." This was written by Mark Twain in 1878, during his stay in Heidelberg, where he unremittingly attempted to gain a good command of German (Twain 2004: 4). Many British students of German would probably agree with Twain's claims that the German language involves more exceptions than instances of rules and that in order to learn all the grammatical and lexical peculiarities, one needs to possess "a memory like a memorandum book" (ibid: 24). Accordingly, they might also welcome the method of learning German proposed by Twain – a method that suggested a range of morphological and syntactical simplifications such as the elimination of the dative and the final position of verbs in subordinate clauses in addition to the reorganisation of genders according to "the will of the Creator" (ibid.: 58). However, such a 'method' would only result in the development of a pidgin German and would certainly not help learners to make themselves understood in the target language.

The question of how to learn this "perplexing language" has been a matter of heated debate in the discipline of German as a Foreign Language (= Deutsch als Fremdsprache, DaF), hereafter abbreviated as GFL. Having been influenced by concepts generated in cognate disciplines such as Second Language Acquisition, Linguistics, Psychology and more recently Philosophy, GFL has developed numerous methods and approaches, each one claiming its superiority and universality. Indeed, in the last 100 years, a rise and fall of various paradigms has been witnessed. There has been a general shift from explicit methods of teaching language structures towards a more process- and learner-oriented approach. The former is largely associated with didactical conservatism, while the latter is regarded as a learning innovation. With concepts such as intercultural education or constructivist didactics, it is currently being promoted in the discourse of teaching. While many of the new notions follow commendable aims, it is arguable whether they are indeed so universal and innovative. Accounts from language classrooms suggest that teachers do not necessarily follow innovations and still cultivate some of the old, established approaches, although rather clandestinely (Cook 2002, Bax 2003). Indeed, there is a large gap between the approaches

proposed by scholars and the actual practice of teaching and learning. This is not exclusive to GFL, but is a common scenario in Foreign Language Education (FLE). There are various reasons for this. Holliday (1994) argues that this is partly due to the fact that the majority of teaching methodologies are based on research in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), which predominantly focuses on the individual learner and selected, cognitive and affective variables examined in strictly controlled conditions. The results are often idealised, 'ivory-tower' visions of learning based on the assumption that in every context, learners behave in approximately the same manner (ibid.: 108). Foreign language classrooms are not clinical laboratories but multifaceted environments constrained by socio-political factors, which defy experimental control and which vary from context to context. Holliday (ibid.) argues that for teaching and learning to be effective, it is necessary to understand the complexity of the wider influences and interests that occur in the societal and institutional realities of teaching and learning. In so doing, an appropriate teaching methodology could be established. This means a methodology which optimises learning and teaching by achieving a balance between established local teaching practices and individual learning needs. Theoretical concepts of FLE do not need to be rejected. However, they cannot be regarded as operational norms but essentially as concepts to be adjusted to local teaching and learning conditions, problems and priorities. In the context of GFL, analogous claims are heard. Schwerdtfeger (1996), for example, follows a similar line of reasoning, albeit with more politically orientated arguments. She argues that the disparity between theory and practice is due to the unequal power relations between the regions of GFL, namely outside the German-speaking countries and the German-speaking context. The latter is the power centre, where teaching methodologies are produced, while the former is considered to be on the periphery and a recipient of these methodologies. These methodologies cannot be adequate, as learning German in the German-speaking context is very different to the learning conditions outside it. Kramsch (1997) develops this point and calls for the introduction of "eine Pädagogik des regional Geeigneten", which, similarly to Holliday's conceptualisation, is based on an adaptation of existing didactical concepts to teaching and learning situations in regions of GFL. As Holliday (1994: 177) argues, this process will never be finished, as it involves constant adjustments, modifications and adaptation, which he describes as "an ongoing

route to greater appropriacy". A question which ultimately arises is how the development of such an appropriate methodology could be achieved. Firstly, it is necessary to examine the key socio-political factors because they determine: "das Ob und Wie des Lehrens und Lernens fremder Sprachen in einer Gesellschaft im Sinne spezifischer Zielsetzungen" (Lamb 2004: 2). Besides, this is needed because at times, changes at the micro-level, although important, are insufficient and steps at the macro-level have to be undertaken in order to improve teaching and learning practice (ibid.). The macro-context largely influences actual FL-practice, namely what, how and how much is taught at the micro-level. However, it cannot be forgotten that foreign languages are learned and taught by individuals. The human experience of teaching and learning provides the most profound insights into real-life practice and needs to be seriously considered (cf. Appel 2001, Schart 2001). In short, an investigation of the macro-constraints and individual experiences at the micro-level should provide clues as to what measures are needed to optimise teaching and learning. Final outcomes may be less impressive and less novel. However, it should not be the aim of the discipline of GFL to constantly present new approaches, as an idea is not necessarily better because it is new (cf. Hammerly 1991). Rather, it is more important to provide appropriate strategies and implications (= Handlungsempfehlungen) for what can be done to optimise the teaching and learning of German in a given context (cf. Grotjahn 1995: 457).

There is already a substantial amount of studies concerned with the developments of GFL in various regions and countries (see Helbig et al. 2001). These studies, which are largely descriptive in nature, have demonstrated that these days, GFL faces many problems and these largely depend upon the social, political and educational contexts. In some parts of the world, particularly in English-speaking countries, German is rapidly declining across educational institutions, mostly at tertiary level, and this is why the word 'crisis' is frequently heard (Martín 2005, Coleman 2004, Brumfit 2004b, McGuiness-King 2003, Klaus & Reimann 2003, James & Tschirner 2001, Truckenbrodt & Kretzenbacher 2001). The situation in the UK can be seen as a paradigmatic example in this respect. Symptomatic of this crisis is a dramatic decrease in the number of students, which in turn has resulted in departments of German in the UK facing financial difficulties and even closure. Furthermore, the initial knowledge and skills which

students bring into departments are deficient and this is the reason why they are often unable to meet the demands of the academic study of German language and culture. Research into students' initial competencies confirms these great deficits, particularly in the area of grammar and language accuracy (cf. Townson & Musolff 1993, Coleman 1996, Scott-Clark 1995). Moreover, the level of language skills, which finally emerges from universities, is not always satisfactory. Only a small proportion of students achieve a high level of competency in German (Coleman 1996). This scenario is the result of socio-political, cultural and economic factors, which in the last few decades have impacted on the sector of Higher Education (HE) and on modern languages. German in particular seems to be affected by a whole constellation of disadvantageous aspects. It is often associated with negative images and is seen as a difficult subject. There is also a growing tendency to replace it with Spanish. In fact, as the report "Eurobarometer: Europeans and their languages" (2005) indicates, the general public in Britain sees Spanish, and traditionally French, as more important[1]. This report reveals that there is less enthusiasm to learn foreign languages than in other European countries except Ireland, which is largely a result of the global dominance of English. Departments of German in the UK, which were traditionally the bastions of literature research and teaching, have responded in many ways to these pressures. A variety of approaches have emerged forming a very diverse picture of German Studies. The literature-based curriculum has been greatly reduced and instead a range of subject matter, commonly referred to as Cultural or Area Studies, has been added. However, voices of scepticism are being heard as to whether this change has responded adequately to the new challenges (Sandford 1998). It seems that the area of language teaching and learning has been particularly neglected and language provision is considered ineffective (Coleman 1996, 2004).

The aim of this research is to explore key aspects of the institutionalised teaching and learning of German language and culture in the context of German Studies in British Higher Education (HE). This investigation focuses on the teaching and learning experiences in one department of German Studies in the UK. However, it does so against the background of the socio-political

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[1] This report is available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_237.en.pdf> [accessed 26 June 2006].

developments that have recently affected the sector of modern languages and specifically the discipline of German Studies in the UK. This is the macro-context of the present study. It aims to demonstrate the key problems and challenges that have emerged in this context in order to see what impact they have had on the practice of teaching and learning German at the undergraduate level. The micro-analysis focuses on the learning and teaching experiences of a group of first year students and lecturers in a department of German Studies in Britain. The purpose of this is to provide insights into real-life problems, strengths and weaknesses as they occur in the practice of teaching and learning German. By linking the experience at the micro-level with the socio-political developments at the macro-level, this research attempts to propose a number of suggestions, which could potentially contribute to the optimisation and enhancement of the teaching and learning of German in the context of British German Studies. This will be discussed against the background of methodological and didactical conceptualisations proposed in the field of GFL (chapter 1). The purpose of this research is not to establish a new concept or approach, but to provide implications which are based on theorised practice (Edge & Richards 1998) and in the sense of Kramsch's pedagogy of "des regional Geeigneten", tailored to local problems and challenges.

This research follows a case study tradition and combines both qualitative and quantitative research methods (Yin 1994). The case here is a group of first year students and lecturers in one department of German Studies. Insights obtained from an investigation into one case cannot be generalised and certainly not in the experimental sense. However, the purpose of case study research is not to provide universal generalisations. It is not a hypothesis- or theory-testing endeavour. Its purpose is to provide an in-depth understanding of real-life contexts and to identify critical issues from the perspective of existing people and situations (ibid.). Besides, while every case is unique, it also shares numerous commonalities with similar cases and the analysis of the macro-context will illustrate this. Thus, problems encountered in one department of German Studies may resonate with the experience of people involved in German Studies or modern languages in general. This is where the importance of case study research lies, namely in the resonance it has with readers (Stake 2000). In so doing, this thesis hopes to resonate with the experience of *Germanists*, educationalists and

linguists and to stimulate dialogue about the future of German Studies and language teaching.

This thesis is organised in the following way: Chapter 1 will discuss the main concepts of teaching and learning German, which have been established in the field of GFL. Its aim is to map the main threads of development and to critically evaluate the opportunities and limitations of the new concepts for teaching and learning German as a foreign language, namely outside the German-speaking countries. Chapter 2 will present the research design to include data sources and procedures employed to investigate the macro- and micro-context. Chapter 3 will provide an analysis of recent socio-political developments that have affected the teaching and learning of the German language at undergraduate level in the UK, namely within German Studies. As the situation at undergraduate level is largely a continuation of trends in secondary schools, developments in the secondary sector, particularly at 'A' level, will be discussed. Subsequently, a survey of curricula, teaching and research priorities will provide an insight into the position of German within British universities and demonstrate teaching and research profiles of German Studies. This part aims to examine to what extent the prevalent profiles respond to problems, which have emerged in German Studies and what challenges still need to be addressed. The subsequent parts, namely chapter 4, 5 & 6, focus on the micro-context and constitute the actual case study. Chapter 4, which is the first part of the case study, will present an example of a curriculum of German Studies and discuss it against the background of the macro-context presented in chapter 3 and the didactical conceptualisations discussed in chapter 1. Chapter 5 focuses on the learning dimension and presents findings obtained from questionnaires and interviews with first year students of German. It focuses on their previous learning experiences, exposure to the target language and culture, motivation, difficulties encountered at university and learning strategies. An analysis of grammar tests and students' writing provides insights into their initial language competency. In so doing, this section attempts to demonstrate students' strengths and weaknesses and discuss some teaching suggestions, which could help improve less developed skills and competencies whilst exploiting their strengths. Chapter 6 focuses on the other side of the language classroom, namely the teaching dimension. It discusses problems as encountered by a group of lecturers of German Studies. It also aims to elicit teaching strategies, which have

proved to be successful in this learning context. Chapter 7 will summarise results obtained from the analysis of the macro- and micro-context and discuss some implications, which could potentially contribute to the optimisation and enhancement of teaching and learning German in British Higher Education.

1 Theoretical Context

The starting point for any research is the need to position it within the discipline. Since the discipline in which this research project is anchored, namely German as a Foreign Language (GFL) has not received much academic recognition in the UK, it is imperative to outline the premises of GFL and to highlight its increasing relevance to German Studies abroad (= *Auslandsgermanistik*). I will begin by demonstrating the key principles underlying GFL. I will then define what *Auslandsgermanistik* is and the areas and responsibilities associated with it. I will clarify the role of GFL within German Studies abroad and attempt to demonstrate why it should be given more attention in research. The second part of this chapter will provide a critical overview of the main teaching and learning concepts which have emerged to date in the field of GFL. I will focus in particular on the most recent conceptualisations, which resulted in heated debate about constructivism and instructivism. Finally, I will demonstrate a framework for a theoretical approach, which guided this research project at the macro- and micro-level.

1.1 German as a Foreign Language and its role in *Auslandsgermanistik*

For centuries, the German language has been taught and learned outside German speaking countries in various contexts, for different reasons and using different methods. In the second half of the 19th century and until 1914, German established itself alongside French as one of the leading world languages. Accordingly, German was introduced into school curricula, and Chairs of German came into being at universities in the major European countries and beyond (Ammon 2001b). The political events, which resulted in the two World Wars, and the domination of English as a *lingua franca* have impeded the development of GFL. Nevertheless, German still continues to be an important language, learned

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worldwide in 101 countries. It occupies a particularly eminent position in schools and universities in Central and Eastern Europe (Neuner 2004, Ammon 2001a)[2].

Despite the long tradition of teaching German, GFL as an independent academic discipline is a relatively new field. The first chair was established in 1968 at the University of Leipzig as part of the Herder Institute with Professor Gerhard Helbig as its first holder[3]. However, it would convey the wrong impression to suggest that there was no research interest in the processes involved in the learning and teaching of German before that time. Prompted by advances in Linguistics and Psychology in the second half of the 20th century, a number of scholars, predominantly American and British linguists, turned their attention to the question of how to better foster the process of FL-learning. The quest for the best method started to occupy a central position in research and had a considerable impact on the development of GFL (Henrici 2001). The establishment of the first Chairs of GFL in both East and West Germany in the 1970s gave the discipline fresh impetus and, throughout the 1980s, the field of GFL grew into a large and active discipline with numerous research strands (Helbig et al. 2001). It has produced such a breadth of research in recent decades that to provide an overview here is not possible[4]. The general aim of the discipline is to examine and enhance the theory and practice of teaching and learning German as a foreign language (ibid.) This embraces four areas:

1) The linguistic orientation – *linguistische Ausrichtung* – which focuses on the analysis of German language and the use of linguistic models for teaching and learning purposes (Neuner 1997). Therefore, linguistics and its sub-fields is the main cognate discipline.

2) The didactical orientation – *lehr- und lernwissenschaftliche Ausrichtung* – is primarily concerned with empirical investigations into the processes of teaching and learning GFL. It focuses on the historical, social, cultural, political, institutional and individual conditions of teaching and learning GFL, and on the development of teaching methods, strategies and materials. It also involves aspects of the training of GFL-teachers. This orientation draws

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[2] It is estimated that nearly two thirds of all learners of German as a Foreign Language come from Eastern and Central Europe (Neuner 2004).

[3] See the history of the Herder Institute at: http://www.uni-leipzig.de/herder/ [accessed 26 June 2006].

[4] See Helbig, Götze, Henrici & Krumm (2001).

particularly on theories and research methods employed in Psychology, General Didactics, Pedagogy and Applied Linguistics.

3) The cultural orientation – *landeskundlich-kulturwissenschaftliche Ausrichtung* – is interested in the theory and practice of teaching socio-cultural aspects of German-speaking countries. It principally embraces descriptions of German-speaking cultural contexts and their representations in GFL curricula and textbooks. This orientation draws on theories established in the fields of Cultural Studies and Anthropology, among others.

4) The literary dimension – *literaturwissenschaftliche Ausrichtung* – which focuses specifically on German Literature, its teaching and reception outside the German-speaking countries. It is underpinned by theories of Literary Criticism and Cultural Studies.

Results obtained from research into these areas should provide implications for the optimisation of teaching and learning German as a foreign language. These distinctions are certainly helpful in providing a systematic overview of the main research interests in the field of GFL. However, practically and theoretically, there are many overlaps and it is difficult to draw clear boundaries between these dimensions. Moreover, which dimension represents the heart of the discipline was and still continues to be a matter of intense debate. In the 1970s, although Linguistics, and Contrastive Linguistics in particular, was seen as the focal point of the new discipline (Weinrich 1980), in the late 1980s, culture and literature were more strongly emphasised (Wierlacher 1987). In the late 1990s, there were voices arguing that the didactical orientation and the process of teaching and learning should be given primacy (Neuner 1997). This was counteracted with the now famous saying by Glück (1998: 8): "zurück zur Sprache". As can be seen, it is difficult to arrive at a consensus as to what constitutes the core of this young discipline. However, given that the primary goal of the discipline is to enhance the teaching and learning of German as a foreign language and help learners to acquire a high level of language competence and on this basis learn more about German-speaking countries, it is arguably right to assume that the German language and the process of learning and teaching it should constitute the core (ibid.).

A final issue which deserves special consideration is the distinction between GFL and German as a Second Language (GSL, = Deutsch als Zweitsprache). In

the literature, GFL is regarded as an umbrella term for both areas and both terms are used interchangeably. However, GSL and GFL are fundamentally different, as they imply different socio-cultural conditions and learning and teaching contexts. In terms of the socio-cultural context, GSL is learned and taught in the target country, namely a German-speaking community. As a result, GSL-learners are constantly surrounded and exposed to authentic language input. They can immerse themselves in German and absorb large quantities of linguistic data incidentally and naturally through contact with native speakers (Edmondson & House 1993). Moreover, GSL-learners form culturally heterogeneous groups, predominantly consisting of members of ethnic minorities (Baur 2001). In contrast to GSL, the learning of German takes place principally in a formal learning context outside German-speaking communities. It is, therefore, marked by a "sociolinguistic poverty" (Hammerly 1991: 7). Exposure to the target language is rather limited[5]. The target language is not used for ordinary communication, nor is it a social determinant – GFL learners do not have to learn the language in order to integrate into the community and gain access to its institutions. They do so by choice or by compulsion, when German is part of the compulsory school curriculum. Moreover, GFL-learners learn predominantly in homogeneous classes, in which they share the same L1 and have, in most cases, the same cultural background. Table 1 summarises the main differences between GFL and GSL. There are, however, a number of hybrid forms such as tutored GSL or informal GFL (Rösler 1994). Statistical data indicates that a significant number of learners learn German in the conditions as described in the left-hand column, namely as a foreign language. According to Ammon (2001a), in 1993/1994, there were 15 179289 learners of GFL in schools and 91 533 at universities[6] outside of German-speaking countries. Neuner (2004) estimates the number to be between 15 and 20 million. This number, arguably, cannot be ignored. However, as will be seen in

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[5] The recent spread of new communication technology has increased the exposure to the target language and culture. Internet-based resources and multimedia offer new linguistic and pedagogical opportunities (Rüschoff & Wolff 1999). However, it should be stressed that the spread of new technologies takes place predominantly in the developed countries. Access to computers and the Internet cannot be taken for granted everywhere in the world. Besides, there is still a need for more empirical research into the effectiveness of new technology on foreign language learning and how the various forms of technology enhanced language learning (TELL) facilitate foreign language learners (Stepp-Greany 2002).
[6] This number of students of *Germanistik* abroad was estimated in 1985 (Ammon 2001a).

the second part of chapter 1, the diversity of conditions and the differences between GSL and GFL were often not accounted for.

Table 1: Differences between GFL and GSL

GFL	GSL
• Learning • Tutored, formal • Explicit instruction • Limited time available for learning • Limited exposure to the target language and culture • Strongly determined by personal motivation, language policy, curricula requirements, exams • Culturally homogenous groups	• Acquisition • Untutored, informal • Incidental learning • Ample time available for learning • Ample exposure to the target language and culture • Strongly determined by social and communicative purposes (survival and integration into the new community) • Culturally heterogeneous groups

To avoid terminological confusion, the term second language (SL) in this research will denote language or languages acquired later than the mother tongue in the target country. Mother tongue will refer to the first language acquired and will be abbreviated to L1. Language or languages learned later than L1 in one's country of origin in a formal educational setting will be abbreviated to FL and the educational context in which a FL is acquired will be referred to as foreign language education (FLE). GFL is a part of the field of FLE.

The academic discipline of GFL and its main research interests have now been established. Since this research project is specifically concerned with the practice of learning and teaching German within German Studies abroad, it is necessary to establish what constitutes *Germanistik* abroad and what its main responsibilities and activities are. Furthermore, the function of GFL within *Germanistik* abroad will be described.

1.1.1 *Germanistik* abroad[7] and GFL

The term *Germanistik* abroad embraces departments and institutes at tertiary educational level that are principally dedicated to the promotion of the German language and culture outside German-speaking countries, and which pursue this

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[7] This part focuses predominantly on *Germanistik* in European and Anglo-American contexts.

aim in research and teaching. For decades, this area was referred to as *Auslandsgermanistik* and was contrasted with *Inlandsgermanistik*, namely *Germanistik* in the German-speaking countries. The latter was regarded as the mother-discipline and the model to follow, while the former was considered to be a replica, often seen as a "kulturelle Missionsstation" or "Volkstumskonsulat" (Schöne 1985, quoted in Wazel 1990: 378). In terms of research and teaching, the focus was predominantly on Literary Studies and Historical Linguistics[8]. The end product of *Auslandsgermanistik* was a graduate with knowledge of "what the 'finest minds' have thought and said in the canonic literature of the culture in question" (Sandford 1998: 36), destined for a career as a secondary school teacher of German. It was not until the 1970s that changes occurred. Initiated by the French *Germanist* Pierre Bertaux, the issue of whether *Auslandsgermanistik* should further reproduce the content and methods of German *Germanistik* became the subject of heated debate. It is not surprising to see that this issue was debated in Western countries in particular, where due to economic pressures and the loss of prestige of the teaching profession, *Germanistik*, along with other humanistic disciplines, was criticised as being irrelevant to modern-day society (Altmayer 2001). Therefore, if *Auslandsgermanistik* wanted to preserve its academic legacy, it had to respond more directly to social and economic challenges. Consequently, its profile was modified. The importance of literature was significantly reduced and a range of subjects from the fields of cultural and social studies, with a greater focus on the events of the 20th century, was included instead. The concept of interdisciplinary German Studies was born. Conversely, in the former Eastern bloc, *Germanistik* continued to follow the traditional philological model with the aim of educating future teachers of German. In recent times, following the fall of the iron curtain, a tendency towards a culture-focused approach has emerged (Grucza 2001).

Therefore, from having been quite homogenous, *Germanistik* abroad underwent a process of stratification, which was largely determined by socio-cultural, political and economic challenges. It has emerged as a regional, autonomous discipline, heavily influenced by the academic profiles of individual departments, teaching and learning traditions, the position of German in school

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[8] Ehlich (1994) argues that in terms of research, literature has always led the way.

curricula, attitudes towards the German language and culture, proximity to German-speaking communities and the intensity of commercial and cultural exchanges, and other factors (Hinkel 2001). It can be seen that the traditional division between *Inlands-* and *Auslandsgermanistik* with the implication that the former is the superior model to be exported to the latter – the "periphery" – generated fierce criticism (cf. Wazel 1990) and is still a matter of intense debate (Sitta 2004). There seems to be a consensus that *Inlandsgermanistik* as a uniform paradigm for all *Germanistiken* abroad is inadequate, as it does not account for the different linguistic and cultural conditions or the diversity of teaching and research practices in German departments outside the German-speaking countries. *Inlandsgermanistik* is predominately a monolingual discipline, which takes a good understanding of German-speaking culture and native skills in German for granted. Its main task is, as Bertaux (1975: 1) remarks: "eine in ihren Grundzügen schon vorgegebene Kultur zu perfektionieren, sie zu reinigen, zu verfeinern und zu entwickeln." In contrast, *Germanistik* abroad is always positioned between two cultures, two languages and increasingly between more languages, as is the case in large metropolises (Fandrych 2006). It is, by its very nature, contrastive and interdisciplinary. One of the main tasks of *Germanistik* is to provide students with the necessary language skills, which in turn grant a more profound access to the culture in question (cf. Grucza 1997). This does not suggest that the activities of *Germanistik* abroad should merely be reduced to language teaching – *Spracharbeit*. The teaching of cultural, political and social aspects of German-speaking environments is an important part of the curriculum abroad. However, *Auslandsgermanistik* is embedded in a foreign context, which implies a stronger link with GFL. Its main recipients are students who learn German as a foreign language. Dimova (1993) observes, that aspects of learning and teaching German are only rarely addressed within the *Auslandsgermanistik*. She argues that there is a widespread view that an *Auslandsgermanist* who wants to establish a good reputation should not spoil his or her research activities by addressing issues of *Fachdidaktik*. In other words, an *Auslandsgermanist* who wants to make him or herself known has to behave like a native *Germanist,* and hence has to examine German Literature and Linguistics, which are seen as the primary subject matter (Neuner 1997). As a result, language teaching and Applied Linguistics are marginalised. This is becoming a disadvantage, particularly in those countries

where, due to the declining number of students and cuts in the humanities, and the UK is an example par excellence, universities are increasingly forced to accept students with a low initial level of language competence (Rösler 2001)[9]. The language skills which emerge from departments of German are consequently sometimes unsatisfactory (Coleman 1996). However, with a few exceptions, the areas of teaching and learning GFL and related applied language studies have not yet gained the recognition they deserve in departments of German abroad.

The first part of chapter 1 attempted to draw attention to the principles underlying two disciplines, which this research project is going to bridge: the field of GFL and *Germanistik* abroad. The preliminary overview of the developments within *Germanistik* and the responsibilities associated with it should by now show that the discipline is stratified not least because of diverse regional, linguistic, educational, social and cultural conditions, of which the most crucial is its embeddedness in the context of GFL. For this reason, *Germanistik* abroad cannot be regarded as a reproduction of German *Germanistik*. It is also necessary to establish that one of the main aims of *Germanistik* abroad is the education of linguistically proficient users of German. This indicates the necessity to link the discipline with the field of GFL, which is concerned with investigations of the theory and practice of GFL per se. A stronger emphasis on GFL could contribute in many ways to the professionalisation of language (and culture) teaching, from which students, lecturers and the whole discipline of *Auslandsgermanistik* could benefit (see figure 1):

Figure 1: GFL in *Auslandsgermanistik*

GFL	**Auslandsgermanistik**
Theories/ concepts of teaching and learning German as a foreign language; the development of didactical strategies and teaching materials	Education of linguistically competent users of German as a foreign language, knowledgeable about cultural aspects of German-speaking countries **Research** into teaching and learning problems, challenges

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[9] The situation in England will be presented in chapter 3. The developments in the USA were discussed by James & Tschirner (2001) and the situation in Australia by Truckenbrodt & Kretzenbacher (2001).

1.2 Methods and approaches to teaching and learning GFL – a critical overview

For decades, the main concern of FLE, and GFL as a part of it, had been the search for the best universal method which would serve as a panacea against all linguistic problems and consequently enable learners to become proficient users of German. The last century in particular has witnessed a rise of teaching and learning concepts that claimed to be better than their predecessors. Unfortunately, many of them did not prove to be as effective as claimed by their inventors, and soon after their introduction there were questioned, modified or completely abandoned, while preceding concepts were re-established. As a result, GFL was confronted by shifts that were not necessarily marked by linear progression but rather by cyclical movements. Such a development was not only characteristic of GFL but for the whole field of FLE. The monumental work on the history of language teaching by Kelly (1969), which goes back to Ancient Greece, provided evidence for this state of affairs: "Old approaches return, but as their social and intellectual contexts are changed, they seem entirely new (...) one has the impression of constant improvement when what is really happening is a constant updating" (ibid.: 369). If the development of teaching and learning concepts is examined closely, one cannot help noticing how much these are embedded in discourses prevalent in society, culture and education (Rowlinson 1994). Above all, they are significantly shaped by developments in cognate disciplines, predominantly in Linguistics, Psychology and the relatively new field of SLA. More recently, philosophy has been brought to the fore, as the debate about constructivism versus instructivism demonstrates.

The following sections will critically examine the methods and approaches that have been discussed in the field of GFL. This overview considers only those methods and approaches that had a major influence on curricula for teaching and learning GFL in educational establishments. It therefore excludes alternative methods such as Suggestoppedia, Total Physical Response and the Silent Way (Dietrich 1995). It attempts to bring into focus current debates, which culminated in the dichotomy between instructivism and constructivism. In doing so, it endeavours to present to *Germanists* and teachers of GFL an up-to-date picture of the current position of the GFL-field. Before focussing on concrete approaches

and methods, it is necessary to achieve clarity concerning some of the underlying terms which have been established and which have influenced the discourse of the field of GFL. These are didactics, method and methodics.

1.2.1 Didactics, approaches, methods, methodics – terminological clarifications

The notion of a teaching method is probably the most controversial in FLE education. The word "method" is derived from the Greek "methodos" and means a way that leads to a particular aim (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). In terms of teaching and learning FLs, a method was understood to be a 'package' of teaching procedures, or as Anthony (1963: 63) initially defined it "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language materials". A method was thought to be universal, namely applicable to all teaching and learning contexts. Moreover, some new methods which appeared in the second half of the 20th century claimed pedagogic success on the bases of their believed scientific rationality and soundness. Unfortunately, research projects which attempted to prove superiority of certain methods failed to produce sufficient evidence[10]. Thus, it should not be surprising to see that the notion of 'best method' fell slowly into disrepute. Besides, the post-modern thinking, which utterly rejected belief in the progressive, rational accumulation of knowledge and absolute truth, fuelled negativity towards the concept of a method. Suddenly, method was associated with authoritarian education and was regarded as pedagogical dogmatism or as a political instrument supporting cultural hegemony of the Anglo-American countries (Schwerdtfeger 1996, Holliday 1994, Pennycook 1989). These ideas were predominantly discussed by the theorisers and practitioners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) but were also echoed in the field of GFL. Despite the mistrust surrounding teaching methods, the concept of methods were never fully abolished in both GFL and EFL(Klippel 2004, Henrici 2001, Larsen-Freeman 2000, Richards & Rodgers 1986). In fact, scholars in both fields stressed its usefulness particularly as a tool

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[10] In the 1960s and 1970s, there were a few large-scale research projects which aimed to demonstrate the superiority of certain methods, such as the audio-lingual approach. The most famous were the Colorado Project carried out by Scherer & Wertheimer (1964) and the Pennsylvania Project conducted by Smith (1970). Both did not produce conclusive evidence to support the supremacy of the audio-lingual approach, which was at that time enthusiastically received. In fact, it rather "provided a sobering check on some of the claims [...] that innovators and advocators of different method have been prone to make" (Stern 1983: 492).

for reflection or a point of reference for novice teachers (Henrici 2001, Larsen-Freeman 2000). However, in terms of definition, there are different conceptualisations in both fields of what constitutes a teaching method. In EFL, Anthony (1963) suggests a hierarchical model, which positions method between approach and technique. Approach comprises theoretical assumptions about the nature of FL-learning and FL-teaching, while technique is a teaching procedure applied in the classroom. In this framework, method is understood as a concept involving decision-making with regards to selection and gradation of contents and goals of FL-learning. Anthony's model was revised by Richards & Rodgers (1982), who conceptualised method as an umbrella term comprising three interrelated elements: approach, design and procedure. These elements correspond to the three elements in Anthony's model, but method is understood here in a broader sense. It is not limited to the selection and progression of contents and goals. It involves theories of FL-learning and teaching as well as classroom practices, which are consequences of particular approaches and designs.

In GFL, two terms *Fremdsprachenmethodik* und *Fremdsprachendidaktik* have been frequently used in relation to teaching methods but at times there was confusion as to how both terms differ from each other (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993, Christ & Hüllen 1995). Vielau (1985) for example understands *Fremdsprachendidaktik* as a discipline concerned with theories and ideologies of FL-learning and teaching, while *Fremdsprachenmethodik* is, in his view, a plan for action (= Handlungskonzept) in the classroom. As described, *Fremdsprachendidaktik* comes closer to the concept of approach proposed by Anthony (1963), while *Fremdsprachenmethodik* corresponds with the level of decision making. Christ & Hüllen (1995) understand *Fremdsprachendidaktik* in a broader sense as a discipline concerned with learning and teaching of FLs in institutional contexts including socio-political and cultural dimensions. Hence, they exclude all kinds of learning, which do not take place in institutions, for example self-taught courses. Neuner & Hunfeld (1993) propose a definition of *Fremdsprachenmethodik*, which includes procedures, forms and organisations on the level of the classroom. In their view, *Fremdsprachenmethodik* refers to "wie gelehrt wird" (= how to teach), while *Fremdsprachendidaktik*: "was gelehrt wird" (= what to teach) (ibid.: 14). However, given this definition, it is difficult to separate *Didaktik* from *Methodik*, as aspects of what to teach are inevitably related

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to how to teach. This problem emerged in German-speaking research literature, where both terms are often used interchangeably[11].

Currently, *Methodik* und *Methoden* appear in relation to established, 'classical' concepts such as the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) or Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), while other teaching approaches are referred to as *Didaktik*, for example *Kommunikative Didaktik* or as *Ansatz* (= approach) (cf. Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). The following sections will follow this terminological conceptualisation.

1.2.2 High arts versus utilitarianism: the grammar-translation method and its opponents

The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is probably the oldest documented method for teaching FLs. Its roots are to be found in the 17th century. However, it was not until the 19th century that GTM established itself as the dominant method. GTM was modelled on principles of teaching and learning classical languages and this was very much in line with the educational and social climate of the time. For centuries, Latin and Greek were the *terra firma* of intellectual activities, a licence for entrance to the world of academic scholarship (Rowlinson 1994). In contrast, modern foreign languages were perceived as a functional discipline and were not held in high esteem. When in the first half of the 19th century modern languages slowly began to enter schools and universities, the methods of teaching Latin and Greek were adopted by teachers of modern languages (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). Therefore, the emphasis was placed on grammar, which was described and categorised on the basis of the grammar of Latin. Spoken language was not considered. Learners were required to familiarise themselves with and learn by heart the grammatical rules and vocabulary of FL. In so doing, they were thought to be progressively developing their linguistic knowledge. This knowledge was then applied to reading exercises and translation of literary texts. The medium of instruction was the learner's L1, the typical teaching form was the teacher-centred classroom and textbooks were, arguably, of unquestionable authority. GTM placed heavy cognitive demands on learners through an intensive focus on form

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[11] It should be noted that the term *Fremdsprachendidaktik* was established in the 1970s in the Federal Republic of Germany, where it soon began to be widely used. In the German Democratic Republic, the term *Fremdsprachenmethodik* was predominantly applied (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993).

and on the translation of literary texts. With the rise of public education and the rapid development of transport and communication, GTM proved to be inadequate in meeting new demands and experienced harsh criticism. In particular, not teaching the spoken language was met with disapproval. As Thiergen (1903) ironically observed, students who were taught FLs according to GTM would starve in a foreign country if they did not use sign language. Suddenly, GTM was condemned for not preparing learners for the challenges of real-life communication. Towards the end of the 19th century, a movement which sought to reform teaching methods came into being. The impetus came from a pamphlet "Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren" published by Wilhelm Viëtor in 1882[12]. He promoted the teaching of spoken language and thorough pronunciation practice. Translation, explanations of grammatical rules and the use of L1 were eliminated. Such a method came to be known as the Direct Method (DM) or Natural Method (NM). This new method was based on the belief that FL-learning is similar to the way in which a child learns its first language, namely via observation, listening, building associations and imitations (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). Rather than literary texts, rhymes, songs and dialogues of everyday situations formed the basis of teaching. Writing and grammar were of less importance and were taught in an inductive way. At that time, DM was met with great enthusiasm and proved to be successful in private schools. The network of Berlitz Schools is probably the best-known institution which strictly adhered to DM and still continues to do so today In contrast, DM did not gain ground in state schools and universities (Henrici 2001). This was perhaps due to the fact that it did not comply with the academic requirements of the time. It also seemed to overwhelm teachers and students (Richards & Rodgers 1986). Therefore, enthusiasm waned and after a period of time many teachers returned to grammar and translation exercises. Nonetheless, DM marked an important stage in the history of teaching methodologies since it shifted the emphasis towards a more pragmatic approach geared towards the purpose of everyday communication. It also introduced a number of critics, who from that time onwards began to create a

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[12] It is interesting to note that in 1882 Wilhelm Viëtor took a position as a lecturer in German at University College in Liverpool. He wrote his famous pamphlet when in England. This piece was very much commended by Henry Sweet, who gave it its English title "Language teaching must start afresh" (Howatt 1982). However, it was not until 1984 that the text was translated into English by Howatt (1984).

great deal of tension and heated debate within the field of FLE. They were predominately concerned with the following issues: Should we teach grammar or not? Should we use L1 or not? Is learning FL a conscious or an incidental process? Are languages teachable? As can be seen in the next section, answers to these questions vary considerably, depending on the context of the time and theoretical underpinnings.

1.2.3 The move towards a science of teaching: the behaviourist-structuralist paradigm

The first half of the 20th century saw a number of groundbreaking theories that heavily influenced FLE. In particular, advances in Psychology – Behaviourism – and in Linguistics – Structuralism – contributed to the establishment of new teaching methods. The origin of Structuralism goes back to the work of the Junggrammatiker and Ferdinand de Saussure (Stern 1983). It was further developed in Europe by the Prague School and in North America, where it is related to studies on American Indians' languages conducted by Bloomfield (1933). Structuralism is grounded in the view that language is a formal system in its own right, based on structures, patterns and regularities, which are best observable in speech over a given period of time. The structuralists produced detailed descriptions of phonology, morphology, and syntax of different languages. Semantics and the social context of language use were rather omitted. Behaviourism was the second powerful theory that dominated FLE in the 1940s and 1950s. Its predecessor was the concept of classical conditioning, also known as the stimulus-response (S-R) model, developed by Ivan Pavlov and John B. Watson (Cherrington 2004). Burrhus F. Skinner applied this model to language learning and outlined his concept in to his most controversial book "Verbal behaviour" (Skinner 1957). He saw language as a form of observable, verbal behaviour triggered by incoming stimuli. Innate processes, namely what goes on in the human mind, were of no relevance since they could not be observed. Skinner (ibid.) arrived at the conclusion that learning a language was a process based on continuous imitation and repetition, positively reinforced by rewards.

In the sprit of the structuralist-behaviourist paradigm, a theory explaining the acquisition of languages other than L1, known as the Contrastive Hypothesis, was

proposed. Lado (1957) was the first linguist who assumed that differences between FL and L1 cause errors – interference – and similarities facilitate learning – positive transfer. This led him to conclude that a FL similar to L1 is easier to learn and that a comparison between FL and L1 – Contrastive Analysis – would enable linguists or teachers to identify differences and areas where errors or mistakes are likely to occur. By drawing special attention to these differences, learners would be able to avoid mistakes and to develop good language habits.

Structuralism, Behaviourism and the Contrastive Hypothesis had an enormous impact on methods of teaching FLs. They contributed to the development of the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), which was later modified to include visual elements and which became known as the Audio-Visual Method (AVM). A typical lesson conducted in line with ALM followed a strict, step-by-step order of activities: presentation of patterns, drilling exercises and then application of the learned patterns in new contexts (Henrici 2001). Great importance was placed on spoken language and thorough training in pronunciation. Grammar was taught in an inductive way and the use of L1 was approved if students had difficulties understanding new words and sentences (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). The new contribution of ALM to FLE was the introduction of technology into language classrooms. Tape recorders, films and most importantly the language laboratory were new and "revolutionary" devices. However, the experience with the language laboratory did not show much evidence for its effectiveness and it proved to be a rather costly failure (Rowlinson 1994).

The Audio-Visual Method (AVM) was another example of a method designed along the lines of Structuralism and Behaviourism. In contrast to ALM, AVM stressed the visual presentation of language items. A typical lesson in line with AVM would begin by demonstrating a single picture or a filmstrip. A dialogue would be simultaneously played using a tape recorder, which was thematically related to the visualised sequences. Subsequent activities included repetition, drilling and application, an example being role-play.

Both methods enjoyed great popularity in the 1950s and 1960s. However, they soon fell out of favour. The belief that any language can be learned solely by imitation and drilling was seriously questioned. It simply did not correspond to teachers' everyday classroom experience which was that students often do not learn the language patterns that they are taught, even if they repeat them again and

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again. Furthermore, the mechanical, robot-like routines based on the same activities – repetition and drilling of language patterns– did not allow for much creativity and caused boredom instead. This is why critics labelled ALM and AVM drill-and-kill methods (Mitschian 2000). Methods based on the structuralist-behaviourist paradigm did not consider learners' motivation, needs, abilities and emotions. Learners were not asked to analyse linguistic structures and to engage in meaningful negotiations. They had to strictly follow the teacher and textbook, and imitate what the book or teacher said. Moreover, in the spirit of emancipatory pedagogy, which saw the process of education as liberation and a reduction of inequalities, the authoritarian teacher-centred approaches were condemned as being manipulation and brainwashing (Pring 1984). Receiving criticism from all possible angles, ALM was completely abandoned by the mid 1970s.

However, in more recent times a slight resurrection of the structuralist-behaviourist paradigm has been observed. While no one would, arguably, wish for a full return to the ALM method, a number of scholars stress that appropriate learning conditions, progressively structured materials and instruction can greatly facilitate the learning process (Mitschian 2000, Long & Robinson 1998). In addition, the identification of errors and mistakes can also greatly foster learning and, in fact, correction has never disappeared from language classrooms (Kleppin 1998). It is difficult to imagine how learners would be able to acquire a FL correctly and adequately without instruction and without being corrected or at least being made aware of potential mistakes or errors (Hammerly 1991). In the context of bilingual and second language education, Pavlenko (2002: 290) demonstrates that the process of learning is a process of internalisation and appropriation of others' voices for the speaker's own purposes. Learners are creative in a linguistic sense, but they also imitate a large amount of linguistic data, mostly the voices of people that they are close to.

Behaviourism in its pure form is, however, no longer accepted as a theoretical foundation for FL-learning. It failed because it attempted to create a universal theory of learning. In a genuinely scientific mode, it presumed that procedure A (input) would ultimately lead to result B (output). While such a principle works well with machines, daily experience provides enough evidence to confirm that it is of limited assistance in human learning. Teaching FLs vividly illustrates that even if students are exposed to the same teaching method and content, and repeat

learned structures, they do not produce the same output. In fact, competencies in FL vary considerably between individuals, who create their own version of the FL with their own rules and patterns (Apeltauer 1997). The linguistic output which learners produce is dynamic, variable and only partially determined by the external influences. In fact, it presents a mixture of L1- and FL-elements. More importantly, it also contains forms which exist neither in L1 nor in the target language (ibid.). These are learners' own constructions determined by mental, not observable operations. This assumption was a result of studies on Interlanguge (= Interimsprache), initiated by Selinker (1972) and was the starting point for a new movement, which is sometimes referred to as the cognitive turn.

1.2.4 Universal masterminds: the cognitive revolution

In the 1960s, the mind and mental processes were new areas which stimulated research interest in Linguistics and Psychology. The impetus came from a theory introduced by Noam Chomsky (1959), which questioned the foundations of the structuralist-behaviourist paradigm and its methodology, particularly that proposed by Skinner (1957). Observing that humans can always learn a language, even with limited input, Chomsky believed that imitation and reinforcement were indeed restricted acquisition mechanisms. Chomsky (ibid.) concluded that there must be an inborn linguistic property inherent in the human mind, which he called the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). According to Chomsky, LAD consists of innate linguistic knowledge based on principles and parameters – Universal Grammar (UG), which are unconscious and tacit (Hüllen 2004). The task of the linguist was to uncover these tacit mechanisms. Chomsky also claimed that a child learns his or her L1 step-by-step, by gradually breaking the code of the UG and that there is a strict order of acquisition: some aspects can only be acquired when the preceding stages have been accomplished.

The claim for universality and a natural route of language acquisition triggered considerable interest among researchers concerned with SLA. Many presumed that any SL might be acquired in exactly the same manner as suggested by Chomsky for L1, innately but in a strict order (Dulay & Burt 1973). This came to be known as the Identity Hypothesis L1 = L2. A range of morpheme-order studies provided evidence that the output produced by SL-learners consists of errors,

which cannot be explained by transfer and interference (cf. Edmondson & House 1993). They are learners' individual manipulations referred to as creative constructions. In addition, some research projects confirmed that learners of various L1s go through similar stages in grammatical development when they acquire a SL. Moreover, it was claimed that an explicit focus on form, namely grammar teaching and grammatical progression, does not change the order of acquisition and it may even impede the learning process (Pienemann 1989).

From the beginning of the 1960s, Psychology also began to pay more attention to innate, cognitive processes and particularly to the ways in which the human mind gathers, stores and retrieves information. Theoretically and methodologically, the new research strand was underpinned by concepts that emerged in fields such as computer science and artificial intelligence (Mitschian 2000). Cognitive psychologists saw the human mind as an information processing system and were predominantly concerned with the question of how to make this system more efficient. Variables such as attention, memory and intelligence were particular research interests. This new wave soon entered FLE, which after years of unsuccessful drill-kill methods increasingly sought to find a new theoretical paradigm. Some of the research findings produced a number of implications for learning FLs (Williams & Burden 1997, Mitschian 2000). Research on short-term and long-term memory contributed to the development of mnemonic techniques to support vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, the enthusiasm about certain inborn abilities led many to believe that there must be a special innate disposition to learning FL, a kind of language intelligence. The term aptitude was coined and was understood to be this special ability which was regarded as the most accurate means of predicting success in FL-learning. Aptitude was measured by tests, which included tasks on phonetic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity and an ability to identify language patterns inductively (Ellis 1985). While a number of studies provided evidence of a strong correlation between FL-success and language aptitude, doubts were voiced as to whether this isolated variable was sufficient and adequate in predicting learning success (Byram 2004). Finally, the concept of intelligence, on which aptitude tests were conceptually based, received harsh criticism as it led to discriminatory findings. In short, if a person was unsuccessful, it was because they did not have aptitude, in this case an aptitude for language. The fact that the social and cultural environment and pedagogical

actions could have either destructive or enhancing effects on the learning process was regarded as less important.

The wave of cognitivism and universalism soon inspired FLE and led to two new but different approaches. The first one came to be known as Cognitive Code Learning (CCL) or the Cognitive Method (Henrici 2001). In contrast to ALM, CCL promoted an active, problem-solving approach to FL-learning. Rule-seeking and not rule-memorising was its underlying premise. Lessons conducted in line with CCL progressively introduced new language items and grammar rules. Learners were encouraged to identify grammatical patterns and to classify and apply them in different contexts. Since it was crucial to comprehend rules, CCL abolished the principle of monolingualism and the use of L1 was permitted and even encouraged. Errors were seen not as bad habits but as part of building and testing hypotheses concerning linguistic rules and patterns.

The second approach that emerged from the cognitive turn was the Natural Approach (NA), developed by Krashen (1988). Influenced by morpheme-order studies, he ambitiously endeavoured to develop a meta-theory, which would account for all the phenomena associated with second language learning and teaching. He drew the now famous distinction between language learning and language acquisition. The former was understood as a process of conscious, instructed learning, which according to Krashen (1988) did little to benefit overall proficiency and acted only as a monitor (Brumfit 2004a). In contrast, the latter was defined as unconscious, incidental learning via meaningful communication in the target language, which in turn facilitated the achievement of high proficiency. Krashen (1988) even suggested that grammar teaching, error correction and the use of learners' L1 can hamper the natural route of acquisition and should be excluded altogether from teaching practice. Instead, there should be gradual exposure to comprehensible input. By this, Krashen (ibid.) meant that meaningful and understandable language which is just beyond the learner's level can best facilitate acquisition. The emphasis was on meaning-focused tasks and it was hoped that grammar and accuracy would emerge naturally and incidentally.

Both approaches created great interest among language theorists and practitioners but, at the same time, criticism. Cognitive Code Learning was condemned as being a mere replica of the unpopular GTM. Moreover, critics highlighted that it was based on mentalist theory, which was seen as inadequate in

providing implications for teaching (Meara 2004, Hammerly 1991). The Natural Approach received criticism as there was insufficient empirical evidence to support the claim that FLs are acquired in a natural order. The distinction between learning and acquisition proved to be too vague and untenable. Finally, NA presupposed that comprehensible input is enough to achieve fluency in FL. While this may be true for learners who are constantly exposed to FL, it is limited in terms of institutional learning outside the German-speaking countries. Certainly, exposure to language input is vital, however, there are other factors that need to be considered such as institutional constraints of time and place, local learning conditions and social background. Research on the effectiveness of French immersion programmes, which were designed in line with Krashen's theory (Krashen 1988), did not provide conclusive evidence to support his claims In fact, it demonstrated that instruction based exclusively on meaning-focused tasks led to fossilizations (Hammerly 1991). Although students developed a reasonable degree of fluency, their overall proficiency was deficient (ibid.). Students seemed to have particular difficulties in two areas: grammatical accuracy and precise vocabulary use (Swain 1996). This led the evaluators of the immersion programmes to acknowledge the importance of grammar instructions, while simultaneously stressing that grammar teaching can lead to good results, only if embedded in meaningful contexts (ibid.). That explicit instruction is of benefit has been confirmed by a meta-analysis carried out by Norris & Ortega (2000), which summarises findings from over forty studies concerned with explicit versus incidental learning. Recent research projects also demonstrate that explicit instruction does result in greater proficiency, particularly when it is linked with meaning-based, communicative activities (Klapper & Rees 2003, Lightbown and Spada 1993).

In short, the initial enthusiasm about mind and cognition created considerable interest in FLE and directed attention to new problems previously not considered. It certainly triggered theoretical reflections on the ways human minds process languages. At the same time, much of this enthusiasm stemmed from observable limitations of the behaviorist-structuralist paradigm. However, whether the cognitive turn constituted a positive alternative remains doubtful. Firstly, linguistic universalism was not a paradigm that would add much significance to teaching. Chomsky himself emphasised that he never considered his theories to be

relevant to foreign language teaching (Meara 2004). The models of learning provided by cognitive psychologists also seem to be rather detached from authentic learning and teaching conditions. Cognitivists obtained their results from experimental studies, which focused on one or two variables. Evidently, this could not account for the diversity of factors shaping real learning conditions. Cognitivism only explained one factor – mental processes. It did so in accordance with scientific methods, which claim to demonstrate objectivity and truth. However, the experience of every classroom provides evidence that many phenomena cannot be explained in a strict scientific sense. They are simply beyond experimental control. The cognitivists did not take into account the fact that learning a FL is determined not only by mental processes but also by social and cultural factors, as research in Sociolinguistics demonstrates (cf. Lantolf 2000, Pavlenko 2002). The learner's social status, race, gender, class, access to linguistic resources and institutional practices are all social factors having an enormous, not to say decisive, impact on people's motivation and attitudes towards FLs and consequently on their learning progress. The cognitivist turn has created a powerful discourse of independence and individuality, of the self-made successful learner. It has had an immense impact on FLE, particularly on the constructivist didactics, which creates quite a furore these days. However, as will be discussed in 1.2.7, many of the ideas are impossible to implement in educational settings and are in fact, would-be visions.

1.2.5 Communication is everything: the pragmatic turn

The birth of the communicative approach came about at a time when a number of intellectual impulses as well as political and social changes began to reshape the profile of FLE in both Europe and in North America. Western societies became more affluent and gradually more people were able to travel abroad and experience foreign cultures and languages. In Europe, this was intensified by the establishment of the Common Market. In a growing economic cooperation between European countries, FLs were increasingly perceived as important tools in many branches of industry and services. The need to educate professional users of FLs and enable them to communicate with their foreign business partners was greater than ever before (Wegner 1999). All this had a profound impact on

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language education. It was soon realised that the methods cultivated in schools, predominantly GTM and ALM, were unsuitable in catering for the needs and objectives of new learners. At the beginning of the 1970s, new ideas began to enter language classrooms which came to be known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Savignon 2004) or in the German-speaking context as Communicative Didactics (Henrici 2001). In terms of linguistic underpinnings, the new approach was heavily influenced by a number of concepts that emerged almost simultaneously in North America and Western Europe and which, broadly speaking, considered language not as a system of rules but as a form of social behaviour. The impetus came directly from criticism of Chomsky's theory, voiced by Hymes (1971), who questioned the distinction between performance and competence. He argued that competence consists not only of grammatical rules but also rules of appropriateness, which are acquired during the process of socialisation. He described the ability to use a language correctly and appropriately as Communicative Competence. Also of relevance to CCL was the concept of speech act theory inspired by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), which soon formed the basis of a new linguistic theory referred to as Pragmatics or Pragmalinguistics (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). British linguistic tradition, particularly neo-Firthian Functional Linguistics, had a crucial impact on the formation of the communicative approach (Savignon 2004). There was also a strong impetus coming from humanistic approaches to education, which increasingly stressed the needs of individual learners (Williams & Burden 1997).

The new social and educational climate and the linguistic shift to a more functional-pragmatic outlook were crucial factors in the development of CLT. For the context of GFL, a range of new communicative textbooks appeared on the market. The new materials gave priority to the spoken language. They were largely structured around dialogues and were based on vocabulary used in everyday situations, for example shopping, family life and making enquiries at a railway station. The language samples presented were more authentic than the dialogues of ALM as they included features which appear in typical German conversations such as modal particles, elliptical structures, interjections and apocope (Günthner 2000). Emphasis was placed on the roles which interlocutors had to play in diverse situative contexts and on the lexical means which would help them to express their intentions. Communicative teaching materials followed

a thematic progression normally starting from basic conversations related to personal features or experiences and slowly moving on to more complex situations. Grammatical progression was secondary and was geared towards communicative purposes. In short, only those grammatical phenomena which were necessary for performing particular speech acts were introduced. As a result, grammatical structures which do not frequently occur in daily conversations, such as *Passiv*, *Plusquamperfekt* and *Konjunktiv*, were omitted (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). Moreover, the use of the learner's L1 was reduced to a minimum and errors were, as in the case of the Natural Approach, not highlighted. Since CLT focused on communication, traditional teacher-centred lessons were replaced by forms which fostered greater interaction such as group and pair-work or role-play scenarios. In so doing, it was hoped that learners would develop communicative competence, which meant the ability to understand language as spoken by native speakers and to act appropriately in a variety of real-life situations (Henrici 2001).

Compared with the preceding concepts, CLT is indeed innovative. Nevertheless, a number of studies investigating the practice of CLT cast doubt on its feasibility. The critique addresses five issues: 1) the lack of authenticity in terms of language samples presented and pseudo-communication in language classrooms, 2) the lack of accuracy leading to fossilisation and pidginised forms of the target language, 3) the triviality of the content taught, 4) commercialisation of teaching materials and 5) disregard for learners' cultural, social and educational conditions.

As far as authenticity is concerned, a closer look at dialogues presented in communicative GFL-textbooks reveals that although they were more authentic than the artificially fabricated audio-lingual samples, they were still based on written language. Günthner (2000) observes that numerous phenomena typical of spoken German, such as hesitation, repair and repetition were excluded. Furthermore, dialogues often led to imitative and repetitious exercises and resulted in staged communication.

The second point which has provoked much heated debate is the issue of grammar teaching and accuracy. As mentioned above, CLT contests explicit grammar instruction and focuses predominantly on meaning and fluency. However, this is not necessarily beneficial. Hammerly (1991), for example, demonstrates that even after thirteen years of education in communicative or

immersion programmes, students of French, Spanish or German produce a large number of errors, which could significantly hinder communication in the target language. He demonstrates that these deficiencies can easily be fossilised and what learners speak in the end is, in fact, a pidginised form of the target languages. Hammerly (ibid.) calls these erroneous varieties Frenglish, Spanglish and Germglish. He concludes that university graduates often have limited language competence and are therefore unattractive to an employer, who "expects to be well represented linguistically" (ibid.: 11). He therefore suggests that greater emphasis should be placed on language structures and accuracy:

> "Communication is of course the purpose of a language and the main reason for learning it. But one must know the language – not just words but primarily language structure – in order to communicate in psycholinguistically and socially acceptable ways" (ibid.: 126).

This is largely confirmed by results obtained by numerous researchers. Norris & Ortega (2000) provided a systematic meta-analysis of forty-nine experimental studies into the efficacy of explicit instruction. The analysis indicates that an explicit focus on form results in great proficiency gains and leads to longer lasting benefits. This is also corroborated by a longitudinal study conducted by Klapper & Rees (2003), which demonstrates that explicit instruction is particularly successful when delivered in a meaningful context. In other words, grammar should be taught not for its own sake, but for the purpose of correct and adequate use of the target language. This is particularly relevant in the case of learning German. As Fandrych (2000) highlights, in contrast to English, German has a highly complex morphosyntax, of which learners should be made aware from the early stages of learning if they wish to communicate adequately and appropriately. It is difficult to imagine how learners are supposed to make themselves understood if they do not understand the difference between *Dativ* or *Akkusativ* or are unable to use *Pronomina* appropriately. Grammar has a number of benefits that are crucial for learners of FLs. It gives learners confidence and serves as a basic tool kit, which is essential for life-long language learning (ibid.).

The next issue that provoked great criticism was the perceived triviality of the content conveyed in communicative language classrooms. The topics were condemned for being of use to tourists and not to people who want to gain a more sophisticated understanding of the target culture (Fischer 1996). The choice of

vocabulary and topics prepares learners to communicate only in simple everyday situations and limits them to discussion of their eating and shopping habits, as Sartorius (1997: 34) observes:

> "Wie lange würden wir einen Zeitgenossen, der über die hier verhandelten Themen spräche, auf einer Abendgesellschaft aushalten? Der Langweiler, den wir uns da vorstellen müssten, würde uns zunächst ausführlich über unsere Wohn-, Einkaufs- und Ernährungsgewohnheiten ausfragen."

Communicative methodology was also linked to the production of textbooks and teaching materials on a large and previously unseen scale. Suddenly, the market was saturated with textbooks, each claiming to be the most innovative. Previously, teachers and learners had a choice of two or three textbooks. Subsequently, they had a wide and attractive choice. Materials that are appealing to the eye may result in increased motivation. However, the content of some communicative textbooks was criticised for suiting publishers' aims rather than learners' needs. They were monolingual and orientated towards everyday life and problems in the target country. Consequently, they were not linked to the learner's background or social and educational conditions (Breitung & Lattaro 2001). Moreover, some of the issues presented in communicative textbooks were unsuitable as they touched on topics which were taboo or offensive in other cultural contexts.

To conclude, Communicative Language Teaching has enjoyed great popularity and still continues to do so. The emphasis on communication, learners' needs and objectives, the less authoritarian teaching forms and the more pragmatic concept of language were its great merits. At the same time, CLT was not without its limitations. The implicit teaching of grammar and accuracy, and the disregard of learners' L1, socio-cultural and educational backgrounds were its drawbacks. The greatest benefit of CLT lies in the heated debates and polemics that it generated. It led many to realise that there is no single method able to address the diversity of learners' needs and objectives. Above all, it increased awareness that regional, cultural, social and educational traditions need to be taken into consideration if an adequate teaching and learning concept is to be designed.

1.2.6 Intercultural shift: cultural emancipation or a slogan?

From the mid 1980s onwards, a new generation of teaching materials appeared on the market. In contrast to previous textbooks, these largely focused on the cultural traditions and phenomena that emerged in multicultural societies such as cultural misunderstandings and stereotypes. These new textbooks and materials were described as intercultural. As in the case of the preceding concepts, the idea of the intercultural (= Interkulturalität) was a reaction to social developments that suddenly emerged in Western societies in the 1970s, namely migration and the coexistence of various ethnic minorities and white majority groups (Pommerin 1988). This resulted in the development of pedagogical concepts, the aim of which was the integration of immigrants and their families. The term 'foreigner pedagogy' (= Ausländerpädagogik) was developed. However, this kind of pedagogy was monolingual and monocultural as it disregarded the native languages of immigrants and their cultures. Instead of fostering integration, it led to a greater social distance (Pommerin-Götze 2001). Political changes in Europe also gave impetus to the establishment of the Intercultural Approach (IA). The fall of the Iron Curtain, the increasing mobility of the European population in the 90s and closer cooperation between East and West contributed to the intensification of cultural and educational exchanges. The distance between cultures became smaller and interrelations and influences stronger. As Fischer (1996: 81) commented: "Die Mauer zwischen 'uns' und 'ihnen' ist gefallen, und das nicht nur in Berlin". Finally, the establishment of *Auslandsgermanistik* in countries which are relatively remote from the German-speaking ones highlighted different perceptions of German language and culture. All this led to a shift in the objectives of FLE, from mere communicative aims to general pedagogical ones such as mutual understanding, empathy and tolerance. In terms of a linguistic notion, the Intercultural Approach originally drew on functional-pragmatic theories. Progressively, Contrastive Pragmatics, Textlinguistics and Discourse Analysis were considered. Psychology played a less important role. The main reference point for IA was a general pedagogical notion of peace education, anti-racism, anti-ethnocentrism and mutual understanding. The new approach stressed the learner's cultural, social and educational background. Teaching GFL was not about imposing the ready-made cultural and linguistic products of the German-

speaking countries but about relating them to the experience of foreign learners. As a result, the focus was on comparison of norms and conventions as cultivated in both the target and the learner's own culture. Topics included universal aspects such as family life, festivals and customs and were contrasted across cultures and contexts (Neuner & Hunfeld 1993). The interculturalists placed particular emphasis on texts that thematically went beyond the presentation of every day topics and focused more on universal themes. In so doing, literary texts, particularly fiction, returned to favour. The approach to literature differed considerably from the one applied in GTM. The new didactics stressed, in a hermeneutical sense, individual interpretations of literary texts and their comprehension from a foreign perspective. It was hoped that learners would develop Intercultural Competence (IC), which was regarded as an ability to accept diversity and to communicate effectively and appropriately with people from different cultural backgrounds (Krumm 1995a).

Interculturality became a popular concept in the 1980s. It also directly affected the *Inlands-* and *Auslandsgermanistik* and ultimately led to the development of Intercultural German Studies (IGS) (= Interkulturelle Germanistik) (Wierlacher 1992), which some thought to be the new universal approach to *Germanistik* worldwide. IGS stressed the understanding of German culture from a foreign perspective (ibid.). Here, culture meant predominantly literary texts produced in the German-speaking countries and the focus was on reading and individual interpretation. The ultimate goal of IGS was cultural maturity (= Kulturmündigkeit), which was considered to be a tolerant, cosmopolitan attitude. Its aim was to educate cultivated and open-minded citizens of the world, who were to become individuals active in social, political and economic domains of life (ibid.). The traditional concept of high culture proved to be inadequate in fulfilling these aims. As a result, the interculturalists drew on an anthropological, extended definition of culture (= erweiterter Kulturbegriff), which included symbolic and popular communication forms and life styles (Bausinger 1999). This was manifested in the idea of an open canon, which as Wierlacher (1987) suggests, should draw on universal topics such as birth, childhood, adolescence and death. The idea of interculturality culminated in the establishment of degree programmes and research centres at a number of universities in Germany and abroad.

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The intercultural perspective brought into focus topics that went beyond the situational dialogues for everyday survival. The concepts of mutual understanding, cultural maturity and education from ethnocentric to tolerant citizens were also challenging aims. However, a number of teachers and lecturers of German were sceptical as to whether the intercultural approach was adequate for the needs of learners abroad (Glück 1991, Steinmann 1991, Harden 2000). Four issues were questioned: a) the overemphasis on literature, b) the vague concept of culture, c) the unrealistic, almost utopian vision of educating culture-sensitive individuals, and d) the dissolution of interculturality into a catchphrase.

Reading and interpreting literary pieces in the target language is arguably one of the most challenging and, for some, rewarding aspects of FLE. However, in order to comprehend literature in the target language and to critically discuss it, one should have a high level of proficiency in the language and this ability is not usually quickly or easily acquired. According to the experience of GFL-teachers and lecturers, students with a high level of proficiency and interest in literature form a relatively small group of GFL learners abroad:

> "es ist erfreulich und ein Erfolg der Ausbildung im Deutschen als Fremdsprache, wenn ein Student deutschsprachige Literatur im Original lesen kann und irgendwann einmal zu ernsthafter wissenschaftlicher Beschäftigung mit ihr in der Lage ist, und man sollte ihn nach Kräften dabei fördern. Aber er ist, bezogen auf den Alltag des Faches, eine Ausnahme und er wird es bleiben." (Glück 1991: 68)

Therefore, the concept of IGS is not as inclusive and universal as the Interculturalists claim, but rather exclusive as it applies to a minority of students with literary interests. Wasmuth (1991) also subscribes to this view. He highlights that the Intercultural *Germanistik* presumes an erudite and well-read learner, who possesses a considerable degree of sensitivity towards his or her own culture and who is able to discuss the cultural-specific features of his or her own and other cultures. Drawing on his experience as a German lecturer abroad, Wasmuth (ibid.) concludes that this type of learner is rare.

House (1997) highlights the unfeasible nature of the intercultural approach in general. She argues that in language classrooms it will never be possible to imitate the richness and diversity of the cultural phenomena of the target culture. The possibility of teaching culture in the classroom is also seriously questioned by Steinmann (1991), who claims that: "Kultur ist nicht vermittel-, höchstens erfahrbar" (ibid.: 182). Moreover, by describing his experience as a lecturer of

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German in Jordan, Steinmann (ibid.) stresses that the teaching of one's own culture to members of other cultures is entangled in a complex web of national interests, histories and ideologies, which are engrained in the collective consciousness and which exploit aspects of German culture and history to serve these ideologies. He concludes that unfortunately, lecturers and teachers can do little to eliminate national clichés and prejudices. Harden (2000), also a lecturer of German abroad, demonstrates that the aims of IA are unrealistic goals for institutionalised FL-learning. Drawing on a number of philosophical and psychological concepts, he shows that the understanding of otherness is limited, as it touches the foundation of the individual's identity and penetrates its well-established structure. The extent to which one might develop cultural empathy depends on experience and constant reflection. This can only be achieved through first hand experience and not, as he puts it: "within the narrow confines of institutionalised language learning" (ibid.: 118). This first hand experience does not necessarily lead to the development of open-mindness and cultural maturity. In fact, it can also yield quite the opposite results as the large-scale study on the effects of residence abroad on British students of modern languages conducted by Coleman (1996) demonstrates. According to his findings, stereotypes are not necessarily weakened in direct contact with the target culture, "if anything they are strengthened" (ibid.: 100). Finally, the concept of culture, which underpins the many papers and textbooks published under the banner of the intercultural, is not without its difficulties. A closer look at topics in these textbooks reveals that the representation of culture is largely grounded in stereotypical, (western) euro-centric views and based on a relatively superficial concept of a national *Leitkultur* (Röttger 1998). When some of the topics and exercises included in these textbooks are examined, it becomes apparent that many are designed around a one-dimensional and stereotypical scheme: this is the way we do things in Germany, so how is this done in your country? (Steinmann 1991). These textbooks convey an illusion of cultural uniformity, while regional diversities and the multifacetedness of culture which is typical of multiethnic societies are not considered. As Bausinger (1999) remarks, the term culture is always used in the singular, when in actual fact it should appear in the plural because of its complexity, which "sich nur mit Zwängen und Verbiegungen in die Vorstellung einer einheitlichen Kultur packen lässt" (ibid: 227). As a result, diversity is

reduced to a few mostly stereotypical pictures and as a ready-made cultural package exported abroad (ibid). At the same time, what is offered as culture may not necessarily be of cultural value. The extended concept blurred the boundaries of culture and trivialised it. The result was a dilution of cultural standards. Currently, it is arguably difficult to define what culture is and what it is not. As Joachim Sartorius, the former general secretary of the *Goethe Institut*, in a now famous speech made in 1996 remarked: "Der erweiterte Kulturbegriff sei diskussionsbedürftig, weil er sich so erweitert hat, dass die Kultur sich daraus verflüchtigt habe" (quoted in Glück 1998: 6). Bausinger (1999) picks up on this point and compares modern culture to a supermarket. While he asserts that it is an advantage, particularly for *Germanistik* abroad, that cultural borders are not so clearly defined, it can, at the same time, be disorientating and bewildering. For this reason, it is important to set normative standards again. However, interculturalists overuse the term culture, while it is still not clear what it involves.

This illustrates that the aims set by the interculturalists were unrealistic for the context of FLE. Undoubtedly, goals such as mutual understanding, cultural maturity, peace education and tolerance are of importance, particularly in modern day societies. However, the whole education process, starting from kindergarten, should be responsible for conveying these ideals (Pfeiffer 2003). FL-learning can play an important part in this process. However, this is only one of the many tasks it has to accomplish. It remains doubtful whether mutual understanding, cultural maturity and tolerance can actually be achieved in FL-classrooms. Reports from lecturers and teachers working in the context of GFL provide counterevidence that learners can be quite resistant to changing their point of view (Steinmann 1991, Coleman 1996). Before embarking so extensively on the concept of the intercultural approach, agreement on what constitutes culture is still needed.

1.2.7 Constructivism versus instructivism: a new battlefield

In 1994, Dieter Wolf summed up his lecture on new approaches to language teaching at the Centre for Languages and Communications Studies (CLCS) at Trinity College in Dublin by announcing a new era in FLE – a radical shift from instructivism to constructivism. This point was again intensified two years later when he wrote:

"Wir befinden uns zur Zeit in einer Phase, in der sich Unterricht und auch Fremdsprachenunterricht grundlegend verändern werden. Der Wandel ist nicht nur ein Wandel im methodischen Paradigma, sondern ein erkenntnistheoretischer Wandel, den ich als einen Wandel vom *Instruktivismus* zum *Konstruktivismus* bezeichnen möchte." (Wolff 1996: 542).

Since this time, the term constructivism or constructive didactics has promoted intense discussion in the field of GFL. However, this has soon been followed by criticism.

Firstly, constructivism is not a theoretical construct developed within FLE. It appeared almost simultaneously in the late 1980s in a number of academic disciplines, predominantly Philosophy, Biology, Psychology and Neurosciences, after which it spread to literary studies, communication theories and education (Schmidt 1992). Constructivism is not a unified theory. It covers a variety of positions ranging from a radical stance to a more socially inclined outlook known as social constructivism (Baecker et al. 1992). All of the concepts under the constructivist banner have in common the supposition that living organisms do not discern objective reality, but construct their own independent versions of it (Wolff 2002, Schmidt 1992). Constructivism attracted much support from developmental psychologists, particularly from Piaget (1955), who already at the beginning of the 20th century claimed that all learning and knowledge springs from internal and not external stimuli. The constructivist notion was further corroborated by the two biologists Humberto Maturana and Francisco Varela. Both developed the term autopoiesis, which describes all living organisms as self-referential and self-maintaining systems not influenced by the external environment (Maturana & Varela 1987). Neurosciences too have recently drawn attention to the inner workings of the human brain. Neurobiologist Gerhard Roth, to whom many constructivists frequently refer, argues that external events or impulses do not have any impact on the way our brain works. Roth (1992) suggests that what our senses receive are not pictures of reality, nor objects or even shapes but only meaningless physical and chemical stimuli, prompts (Wendt 1996), which are translated into neuronal codes through sensory receptors. In this process, stimuli lose their original qualities. Features such as colours, shapes and movements, which humans believe they see are, as maintained by Roth (1992), constructed in the mind. Subsequently, these constructions are internally revised to establish whether they are useful or not. This is referred to as viability (Wendt

1996). This finally led constructivists to believe that there are no absolute truths. The criterion of rightness or wrongness is no longer valid. Instead, things can either be viable or unviable and by this the constructivists mean useful or useless, as measured and valued by individuals only.

Similar to the cognitivists, the constructivists are interested in mental processes. However, the constructivist stance is arguably more radical. While cognitivists still presume that humans are able to take in information from the external world, constructivists reject this possibility (Wolff 1994). But this supposition is not without its difficulties. Given that we are, as constructivists claim, self-referential systems living in our own phenomenal worlds, how is it then possible that we can communicate with other humans? Constructivists argue that communication and understanding are indeed limited. Glasersfeld (1995),for example., highlights that words do not have any denotative functions. They are representations of our own subjective images. This means we have common words but each word is linked to our own experience, which in turn is never identical to the experience of others. We may use the same words but they trigger different images in our heads. Wolff (2002: 84) argues that understanding is determined by the consensuality of the same or similar experiences: "Das Verstehen eines anderen Menschen, das Zusammenleben in einer Gesellschaft ist an die Konsensualität gemeinsamer oder ähnlicher Erfahrungen gebunden". Wendt (1996) describes these similar experiences as semantic macrostructures and claims that they are anchored in our collective memory and passed on in the process of socialisation. Wendt (ibid.) argues that understanding is possible in as much as two individuals have access to similar, but never identical, semantic macrostructures:

> „Der Eindruck, *einander* zu verstehen, ergibt sich vorzugsweise zwischen Personen, die aufgrund ähnlicher Lebensbedingungen vergleichbare Individuations- und Sozialisationsprozesse durchlaufen haben und im Rahmen der permanenten Sozialisation als annähernd gleichwertig eingestufte Ziele verfolgen." (ibid.: 67).

In the field of GFL, constructivist ideas were popularised by scholars who were predominantly involved in research on cognitive processes and strategies (Wolff 2002, Müller 1997, Rüschoff & Wolff 1999). So the constructivist turn can be seen as a continuation of the cognitive revolution of the 1960s, underpinned by a number of ideas from philosophy, neurosciences and biology. It rejects the

instructivist mode of learning and teaching based on the behaviourist paradigm, external reinforcement, the imparting of facts and figures and the authority of the teacher. The constructivists see learning as an autonomous, innate process of knowledge constructions. They believe that learners do not learn because they are instructed but as a result of individual mental operations and strategies, which operate on the basis of prior knowledge. Therefore, the constructivists call for a fundamental rethinking of current educational practice. With regard to FLE, six aspects are emphasised: 1) learner autonomy, 2) learning strategies, 3) the authenticity of language materials 4) the establishment of a rich learning environment, 5) interactive and task-based teaching forms and 6) the new role of teachers as facilitators. Each of these points will be briefly discussed by dividing these elements into two groups. The first part will focus on the learner and learning and will include individual aspects such as autonomy, motivation, learner beliefs and strategies. The second part will concentrate on the teacher and teaching and will demonstrate some approaches which have been emphasised within the constructivist framework.

1.2.7.1 The learner and learning

As discussed above, the constructivist paradigm views FL-learning as a subjective, individual process, which cannot be influenced from outside. It should therefore not be surprising to see that the constructivists highlight the learner and individual factors such as learner autonomy, learner beliefs, motivation and learning strategies.

The term learner autonomy was first introduced by Holec (1981), who used it to refer to the ability to take responsibility for one's own learning. This included metacognitive skills and activities such as setting one's own aims, selecting methods, monitoring progress and evaluating outcomes. The idea itself, however, goes back to pedagogical concepts developed by Paulo Freire (1993) and John Dewey (1963), who stressed the individuality of any learning process and the active participation of the learner. Concerning FLE, the concept of learner autonomy implies that the underlying aim of learning is to acquire the target language independently and autonomously. This process should be accompanied by the development of critical reflection and adequate decision-making. In effect,

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autonomous learners decide for themselves what they want to learn and whether they want to learn with others or not. They set their own learning strategies, choose materials and evaluate their progress (Bimmel & Rampillon 2000). Learner autonomy has become the key concept actively promoted by educational authorities in the Western countries (cf. Holliday 1997, Marsh et al. 2001). However, a through examination of this notion demonstrates that it is, to an extent, contradictionary. Marsh et al. (2001) argue that learners are never independent, subject to the scrutiny of teachers, institutions and society, even if they believe that their choice of for example subject and university is a free decision. Promoting autonomous learning in institutions is a delusion, a "fallacy of independency" (ibid.: 393), students are constantly subject to rules, regulations as set in marking schemes, handbooks etc. In actual fact, a more independent learning would be possible outside institutional contexts but even then it would not be truly independent. As Marsh et al. (ibid.) claim all learning is socially embedded and learners, although being separate, learn through communication and collaboration with others: "no individual is completely independent [...] but rather interdependent and contextualised within a social setting" (ibid.: 382). The authors highlight that autonomous learning has become nothing more than a rhetorical instrument, a would-be vision, which few would doubt. In fact, it presumes the faith in the unlimited power of the 'self' and simultaneously covers up the real institutional constraints leaving a great scope of confusion on the part of students. The authors conclude that autonomy can only be achieved through collaboration, cooperation and careful tutor's guidance. Their experience has demonstrated that the more freedom students are given, the more support is needed, which they call a paradox of dependent independence (ibid.: 390).

Another issue that is frequently highlighted by constructivists is motivation. Research into motivation and FL-proficiency dates from the early 1970s with a study conducted by Gardner & Lambert (1972). They distinguished between two types of motivation: instrumental and integrative. The former is typical for an individual who learns a FL in order to achieve pragmatic goals such as better career opportunities. The latter refers to a genuine interest in the target language and culture, which may account for a desire to integrate into the target community. The empirical findings of the 1970s provided evidence for the superiority of integrative motivation (ibid.). However, studies were conducted predominantly in

the context of second language learning. For FLE, the situation is different. Pragmatic, instrumental reasons are often at the forefront as a large-scale study by Coleman (1996) demonstrates and these largely determine learning success (cf. Riemer 2003). These instrumental reasons are intertwined with broader social, cultural and more increasingly economic pressures. As a result of this, Peirce (1995) suggests that the distinction between instrumental and intrinsic motivation should be avoided. Like Bourdieu (1977), she proposes the concept of cultural capital or investment as it better accounts for the complexity of relations between society and individual decision-making. This incorporates both symbolic and material resources. In effect, learners learning a FL expect a good return "that will give them access to hitherto unattainable resources" (ibid: 17). More recent studies provide some evidence that motivation does not necessarily influence learning success but rather learning success impacts on motivation (cf. Riemer 2001, 2003). In other words, someone who has had a positive learning experience or scored high marks is more likely to be highly motivated and consequently able to sustain the effort needed to complete tasks such as finishing his or her degree course in languages.

Learning strategies is another topic given a great deal of attention by constructivist didactics (Wolff 1996, Müller 1997). The term itself was first introduced in the 1950s to describe actions which are undertaken to achieve set learning goals. In terms of FLE, strategies were carefully examined and categorised by O'Malley & Chamot (1993). Both scholars proposed a taxonomy, which includes three types of strategy: social/affective, cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. The first type involves social activities such as seeking co-operation and opportunities to speak a FL, stress-free learning and talking about positive experiences. Cognitive strategies cover conscious operations such as repetition of language structures, categorisation, ordering and guessing. The third category involves procedures relevant for planning, controlling and evaluating learning processes such as prioritising tasks, finding optimal solutions, correcting one's speech for accuracy and checking the outcomes of one's own learning (Bimmel & Rampillon 2000, Westhoff, 2001). To what extent the use of particular strategies can foster linguistic development generated a large amount of research interest. Rubin (1975) discovered that cognitive strategies contribute directly to language learning. A qualitative-

ethnographic study of strategies applied by students of German conducted by Schlak (2002) also demonstrates that they tend to make greater use of traditional, cognitive strategies such as memorising and repetition. As far as social or affective strategies are concerned, Oxford (1990) argues that they are the most important factors in determining whether one will achieve learning success or not. However, to date, not much research has been conducted on this subject and there is little evidence to suggest that social or affective strategies are as crucial as Oxford implies (Westhoff 2001). Westhoff (ibid.) provides a summary of research on strategies and proficiency level and concludes that results are inconclusive and open to broader interpretation. A general conclusion which has been derived from research on strategies, suggests that successful learners tend to make greater use of cognitive strategies. At the same time, it has been observed that the use of learning strategies depends on the learner, in addition to his or her age and background. Ecke (2004) demonstrates that mnemonic techniques are more popular among beginners and young learners. Cognitive strategies such as repetition, note-taking, translation – in short rote learning – are overwhelmingly used by older learners in academic contexts (Elspaß 1999, Schlak 2002).

In summary, constructivists see learning as a self-directed process fostered and enhanced by individual strategies and motivational factors. Learners are perceived as autonomous and independent individuals who should take full responsibility for their learning, determine their learning aims and choose learning materials. At the same time, research on aspects such as motivation and learning strategies demonstrate that they are not strictly individual variables but are largely dependent on social factors and learning contexts. As Peirce (1995) observes, research on individual variables yielded strict categorisations: learners are motivated or unmotivated, extrovert or introvert, risk-takers or non risk-takers. She claims that such a depiction is inadequate because learners behave differently in different contexts. In the classroom, they may be perceived as shy and introvert, whereas outside it they could be extrovert. Her own research demonstrates that the learner's social identity undergoes considerable change in response to social contexts and power relations within these contexts. In effect, learners are not lonely scientists but part of social networks, which in turn affect their motivation, attitudes and learning progress.

1.2.7.2 The teacher and teaching

Constructivist concepts of teaching FLs are discussed by Wolff (2002, 1996), Rüschoff & Wolff (1999) and Wendt (1996). These authors claim that teaching institutions, schools and universities continue to be bastions of the instructivist mode of teaching. They are not concerned with learners' needs and do not encourage them to think either critically or independently. To counteract this situation, constructivists propose a number of pedagogical ideas. These include: a) the establishment of authentic and rich teaching contexts b) the presentation of subject matter in its complexity c) linking content to the learner's previous knowledge and experience, d) fostering reflection on one's own learning processes – language learning awareness, e) encouraging learner autonomy, f) collaborative teaching forms and g) the teacher as facilitator. However, what exactly is meant by these principles and how do constructivists endeavour to pursue them?

Firstly, constructivists believe that a set progression does not encourage the learner's creativity and only restricts constructive potential (Wolff 2002). They are convinced that textbooks and progression should be eliminated from language classrooms: "keine Reduktion von Inhalten, keine Systematisierung und Progression: Lehrwerke haben keine Funktion mehr im Unterricht" (Wolff 1996: 549). Instead, they insist on the use of authentic materials and texts, which should be adjusted to learners' prior knowledge. These materials should be selected by both teachers and learners. Furthermore, the traditional language classroom is, from the constructivist point of view, a static and monotonous environment in which learning is detached from the life of learners: "die Lernenden finden sich, wenn sie in die Schule kommen, in einer anderen Welt, die sich nicht mit ihren normalen Lebenserfahrungen vereinbaren lässt" (Wolff 2002: 355). Constructivists suggest that the learning environment should be rich and dynamic, created and designed by learners. Such an environment should not only be well equipped with authentic materials, partly produced by learners, but should also include cognitive tools, by which constructivists mean numerous forms of problem-solving tasks and computer-based activities (Wolff 2002).

In terms of teaching forms, the new constructivist scenario places particular emphasis on project-based, content-based and process-based learning. The idea of

project-based work is not a constructivist notion. Its origin can be traced back to the emancipatory pedagogy of Paulo Freire (1993) and John Dewey (1963). In the field of FLE, this concept was first introduced by Prabhu (1987) and expanded, among others, by Legutke & Thomas (1991). Project-work follows the principle that FL-learning is best enhanced if it solely focuses on meaning and problem-solving activities. Grammar progression is, in this respect, incidental. Projects could range from small tasks or presentations to larger activities lasting several months. They should present themes and problems related to learners' experiences both inside and outside the classroom.

Content-based learning is another form favoured by constructivists. It is based on the assumption that FLs are best learned through maximum exposure in meaningful contexts and when content is conveyed in the target language. Content-based approaches first emerged in the 1960s in the United States and were also known as bilingual education or sheltered classes for learners who did not speak English at home (Met 2004). In Canada, numerous content-based forms, popularly named immersion classes, were introduced in order to teach French and Psychology to English students. In Germany too, a number of schools developed bilingual classes, where non-language subjects such as geography, biology or history were taught through the medium of the target language (Lamsfuss-Schenk & Wolff 1999).

The process-based approach is grounded in Psycholinguistics, particularly in studies on declarative and procedural knowledge. The former refers to knowledge of facts, or in other words, knowing **what** (= deklaratives Weltwissen). In terms of language, this means knowledge of lexicon as well as its phonetic representations and graphemes (= deklaratives Sprachwissen) (Wolff 2002: 116). The latter denotes skills used to perform particular actions, namely knowledge of **how** (= prozedurales Weltwissen). In terms of language, procedural knowledge involves the strategies of inferring, elaborating or guessing (= prozedurales Sprachwissen). Wolff (2002) extends this model to include declarative and procedural knowledge in the target language. By drawing on research on speech and writing production in L1, SL and FL, he concludes that the vast majority of problems in FLE result from a lack of emphasis on procedural language knowledge, in other words, on strategies and skills. From his point of view, the primary aim of teaching FL is to make learners aware of language processing and language learning strategies.

Wolff (1996) calls this concept "learn how to learn" (= Techniken des »Lernen Lernens«). This should be encouraged from an early stage and developed systematically through thinking aloud, writing diaries, interviews, self-assessment questionnaires and discussions with peers and teachers.

In the constructivist teaching environment, the teacher has a new role to play. He or she is not an omniscient authority but rather a facilitator, who assists learners in their knowledge constructions and encourages reflection. He or she cannot impose teaching aims and materials. Everything should be decided in collaboration with learners and with respect to their needs and prior knowledge. In short, the main aim of teaching is to help learners develop learner autonomy.

In summary, the constructivist agenda aims to create a language classroom – "Klassenzimmer als Lern- und Forschungswerkstatt" (Wolff 2002: 104) – which is well equipped with state-of-the-art technology and authentic materials. In such a classroom, the traditional boundary between learners and their teacher is dismantled and in its place a cooperative relationship develops. Aims, objectives and materials are selected by both learners and the teacher in accordance with learners' needs and prior knowledge. Lexical or grammatical progression has no place in the constructivist classroom. The medium of instruction is solely the target language and learners learn FL by using authentic texts and completing projects or tasks. The ultimate goal is the development of self-organised and independent users of the target language.

1.2.7.3 Is constructivism relevant for foreign language education?

The supporters of constructivism firmly believe that after years of disappointment with the communicative approach the constructivist paradigm is the didactical answer that could counteract the general instructivist problems in FLE at schools and universities. It is proposed as the new meta-theory. The question is whether this supposedly sound framework is relevant for FLE. The discussion will start by drawing on the criticism voiced by Reinfried (2000), Mitschian (2000), Bredella (1998) and Rösler (1998).

The debate on whether constructivism could be taken as a new paradigm for FLE was initiated by Bredella (1998). He suggests that if we seriously consider the constructivist assumptions of self-referentiality and total subjectivity then all

pedagogical actions become useless and teaching becomes irrelevant. If learners are unable to absorb information from external sources, then it should not make any difference as to which environment they learn in or what materials they use. Bredella (ibid.) observed that there is no need for them to read or listen. The constructivist line of reasoning can lead, from Bredella's point of view, to dangerous consequences. The assumption that reality is inaccessible frees us from the ethical responsibilities of uncovering injustice and inequalities. It turns humans into egocentric individuals concerned only with their own agendas. Reinfried (2000) also questions the constructivist concept of language and communication. He observes that language, even if we question its denotative function, is itself regulated by conventions and norms established in a historical process and between human beings. If not, it would be impossible to achieve the consensus which constructivists insist on (Wolff 2002). Reinfried (2000) questions the biological and neuroscientific foundations of constructivism. Drawing on a range of recent studies, he demonstrates that the evidence for self-referentiality of the human brain is not as clear as the constructivists assume. The question is, to what extent do we need constructivism in FLE? Mitschian (2000) and Rösler (1998) observe that if we remove the constructivist umbrella of self-referentiality and total subjectivity, what remains underneath is less impressive. With the constructivist view of the learner and learning, the individuality of the learning process and learner autonomy are elevated to the central aims of FLE. Learning is indeed individual. Daily teaching experience and learning outcomes, which are different for everyone, confirm this. However, individualisation is a concept which is difficult to implement in institutionalised teaching settings, where learning takes place not on a one-to-one basis but in groups and often quite large ones. Drawing on an analysis of Basil Bernstein, Holliday (1994) argues that the individualisation of learning is the result of an integrationist paradigm, which emerged in the 1960s in educational circles in western countries and which was characterised by a discovery-orientation and collaborative and antiauthoritarian pedagogy. It was often associated with innovation, democracy and freedom. The integrationist orientation was contrasted with the collectionist paradigm, which stood for the traditional view of education based on clear subject boundaries and the teaching of a solid body of knowledge. It was associated with conservatism, authority and with less advanced societies. Holliday (ibid.) argues that both

orientations are co-existent even within one institution and emphasises that the integrationist orientation may also easily turn into a traditionalist paradigm. In addition, the idea of learner independence and the antiauthoritarian attitude asserted by the integrationist camp are largely myths. The integrationist paradigm also maintains control and authority, albeit in a more subtle way. It is a myth to believe that in educational settings, learners are free to do what they want. They are subject to a constant scrutiny of the institution, its rules and regulations, and the teacher. Furthermore, Holliday points to the fact that integrationism is a product of a rather small academic culture and, when introduced to other learning and teachings contexts, it may be destructive. It might lead to disorientation and a lack of purpose. In contrast, the traditional paradigm based on teaching a solid body of knowledge gives "a sense of security in what is being learnt, and a firm feeling of what constitutes 'knowledge' [...] There is a firm foundation of authority against which they [*students*] can measure their own thoughts" (ibid.: 97). The concept of learner autonomy could also be seen as a product of the strong individualisation of learning. However, research indicates that the concept of learner autonomy is essentially a product of the western, academic teaching ethos, and is therefore completely alien to contexts which involve collective forms of education (ibid.). Furthermore, the concept of learner autonomy is often reduced to the provision of tasks, which learners have to accomplish on their own. It is hoped that when giving them full freedom, they will work independently and be able to accomplish the given tasks. Theoretically, this could be seen as a positive idea, however, research on learning and teaching practice indicates that under the guidance of an expert students learn more effectively. The Russian psychologist Vygotsky (2002), who *nota bene* disagrees with the Piagetian concept of cognitive development independent of social conditions, demonstrates that accurate and efficient instruction is essential for learning to take place and for higher-order thinking. Vygotsky shows that working with an expert who is above one's level will result in the learner moving quickly to more advanced stages – a concept known as the Zone of Proximal Development. Problematic is also the idea of the establishment of rich learning environments. In many parts of the world, FLE is constrained by financial difficulties or a serious lack of resources. As a result, teaching takes place in large groups and is often based on outdated materials.

Authentic materials and new technological devices such as computers and Internet access are simply unavailable.

The teaching concepts proposed by the constructivists incorporate many of the learning and teaching innovations that first emerged on the margins of mainstream education and were gradually integrated into FL-classrooms. Authenticity, maximum exposure to and teaching in the target language, learning by doing, cooperative and creative forms of work, little or no progression and the teacher as a facilitator are the key features of these innovations. While no one would dispute the importance of authenticity, creativity and flexibility, there is a substantial body of empirical research indicating that instruction is indeed of huge benefit, particularly in the context of FL-learning (Norris & Ortega 2000). Furthermore, concepts proposed by the constructivists are largely grounded in experimental psycholinguistic studies on information processing and particularly on writing and speech production in SL[13]. This research has demonstrated that in contrast to native speakers, learners develop a broader range of strategies. Wolff (2002) suggests that, therefore, in FLE, more emphasis should be placed on procedural knowledge. However, in reading the summaries of research results, what is made clear is that the main problems which emerge in speech and writing are due to severe deficits in declarative knowledge, which according to Wolff (ibid.) include vocabulary, phonological, morphological, syntactical, semantic and textual knowledge of the target language. These deficits encourage learners to develop various strategies to compensate for their insufficient declarative knowledge. Against this background, it is understandable that native speakers have a smaller repertoire of strategies: they simply know the language. It appears that filling gaps in declarative knowledge, namely explicitly delivering a solid body of knowledge of regularities and patterns in the target language, has more potential than the overemphasis on procedural knowledge. However, explicit grammar teaching does not have a place in the constructivist classroom. When Wolff (1994) first introduced his concept of constructivist education, he pointed to general problems facing teaching. He expresses his dissatisfaction with the fact that many teachers still teach grammar explicitly and use L1 when explaining difficult grammatical

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[13] Main findings were summarised in Wolff (2002). These studies were predominantly based on experimental methods known as recall-procedures, in which subjects were asked to retell the contents of a story or a short filmstrip.

points. They follow the traditional progression and control activities carried out in classrooms. Wolff (ibid.) condemns such a practice as instructivist, which equals 'bad', and proposes the new constructivist framework: "Fortunately, however, the theoreticians have not moved back towards traditional approaches but have introduced new ideas and new concepts" (ibid: 6). It can be argued that many of these new ideas are not new at all. Instead of refuting all the voices from practice, the theorists should perhaps pay more attention to them. There are a large number of field-tested, well-worked ideas and perhaps there is less need for radical change. This would, however, imply that constructivists have to turn to the learning context of the real world, which, according to their intellectual premises, does not exist. It should not be surprising that these theories are largely ivory-tower visions, detached from the practice of teaching and learning.

In summary, this shows that constructivist didactics entail a number of shortcomings and so, as a general theory for FLE, are arguably weak. This partly results from the fact that constructivist paradigm is strongly grounded in theories derived from research on Cognitive Psychology and Psycholinguistics concerned predominantly with English and carried out in strictly controlled conditions. While this research has produced a range of impressive results, in terms of FLE, it only illustrates one aspect: the learner and cognition. In reality, however, these findings "only scratch the surface", as Holliday (1994: 5) remarks. FL-learning does not take place in an experimental laboratory, but always in a multifaceted context, which is profoundly shaped by social, cultural, political, economic and institutional factors. Spolsky (1988: 382) summarises it in one statement: "Language learning is individual but occurs in society". Any teaching and learning concept that does not consider these factors is destined for failure.

1.3 The old versus the new: which way to go?

The critical overview of didactical concepts elaborated by the field of GFL illustrates that there are a number of contradictory discourses. The rise and fall of certain ideas and then the resurrection of old concepts has been witnessed. In general, two main threads in the development can be distinguished (see table 2). Firstly, there is a strand of concepts that rests on the assumption that learning FLs

can be largely influenced from outside, that is to say languages are teachable. These concepts are based on structured progression, explicit teaching of grammar and vocabulary, the use of L1, and intervention such as error correction. Concepts which follow this orientation are the behaviourist-structuralist, the Grammar-Translation Method and Cognitive Code Learning. The second body of thought demonstrates a strong tendency towards the assumption that FLs are not so much teachable but learnable - minimally influenced from outside. This orientation rests on less structured or no progression, no intrusion of L1, implicit acquisition of

Table 2: Two orientations in foreign language education

Teachability Orientation	Learnability Orientation
• orientated towards explicit learning	• orientated towards implicit learning
• orientated towards written, well-formed language	• orientated towards spoken, authentic language
• primacy of accuracy, grammar and language structures	• primacy of fluency and communication
• structured progression	• little or no progression
• explicit grammar teaching	• implicit or no grammar teaching
• explicit corrections	• implict corrections
• use of L1	• restricted or no use of L1 (immersion)
• rule-based	• skill-based
• repetitive exercises	• hypothesis testing
• teacher-centred	• open and flexible learning environments
• didactical scholasticism	• learner-centred
	• didactical innovation

grammar and vocabulary, interaction, open and flexible learning environments, maximum student involvement, minimal teacher control and avoidance of correction. The didactical concepts which fall into this category are the Direct Method, the Natural, the Communicative, the Intercultural Approaches as well as Constructivist Didactics, although there are clear differences between them. General discourse tends to polarise both orientations. The teachability orientation is largely associated with didactical conservatism while the learnability strand is linked to innovation and it is the latter that is currently promoted as superior. Methodological developments, in particular the discussion on constructivism versus instructivism, illustrate this vividly. Cook (2002: 327) observes that there is indeed a methodological consensus in twentieth century language teaching, which comes closely to what the right-hand column of the table above illustrates. However, this does not necessarily reflect what happens in the language classroom. Teaching practice, particularly in the context of FLE, largely departs

from this consensus and often transgresses both orientations. While the primacy of communication and collaborative learning forms are stressed, many unpopular ideas – seen here in the left-hand column – are still cultivated, though rather clandestinely, perhaps because few want to be associated with didactical conservatism (ibid). Nonetheless, the question which ultimately arises is why have the ideas, such as explicit grammar teaching, translation and the use of learners' L1, not disappeared from practice in FL-classrooms? There are a number of valid reasons for this, which will now be discussed in more depth. The specificity of learning and teaching GFL outside the German-speaking countries will be the focus. The illustration given below will be rather prototypic but an attempt will be made to capture the critical parameters which determine learning and teaching in the context of GFL. It will also be argued that many of the ideas promoted by the learnability orientation are not necessarily appropriate for the conditions of GFL because they do not consider its contextuality and complexity, and are derived from rather decontextualised research on SLA or second language education (cf. Peirce 1995). The discussion will begin with the metaphor proposed by Holliday (1994: 16) that any FL-classroom is a microcosm, which reflects, "affects and is affected by the complex of influences and interests within the host educational environment". To depict the interrelations between the 'world outside' and the classroom in a systematic way, use will be made of a model proposed by Edmondson & House (1993), which is based on two main levels: the macro and micro. The macro level involves socio-political factors, while the micro level is the actual teaching (the teacher) and learning (learners) practice. Between these two levels, the authors identify an intermediate stage – *Zwischenebene* – which functions as a: "Vermittler zwischen allgemeinen politischen/ sozialen Strömungen und der unterrichtlichen Praxis" (ibid.: 63). This level involves curricula objectives, teaching methods and materials and is directly influenced by the macro-level, which will be discussed first.

1.3.1 The parameters of GFL: the macro-context

Teaching and learning GFL does not take place in isolation or in experimental laboratories, where all factors can be strictly controlled. It occurs in a classroom, which is usually situated in an educational institution. This institution is, in turn,

part of the wider educational sector located in a country or region. This environment is largely influenced by socio-political decisions, educational traditions, the educational ethos and by public perceptions (Christ 1995). FLE is a political endeavour governed by language policies set by governmental or semi-governmental institutions. These policies are instruments of international relations to support cultural cooperation and peace between nations. They are also a sign of prestige and power. Teaching a FL abroad directly increases "den Kommunikationsradius ihrer Sprecher" and in so doing, the influence of the native speakers of that FL increases too (ibid.: 75). One of the most powerful instruments of language policies is the one implemented in education – *Schulsprachenpolitik* – as it directly affects a large number of learners. It decides which FLs are taught, in which order, to what extent and whether classes are compulsory or voluntary. In democratic countries, the policy implemented in education mirrors four aspects: a) direct political decisions, b) the objectively perceived need for FL-skills, c) educational traditions and d) general public views on FLE (ibid.). Direct political decisions are closely related to measures undertaken by governments to maintain certain FLs because of their importance in local societies, for example French and English in many multilingual African countries. Perceived need involves demand for FL-skills in various sectors of industry and services, predominantly in international trade, tourism, business and administration and the media. These days demand is related to the status of a FL in global markets. The position of English in education worldwide is, in this respect, an example par excellence. The perceived needs have a direct influence on learners' motivation. Research demonstrates that the economic relevance of FL-skills is indeed a more decisive factor than cultural relevance (Riemer 2003, Edmondson & House 2003), which in fact leads to a stronger vocationalisation of FLE. Educational traditions also play an important role. In some countries, certain FLs enjoy a higher status than in others and more teaching hours are dedicated to them because of more established cultural and political bonds with those foreign countries, for example French in the UK. Christ (1995) argues that these traditions are hindrances regarding the introduction of other FLs into the curriculum. However, the status of the dominant FL may not continue forever. Political and economic transformations may change this dramatically and the position of Russian in schools and universities in Central and Eastern Europe after the fall of

the Iron Curtain illustrates this vividly. The last factor is general public opinion on FLs, which at times can be grounded in stereotypical views. For example, some languages are not favoured because they are perceived as being difficult or sounding unpleasant, or they are associated with negative events (cf. Bauer & Trudgill 1998, Schwerdtfeger 2000). The general public is also influenced by the perceived need for and prestige of a FL. In general, languages, which have the highest number of speakers worldwide and are economically and culturally seen as important automatically enjoy greater prestige in the eyes of the public and are more likely to be learned.

FL-policy for education can therefore be seen as an instrument for mediation between socio-political necessities, economic demands, educational traditions and the general public. As with every policy, it endeavours to achieve social consensus (Christ 1995). Although FL-policy cannot stop certain developments, for example the diminishing status of one FL, it can still do much to control the situation by adopting protective measures. FL-policies vary from country to country and from region to region and are strongly geared towards local needs, particularly those of the economy, rather than to broad educational notions. One example is the situation in educational institutions across the EU. While general European policy stresses the need for multilingualism – each EU-citizen should be able to speak two FLs –this is facilitated differently in the various parts of the EU. In some countries, like Germany, Holland or the new Member States, educational authorities insist on two compulsory FLs in lower and upper secondary education. In others, like the UK, FLs are becoming optional in the secondary sector (see chapter 3).

Socio-political aspects, namely macro-contexts, are changeable and dynamic. They can be taken as the most crucial factors because they are directly involved in the distribution of resources such as public money and in so doing determine the amount of time spent on FLs in schools, curricula objectives, teaching methods and materials (cf. Edmondson & House 1993). As Lamb (2004: 2) argues, the socio-political factors are the key factors because they determine "das Ob und Wie des Lehrens und Lernens fremder Sprachen in einer Gesellschaft im Sinne spezifischer Zielsetzungen". Besides, changes at the micro-level, although important, are at times insufficient and steps at the macro-level have to be undertaken in order to improve teaching and learning practice. By drawing on her

research into socio-political macro-constraints and individual teaching experiences in the context of German as a foreign language at a university in Hungary, Lamb (ibid.: 10) concludes that "Eine Verbesserung [*of teaching German*] durch mehr oder weniger kosmetische Operationen an Einzelfaktoren erzwingen zu wollen, wie z.B. durch die Einführung eines neuen Lehrwerks, macht jedoch wenig Sinn." She argues that any attempt to optimise and enhance practice has to be based on the assumption that "der Fremdsprachenunterricht nicht ein in vacuo existierender Mikrokosmos ist, sondern immer in einem breiteren Kontext steht." (ibid: 10). Given the enormous impact of socio-political factors on pedagogical decisions, learners and teachers, it is surprising to see that there is little research concerned with the macro-level and FLE, in particular in GFL. Research has tended to focus on selected fragments of classroom learning and teaching, predominantly individual cognitive and affective factors often examined in strictly controlled experiments, while social, political and economic aspects have been marginalised. The reason for this may be the onus placed on discovering the one factor, the one theory and the one teaching method which, as demonstrated in the previous sections, dominated FLE. It may be grounded in the strong individualisation of the learning process, which permeates SLA-research from the times of the cognitive turn onwards, and which largely frames the individual as historical and independent of the social and cultural context (cf. Peirce 1995). As Holliday (1994: 108) remarks, ignoring the fact that learning takes place in society can lead to a naïve assumption that: "despite certain psychological differences in individuals, if one puts most students into a given learning situation they will behave in the same way as they would in any other learning situation". From his point of view, the vast majority of research on SLA is based on this assumption. This is not to say that research on individual factors should discontinue. However, its relevance to teaching practice can be limited if there is a lack of recognition that teaching and learning practice is a social, political and increasingly economic endeavour. As will be demonstrated in chapter 3, socio-political factors have had an enormous impact on teaching and learning German language and culture in the UK.

1.3.2 The parameters of GFL: the micro-context

As discussed above, each classroom is embedded in and influenced by socio-political factors and decisions, which directly and indirectly influence teaching and learning in institutions and in classrooms, namely, at the micro-level. In contrast to the macro-level which is politically motivated, the micro-context is determined by institutionalised factors and human experiences. In fact, each FL-classroom can be seen as a place where in a given institutionalised organisation, learners' and teachers' past and current experiences are enacted. For the context of teaching and learning GFL, the following micro-constraints are crucial to bear in mind.

The first important condition is the issue of age. The vast majority of GFL-learners are adults or adolescents, who usually start learning German by the age of twelve or later (Neuner 2004). They have already developed literacy in their mother tongue, have greater cognitive maturity and better short-term memory. They are also more aware of their social and cultural identity. In short, they are not small children, who learn by singing nursery rhymes or by play. Research demonstrates that when children are exposed to a second language at an early stage, they can easily reach native mastery and that this likelihood decreases with age, particularly after puberty (Lightbown & Spada 1993). In research, this assumption is defined as the critical period hypothesis. It has had a serious impact on FL-policies. It led to the assumption that the earlier a FL is introduced in school programmes, the greater the chance of native or near-native mastery. However, this theory has recently been challenged. Research indicates that adults and adolescents are also able to acquire a high degree of mastery of the target language, particularly in terms of morphology and syntax, which is due to their cognitive maturity and faster comprehension (Apeltauer 1997). Even pronunciation, which is recognised as the stumbling block for adult learners, can develop to a very high level, when taught systematically (Hammerly 1991). Cook (2002) argues that the end goal of speaking and behaving like a native speaker, that is to say native or near-native mastery, promoted by methodological consensus and language institutions worldwide, is inadequate for the needs of FL-learners. In fact, FL-users function as intermediaries between two or more languages and cultures, and need a high level of competence in the target

language to mediate with and not imitate native speakers (Cook 2002). If we accept that near-nativeness or nativeness are unnecessary aims for FLE, then the assumption – the earlier the better – becomes less important. Older learners are able to attain high levels of proficiency and unlike children, who learn associatively, adults and adolescents make extensive use of cognitive and analytical strategies and learn better: "nach einer expliziten Methode, bei der Grammatikregeln und kontrastive Vergleiche im Mittelpunkt standen" (Quetz 1995: 452). Lightbown & Spada (1993) see this suggestion as the most promising proposal for the context of FLE and research provides enough evidence to support this (Norris & Ortega 2000).

An issue related to cognitive maturity is L1-literacy. As mentioned above, GFL-learners are predominantly adults or adolescents, who can speak and write in their L1. From the time of the Direct Method, L1 was treated as an obstacle and the cause of all mistakes. It is therefore not surprising to see that the use of L1 was banned and the so-called monolingual approach established itself as best practice. This, with the exception of Cognitive Code Learning, continued for over 100 years. Drawing on Krashen's theory (Krashen 1988), proponents of the monolingual principle argue that learners do not need to understand everything that is said to them and through exposure to language input will automatically develop good language competence. This largely echoes principles of L1 or second language acquisition, when learners, due to constant exposure to the target language, absorb an enormous amount of language data implicitly and are able to achieve native or a high level of competence in the language. However, it is hard to imagine how this is possible in the context of FLE, where learners have, at best, between 70 – 90 hours of input a year (cf. Macaro 2000). As Macaro (ibid.) notes, shortcuts are needed and the use of L1 is one of them. According to observations of FL-classrooms, code switching and translation are the most natural and most effective strategies for comprehension (Butzkamm 2003). Hammerly (1991) argues that appropriate use of L1 could even double learning effectiveness. Conversely, provision of input without an explanation in L1 can cause misunderstandings, confusion and finally result in a classroom pidgin, which after a while "becomes thoroughly habitual" (ibid: 152). Butzkamm (2003) concludes that sensible and well-calculated use of L1 can greatly benefit students' proficiency. He describes such an approach as an enlightened monolingualism (=

aufgeklärte Einsprachigkeit) and asserts that with time and growing proficiency, the use of L1 is automatically reduced. The most up-to-date empirical study on the use of the target language and L1 is very much in support of the enlightened use of L1. Based on 600 questionnaires completed by English students of French, German or Spanish, Levine (2003) demonstrates that it serves a number of pedagogical functions, for example it aids comprehension and reduces students' fears. A potential danger emerges when teachers, particularly non-native speakers, rely too much on L1, because they themselves do not feel confident in the target language. Common sense dictates that this can only be counterproductive since it deprives learners of the target language, which they desire to learn: "If code-switching is prompted by teachers' language deficits rather than by careful didactic decisions, pupils cannot benefit" (Butzkamm 1998: 82).

A further aspect is the issue of limited exposure to the target language and culture. Learning GFL takes place in the country native to learners, with little or no exposure to the target culture and native speakers. This context is described as the context of sociolinguistic poverty (Hammerly 1991) and is contrasted with the natural acquisition environment, which is directly linked to a rapid increase in proficiency. Many believe that the FL-classroom is a rather inappropriate place for the development of good language competency and that instead a period of time spent in the target country can guarantee it. The experience of students of German, who spent some time in a German-speaking environment, provides evidence that being in a natural acquisition context increases proficiency enormously (Coleman 1996). However, this has to be questioned as residence abroad is arguably not the best way to achieve near-native proficiency. A number of other factors such as social and educational background, motivation, the type of language contact, and communicative needs need to be taken into consideration when examining the impact of residence abroad. There are numerous examples of people who have spent many years in the target country and are able to communicate only at a very basic level or in a pidgin form of the target language. Even students who study or work abroad achieve various levels of proficiency. Generally speaking, improvement in terms of fluency and pragmatic knowledge can be identified, while grammar and accuracy may still remain deficient (Coleman 1996). In this respect, findings obtained by Klapper & Rees (2003) based on long-term research suggest that FL-students who receive explicit

teaching of grammar prior to residence in the target country develop greater proficiency than students whose programme predominantly followed a meaning-based syllabus. It can be said that residence in a natural acquisition context has a significant effect on proficiency but gains are much greater when one has a good grasp of grammar. This provides strong support for the benefits of explicit instruction and grammar teaching in the FL-classroom.

A related problem is the issue of authenticity. The FL-classroom is marked by sociolinguistic artificiality, that is to say the classroom will never be a substitute for authentic communication, which happens in the real world (Ellis 1985, Lightbown & Spada 1993). It is not surprising to see that the vast majority of classroom conversations seem to be staged, artificial imitations of dialogues based on written language. However, the lack of authenticity does not need to be treated as a setback. The challenge is to find ways that would enable learners to approach real German and in so doing develop a more authentic proficiency (Watts 2000). There are already some strategies for tackling this problem (Reershemius 1998, Günthner 2000, Watts 2000). They focus on explicit, linguistic analysis of transcripts of spoken language, namely on the grammar of spoken German.

The next aspect is the organisation of institutionalised FL-learning. In the context of GFL, learning takes place in groups, sometimes very large ones, in hourly cycles. These groups consist of individual learners, each having a unique set of cognitive and affective features. When institutionalised learning is organised around groups led by a teacher it is extremely difficult to address individual characteristics or needs and the classroom is therefore limited. The traditional form of teaching – the teacher-centred classroom – largely reflects this organisation. The teacher usually stands in front of the group, explains, describes, elicits and corrects. This form was condemned from the 1970s onwards as authoritarian and communication-hindering, as a "Pseudounterricht" with students doing nothing more than listening and taking notes (Kerschhofer-Puhalo 2001). As a result of reformed pedagogical practices and the communicative approach, more emphasis was placed on individual characteristics and autonomy. It was suggested that learning should be learner- not teacher-centred. This was supported by new learning forms such as group- or pair-work, which were soon acclaimed as best practice. It can be said that these forms have had numerous benefits. They contribute to the development of a better classroom climate, team spirit and

autonomy and they give learners more opportunity to participate orally and to use a diversity of communicative techniques, which are excluded from teacher-centred teaching (ibid.). Research demonstrates that due to language deficits learners are rather prone to reproducing errors when working in groups and this is due to the lack of teacher control and feedback (ibid.). Holliday (1997), in his criticism on learner-centred forms, stresses that they introduce another type of classroom regime - the regime of oral participation and activity. In other words, a class is recognised as good when learners participate orally as much as possible. These are signs of learning, which have to be visible. In contrast, silence and simply listening – typical features of teacher-centred teaching – are associated with passivity and disinterest. Holliday argues that the learner-centred classroom with group work and oral participation still follows a prescribed, teacher-controlled discourse. It is not as authentic or free as is assumed. He highlights that being asked to participate in a discussion or in group work can cause an "intense invasion of psychological privacy" (ibid.: 414). He gives examples of teacher-centred classrooms in which learners were fully engaged, though silent, in interaction with the teacher and the content. While group and pair-work with their emphasis on oral participation have numerous positive effects, traditional teacher-centred teaching should not be abandoned, particularly in the context of FLE. It is indispensable when explaining new and complex linguistic phenomena or discussing re-occurring problems. It also gives students more emotional security and social support (Kerschhofer-Puhalo 2001).

The last factor which remains to be discussed is the teacher. As was the case with teacher-centred learning, in the spirit of pedagogical reform the position of the teacher fell into disrepute. The teacher was asked to step down from the podium and not to intervene too much. This meant little or no error correction and a minimal amount of teacher-centred learning or explicit instruction. The new role of the teacher was to be a facilitator, who should guide his or her learners, give them plenty of space to engage in individual or collaborative forms of work and help them to develop autonomy. While this is certainly of benefit, as discussed above, the teacher's interventions are still essential. One example is the issue of error correction. According to research, learners in the context of GFL are disappointed when their teachers do not correct their mistakes (Kleppin 1998). The same attitude was reported by large-scale research conducted by Schulz

(1996). A lack of error correction can easily lead to fossilisation: "practice without effective feedback makes imperfection permanent. Communicating in a second language with many errors makes the faulty rules underlying the errors permanent" (Hammerly 1991: 21). The anti-instruction attitude which is prevalent in modern didactical discourse therefore can be challenged. It appears to be one-sided and misleading. Widdowson observed this in 1987, when in the climate of the anti-method movement the term learner autonomy started to promote debate. While it is understandable why many educationalists have condemned language teaching as disenfranchisement, there is no evidence to suggest that reducing teacher intervention to a minimum will result in more effective learning. Research by Vygotsky (2002) has demonstrated that under the careful and systematic guidance of an expert, namely the teacher, learners progress more quickly and develop greater cognitive skills, which would not be possible without well-planned teacher instruction. As Widdowson (1987) suggests, the purpose of institutionalised learning is, despite all the moral or political claims made by innovative pedagogues, to convey certain knowledge and skills. The role of the teacher is in this respect indispensable. He functions as an *enseignant(e)*, who: "has to contrive the required enabling conditions for learning, has still to monitor and guide progress. And all this presupposes an expertise" (ibid: 87). The teacher's authority is based on professional qualifications and expertise, which, in terms of language teachers, refers to FLE. To deny this would be naïve and unconstructive: "Indeed, if one does not allow the legitimacy of this authority, then I do not see any point in talking about pedagogy at all" (ibid: 87). This issue of professional expertise is critical in the context of GFL. There is a widespread practice of employing native speakers without any qualifications in GFL because it is believed that native competence qualifies them enough to be a GFL-teacher (Hinkel 2001, Baur 2000, Krumm 1996). Some institutions or language programmes abroad, particularly those that strictly follow the Direct Method or the Natural Approach, regard it as an advantage when German native teachers do not speak local languages (Hinkel 2001). No one can dispute the linguistic precision of native speakers. They know how to use the target language appropriately and correctly with all its lexical nuances. However, this knowledge in terms of native speakers is intuitive and natural, whereas for FL-learners it is new and acquired on the basis of their mother tongue or any other FLs that they

have already learned. This is well-documented in research (Cook 2002). Numerous transfer mistakes and constant code-switching are the best examples. As Hinkel (2001) stresses, good language teachers have to know the linguistic system of both their L1 and their students, from phonetics to pragmatics. They should be able to make distinctions between both systems plausible and to code-switch with ease. They have to be as Hinkel (ibid.: 597) stresses: "in der Muttersprache und -kultur ihrer Lerner zu Hause", so that they are able: "nicht nur mit ihrem eigenen Kopf, sondern mit dem ihrer Lerner bei deren rezeptiven und produktiven Sprachgebrauch mitzudenken". This implies that just being a native speaker is not enough. A good understanding of GFL, students' L1, their cultural background and experience in FL-learning have to be considered. Kramsch (1997: 338) argues that a monolingual native speaker is, as a role model, utterly inadequate for learners, who normally: "schon eine Sprache haben und sich jetzt um Zwei- oder Mehrsprachigkeit bemühen". Cook (2002) notes that a successful target language user may be, in this respect, more beneficial. This is not to say that native speakers are inherently bad teachers, but rather that everyone, native and non-native, who teaches GFL needs a good grounding in GFL and an awareness of problems which learners face in the foreign context.

1.3.3 From universal ideals to local realities – a context approach

As the discussion above has demonstrated, GFL-classrooms are complex environments constrained by socio-political factors and classroom-specific conditions. These conditions vary from country to country, from institution to institution and from group to group. Each classroom is therefore not only complex and multifaceted, but also unique. For this reason, it seems impossible to find the one solution, namely the one teaching or learning strategy or the one paradigm. Experience using the approaches described above has demonstrated this. That is not to say that they should be completely rejected. Each of the new approaches addresses certain shortcomings of preceding concepts. At the same time, many of the claims are too general and difficult to counter. For example, no one would dispute that cross-cultural understanding, education of a tolerant, independent individual with a near-native competence in the target language are not appropriate aims. However, little suggestion is made as to how these aims can be

achieved, if at all. Some of the preceding discussion of each approach has shown that many claims are simply unrealistic within the confines of institutionalised learning. It has also been demonstrated that some may well be valid but only for certain groups of learners, in certain contexts. The key to this problem lies precisely in the fact that the vast majority of these approaches neglect the real-life contexts of GFL. Most of them are grounded in theories of Psychology, Linguistics or Pedagogy, which are imposed, top-down on teaching and learning in the classroom, while contextual factors are largely treated as obstacles to a successful realisation of these theories (cf. Holliday 1994). This is due to three firmly held beliefs, which permeate FLE: a) a constant need to improve learning and teaching practice, and improvement usually means new, b) an urge to remove all routinised activities and make learning more creative, c) a fascination with nativeness and a longing to speak and behave like native speakers. There is arguably nothing wrong with being preoccupied with improvements. However, as Hammerly (1991) observes, in FLE, there is a strong tendency to equate improvement with new ideas and this is seen as a sign of vitality. In other words, new means better and more effective, and the old is rejected. The paradox is that many new ideas are not as innovative as they sound and are "little more than old ideas recycled" (ibid.: 15). The second issue is the urge to be creative and this in particular implies collaborative and oral forms of work. Some of these creative ideas are role-play, project work and computer-assisted activities. While it cannot be denied that mundane, rote-learning and memorising do not leave much space for creativity and collaboration, they also have a role to play in the language classroom and they are perceived by many learners as effective (Folse 2004, Mitschian 2000). Rösler (1998: 8) warns that many of these new creative ideas may also easily turn into routinised activities and we should not be surprised, if in the near future: "die Lernenden genauso wenig Lust zu »noch'm« Projekt haben wie überfütterte Kommunikative Reißaus vor noch »noch'm« Rollenspiel nahmen oder früher überdrillte Audiolinguale vor »noch'm« Sprachlaboreinsatz." While it is important to give students an opportunity to contribute their own ideas in creative exercises, the traditional forms of learning and teaching should not be dismissed. The last point is the focus on nativeness, the native speaker and the native acquisition environment. Cook (2002) argues that nativeness dominated the methodologies of the 20th century and the vast majority of the principles of

teaching methodologies are based on the perspective of the native speaker, for example monolingualism, no translation, no grammar and residence in the target country as the best learning method. The native speaker is the authority and the ideal, "die letzte Instanz in puncto Sprachgebrauch" (Kramsch 1997: 329), and near-native or native proficiency is the goal. While learners and teachers need standards to refer to, the goal of near- or nativeness is not necessarily appropriate to the conditions and aims of FLE. Cook (2002: 331) suggests that only a few FL-learners will finally attain this: "Both teachers and students become frustrated by setting themselves what is in effect an impossible target, ugly ducklings regretting they will never become ducks without appreciating that they are really cygnets". FL-learners have different goals compared to native speakers. They are also going to use the target language for purposes different to those of native speakers. Many learners may never meet a native speaker or are unable to go to the target country. For the vast majority, the only chance to gain exposure is in the FL-classroom. Therefore, setting native-based aims and promoting a stay in the target country as the best learning method puts GFL in an unprivileged position and largely underestimates the profound impact which teaching in the classroom has. There is disbelief and distrust of FL-teaching and the FL-classroom. The fascination with the ease with which children acquire their L1 and second language learners their target language has led many to believe that teaching in the FL-classroom is only beneficial in as much as it resembles the natural acquisition context with its authenticity, incidentality communicativeness and effortlessness. The FL-classroom is not a natural environment context. Although it is constrained by numerous factors, it also has great advantages, of which explicit instruction and progression are the most promising. FL-learners are not children or second language learners, but cognitively mature classroom learners who are already literate in their L1 and sometimes other languages. The target language is a new resource that they acquire in addition to and on the basis of their existing skills and knowledge. This is why learning a FL is not similar to learning the mother tongue. While there is arguably a large amount of incidental learning, a FL is also learned consciously, 'bottom up' and incrementally (Hammerly 1991). It is a long, difficult process marked by lapses, sudden flashes of insight and routines. Any approach which attempts to bypass difficulties and promises an easy and natural

way to learn FLs is an illusory, would-be vision. Glück (1991: 69) summarises this:

> "der kommunikative, der interaktionsbezogene, der pragmatische, der emanzipative etc. Fremdsprachenunterricht macht das alles sicherlich netter, freundlicher und auf jeden Fall 'progressiver'. Die Geschäftsgrundlagen sind jedoch, wenn man ehrlich ist, dieselben, und sie sind unveränderbar. Man kann über die Notwendigkeit, die Strukturen der Grammatik und die Vokabeln zu lernen bzw. zu lehren, soviel schimpfen, wie man will – man muß sie lernen (und als Lehrer: lehren) wenn man die betreffende Sprache erwerben will."

It should not be surprising to see that some of the principles underlying the learnability orientation are not necessarily suitable. This is not an exhortation for the return to the Grammar-Translation Method or audio-lingual kill & drill techniques, although explicit grammar instruction and memorising have an important role to play in the FL-classroom. Returning to the question raised at the beginning of this section, "what is the way forward?", given that there cannot be one single 'recipe', many scholars and practitioners advocate what is known as eclecticism – a combination of innovation and traditional methods. While this could potentially be of benefit and is undoubtedly what largely happens in classrooms worldwide, a note of caution is advised as eclecticism may easily lead to an arbitrary, pick-and-mix approach and do more harm than good. What seems to be a more sound idea is the concept of appropriate methodology (Holliday 1994), a context-approach (Bax 2003) or regional pedagogy (Kramsch 1997), which has recently been suggested on the fringes of didactical discourse. What these approaches have in common is a fundamental change of perspective from native-based and universal truths to responses to local realities, their problems, challenges and priorities, from the native speaker to the target language user, from the natural acquisition context to the context of the FL-classroom. In short, what is needed is: "eine Pädagogik des regional Geeigneten", "statt einer Pädagogik des global Eigentlichen", central to which is the axiom that the target language is not the birthright (= Geburtsrecht) of a native speaker but the acquired privilege (= erworbenes Recht) of the target language user (ibid.: 339). Such pedagogy assumes that there are many different ways to learn and teach. However, this is only one factor in FLE and it is the context which is the determiner of what and how something should be taught. Such pedagogy places a thorough examination of contextual factors at the forefront and these include factors at both the macro-

and micro-level. In a particular context, it may be appropriate to follow the intercultural approach with its emphasis on literature. In another context, it may be crucial to stress explicit grammar instruction. This can only be determined by paying more attention to the context, the target language users and target language classrooms. This idea is not necessarily a new one. It can be traced back to the 1970s and Munby's Communicative Needs Processor, which was, however, criticised for being too focused on linguistic needs and for ignoring the wider environment in which learning and teaching takes place (Cunningsworth 1983, Holliday 1994). In the context of GFL, there were also a few projects, which put context at the forefront with the aim of designing regional teaching methods and materials (Breitung & Lattaro 2001). However, by the end of the 1990s, the idea of investigation into actual contexts and the development of regional materials were largely abandoned. In fact, research turned to cognitive variables, strategies, learner autonomy and the usability of new technology, whilst regional learning and teaching needs were not particularly considered (cf. Königs 2003). There are numerous interesting research findings but they are very much experimental in nature and largely decontextualised, so that they can be only cautiously, if at all, applied in the language classroom. The gap between theory and practice is massive and many praxis-related problems, which learners and teachers confront on the daily-basis, have not been adequately responded to. Bax (2003) argues that the reason for this is that each approach or method neglected contextual factors or these factors were treated as variables that had to be strictly controlled. The process of learning and teaching FLs does not take place in a clinical laboratory, nor can it be strictly controlled. It is a very complex and multifaceted endeavour and it is probably this complexity, which acts as a deterrent. However, the focus on one or two variables leads to results, which in terms of practice only scratch the surface (Holliday 1994). If FLE wants to be effective then it has to place the real-life contexts on the central stage (Bax 2003). It needs to look beneath the surface and provide rich accounts of local circumstances, problems and priorities, namely the macro-context. It also needs to identify as many characteristics as possible about the actual teaching and learning conditions and this can be best done by bringing in voices from the practice – regional narratives (Schwerdtfeger 1996) from learners and teachers, their experiences and problems (see figure 2).

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Figure 2: A model for the context approach
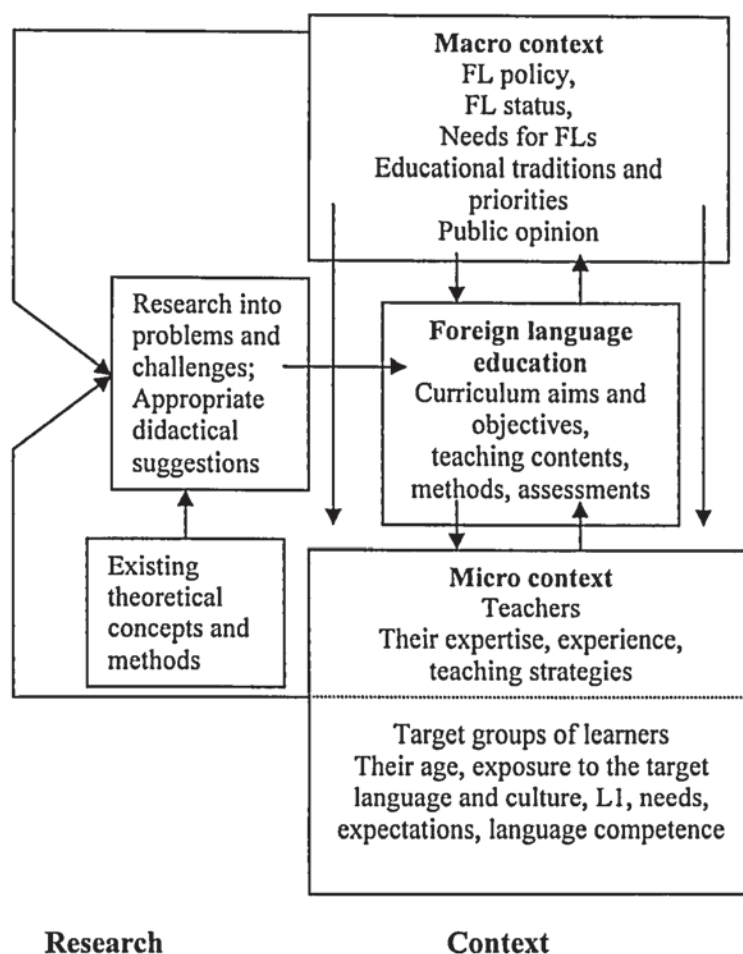
Placing the context at the front repositions GFL from an ivory-tower, theory-driven to a local, practice-oriented discipline, which is grounded in research into local problems and challenges, and attempts to provide didactical responses tailored to these problems and challenges. As Edge & Richards (1998: 573) argue, educational research has to be sensitive towards real-life practice and conditions: "educational research that does not arrive from educational practice is sterile." In so doing, the restrictive distinction between theory and practice could be removed (ibid.). This should not suggest that theories are not important. Rather, theories should be derived from investigations into practice, which, in turn, should result in the development of praxis, where praxis is understood as "theorised practice of specific situations" (ibid.: 574). This can be achieved through explorations, actions, observations and reflections. Existing theoretical concepts should also be considered, however, not as operational norms but as a body of knowledge, which could be appropriated to a given practice. The diversity and multifacetedness of

each educational context makes it impossible to provide fixed pedagogical norms. However, the essence of good teaching lies not in a provision of rules and norms but in its ability to respond to problems emerging in a given practice (ibid.).

This research attempts to follow this conceptualisation by examining problems and challenges which first year students and university teachers face in the context of German Studies in the UK. It will do so by examining the macro-constraints and problems at the micro-level that have recently affected teaching and learning German language and culture in Higher Education (HE) in Britain. The purpose of this is not to provide a new approach but implications, which respond to problems and challenges emerging in this context in order to optimise learning and teaching of German.

2 Research methodology

This chapter presents a case study tradition, which this research follows. It will discuss the rationale for using case study research and demonstrate its significance and merits for research in the educational field. To begin with, a brief overview of research paradigms in the field of GFL will be provided. Subsequently, the rationale for employing a case study will be discussed. Finally, data types and data collection procedures will be described.

2.1 Research orientations in GFL

The development of research methods in the field of GFL and in FLE were largely influenced by intellectual shifts, which emerged in the social sciences over the last few decades. Until the 1970s, researchers followed a positivist method of inquiry, which was largely based on experimental, quantitative procedures. In GFL, this tradition is referred to as analytical (Edmondson & House 1993). A research project designed according to such a paradigm normally begins with a hypothesis, which is then tested in a number of experiments. The results obtained should contribute to the establishment of a new theory, which has to follow two criteria: falsifiability, which means it should demonstrate how it could be false; and reproducibility, meaning that given the same research procedures, it should lead to identical results. The positivist, analytical method of inquiry has had a great impact on research projects concerned with the evaluation of teaching and learning practice, particularly with attempts to prove the supremacy of one method over another. Unfortunately, many research projects have failed to provide evidence for the success of particular teaching methods (Beretta 1992), which, given the complexity and multifacetedness of educational settings, is arguably understandable. Edmondson & House (1993) emphasise that the criterion of reproducibility cannot easily be applied to research in educational settings, as there are no two identical teaching or learning contexts. Moreover, it is almost impossible to design a research project, which would prove why a tested hypothesis is false. Above all, the authors point to the fact that generating hypotheses prior to research activities could lead to serious bias, as there is a

strong expectation to obtain results that confirm these hypotheses – a phenomenon which is commonly defined as a 'self-fulfilling prophecy'.

The limitations of experimental methods were soon widely acknowledged and from the 1980s, new methods of inquiry began to influence research in FLE. This turn was influenced by intellectual shifts which strongly objected to the positivist supposition that researchers are able to arrive at a true, objective picture of reality (Guba 1990). The new shift, referred to as the post-positivist turn, emphasised the fact that in the social sciences, knowledge is generated within particular social, cultural and political contexts and not in an experimental laboratory. Moreover, reality can rarely be fully explored as it is. This is because human beings are limited in their intellectual and sensory potentials; they are not able to deliver a value-free picture of reality as they cannot step outside themselves. However, what a researcher is able to do is approach reality by means of various qualitative and quantitative research methods: "If objectivity can never be entirely attained, relying on many different sources makes it less likely that distorted interpretations will be made" (ibid: 21). The post-positivist shift met with a great response in FLE and GFL. From the 1980s onwards, a growth in research projects, which have employed research techniques other than experimental ones, has been witnessed. These were generally described as ethnographic and qualitative and included interviews, observations, introspections or diaries. Of particular research interest was the process of learning and teaching rather than the effectiveness of particular teaching methods. In GFL, this tradition is referred to as holistic (Edmondson & House 1993: 37). Some scholars remain sceptical about the validity and reliability of results obtained from holistic, qualitative studies. Qualitative studies have even been described as soft research, 'anecdotalism' and lacking academic rigour (cf. Silverman 2001). The issue of generalisability is particularly problematic. However, it is justifiable to ask whether it is a fallacy to apply positivist criteria to qualitative inquiries, which are concerned with understanding and deeper insights into a phenomenon under study rather than with proving whether a theory is true or false.

In the last two decades, research in GFL has expanded considerably and to provide an overview of all methodological procedures is therefore outside the scope of this study. In general, qualitative research methods are widely applied (Müller-Hartmann & Schocker-v. Dirtfurth 2001), but quantitative research

methods have not been dismissed (Albert & Koster 2002). Moreover, for many researchers the strict separation between quantitative and qualitative methods cannot be upheld. Grotjahn (1995) observes that the complexity of teaching and learning contexts cannot be analysed by means of one methodology and he strongly recommends a multiple triangulation strategy (= mehrfache Triangulierungsstrategie), which combines both qualitative and quantitative methods. This is also emphasised by Edmondson & House (1993), who argue that the combination of both can provide a more accurate picture of teaching and learning realities:

> " 'gemischte' Ansätze sind möglich und auch empfehlenswert [...] Im Prinzip sollen sich Forschungsergebnisse aus verschiedenen Forschungsansätzen ergänzen, so daß unseres Erachtens ihre Kombination oder sogar Integration in ein und demselben Forschungsprojekt erstrebenswert ist" (ibid.: 43).

In summary, there is a consensus that both traditions have their strengths and limitations and that a combination of qualitative and qualitative research methods is beneficial when exploring real-life settings. Silverman (2001: 37) argues that it is absurd to strictly adhere to the qualitative and quantitative distinction. Certain quantitative measures can sometimes be useful, when doing a qualitative study, as they enable the researcher "to survey the whole corpus of data ordinarily lost in intensive, qualitative research" (ibid.). The reader benefits from them as well, as they give him or her a chance "to gain a sense of the flavour of the data as a whole" (ibid.). The benefits of qualitative methods lie in the fact that they enable the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of the complexity of real-life contexts and people acting within them. Educational contexts are prime examples of such complex environments. At the same time, educational phenomena exhibit numerous tendencies, which can best be described by quantifications. A research method which allows for combining both qualitative and quantitative research procedures is the case study method. In the following sections, a definition of 'case study' will be provided in addition to reasons why this approach has been adopted for this research.

2.2 What is a case study?

Research designs based on a case study have been widely applied in the social sciences, especially in Political Studies and Psychology (Stake 2000, Yin 1994, Merriam 1988). A case study design is normally employed when research aims at investigating uniqueness and at the same time the complexity of a particular case. A case is understood to be an integrated system; it can be a person, a group of people, a programme or an institution (Stake 2000). Yin (1994) argues that a case study is undertaken when 'how' and 'why' questions are being asked about a contemporary set of events over which "the investigator has little or no control" (ibid: 9). A case study has to be employed in real-life contexts, which implies that "the data are to be collected from existing people and institutions, not within the controlled confines of a laboratory" (ibid.: 68). In so doing, he clearly differentiates the case study design from experimental research. A key feature of case study research is the use of multiple sources of evidence referred to as triangulation. Yin (ibid.) demonstrates six possible sources: 1) documentation such as reports, statistical records and newspaper articles, 2) archival records that include survey data and personal records 3) interviews and surveys, 4) direct observation where the observer is not a part of the context to be observed, 5) participant observation, where a researcher is a part of the context being investigated and 6) physical and cultural artefacts. Each source has its strengths and weaknesses and no single source has a complete advantage. This raises the issue of validity – internal and external – and reliability. A discussion of problems related to internal validity will take place first.

A research project is recognised as being internally valid if the findings represent what the project intended to examine (cf. Merriam 1988). There are a number of techniques which strengthen the internal validity of case studies. The most important is the use of a variety of data sources – triangulation. This is not unproblematic as triangulation can yield inconsistent or even contradictory data. Yin (1994) points out that dealing with inconsistencies and contradictions is an unavoidable part of case study research and the researcher must be prepared for it. Another strategy which strengthens internal validity is peer examinations. Finally, the internal validity of a case study is maintained when an easily traceable and

retrievable chain of evidence is established. This means that no original evidence is lost through carelessness or bias.

Another feature of a high quality case study is its reliability. Reliability refers to the reproducibility of research findings. In other words, a study is recognised as reliable if, when repeated, it yields the same results. Reliability is a problematic issue in educational research, where the researcher is normally confronted with multifaceted and ever-changing realities (Edmondson & House 1993). Merriam (1988) regards reliability, in the traditional sense, as a misfit when applied to case study research in educational contexts. She suggests that the concept of consistency or dependability implies that given the data obtained the findings are consistent and make sense. Merriam proposes three strategies to strengthen the consistency of a case study: triangulation, a thorough explanation of data collection procedures and a clear statement of the position of the researcher. Yin (1994) does not reject the concept of reliability and indeed highlights that a case study can be reliable provided that a database is established, which carefully documents all data sources and collection procedures.

The last criterion is the establishment of external validity – generalisability –, which is the most controversial issue. Many opponents claim that a case study provides a poor basis for generalisations. However, Yin (ibid.) argues that this is not the purpose of this type of research. A case study is first and foremost concerned with the exploration of particularity. Secondly, it is not a hypothesis- or theory testing enterprise: "the case study [...] does not represent a 'sample', and the investigator's goal is to expand and generalise theories" (ibid: 10). He calls it analytical generalisation and contrasts it with statistical generalisation commonly applied in experimental studies. In fact, research findings obtained from a single case may not work in other cases as every case is distinctive and unique. However, at the same time, each case involves a number of commonalities, for example a case located in an educational context is unique but at the same time intertwined in a net of common socio-political conditions. The benefit of case studies is that they can serve as a tentative proposition to examine similar cases. In so doing, they have great potential in promoting research dialogues and opening up new research perspectives. In literature concerned with case study research, other conceptualisations regarding the issue of external validity can be found. Stake (2000) proposes the concept of naturalistic generalisation, which he

understood as a process of knowledge-building and awareness-increasing on the part of the reader. While reading a case study report, readers can better see similarities and differences; they can draw their own conclusions and initiate dialogues. The emphasis on the reader is also crucial, from Merriam's point of view, as the generalisability of any case study is ultimately related to what the reader can learn from it. This is defined as reader or user generalisability: "It is the reader who has to ask, what is there in this study that I can apply to my own situation, and what clearly does not apply" (Walker 1980, quoted in Merriam 1988: 177). Therefore, the issue of generalisability, with reference to case study, cannot be approached from a strictly experimental point of view. The purpose of this type of research is not to verify an established theory or to generalise. Its purpose is to transfer knowledge obtained from a particular situation to a new situation. The reader plays a crucial, not to say, indispensable role in this process. To strengthen the generalisability of case study findings, it is therefore imperative to provide a thorough description of the study's context: "The description must specify everything that a reader may need to know in order to understand the findings" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, quoted in Merriam 1988: 177). The next strategy is to establish the typicality of the case, that is, to demonstrate to what extent the case under investigation is similar to other comparable cases. In so doing, readers will be able to make comparisons and to understand the case better. This in turn enhances its generalisability.

Another issue of importance is the question of ethical conduct. Aspects which every case study researcher has to consider are: 1) the protection of informants from harm, 2) the preservation of the right of privacy and 3) the notion of informed consent (Merriam 1988). When conducting a case study, a number of ethical pitfalls can occur. Firstly, the researcher may be in a position of power or too involved in the case under study. This, in turn, could result in a selection of data which depicts the case in positive terms only and avoids contradictory or negative issues. Secondly, the researcher may also demonstrate a preference for particular interest groups. Thirdly, the presence of the researcher in the context under study may also significantly influence investigated issues. Such phenomena are known as a halo effect (cf. Edmondson & House 1993) and are likely to occur when conducting interviews or observations. There are a number of tactics that help to deal with such dilemmas. The purpose of the case study should be made

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clear to informants and the data obtained from them have to be used for this purpose. Moreover, the right of the informants' privacy should be preserved by for example, providing pseudonyms. The researcher also has to make a clear statement on his or her position and role within the studied context and clarify his or her relationship with participants and other institutions or sponsors concerned. This should all lead to the development of a trustworthy and honest atmosphere, which is a prerequisite for a high quality case study.

As can be seen, the traditional criteria for high quality research need to be modified and extended if one wants to carry out a case study in a valid and ethically sound manner. This is particularly applicable to case studies conducted in educational contexts, which are ever-changing and multidimensional environments where absolute truths can rarely be obtained.

Case studies possess numerous merits, which seem to be well suited to the exploration of teaching and learning situations. First and foremost, case studies explore a particular instance but they also relate it to a general problem. They illuminate a phenomenon in its complexity, pointing to diverse factors and problems which experimental research could never account for. They obtain information from a variety of sources and demonstrate what Merriam (1988: 14) called "vivid materials" such as personal voices from a variety of groups, documentation and newspaper articles. In so doing, they can provide rich information about a phenomenon or programme under study, elucidate problems, hindrances and success factors. Above all, they engage readers in a dialogue and lead them to make generalisations, which could significantly extend their experience. As a result, they contribute to knowledge-sharing, which in turn could be the basis of reshaping educational practice and forming new educational policies.

The current study is concerned with the exploration of problems and challenges, which have emerged in real-life practice of teaching and learning German language in HE in Britain. It follows the context approach (see figure 2), which involves two levels of inquiry. Firstly, the socio-political developments, which have recently affected teaching and learning German in British HE, namely the macro-context, will be investigated. Subsequently, key characteristics of and experiences in the actual practice, namely the micro-context will be explored. In so doing, this study attempts to provide some implications, which could

potentially contribute to the optimisation and enhancement of teaching and learning in the given context. As argued in chapter 1, the current study is concerned with the context-specific local responses as opposed to universal ideals. Case study research focuses on one case, which may be a group of people or an institution. It also requires presenting it in a broader context, so that each case can be better understood. It also allows for the use of a variety of sources to explore the real-life practice in a given context. This, in turn, enables the researcher to obtain insights from people and situations and in so doing to gain profound understanding of existing problems, strengths and weakness. Therefore, this type of research was thought to be best suited to the current study and was followed by the decision to focus on one case – the micro-context, which will be presented against the background of the macro-context.

2.3 Case study design

This part focuses on the research development and data sources applied for this case study. Firstly, rationale for the selection of the case and units of analysis will be discussed. Following this, data sources and data collection procedures with their strengths and limitations will be clarified. Finally, there will be a discussion of possible ethical issues to be considered.

2.3.1 The selection of the case and the position of the researcher

As discussed above, a case is normally a bounded system, a group of people or an institution. For the current study, the case is a department of German Studies in a British university. Within the case, two groups were considered as units of analysis: a group of thirty-five first year students and a group of five lecturers of German. The choice of the case and the target groups was determined by a number of reasons. As discussed above, case study research is normally concerned with a situation which is unique. With respects to this, the case chosen is distinctive, as it places strong emphasis on language teaching and learning. It follows an integrated approach and that means that the target language is used as a medium of instruction, in both language and content classes. Assessment is also

carried out in the target language and 50% of the mark accounts for linguistic quality. As discussed in chapter 1, teaching in the target language belongs to the group of learning innovations, which are currently promoted. Within the context of German Studies in the UK, this is still very unique, as only a small number of departments follow a similar policy. This will be discussed in greater depth in chapter 3. Besides, the profile of German Studies includes also aspects which can be described as traditional, for example explicit grammar teaching. Against this background, it was interesting to examine students' and university teachers' experiences in the context under study, in order to see what the strengths and limitations of the innovations and traditions are and to what extent they respond to students' needs and expectations. Students in the first year were chosen as the target group because the first year is generally regarded as the most turbulent time for students at British universities. Besides, this made it possible to examine from what base teaching at university starts and to see what problems and challenges are faced at this stage. This is the analysis of the micro-context.

A case study cannot be considered as a sample from which generalisations about a universe can be made. However, it is still possible to generalise from a case provided that the study's context is thoroughly described and similarities and differences with comparable cases are established. For this reason, this research will examine the current state of the discipline of German Studies and key developments which have recently affected teaching and learning German language and culture in British Higher Education. This is the macro-context of this research. This will situate the case under study in its broader socio-political and educational context. The purpose of this is to demonstrate to what extent it has been influenced by these developments and how it differs from other cases. Besides, many problems which happen at the micro-level are a continuation of problems emerging at the macro-level. Thus, the analysis of the macro-context is crucial, for it enables the researcher to understand better the case under investigation.

Finally, it should be highlighted that my position as a sessional university teacher enabled me to gain access to the research site and the participants. In research, there is a continuum of the involvement in the case under study ranging from a complete participant, participant as observer, observer as participant to a complete observer (Merriam 1988). Each of these roles has its strengths and

weaknesses. In general, it is assumed that being an insider provides the researcher with better access to the research site, so that he or she is able to gain a thorough understanding of the context being studied. At the same time, being a part of the context may not always lead to better results, as the researcher may be too close to the action and therefore lack critical distance (ibid.). Moreover, there is a danger of bias, as the insider may tend to overidentify with the context and present it in positive terms only. In contrast, a 'naïve' outsider has the advantage of being curious and neutral, which in turn may allow him or her to see issues that escape the attention of the insider. Being an outsider may, however, evoke an atmosphere of distrust. My position as a sessional university teacher meant that I was an insider and the access to the research site and participants was not restricted. However, the context was new to me, as it was the first time I became involved in teaching and learning German language in HE in Britain. Thus my position could be defined as a 'naïve' outsider, who gradually became an insider. I was a researcher participant only partially involved in the context under study and consequently, I was able to stay partly detached from the context. In so doing, the danger of the overidentification with the context was reduced.

2.3.2 The macro context

This section will first present the major data types and sources employed to investigate the macro-context. Secondly, their strengths and weaknesses will be discussed. As explained above, the purpose of the examination of the macro-context was to examine the key tendencies and difficulties which have recently affected teaching and learning German language and culture at British universities. Since many of the problems emerging at university level are a continuation of trends in secondary schools, it was deemed necessary to examine developments at the pre-university stage. I was particularly interested in two issues: the status of German in British schools and British policy towards FLs. The status of German was explored by looking at the numbers of pupils learning the language in the last two decades at both GCSE and 'A' level. The data was obtained from reports and statistical records compiled by educational organisations concerned with FLE. These include the Association for Language Learning, the National Centre for Languages, the University Council of Modern

Languages and the Department for Education and Skills (DfES)[14]. Since this research is primarily concerned with didactical strategies for teaching German, the question of teaching methods applied in British language classrooms was of great interest. Information on this issue was obtained from the National Curriculum. British policy towards FLs was scrutinised by evaluating governmental strategies, which have recently been implemented. These strategies were formulated in governmental policy documents circulated by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES). The data was further supported by a range of problems discussed in academic papers, press articles and reports compiled by non-governmental institutions. In so doing, I was able to identify major tendencies and difficulties, which have recently affected the field of GFL in secondary schools. This in turn provided instructive clues to the understanding of problems which have emerged in departments of German Studies. Firstly, a brief historical overview of the transformation from the philologically-orientated *Germanistik* to the diverse field of German Studies was presented. This analysis was supported by statistical records obtained from the Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies (LLAS). Subsequently, I intended to depict the current profile of German Studies. I was particularly interested in the differences between universities and their entry requirements, rationales for studying German as stated in departments' mission statements, research foci as defined by members of staff, the range of degree courses offered, and the emphases on language teaching. To address these issues, publicity materials and information provided on the official websites of twenty-six departments of German were surveyed. Information obtained in this way was further supported by archival records compiled by the Conference of University Teachers of German in Great Britain and Ireland (CUTG).

As a result, major tendencies and problems that have shaped the discipline of German Studies in the UK could be identified. Subsequently, the investigation into the current status of the discipline enabled me to see how departments have responded to these changes and problems and what effects these changes have had on language teaching. This has helped to position the studied case in its broader socio-political and educational context. It also provides the necessary background

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[14] Appendix 1 provides further information on these institutions.

for potential readers to better understand the analysis of issues and problems at the micro-level.

The main source of evidence used for the investigation of the macro-context was documentary information such as policy documents, statistical records, newspaper articles, publicity materials and research reports. As Atkinson & Coffey (2004) stress, organisations in literate societies and especially in educational and academic settings, present themselves to others (and themselves) through a variety of written records including digital artefacts such as websites. These are social facts and as such create a "documentary reality" of a setting in question (ibid.: 57). A description of a setting or an organisation which does not examine this documentary reality cannot be complete or precise. Besides, documentary evidence possesses a number of strengths such as stability, unobtrusiveness and scrupulousness (Yin 1996). It can be viewed easily and frequently, and it is independent of the case study. At the same time, Yin (ibid.) warns against the overreliance on documentary evidence, for it is often compiled for a specific purpose and directed at a specific audience, and may reveal the reporting bias of their authors. As Atkinson & Coffey (2004) stress, written records produce a particular type of reality, which does not necessarily reflect, how an organisation works as a whole. This is why the researcher should always be alert to the purpose and forms of documentary evidence in addition to their relation with the potential readership.

The strengths and weaknesses of documentary evidence were considered. To reduce the reporting bias, documentation from various sources was examined. I looked at documentary data from governmental and non-governmental institutions, and from departments of German Studies. Press articles and conference contributions related to German Studies in British Higher Education were also considered. Archival records and statistical data complemented the picture. The selection of prospectuses for the investigation into the current status of German Studies was first determined by the location of departments – only universities in England were considered – and by the online-accessibility of relevant information. Some universities did not provide any information on their programmes in German or the information was only accessible by the members of a particular university. Although there are approximately forty universities offering German Studies to a degree level in England, the number of prospectuses

examined was automatically reduced to twenty-six. The clear limitation of this type of documentary evidence is that it is designed to promote the University/ department in order to attract potential students and therefore may not reflect the true status quo of a department. Additional questionnaires, research trips combined with observations and interviews would provide a more scrupulous picture. However, this would be a very costly endeavour only achievable with a large amount of funds (cf. Kolinsky 1994).

2.3.3 The micro context, part I: setting the scene

Any case study research has to depict accurately the environment – the research site in which it is located (Yin 1994). The purpose of this is to enable readers to better understand a range of contextual factors which determined the case under investigation.

For this study, the research site was a department of German Studies, which was a subunit of a larger School of Languages and Social Sciences at a University in England. The description intended to position this research site within the macro-context discussed above. For this reason, the same factors as above were taken into consideration and this included rationales to study German, entry requirements, staff and research foci, range of degree courses, and the profile of German Studies in terms of aims, contents, methods and assessments. The main source of evidence used for the description of the research context was documentary evidence and archival records kept in the University's Registry Office. The objectives, structure, contents and methods of the programmes in German were identified by consulting the official handbook, programme specifications and the prospectus.

2.3.4 The micro-context, part II: the students

The second part of the case study was concerned with the investigation into learning German from the perspective of a group of British students of German, who at the time of this inquiry were in their first year of study. Data was collected in three stages. This involved two sets of questionnaires and a series of interviews

with eight students. The following sections will discuss the data types, data collection procedures and their potential pitfalls.

2.3.4.1 Questionnaires

The first step of this study was to identify objective and subjective information about key characteristics of the student group in the context under study. Following the suggestions made by Neuner & Hunfeld (1993), I sought to identify how old the students were and for how long they had been learning German and other languages, and why they decided to study German. I was also interested in their learning experience at 'A' level in terms of skills practised and activities undertaken as well as their general attitude towards learning FLs and German in particular. This information was obtained from the first questionnaire, which was divided into six parts (see Appendix 2). The first part sought general information about the students' age, gender, the course on which they were enrolled, languages spoken at home, the first FL they had learned and the duration of learning German. The second part focused on learning German at 'A' level and included questions about the type of school, the number of hours spent on learning German, skills practised in the classroom and materials used as well as teacher characteristics and the use of English. It also included open questions related to the students' subjective opinions about their likes and dislikes in terms of learning German at 'A' level. The third part of the questionnaire addressed the issue of the students' exposure to the target language and culture. Of particular interest was to find out what type of exposure they had had and how regularly they visited German-speaking countries. The fourth part focused on the purposes for which they decided to study German at university. This section was largely based on motivational factors listed in a study by Coleman (1996) and included a mixture of integrative and instrumental motives. The fifth part explored students' beliefs and attitudes. The reason for this was to investigate, from the point of view of the target language users, how languages are best acquired and which aspects are of crucial importance in this process. I drew on an inventory of beliefs designed by Horowitz (1987) and included statements related to 1) the general nature of FL-learning, for example 'the best method to learn a FL is in the target country' or 'the most important part of FL-learning is practising grammar', 2) common

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myths, such as, 'women are better at acquiring FLs', 3) fears and anxieties, for example 'I feel embarrassed while making mistakes in German' and 4) attitudes, for instance, 'learning German is frustrating'. In addition, this part of the survey included issues related to the role of the teacher as a motivational factor and a belief in the successfulness of teaching methods. The last part of the survey focused on difficulties as experienced by students in their first term at university. Items listed involved issues that were specific to the context under study such as teaching in the target language, reading literary and complex non-literary texts, giving oral presentations as well as general study difficulties such as 'coping with the amount of work set'. The first questionnaire was distributed towards the end of teaching period I. In the academic year 2001/2002, the number of students studying German as a part of their degree course was 35. The return rate was 89% (n= 32). The first questionnaire was large. However, it predominantly consisted of multiple-choice questions based on Likert-scales that formed a continuum varying from complete agreement to complete disagreement. This format is commonly perceived as quick and easy to answer (Genesee & Upshur 1996).

The second questionnaire had two aims (see Appendix 3). The first was to examine students' assumptions about learning and the role of the teacher. The purpose of this was to position the students and their attitudes within the current didactical discourse (see 1.3). On the basis of the discussion on constructivism vs. instructivism, I designed a set of questions, which involved the main principles promoted or rejected by the current didactical discourse. Particular attention was given to the role of the teacher/lecturer in the learning process. The second part of the questionnaire focused retrospectively on students' experience during their first year of study in the context under investigation. It attempted to examine which aspects of the programme they perceived as difficult, and how they coped with the content and level of work. By using a range of open questions, the surveyed students were asked to comment on their learning experience in the context under investigation. This section included opinions on content and language classes and consisted of questions related to the general value of the course provided, materials used, learning techniques and changes they would like to see. The second questionnaire was distributed towards the end of the second term and the return rate was 80% (n= 28).

Questionnaires have numerous strengths. Firstly, they enable the researcher to obtain unified and tidy data from a larger number of respondents in a relatively short space of time (Gillham 2000). With respect to this, other methods of data collection, for example interviews, are much more time-consuming. Questionnaires are normally anonymous, which can potentially prompt respondents to provide honest answers. Moreover, responses obtained can be analysed in a straightforward manner, because questions and answers, as in the case of closed questions, are predetermined. However, the questionnaire as a data collection tool has a number of disadvantages too. Questionnaires are normally based on two types of questions. The first type commonly referred to as closed questions is often used to gather factual data. It requires the respondent to select one response, for example 'yes' or 'no'. The respondent may also choose one answer from a list provided or indicate his or her preference on rating scales normally involving 5 choices and often referred to as Likert scales. Likert scales are mainly used to obtain data on values, beliefs and attitudes (Busch 1993). While these type of questions provides a tidy and standardised set of data, there are also some pitfalls. Firstly, the choice of answers could be limited and the respondents may select an answer which does not necessarily reflect their opinion. Secondly, selecting a preference on the Likert scale is not without difficulties. Research has demonstrated that the respondents are inclined to 'sit' on the "mildly positive side", even if there are not fully satisfied (Gillham 2000: 26). They also tend not to attend to extreme response choices such as, for example, 'never'. To overcome these limitations, open questions, which normally prompt unexpected responses, can be included. However, the analysis of them can be more complicated and is certainly time consuming. A good categorisation of responses is always required. Above all, questionnaires are very impersonal tools of data collection and this may limit honesty and seriousness of responses (ibid.). It is difficult to know whether questionnaires are taken seriously and whether the answers provided do indeed reflect respondents' opinions or were chosen arbitrarily. Seriousness and honesty is certainly higher when conducting face to face interviews (ibid.). Besides, the respondents may tend to provide answers which they feel are acceptable or desirable in a certain socio-cultural context and do not mirror the way they would normally behave or think (Silverman 2001). Further limitations of questionnaires include low response rate, misinterpretation

of questions, poor structure and layout (cf. Albert & Koster 2002, Gillham 2000, Genesee & Upshur 1996). These limitations were considered when designing and distributing the questionnaires. Following Yin's (1994) and Gillham's (2000) recommendations, numerous steps were undertaken to reduce potential flaws. Firstly, the key thematic areas were carefully identified and questions were formulated. The language was simple and long statements were avoided. First drafts of both questionnaires were reviewed by colleagues who were senior researchers in the context under study and familiar with this type of data collection. Secondly, all questionnaires were anonymous, which preserved the respondents' identity. Thirdly, to avoid misunderstandings and to increase response rate, both questionnaires were circulated in the classroom in the presence of the researcher. The advantage of this was that the purpose of the survey could be clearly explained and any queries clarified. However, the presence of the researcher may have influenced students' responses. Sheets were collected immediately after the respondents had finished. Fourthly, to motivate the respondents and to avoid boredom, a variety of questions were used including open and multiple-choice questions (Gillham 2000). The latter were based on rating scales that formed a continuum varying from complete agreement to complete disagreement. In addition, many sections included the response category 'other', so the respondents had a chance to provide their own answers. All data obtained was stored in an electronic form. Results obtained from Likert-scale-based questions were coded in a database created using MS Excel and are presented in the form of diagrams in chapter 5. All statements derived from open questions were written in MS Word, arranged in tables and categorised according to the similarity of responses (see Appendix 5.1 for example). Responses obtained from questionnaire I can be viewed in Appendix 4 and from questionnaire II in Appendix 5.

No amount of reading can prepare a novice researcher for constructing a well-structured and accurate questionnaire. Although I was aware of a number of potential limitations and attempted to reduce them to a minimum, there were still a few issues which weakened the effectiveness of this data source. The section relating to learning German at 'A' level would have provided better information if it had been designed around open questions and not the Likert-scale format. The same issues occurred with references to listed difficulties (questionnaire I, section

QF). At the same time, a high number of open questions in the second questionnaire did not necessarily prompt a greater number of responses. Many students tended to provide one or two-word answers. Above all, both questionnaires were large, which might have discouraged the respondents from providing a more elaborate answer to the questions asked. Nonetheless, the questionnaires enabled me to gather data on the key characteristics of the student group in the studied context. They pointed to numerous issues that were further elaborated upon in a series of interviews. This was necessary because questionnaires as a single source of data are not enough to gather information on real-life learning and contexts, as they are limited measures to provide a deeper understanding of real-life settings and people acting within them (Silverman 2001).

2.3.4.2 Interviews

Interviews are a personalised, oral form of investigation, which enables researchers to approach informants individually. Interviews are a very popular research data collection instrument in educational studies. However, they are also a very demanding tool which requires a great deal of sensitivity and communicativeness. Depending on the format, interviews are generally divided into structured, semi-structured and open interviews. Each of these types follows different objectives. Structured interviews are based on a set of pre-prepared explicit questions and are normally used to elicit data, which can be easily compared and tabulated (Silverman 2001). The interviewer has to follow a strict agenda. He or she should not demonstrate any involvement or emotions and have to stick to the order of questions. He or she is in full control over the interview situation. In fact, structured interviews are something like oral questionnaires. They are very rigid in nature and do not allow for much variation in responses. When doing structured interviews, one can miss out on interesting, real-life phenomena. As two sets of questionnaires were distributed for the first part of this research, enough factual data was obtained and therefore format of a structured-interview was rejected.

Open interviews are not based on a pre-planned agenda and are normally used to obtain "lived experiences" and authentic accounts of reality (ibid.: 90). They

are often described as conversations. The prerequisite is an establishment of a trustful, non-hierarchical relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee and mutual understanding. The interviewer should also be emotionally engaged and express his or her feelings and attitudes. The premises of the open interview make this particular data collection method very attractive. However, there are potential flaws and difficulties. Firstly, as the interviewer always follows an aim, the establishment of a truly equal relationship is very difficult, if not impossible. As Silverman (2001: 92) observes, even an open interview is a form of social control. Secondly, open interviews require a great deal of openness and trust, which are easier to establish between friends. It is difficult to be a friend with every person one has to interview. Besides, some interviewees do not want to reveal everything about his or her life and experiences. Above all, open interviews are often very broad and relevant data may be difficult to identify.

Semi-structured interviews can be placed somewhere in the middle, as they are based on a set of pre-prepared questions. In contrast to structured interviews, they permit a variety of responses and in so doing, they enable the researcher to come closer to the experiences of the interviewees and to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon or phenomena under study. In contrast to open interviews, this elaboration happens within limits, which in turn gives the interview a focus. Given the limitations of structured and open interviews, the semi-structured format was felt to be best suited to the needs of this study.

It is critical to note that interviews are not naturally occurring phenomena and do not necessarily mirror reality. Interviews are simply organised symbolic interactions and as such are influenced by a whole host of issues which the interviewer and interviewee bring to the interview situation. These are their social positions, roles, membership in certain groups, gender, race and their cultural socialisation. All these aspects may significantly encroach upon the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee and alter the interview findings. As Miller & Glassner (2004: 127) highlight, the responses we gather are largely determined by "who we are in their [interviewees'] life". Thus, the interviewees may provide answers, which they feel are socially and culturally acceptable or are expected from them but which do not necessarily reflect the way they think or behave. Moreover, there is always a mechanism of social control, no matter how open the interview is (ibid.). The interviewer always has an aim, and the

interviewee may perceive the interview situation as threatening. The question which ultimately arises is what the true value of interviews is, given that the interviewee may provide answers to confirm the researcher's or social expectations or may be uncomfortable giving true answers. Miller & Glasser (2004: 129) argue that despite the limitations, interviews enable us "to get *closer* to people's lived experiences" and to the social world they are in, as some parts of their narratives are of cultural and collective nature, and "come out of the social worlds around them" (ibid.: 134). However, much depends on the interviewer's listening skills and the atmosphere of the interview. Establishing trust, familiarity, ensuring privacy, rapport building and a non-judgmental attitude are necessary prerequisites. For the interviewer it is also critical to carefully watch his or her own reactions and this can be best done by listening to recordings.

All students in Year One were asked whether they would like to participate in an interview. Twenty students expressed their willingness. However, the arrangement of a mutually convenient time reduced the number to eight. This was due to the fact that the interviews were scheduled towards the end of the second teaching period (June 2002) after the exam session and some students had already left the university for the vacation. The group of interviewees included six female and two male students of varying language proficiency levels. The purpose of the interviews was to come closer to the students' learning experience. Each interview was based on pre-prepared open questions structured around six main themes (see Appendix 6). The first theme included general questions about the respondent's language background, while the second part focused on experiences of learning German at 'A' level. The third part of the interview was concerned with the respondent's subject and university choice and the fourth part aimed at the elicitation of comments related to students' experience in the context under study. The fifth part elaborated on issues related to beliefs and attitudes towards FL-learning. Some of the questions raised included 'what is the best learning method and what in particular facilitates learning?' Finally, preferred learning strategies were discussed.

All interviews took place in the context under study. The language of communication was English. The average duration was forty-five minutes but a few interviews took longer as some students demonstrated a great deal of communicativeness. The atmosphere was generally friendly and informal. At the

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beginning of each session, the purpose of the interview was explained. I stated that I was interested in the students' experience as FL-learners at university and beyond and that it was hoped that this data would provide FL-teachers with some guidance on how to prepare their teaching activities. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. As the purpose of this study was to gather information on selected themes and not an analysis of interactions, it was not necessary to use extensive transcription coding. Simple, tidy extracts with standard orthography were thought to be sufficient. Only a few conventional symbols were applied as follows: S1: – interviewee, R: – researcher, [?] – unclear, hm – listener-speaker signal. Appendix 7 includes a sample of an interview.

Having listened to the recordings, I have recognised a number of weaknesses. On some occasions, I did not take the opportunity to explore aspects that proved to be of interest and tended to proceed to the next question, as the examples below demonstrate[15]:

> R: What was most difficult for you at the University?
> S3: Grammar side. I've never been good at grammar. It will probably be a problem even beyond University [*why this is the case? What aspects of grammar were particularly difficult?*]
> R: And what about lecturers talking in German?
>
> R: Do you have any particular interests in German culture?
> S1: Yes [*what interests you in particular?]*
> R: And why this University?

There is also the issue of the asymmetric relationship between the interviewee and the researcher. Being a teacher in the context under study, I represented the more powerful group. My interviewees were students and such a power imbalance is particularly conducive for halo-effects to occur. I attempted to limit this by arranging the interviews in the period after the exam session. In so doing, it was hoped that the interviewees would be more relaxed and that a stress-free atmosphere could be established. Nonetheless, on occasions, when asked to comment on teaching and learning in the context under study or what possible improvements they would like to see, all interviewees tended to provide vague or positive answers. This may be due to the fact that they were satisfied and did not want any changes. They might also have felt that giving negative comments could

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[15] Follow-up questions that could have been asked are in brackets and italics.

put them at risk. They might also have provided answers which seemed appropriate to them in the given context, 'to please' the teacher. At the same time, after listening to the tapes, I realised that the vast majority of the interviewees were honest as they were not afraid to say things that could put them in an unfavourable light. Therefore, given the asymmetry of the different roles, the interviews generally seemed to be as open as was possible in the given context.

2.3.4.3 Linguistic difficulties: grammar and writing

The main purpose of any teaching method or activity in the context of GFL is to enhance the learner's FL-competence. One of the prerequisites is the assessment of what learners can already do in the target language and which areas are in need of improvement. To establish this, FL-educators employ a range of assessment procedures. Generally speaking, there are two types of assessment (Clapham 2004). The most commonly used are tests, which measure either overall proficiency or specific areas of knowledge and skills such as grammar and reading comprehension. There are also alternative forms of assessment such as writing portfolios or project work.

For this study I endeavoured to establish the initial language competence of the students in Year One. I decided to look at two areas: grammar and writing. These two areas were chosen for a number of reasons. Firstly, after reviewing relevant literature concerned with the language competence of students of modern languages in the UK, I realised that there was a large amount of dissatisfaction with accuracy and grammar. In contrast, speaking and listening comprehension were identified as being less problematic. Secondly, although all areas of language competence are emphasised in university language programmes, writing is the most crucial part. Studying at university involves writing socialisation and students of languages are required to accomplish a range of writing tasks.

In order to assess grammar competence, I evaluated thirty-five grammar tests completed by students in the first week of the course. The purpose of the test was a diagnostic one, namely to show how students in Year One performed in exercises involving essential grammatical knowledge. This test was designed by the lecturers involved in grammar teaching. It consisted of six tasks, which predominantly involved gap-fill exercises (see Appendix 8). All questions were

formulated in German. The decision to evaluate tests, which were applied in the context under study, was determined by three factors. Firstly, I did not want to 'intrude' by using additional test batteries. Secondly, the test was a diagnostic one, which served the purpose of this study. Thirdly, it was completed at the beginning of the course, which documented students' initial grammar competence. One limitation of the test was the fact that it was based on selected grammatical categories and therefore could not be taken as a measure of whole grammatical competence. Instead, it could be seen as a sample.

The second part of the assessment of language competence involved an evaluation of fifteen texts written by students in the first term of Year One[16]. It was a piece of creative writing as students decided which incidents they wanted to write about. However, it was not a completely free writing exercise as students were prompted regarding the key event - *Begegnung* - and the narrative style story. It was felt that writing a story about a *Begegnung* was an appropriate exercise as it encouraged creativity, which in turn prompted experimentation with language structures and vocabulary. At the same time, the narrative style 'story' is normally concerned with personal experience and therefore not conducive to the use of some grammatical forms such as passive sentences. The writing task was conducted outside the classroom. The purpose of this was to determine the quality of writing given that students had a chance to work at their own pace and to use dictionaries or grammar books. Moreover, there was no word limit so students could write as much or as little as they wanted. In fact, the shortest story consisted of 172 words and the longest amounted to 467 words. Following traditional error analysis, the evaluation embraced three levels: spelling and punctuation, grammar (syntax to include syntagmatic relations and inflectional morphology) and lexis (cf. Kleppin 1998). Since this evaluation was based on coherent texts, it was deemed necessary to move beyond the level of the sentence and to look at the students' production from the textual perspective, for the reasons highlighted by Kast (1999):

> „Punktuelle Fehlerberichtigungen, wie z. B. bei Rechtschreibung, Artikel und Genus oder bei morphologischen Fehlern, führen zu relativ oberflächlichen kurzfristigen Bearbeitungsaktivitäten. [...] Fehler in den Bereichen Tempus, Modus, Konnektoren,

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[16] Before collecting the samples, I asked all 35 students whether they could provide a copy of their texts for my research purposes. I received fifteen texts.

Textaufbau, Textsorte usw. lösen dagegen satzübergreifende, textumfassende und textübergreifende Bearbeitungsaktivitäten aus" (ibid.: 172).

By drawing on Heinemann & Viehweger (1991) and Brinker (2001), the following textual aspects were included in the analysis: the text function and intention, the text pattern and related topical coherence. The purpose of this was to find out whether the intention of the narrative style 'story' was fulfilled and whether the texts followed conventional text structure. All stories were typed and stored in MS Word (see Appendix 9). The copies preserved the spelling and punctuation of the original handwritten copies. All mistakes were counted and classified (see Appendix 10). When the same mistake occurred twice in one piece of work, it was counted as one. Some mistakes occurred in different categories as they presented a mixture of grammatical and lexical deficiencies.

2.3.5 The micro context, part III: the lecturers

This part was concerned with areas of difficulties as experienced by five lecturers working in the context under study. Five lecturers were finally chosen for a series of target interviews. The choice was determined by two factors: a) their willingness to participate in this research project and b) their involvement in teaching first year students.

2.3.5.1 Interviews

Interviews took place at the beginning of the academic year 2002/ 2003. The interview was of a semi-structured design and consisted of five parts (see Appendix 11). The first and second section focused on general biographical questions such as educational background, reasons for taking a post at a British university and difficulties in acclimatisation to the new environment. The third part elaborated on information about the interviewees' professional background and qualifications. Of particular interest was their previous experience in teaching GFL. The fourth part was related to the interviewees' experience as FL-learners and included the number of languages they had learnt, the difficulties they experienced and the best way to learn a FL from their point of view. The fifth part

was the largest. It focused on the lecturers' work experience at university and involved questions about problems they had experienced, teaching methods and activities, which proved to be particularly successful, their ideas about a successful FL-learner and the qualities of a good teacher.

All interviews took place in the context under study and lasted approximately one hour. At the beginning of each session, the purpose of the interview was explained. I stated that I was interested in the lecturers' experience as University teachers in German Studies and that this data was also vital to my PhD research. All lecturers were sympathetic with my purpose. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. As the purpose of the interviews was to gather information on the issues described above, it was not necessary to use extensive transcription coding. Tidy extracts with standard orthography were thought to be sufficient. All lecturers were assigned an alphabetical letter, lecturer A, lecturer B etc. Appendix 12 provides a sample of an interview. As the interview was based on a set of pre-prepared questions, there was a clear focus. At the same time, the vast majority of questions were open and this allowed for a greater variation in response. Although each interview slightly differed in terms of the wording of the questions asked, the main themes were not lost. All responses were then grouped in accordance with the main themes of the interview. As discussed in 2.4.3.2 the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee determines the atmosphere of the interview and the responses. My position as a sessional lecturer and researcher in the context under study meant that the relationship was rather collegial and less asymmetrical than was the case with the student interviews. All lecturers were working in the same department and hence were my colleagues. I was aware of the fact that being a fellow colleague or 'insider' could distort interview data, because it is easier to lose a critical, distant perspective. Moreover, with two lecturers, I had a more friendly relationship, as we used to socialise outside work. In fact, interviews with lecturer B and E were less formal than the interviews with other lecturers. They included for example laughter and jokes. Such a constellation may also distort interview data, because being a friend could potentially induce too judgmental or sympathetic attitudes. However, being more formal could have introduced a rather artificial atmosphere. Throughout all interviews, I tried to remain distant and refrain from my personal judgments. Besides, being an insider was advantageous.

It allowed the interviewees to be at ease thereby giving them greater opportunity to discuss what they perceived as the real issues. On the whole, the atmosphere of all interviews was friendly and open. The interviewees showed a great interest in the interview, were approachable and did not hesitate to provide answer. This could be a result of the fact that some people like being interviewed because it makes them feel important or gives them the opportunity to share their experiences and also their problems (Garton 2004).

2.4 Summary of chapter 2

This chapter has demonstrated the research methodology that this thesis follows. A detailed account of data sources, data procedures applied and their strengths and weaknesses was provided. To guarantee reliability of this case study, an extensive database was created. All transcripts, documents and reports used for the analysis were stored as a hard copy and/or electronically and can be examined at any time. To ensure internal validity, multiple sources of data were used. The most important were: 1) documentation, including official reports, statistical surveys, press articles and archival records, 2) semi-structured interviews and 3) surveys with semi-structured and structured questions. External validity was strengthened by the description of the context under study. I persistently attempted to provide a thorough account of contextual factors and issues that a potential reader may need to know to better understand the array of problems discussed.

3 The Macro-Context: The German language and culture in Higher Education in Britain

Throughout its history, the British *Germanistik* underwent a number of transformations, which were largely dictated by a changing social, political and educational climate in Britain. These changes had a great impact on the status of German departments in the university sector, on the profiles of degree programmes and on curriculum objectives. While some of these developments challenged and indeed enhanced the discipline, they also had less desirable effects. In the new millennium, the teaching of German in Higher Education (HE) in Britain is confronted with difficulties on a scale not previously encountered.

This chapter will identify the developments and challenges that have recently emerged in the context of teaching and learning German language and culture at undergraduate level in HE in Britain. It focuses on the discipline of German Studies. Developments in language centres are, therefore, not considered, as they are units independent upon language departments and often offer courses for external customers[17]. Trends in undergraduate language departments are largely a continuation of trends in secondary schools and therefore developments in the secondary sector, particularly at 'A' level, need to be examined. The analysis will begin by highlighting these issues to include official language policies and general public attitudes towards German. This will be followed by a discussion of the transition from *Germanistik* to German Studies, highlighting the social, political and educational factors that determined this shift. The *status quo* of German Studies in England will be explored by surveying the position of German within university structures, the profiles of degree programmes, the status of language teaching and teaching methodologies as well as research profiles. Finally, problem areas, constraints, challenges and potential directions will be discussed. This, in turn, will promote a better understanding of the issues examined in the micro-context.

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[17] Developments in language centres have been examined by Kelly & Jones (2003).

3.1 German in Secondary Schools[18]

The vast majority of German Studies undergraduates come from post-compulsory secondary level, known as 'A' level[19], for which a GCSE[20] in German is required. Thus, before addressing developments in the university sector, it is instructive to examine the learning and teaching of German in the preceding stages. Many of the problems that now confront German Studies have their roots at this level.

Historically, German was a niche subject in British education. For centuries, French had been the privileged FL in the British Isles, not least because of stronger cultural bonds with Britain's neighbours across the channel. When modern languages were introduced into the curriculum of grammar schools in the second half of the 19th century, German was the third language after French and Latin (Ortmanns 1993). Until the mid-20th century, German, like other modern languages, was an elitist subject reserved for the selected few, mostly academically gifted pupils (Mitchell 2000). The teaching approach was the Grammar-Translation Method. The situation changed in post-war Britain, when in the spirit of democratisation, the educational sector expanded dramatically. In the late 1960s, comprehensive schools were established, which provided free secondary education for all boys and girls regardless of social status or ability. These schools included ML in their curricula and this automatically resulted in the expansion of modern languages (ibid.). From being elitist subjects learned by minorities, they became a part of mass education. This, combined with societal and economic demands – there was a growing need for linguists in business and trade (Wegner 1999) – and a growing scepticism towards grammar, had a massive impact on teaching methodologies. The dominant approach based on grammar and well-formed sentences was condemned for being ineffective for the development of oral skills needed in services and industry. Gradually, more emphasis was placed on communicative competence and the use of language in every-day

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[18] This section does not include the situation in Scotland.
[19] 'A' level stands for the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level for pupils aged 16 to 18. At this stage, modern languages are optional. Three 'A' level passes are normally required to enter HE.
[20] GCSE stands for the General Certificate of Secondary Education. It is an exam, which is taken towards the end of key stage 4 for pupils, who are aged 16. It marks the end of compulsory education.

situations. In so doing, a new pragmatic framework, known as Graded Objectives in Modern Languages (GOML), began to replace the grammar-orientated syllabus. It was designed around narrow topics and dialogues which were particularly relevant for tourism (Pachler 2001b). The educational system in the UK at that time was decentralised and the new movement was not coherent. It was not until the beginning of the 1990s that a centrally controlled policy towards teaching modern languages in compulsory education was introduced. In 1992, the first official framework for teaching modern languages, as set out in the National Curriculum (NC), came into effect[21]. Although only one FL was a statutory requirement, many schools provided teaching of a second FL, generally starting at the age of twelve or thirteen. The new framework was largely informed by GOML and later by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)[22]. From the time of its introduction, it has only been slightly modified. Its main features are: an extensive use of pair and group work, information gap exercises, the use of authentic materials, the supremacy of spoken language, the extensive use of the target language as a medium of instruction and a minimal concern with grammar and accuracy (Block 2002). The introduction of a coherent language policy was to a large extent beneficial as it put FLs on a more solid footing. At the same time, this was accompanied by a strong politicising of education, which placed more emphasis on accountability and outcomes (Mitchell 2000). Indeed, the NC provides extremely unified level descriptions and attainment targets to measure end-results in FL-learning. As Mitchell (ibid.) argues, there is an obsession with assessment in British schools and anecdotal evidence suggests that teachers "play things safe and invest time and effort in intensive rehearsal of the relatively limited core of language needed for test success" (ibid.: 289).

These social, political and methodological changes have had a massive influence on the position of German. It benefited largely from the expansion and democratisation of education. In addition, German became the language of a new economic power in Europe, which in turn boosted its relevance and prestige. From the 1960s onwards, the percentage of pupils taking German at compulsory

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[21] The period of compulsory education in Britain is divided into four key stages: key stage 1 for pupils aged 5 to 7; key stage 2 for pupils aged 7 to 11; key stage 3 for pupils aged 11 to 14; and key stage 4 for pupils aged 14 to 16.
[22] See National Curriculum at: http://www.nc.uk.net/index.html [accessed 26 June 2006]. NC does not apply to private, independent schools.

secondary level rose continuously. In the mid-1970s, it outperformed Latin and established itself as the second FL after French (Ortmanns 1993). A rise was also recorded at 'A' level, though only a small percentage of GCSE learners continued with German in post-compulsory education. In 1990, an unexpected expansion was recorded, probably because of the excitement generated by the fall of the Berlin Wall and political changes in Europe. In the 1990s, the number of German students at GCSE level remained quite steady, with a slight downward tendency (see Appendix 13). In contrast to compulsory education, German at 'A' level declined more sharply. During the period from 1992 to 2002, the number of pupils taking German at 'A' level fell by nearly 40%. In addition, if figures for GCSE exams are compared with those for 'A' level, it becomes apparent that approximately one pupil in ten continued with German in post-compulsory education. In other words, given the option of choosing subjects, the vast majority of pupils show little or no interest in German. Thus, the enthusiasm that emerged at the beginning of the 1990s has faded away, and serious concerns about the future of German are now voiced (Coleman 2004, Watts 2003), justified by alarming findings in recent surveys. In 2003, the Association for Language Learning, the National Centre for Languages and the University Council of Modern Languages compiled an up-to-date picture of current trends[23]. Modern languages are deteriorating in state schools, and German seems to be particularly affected. A clear tendency to replace it with Spanish has been identified. This report also highlights that languages have become an attribute of those who come from wealthier backgrounds as they are strongly emphasised in private schools. As surveys carried out in subsequent years demonstrate, these trends are increasing[24]. Exam statistics published in *The Guardian* in 2004 and 2005 confirm this further (see Appendix 13). The total number of GCSE candidates for German was 125,663 in 2003. This figure fell to 105,288 in 2005. As far as 'A' level is concerned, the decline in German is more severe. In 2003, there were 6950 candidates, and this number fell to 5901 by 2005 – slightly more than in 1964[25].

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[23] See "Language Trends 2003", http://www.cilt.org.uk/key/trends2003.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].

[24] See "Languages Trends 2004", http://www.cilt.org.uk/key/trends2004.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].

[25] According to statistics provided by Ortmanns (1993), in 1964, there were 6049 'A' level candidates in German in England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

In comparison, in 2005 there were 14484 candidates for French and 6230 for Spanish.

To summarise, German is losing ground dramatically in secondary education, and this has had a disastrous impact on the situation in the tertiary sector, as will be seen in the following section. The question which inevitably follows is: why do British pupils show such a disinterest in modern languages in general and in German in particular? (Watts 2003, William et al. 2002, Chambers 2000, Stables & Wikeley 1999, Milton & Meara 1998, Thornton & Cajkler 1996). First of all, the mother tongue of British pupils is generally acknowledged as a *lingua franca* (Brumfit 2004b). English is the international and intercontinental language: "die Hauptsprache des Welthandels, der EDV, das Identitätssymbol der Jugendlichen" (Clyne 1999: 121). Thus, it is difficult to convince pupils, parents and teachers of the importance of learning FLs. Statements such as: "What's the point of wasting time learning a foreign language when everywhere you go, people speak English? You might as well bring back Latin" (Woodward 2002: 2) is a symbolic argument often heard. Moreover, Phillipson (1998: 103) argues that even leading British educationalists are in support of monolingualism and see "no intellectual or educational arguments for English-speakers to learn any foreign langues". Secondly, FLs are generally seen as difficult subjects and German in particular. Besides, pupils often do not perceive the effort of learning languages as worthwhile. This problem is related to a common misapprehension that learning languages does not offer good career opportunities. Many pupils think that it limits employment options to teaching and translating (ibid.), which is a myth. According to statistical data, language graduates in Britain have excellent employment opportunities in various fields (see Appendix 14 and 15). Thirdly, a number of studies reveal that pupils' lack of motivation is largely due to outdated teaching materials used in schools and demotivating topics such as racism, environmental pollution and National Socialism (Plassmann 2000). As a result, the enthusiasm that pupils show at the beginning of a language course gives way to disgruntlement after one or two years (Williams et al. 2002). Fourthly, there is a serious shortage of teachers of FLs. Problems in recruiting teachers of German often result in the discontinuity of the language in schools (Pachler 2001a). Finally, many scholars and teachers observe that there is strong negativity towards Europe and foreignness which is exacerbated by the British mass media. This is

also responsible for the decline in FLs, particularly German (Watts 2003, Weber 1997). In the UK, Germans are the objects of almost epidemic feelings of antipathy which are well maintained by the leading tabloids and are associated with the Second World War (cf. Matussek 2005, Leffers 2003, Sontheimer 2002). Against this background, it is not surprising to see that Hitler is the most famous German among British pupils, as a survey carried out by the University of Bonn reveals (Bowcott 1996).

Another problem frequently debated is the low standards as set by the National Curriculum and its communicative credo. As Grenfell (2000: 24) observes, unambitious learning targets reduce learning "to the point where the students are only able to order meals they are not going to eat, plan journeys they are not going to make". At GCSE level, pupils acquire a limited tourist vocabulary and learn how to write postcards (Plassmann 2000). In fact, they exhibit little knowledge about German-speaking countries (Thornton & Cajkler 1996) and a research project by Milton & Meara (1998) shows that the general achievement of British pupils in language competencies is lower than that of their continental counterparts. Large deficits are reported in the standards of linguistic correctness and accuracy (Jones 1993). The consequence is that many students enrolled on German courses at universities have a vague understanding of German grammar, which is a huge disadvantage as they are required to produce complex texts, both written and spoken (Townson & Musolff 1993). Communication, which CLT claims to develop, is also quite limited. A didactical answer proposed by academics is to place more emphasis on explicit grammar teaching in schools, particularly at 'A' level (Claussen 2004, Klapper & Rees 2004, Townson & Musolff 1993). However, this issue is not as simple as it may appear. Durrell (1993) warns that given the current dramatic decline in German and the rather negative attitude towards grammar, more focus on grammar teaching in schools could be counterproductive as it could discourage an even greater number of learners from learning German. Durrell (ibid.) stresses that universities should be responsible for redefining their teaching objectives in order to compensate for students' deficiencies. An argument in support of grammar teaching in schools is the fact that after four or five years of communicative teaching, learners still produce meaningless sentences in written and spoken language and their overall proficiency is rather disappointing (Grenfell 2000). In 1994, Mitchell already

observed that teaching grammar within the communicative framework is the biggest challenge for the coming years and admitted that there was a lack of "any developed understanding of the most effective and principled way to tackle grammar instruction" (Mitchell 1994: 40). Ten years on, grammar instruction is still neglected (Klapper & Rees 2004) and the consequence is that even students who gain high level passes in German at 'A' level only have a vague understanding of grammatical principles and struggle when reading and writing texts in the target language. This will be discussed in greater depth in 5.6.3. The school curriculum continues to overemphasise communicative competence and more recently cultural understanding, tolerance and empathy (Wegner 1999). While these are commendable pedagogical aims, they are doubtful measures for the achievement of good and communicatively appropriate language proficiency.

All in all, the state of affairs in the FL-sector is acute. A report "Languages: the next Generation" compiled by the Nuffield Foundation in 2000[26] issued a serious warning that if the situation continues, the UK will soon be unable to fulfil its linguistic needs and will consequently suffer economic, cultural and social deficits[27]. To counteract this situation, the Nuffield Language Inquiry made a number of recommendations, the most important of which was the proposal to make languages a specified component of the 16-19 curriculum. However, recent government decisions seem to have gone in entirely the opposite direction. The policy outlined in the *Green Paper 14-19: extending opportunities and raising standards* (2002) proposed that the study of a FL should be optional at key stage 4. This policy has been implemented recently. Thus, one can only speculate about the future of German in schools in this new socio-political climate. Whether this new policy will lead to a further decline cannot yet be determined. However, it will certainly not boost numbers. Once a subject is not compulsory, it is a matter of student choice and German is not in a particularly strong position[28].

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[26] This report can de downloaded from:<http://languages.nuffieldfoundation.org/languages/home/> [accessed 26 June 2006].
[27] See "Language Trends 2003", http://www.cilt.org.uk/key/trends2003.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].
[28] The 6 least popular 'A' level subjects as measured by the number of students in 2005 are, from the bottom position: Irish, Welsh, Home Economics, Communication Studies, Science Subjects (2) and German. See: http://education.guardian.co.uk/alevel/page/0,16367,1551646,00.html [accessed 26 June 2006].

In summary, this section has demonstrated that the position of German in the British secondary sector has been largely determined by socio-political factors. While the democratisation and the introduction of the NC strengthened its status, the dominance of English and a lack of support for modern languages on the part of the government and the general public have led to a dramatic decline. The following sections will demonstrate the effects which this situation has had on the academic discipline of German Studies.

3.2 The emergence of German Studies: difficulties and challenges

The British *Germanistik* has undergone great transformations in the last few decades. From the 1960s onwards, it has slowly transformed into a multidisciplinary degree programme – German Studies, which has gone beyond the traditional canon and includes a new range of subjects and contents, often defined as Area or Cultural Studies (Reeves 1998, Sandford 1998). This transformation is the result of four factors, which have affected modern languages at universities: the expansion of universities, the emphasis on vocationality, the marketisation of the HE-sector and the decline in the number of 'A' level candidates. This section will begin by highlighting these issues.

The British *Germanistik* sustained its elitist and homogeneous status until the end of the 1950s (Reeves 1987)[29]. It was largely based on the literary canon of the German *Germanistik* combined with British Classical Studies. Courses included two main areas: studies of the history of the German language from Old High to New High German, and literary courses starting with *Nibelungenlied* and ending with the canon of the 19th century. Language teaching was reduced to translation and written exercises on the basis of texts selected from the literary canon, while oral fluency was not highly valued (Reeves 1998). The British *Germanistik* was an intellectual and aesthetic degree course, intended to enable students to "become privy to what the 'finest minds' have thought and said in the canonic literature of the culture in question" (Sandford 1998: 36). It had clearly defined boundaries of what constitutes knowledge and what should be taught, learned and researched –

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[29] Developments in the British *Germanistik* in the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century were examined by Batts (1999) and Sagarra (1999).

mainly literature (cf. Evans 1988). All this provided a strong coherence to the discipline, and a sense of identity for *Germanists*.

In post-war Britain, the need for highly trained technologists and scientists as well as the growing population of pupils eligible to enter HE called for an expansion of the system (Reeves 1998). Six university colleges received a charter and four new universities were founded. At the beginning of the 1960s, a committee under Lord Robbins reviewed the patterns of full-time HE and subsequently urged the government to increase the number of students and expand the sector. Following these recommendations, ten Colleges of Advanced Technology (CATs) were granted university charters and thirty-two polytechnics were founded. The last phase of the expansion of the HE-sector was marked by the transformation of polytechnics into universities in 1992. The Robbins Report addressed the importance of modern languages for a growing number of new occupations in services and industry. However, it was stressed that in response to societal and economic demands, the courses had to depart from the traditional literary-oriented degrees and arrive at a more practical syllabus with the emphasis on oral skills and on contemporary affairs of the cultures in question (ibid.). New, mainly ex-technological universities, which did not have traditional Faculties of Arts and Humanities, were first to follow this plea. The quantity of literature was reduced and in its place a range of social, political and cultural aspects of the modern-day culture in question was introduced. The new profile of *Germanistik* came to be known as German Studies (Reeves 1988). In contrast, German departments at old universities demonstrated resistance and introduced only modest alterations to the existing literary curriculum (Kolinsky 1993). In general, they maintained their elitist status anchored in their old traditions.

In the following decades, the transition from *Germanistik* to German Studies was reinforced by political and economic changes affecting the industrialised nations, and particularly by the shift from the liberal towards more career-orientated, vocational education. The HE-sector, seen as an engine for economic growth, underwent a strong politicising and marketisation, underpinned by societal demands to gear HE towards industry and services. Guided by enterprising fervour, the government under Margaret Thatcher introduced neo-liberal market principles into universities, whilst public expenditure on HE was

gradually reduced (Williams 1997)[30]. To ensure transparency and a cost-effective allocation of now reduced government funds, a number of quality monitoring procedures and performance indicators were introduced, with the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE)[31] as the basis of prestigious funding. In 1996, Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA) was launched[32]. However, the latter had an indirect impact on the financial situation (Coleman 2004). As Atkinson & Coffey (2004: 60) highlight, the introduction of quality control measures to academia is a consequences of the "audit culture", which is these days an underlying feature of any organisation. It reflects a strong drive towards standardisation and categorisation of modern life through setting achievement targets and measuring outcomes. The next step was the abolition of lifetime tenure for new academic staff and a cutback in government expenditure per student by 30% (Williams 1997). A consequence of the decrease in public expenditure on HE is the current shift towards the principle of user-pay, namely the introduction of top-up tuition fees. When students have to pay for their education, it is to be expected that their choice will be less motivated by personal interest than by good value for money, that is to say employability and the usefulness of their qualifications, namely career prospects, which they offer (McGuiness-King 2003).

These transformations had a serious impact on German Studies. In the 1980s, German departments had to accept cuts in government funding and consequently had to freeze appointments (Kolinsky 1993). Furthermore, the majority of students who entered departments of modern languages were interested in studying the contemporary issues of the culture in question, and in acquiring a practical command of the target language (Kolinsky 1989, Evans 1988). Fewer students were interested in literature (Meara 1994). In response to these changes, German departments relocated some of their resources to new academic fields. Cooperation with other sections and departments was sought, and in fact a wide

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[30] According to Reeves (1998), in 1979-80 expenditure on HE represented 1.23% of the UK's GDP. In 1999-2000, it was 1.13%. At the same time, the number of students doubled.

[31] The Research Assessment Exercise is a panel of peers, who assess the quality of a department's research activities. The grade awarded determines the level of research funding for the next 4 years. See http://www.hero.ac.uk/rae [accessed 26 June 2006].

[32] Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA) is an audit organised by the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA). QAA is an independent body responsible for assuring sound standards of qualifications awarded by HE. The organisation is concerned with the level of achievement necessary to obtain a particular qualification as well as with learning opportunities and learning outcomes. These standards are reviewed through institutional audits in a peer review process. See http://www.qaa.ac.uk/default.asp [accessed 26 June 2006].

range of combined degree courses emerged, with combinations like German + other language(s) and German + Social Studies leading the way. A survey conducted by Kolinsky (1993) indicated that in 1989, only 5% of students stuyding German enrolled on a single honours degree[33]. The majority chose combined courses with German as the equal partner in a subject mix. Kolinsky (1993: 95) concludes that studying German in Britain became "'German and...', an element in a sundry range of programmes, courses, degree offerings and study packages", united only by the title and a year abroad. In fact, only a few universities, mainly Oxford, Cambridge and the civic Universities[34] offered German courses with a literary focus, although there was no strict canon. The majority of departments shifted their content towards Area Studies or Culture Studies with a blend of History, Politics and Media Studies. As a result, by the end of the 1980s, German Studies departed largely from its original literary ethos and emerged as "a multifaceted field with very little common ground" (ibid.: 96).

At the beginning of the 1990s, German Studies unexpectedly found itself on the road to recovery. The fall of the Berlin Wall and the subsequent political and economic transformations in Europe raised interest in German language and culture. This manifested itself in growing numbers of first year students and a better financial situation in the departments (Kolinsky 1994). However, this enthusiasm did not last long and soon gave way to stagnation. In 1992, the number of first year students in German departments reached its climax. Since then, a continual decline has been observed (see table 3). At the beginning of the 21st century, French still preserves its dominant position in language departments being a component of 64.5% of all language courses (Willis 2004). A significant deterioration of interest in German is evident. Currently German represents no more than 15.1% of all language courses in HE (ibid.).

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[33] Single Honours degree means that German is studied as a single subject.
[34] The term 'civic universities' denotes universities which were founded in the large industrial towns in England in the second half of the 19th century. This group originally included the University of Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester and Sheffield. The civic universities are at times described as redbrick universities (see also 3.3.1).

Table 3: Accepted Applicants in ML (1994 – 2004)[35]

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
French	5906	5835	5655	5743	5161	4763	4320	4077	4110	3846	3879
German	2459	2340	2288	2343	2091	2050	1807	1736	1653	1524	1384
Spanish	1959	2006	2115	2257	2280	2400	2314	2331	2560	2333	2481

In contrast, Spanish has gained in importance. In 1998, it outperformed German and ranked second after French. This is a clear continuation of the trend, which has emerged in the secondary sector. Moreover, a breakdown of the number of accepted applications into subsequent combinations indicates that for the vast majority of students, German represents no more than half of their degree (see table 4). This confirms that students do indeed see languages as an extra qualification on top of another course (cf. Watts 2003).

Table 4: Breakdown of Accepted Applicants in German (1994 – 2004)[36]

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Balanced Combination	1707	1624	1622	1602	1452	1390	1239	1193	1149	1095	991
Single Subject	358	301	298	299	278	252	231	228	176	186	171
Major	39	53	42	55	48	72	65	58	73	57	67
Minor	352	362	326	387	313	336	272	257	255	186	155

Falling recruitment has resulted in many departments being faced with external pressures, of which financial sanctions and closures were the most disastrous (Klaus & Reimann 2003). Thus, in order to secure its financial stability, German Studies had to act quickly. The major strategies that emerged include: amalgamation of departments into larger units, intensification of research activities, attraction of students through increased 'marketing' of German and modularisation of degree programmes, the expansion of the Institution-wide languages programme (IWLP).

The first strategy was the amalgamation of departments of German into larger units, known as Schools of Modern Languages, Schools of Languages and European Studies, Schools of Area or Culture Studies (Kelly & Jones 2003). Some German departments were added to Schools of Business and Management. In many cases, the amalgamation did indeed rescue German and jobs in

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[35] Figures distributed by the Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies (LLAS), http://www.lang.ltsn.ac.uk/resources/resourcesitem.aspx?resourceid=2114 [accessed 26 June 2006]. The data is based on figures published by the University & Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS).
[36] Ibid.

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departments. It also strengthened the interdisciplinarity of the discipline. The other side of the coin was a loss of departmental autonomy. For a number of departments, particularly those established in post-1992 universities, it was a short-term measure and not enough to escape 'insolvency'. At some universities, departments were closed and German was reduced to a language service provided in language centres.

The second strategy was an increase in research activities. Since up to 40% of departmental income is dependent on the scores achieved in the RAE, it seemed imperative to put more emphasis on this lucrative source of funds. Unfortunately, in many departments this happened at the expense of teaching, particularly language teaching, which is increasingly delivered by staff employed on an hourly-paid basis, so that full-time members can focus on research activities (ibid.). This causes a range of asymmetries between research and teaching with the latter being largely depreciated and treated: "as a necessary evil like filling the staff-room coffee machine or putting paper in the photocopier" (Coleman 1996: 23). The fact that the RAE requirements do not recognise language teaching as a true research field but as a practical activity, is largely responsible for this state of affairs:

> "In the RAE, as in the search for research funding, projects whose outcomes are too practical will not be recognised as true research. Where the result of research is a chemical or biological manufacturing process, which works, the process itself counts as research. Where the result of research is language teaching material that works, it does not." (ibid.: 20)

There is a proposal to abolish the system of university research rating and the allocation of research funding through the RAE (MacLeod 2006). Instead, funding should be allocated on the basis on research grants and industrial contracts, which a department has won or on the citation number of publications produced. It is estimated that this could lead to a strong concentration on research in Oxford and Cambridge, while other universities could suffer severe cuts. Besides, it is argued that this new proposal is not in favour of research in humanities (ibid.).

The third strategy was to attract as many students as possible. This is not an easy task given that the number of candidates with an 'A' level in German is lower than ever before. Moreover, students give preference to combinations of languages with other courses and are not particularly interested in the traditional subject matter of German Studies, for example literature (Meara 1994, Watts

2003). Taking into consideration these facts, departments have started to provide a greater choice through modularised degree programmes. These days, German can be studied in combination with nearly all subjects offered by a university. In terms of content, more emphasis was placed on contemporary, cultural and political affairs in German speaking countries and literature became optional. Moreover, diverse marketing strategies to promote German were developed such as increased publicity to stimulate motivation along the line of: "why it is useful to study German and why at university X". However, these activities do not always result in an increased intake, and in fact many departments have come under pressure to accept students who received low grades in German at 'A' level, for example. Official figures confirm this trend (Grix & Jaworska 2002). This suggests that practically everyone who wants to study German at a university can find a place (Kelly & Jones 2003). The intake of students with lower grades results in a number of problems. Frequently, lecturers voice their dissatisfaction with students' low intellectual abilities (Claussen 2004). The level of language skills and background knowledge about the culture in question is particularly criticised (Plassmann 2000). According to Derek McCulloch, first year students of German have great difficulty translating simple sentences such as "Is his wife a German?" or "I prefer English tea" (Scott-Clark 1995). Moreover, improvements in language competence are not particularly satisfactory. A large-scale study by Coleman (1996: 8) shows that only a small proportion (11%) of final year students achieve a high level of proficiency in German, whereas the percentages for French and Spanish are much higher. This is a distressing result and clearly not in students' interests, who expect high or even near-native competence in the target language from a degree in languages (Meara 1994, Coleman 1996). Nor is it in the interests of employers, who demand that language graduates possess a good command of the target language. As the Nuffield Language Inquiry (2000: 20) states, employers are frustrated by inadequate linguistics skills emerging from education and particularly by the lack of accuracy. Nor does it seem that departments prepare students well for the challenges of modern-day employment, which places strong emphasis on transferable skills such as time management, setting and meeting objectives, problem solving and computer literacy. The study by Coleman (1996) indicates that British students of German see themselves as having made few gains in these areas. It therefore seems logical that departments

should place more emphasis on professional language teaching and on transferable skills. As will be demonstrated below, this is not as easy as it may appear.

Finally, being confronted with a severe decline, some universities put more resources into the expansion of the Institution-wide language programme (IWLP). This scheme is a part of language centres, which are normally independent of language departments and offer courses across the university for students majoring in other subjects. This provision is currently growing (Kelly & Jones 2003). A positive aspect of this new type of provision is that it could provide courses more strongly tailored to the needs of students of other disciplines and in so doing contribute to the development of German for Specific Purposes. However, there is evidence to suggest that language centres often lack a coherent approach and offer rather ad hoc services (ibid.). Problematic also is the fact that the provision offered in language centres may increase the division between academic disciplines of modern languages and language teaching, with the latter being seen as a complementary service (cf. Reershemius 2001).

All this leads to the conclusion that in the new millennium, German Studies is facing difficult times. The word "crisis" is often heard, particularly when each year the number of 'A' level candidates in German and the closure of another department are made known. Job insecurity on the part of staff, administrative burdens, research pressures, demotivated students with poor linguistic skills and little knowledge about the culture in question are some of the serious concerns voiced by staff in German departments (cf. Plassmann 2000, Reershemius 2001 Klapper & Rees 2004, Footitt 2005). However, there are numerous positive effects, which the redefinition of German Studies exerted. First of all, the new interdisciplinary profile brought a fresh perspective to the discipline previously marked by rigid canon-boundaries. The inclusion of content from social and cultural studies and more focus on the events of the 20th century broadened its horizons and made it more responsive to social challenges and to the needs of students. In actual fact, this model was, as Reeves (1988) observes, close to the original framework of *Germanistik* initiated by its fathers Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm. The primary aim of this discipline was to embrace and examine „das ganze Geistesleben der Nation" and this included, alongside language and literature customs, life style, politics, religion and law (Bausinger 1999: 214). The

sole focus on the literature "of the Great Few" and the defragmentation of *Germanistik* – law and history were removed from it – was a later development prompted by the spirit of positivism (Reeves 1988: 27). The transition within the British *Germanistik* post-1945 can be seen, therefore, as a revival of its original conceptualisation. Moreover, German Studies demonstrated flexibility and openness and through combination with subjects such as business studies, sociology or law established a new engagement between arts/humanities and the world outside academia[37]. In the last two decades, German Studies has educated cohorts of young people, who have found various employment options in fields as diverse as business services, manufacturing, public administration or community/social services (see Appendix 15). But not everyone seems to be satisfied with the stronger vocational credo of modern languages. Some see it as a serious threat to the academic freedom and intellectual legacy of the discipline (cf. Coleman 2004, Evans 1988). The loss of the prestige of literature in the curriculum is seen as particularly worrying (Görner 2004). Some of these worries are justifiable. Prompted by social and financial pressures, German Studies spread in all possible directions and seems not to have a common core. These days it is indeed difficult to specify exactly what German Studies, apart from the year abroad and language classes, encompasses. However, before commenting on these aspects, it is necessary to examine whether this is indeed the case currently.

3.3 German Studies: the current state of the discipline

This section attempts to provide an insight into the current state and the actual profile of German Studies in England. It does so by focusing on the status of German at different types of universities, in conjunction with entry requirements, rationales for studying German as stated in departments' mission statements, research focus as defined by members of staff, and the range and profiles of degree courses offered. In order to address these issues, on-line publicity materials and prospectuses of German departments were examined. The limitation of such a survey is that it is based on advertising materials, which tend to depict

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[37] Reeves (1988) highlights that the absence of the engagement with the world outside contributed to the defragmentation of the original concept of Germanistik.

departments as positively as possible. Secondly, these materials are general and do not provide much information about classroom practice. Certainly, an examination of classroom conditions would offer a more scrupulous and authentic insight into the *status quo* of German Studies. However, such a project requires a larger research team and a costly 'apparatus' of surveys, observations and questionnaires (cf. Kolinsky 1994). Another complication is the fact that German Studies is currently in a state of flux, not least because of political and social changes, falling recruitment and high turnover of staff. This makes it difficult to capture a 'fixed' picture of German Studies. The status as documented in 2004 is unlikely to be the same in the future. Thus, although percentages provided in this section cannot claim statistical precision, they nonetheless give a good overall picture of some facts underlying the discipline.

3.3.1 Types of university

The landscape of HE in England is very diverse. Universities differ considerably in terms of their origin, missions, teaching and research profiles. For this reason, only an approximate classification can be provided. In general, three groups of university are distinguished and each of them marks a historically important stage in the development of HE. The first group includes 'pre-1945' universities, which were either founded in the Middle Ages – Oxford and Cambridge – or civic universities, of which some were established in the first part of the 19th century, e.g. University of London. The second group embraces 'post-1945' universities. These institutions can be divided into three subgroups: a) ex-colleges, which originally prepared students for external degrees from the University of London, b) entirely new institutions, which were founded after 1945 and c) former Colleges of Advanced Technology (CATs), which were granted university charters in the 1960s. The third group – the 'post-1992' universities – includes former polytechnics, which, following the Education Act of 1992, received university status (Mackinnon & Statham 1999). All universities are granted a high degree of autonomy and thus are allowed to create their own syllabuses and to award degrees. Nowadays, there are approximately forty-three

institutions of HE[38] in England that offer degree courses in German at undergraduate level. Traditionally, German is taught as a four-year course with the third year usually being spent abroad in a German-speaking country. For this evaluation, online publicity materials of forty German departments/sections including fifteen 'old', fourteen 'post-1945' and eleven 'post-1992' were examined.

3.3.2 Status of German Studies and entry requirements

In older universities, German Studies preserves its disciplinary identity. With one exception, the discipline is maintained in autonomous departments referred to as Departments of German, German Studies or Germanic Studies. 50% of departments are located in a Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Humanities or Faculty of Modern and Medieval Languages. Seven German departments belong to Schools of Modern Languages or Schools of Languages and Cultures. In 'post-1945' universities, German exists alongside other languages and subject areas, predominantly in smaller sections located in larger interdisciplinary units such as: School of Languages and European Studies, School of Languages and Social Sciences, and School of Linguistics and Cultural Studies. In three universities, German is positioned in departments, which are as large as the departments in older universities. German in the 'post-1992' universities exists in smaller units, which are a part of Schools of Social Science or Departments of European Languages and Culture. In many cases, German is provided by Business Schools or is offered in language centres (cf. Kelly & Jones 2003).

In terms of entrance requirements, 'old' and 'post-1945' universities require three 'A' levels and, officially at least, a grade B in German. Oxford and Cambridge diverge from this scenario, as they developed a selective approach based on an interview and a language test. A ranking list presented by *The Times* in 2003 demonstrated that, on average, applicants accepted at Oxford and Cambridge obtained just under 30 points, which approximates to three A grades. The civic universities accepted individuals who on average scored between 20 and 27 points and the 'post-1945' institutions have candidates with 17 and 27 points

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[38] This figure is based on a list compiled by *The Times* in 2004 (see Appendix 16).

(see Appendix 16). The 'post-1992' universities accept students who scored between 13 and 20 points. They also accept candidates who do not have standard 'A' level qualifications and require a good-pass at GCSE-level. This distribution clearly reveals that the 'pre-1945' universities are more likely to attract more proficient students, as measured by 'A' level grades. In contrast, sections at 'post-1992' universities accept students with lower grades, while the 'post-1945' universities take on students with a broad range of 'A' level grades.

3.3.3 Rationales for studying German

A survey of publicity-materials demonstrated that departments provide various rationales for pursuing German Studies. They are largely determined by a department's prestige, the status of German and the general research and teaching mission followed by the department. Thus, the 'pre-1945' institutions bring their superiority to the fore by pointing to their reputation as old institutions or by highlighting scores in RAE and TQA, for example:

> "X has one of the oldest, largest and most active departments of German in the country, with an excellent record in teaching and research, an intake of about 120 undergraduates a year." [Oxford University][39]

Secondly, references are made to intellectually stimulating environments, a broad range of areas ranging from medieval literature to Germany's current politics, and the interdisciplinary nature tailored to personal interests. The following statements are, in this respect, representative:

> "In recent years the Department has made new appointments and broadened its range of interests to include history, thought, politics, linguistics and cultural studies alongside our established strengths in literary studies." [Bristol University][40]

> "Today, the department continues this tradition of innovation and openness. In recent decades, it has become an interdisciplinary centre of excellence, offering in-depth study of German thought, literature, history, politics, theory and film." [University College London][41]

A near-native fluency in German, year abroad and excellent job opportunities are also underlined.

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[39] See http://www.mod-langs.ox.ac.uk/german/index.html [accessed 26 June 2006].
[40] See http://eis.bris.ac.uk/%7Egexnl/dept/undergrad.html [accessed 26 June 2006].
[41] See http://www.ucl.ac.uk/German/ [accessed 26 June 2006].

The 'post-1945' and 'pre-1992' departments/sections campaign for German along similar lines. The distinctive feature is, however, the emphasis on a contemporary context. The social, political and cultural dimensions of recent changes in German-speaking environments and in the EU are also frequently highlighted:

> "Our German programme stresses an understanding of contemporary German society [...] emphasising language as a means of communication and mutual understanding in the contemporary world." [Aston University][42]

> "Throughout the four years of studies, active and progressive language learning is integrated with the study of the politics and culture [...] within a trans-European framework." [Bath University][43]

Broadly speaking the promotion of German Studies in post-1945 and post-1992 universities aims to target students who are interested in studying German in the broader political and cultural context of the 20th century rather than literature.

Regardless of the type of university, German Studies is promoted as a challenging and profitable degree course. Departments highlight various aspects ranging from their research expertise to high employability of graduates with German. The second issue, emphasised in nearly all prospectuses, is a high or near-native competence in spoken and written German. The following statements are representative in this respect:

> "They [*language classes*] reinforce language awareness and offer a varied range of exercises designed to produce graduates with a high level of proficiency in spoken and written German." [Bristol University][44]

> " ... and to set high standards and goals, such as near-native competence in your target languages." [University of Birmingham][45]

> "Our programme aims to bring you as a student to a very high level of expertise in the German language." [University of Sheffield][46]

Thus, departments/sections may vary in terms of profile but the high or near-native language competence is the key 'product' offered by German Studies. At the same time, the materials do not explicitly state what is actually meant by this very high or near-native competence and how this will be achieved during the

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[42] See http://www.aston.ac.uk/lss/german/ [accessed 26 June 2006].
[43] See http://www.bath.ac.uk/esml/mles/why-study.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].
[44] See http://eis.bris.ac.uk/%7Egexnl/dept/undergrad.html [accessed 26 June 2006].
[45] See http://www.celc.bham.ac.uk/ug/value.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].
[46] See http://www.shef.ac.uk/german/ [accessed 26 June 2006].

course of study (cf. Coleman 1996). Another feature of the prospectuses is their resemblance to advertising leaflets, which deliberately attempt to persuade potential customers that their products are the best. The discourse is underpinned by a large number of rhetorical figures particularly hyperboles: 'highly marketable', 'a fascinating, exciting and highly rewarding discipline', 'whose importance [German] is dramatically increasing'. Interestingly, a look at online-materials of departments of German outside the English-speaking environment, for example in Poland, the Czech Republic or Hungary, demonstrates that the issue 'why to study German' is not addressed[47]. Foreign languages are indeed very popular university subjects in Central and Eastern Europe[48]. This popularity may be partly explained by the fact that for decades, foreign languages, German and English in particular, were for many 'passports' into the Western world. Studying languages also offered secure career paths in education. Besides, foreign languages can only be studied at a few universities and therefore there is a substantially smaller number of places as compared with other academic subjects. The prestige of languages is further increased by very difficult and selective entrance procedures. In fact, in this part of the world, foreign languages are still limited for the very few students, the crème de la crème.

3.3.4 Staff and research focus

An examination of faculty size and research profiles showed that the vast majority of 'pre-1945' universities are the largest in terms of the number of full-time academic staff and the best in terms of research. According to the last RAE, ten of the fifteen departments surveyed obtained 5 or 5* (see Appendix 16). These departments also have renowned research centres and a strong postgraduate sector. With the exception of Oxford and Cambridge, each department includes, on average, eleven members of staff, of whom two are lectors delegated by the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) or the Austrian Cultural Institute[49].

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[47] See a list of German departments worldwide at:
http://www.goethe.de/dll/prj/www/ger/wel/deindex.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].
[48] For example in Poland philologies of foreign languages are the fifth most popular academic subjects after Law, Business, Marketing and Education, see
http://www.rzeczpospolita.pl/dodatki/raporty_030411/raporty_a_2.html [accessed 26 June 2006]
[49] The term lector refers to lecturers, native-speakers of German, working for a limited period at universities abroad and sponsored by the DAAD or the Austrian Cultural Institute.

In addition, some departments employ between two or three part-time language tutors. The vast majority of departments have at least one professor and eight full time research-active lecturers. Oxford and Cambridge diverge noticeably from this scenario. Together, they employ nearly fifty members of staff, of whom thirty-two are lecturers and nine are professors. They also have the largest number of postgraduate students – over fifty[50]. In other departments, the number of PhD candidates varies between two and fourteen on average. With regards to the 'post-1945' universities, six out of fourteen employ between nine and fifteen members of staff on average, which makes them similar to those departments in 'old' universities. They also demonstrate a good research record. On the whole, departments/units at 'post-1945' universities employ between two and six members of staff on average. Regarding PhD candidates, the surveyed 'post-1945' departments have approximately thirty-eight students. German sections at the 'post-1992' universities are by far the smallest. On average, there are three full-time members of staff. The vast majority of them obtained 3b in the last RAE and only two have PhD students.

It was interesting to examine the number of German native speakers employed by the universities. According to staff profiles provided by the surveyed departments, the ratio of non-natives to native-speaker of German is approximately 2:1. The vast majority of natives are DAAD or Austrian lectors. However, there are discrepancies between different universities. The ratio is higher in the pre-1945 universities - on average 5:1, and lower in the post-1945 and post-1991 departments, with 2:1 or even 1:1. The same tendency was revealed in a survey conducted by Berghahn et al. (1997). Overall, the number of native speakers in departments/sections of German in Britain is high. DAAD sponsors nearly 50 lectors in the UK, while the total number of lectors in Western, Northern and Southern Europe is 234[51].

The second interesting issue to examine, in terms of staff, was the gender distribution. The disciplines of modern languages are regarded as feminine subject areas. However, if we look at the gender of members of staff in German Studies to

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[50] The number of PhD candidates is obtained from a list compiled by CUTG in 2002 (http://www.cutg.ac.uk/gmnists.htm [accessed 26 June 2006]. The current numbers were difficult to estimate, as departments do not always provide information about current PhD projects. Master students were not considered, as it was difficult to obtain precise numbers.
[51] See information available from DAAD at: http://www.daad.de/ausland/lehren-im-ausland/lektoren/00666.de.html [accessed 26 June 2006].

include lectors at the surveyed departments, it becomes apparent that the number of females and males is equal. A different picture emerges if we consider gender and positions held. In fact, at the surveyed departments/sections, there were just over sixty professorial positions, of which 80% were held by males. There was a difference between pre-1945 and post-1945 universities. In the latter, nearly 40% of professors were female, while in the former only 11%. Interestingly enough, the gender distribution among PhD holders (lecturers) was equal in both types of universities, which partly suggests that females find it difficult to climb the academic ladder after a certain point in their career. The vast majority of language assistants and lectors were female. In conclusion, the more prestigious the department and the higher the position, the higher the number of males. Thus, prestige in German Studies has a clear male face and, as will be discussed below, a literary interest, whereas language teaching, which is rather depreciated, is the domain of females.

As for research profiles, a clear-cut picture emerges. At the 'pre-1945' universities, three quarters of the listed members of staff locate their main research interest in the field of Literary Studies. Here, a broad spectrum of topics and authors, ranging from medieval to post-1989 literature, can be identified. Approximately 13% pursue research activities in the non-literary subjects of Politics, History, Media and Society, and only a few in the field of Historical Linguistics or Sociolinguistics. Two members of staff name FLE or Applied Linguistics as one of their research strands. At the 'post-1945' universities, the distribution of research areas bears resemblance to the situation described above. Over half the academics identify Literary Studies as their main field of study. In most cases, literature is examined in a broader cultural, social and political context and the focus is predominantly on the 20th century. Nearly one third focus on Politics, History, Media and Society in the German-speaking countries in the 20th century. Only a few name Linguistics as their research field. At the 'post-1992' universities, the vast majority of staff are involved in language teaching, often on a part-time basis. 40% of those in research are active in the areas of Literary Studies, Politics, Society and Media.

All in all, research interest within German Studies is predominately dedicated to Literary Studies – 65% of all identified research-active *Germanists*[52]. 23% name Politics, History, Media and Society as their main research interests. Only twenty-seven *Germanists* (12%) can be classified as linguists[53]. This unequal division is widely reflected in the number of publications produced by *Germanists* in these three categories. According to a list of research work published in 1999 and compiled by CUTG[54], the field of literary research was the most productive as it produced nearly 500 publications, which was nearly 60% of all published work[55]. The focus was predominantly on literary periods from 1800 to 1945 and post-1945. Academics in the field of Politics, History, Media and Society produced around 263 publications. Linguistic work, as expected, ranked last with approximately ninety-five publications (11%). Considering the small number of linguists, they are nevertheless very productive.

3.3.5 Range of degree courses

All of the surveyed departments offer a wide range of degree programmes. German can be combined with various subjects from Faculties of Arts, Social Sciences and Sciences. Combinations that are mentioned in the first place are: a) German with other languages, predominantly French and Spanish b) with European Studies, c) with Business and Management Studies and d) Economics and Law. In addition, many departments offer joint degree programmes with Philosophy, Music, History, Politics, Linguistics, Film Studies and Drama. German as a single subject is predominantly offered at the 'old' and some 'post-1945' universities.

3.3.6 Profiles of syllabuses

Before discussing the profiles of syllabuses, it is important to describe the way in which curricula are set up in academia. Although universities in the UK enjoy a

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[52] Language tutors and lectors are not included. Their research activities are not considered for the RAE.
[53] This number includes philologists researching language history.
[54] See the list at http://www.cutg.ac.uk/rigs/1999-00/index.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].
[55] Since some of the publications appear in one or two categories, the numbers are rough estimates.

great deal of freedom, there are numerous quality control mechanisms in place to ensure that appropriate standards and learning outcomes are achieved, and sufficient learning opportunities provided. The body responsible for describing and controlling learning and teaching standards is the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) established in 1997[56]. Standards for each subject are set up in subject benchmark statements, which describe general skills and knowledge expected from a graduate in a particular discipline. A more in-depth description of what the actual learning outcomes are and how they are achieved are provided in programme specifications. These include concise descriptions of aims and objectives of each learning unit, study and assessment methods and criteria to assess performance. Each academic department needs to prepare such descriptions and make them publicly available for review processes. There are internal reviews through for example teaching committees as well as external audits through Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA). The curricula set up by the departments/units of modern languages have to comply with the guidelines outlined in the subject benchmark statement for languages and related studies[57]. However, the statement is rather general and as even the authors stated, may be interpreted differently in different contexts because of the very interdisciplinary nature of language studies. In fact, the final curriculum still depends upon the nature of a particular university and department, and the standards set up by internal review mechanisms.

An examination of online handbooks[58] revealed that that there is no such thing as a 'typical' programme for German Studies, which is understandable given the rather general subject benchmark statements. In fact, every department has created its own unique syllabus. Broadly speaking, the curriculum is based on two fundamentals: compulsory language classes and a range of content classes, which are either optional or compulsory. Language teaching is an important part of the syllabuses. In most cases, it is carried out by native lectors or native part-time tutors and this is also emphasised in up-front materials. Language classes taught by native speakers are basically seen as a guarantee of good teaching quality (cf.

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[56] See http://www.qaa.ac.uk/default.asp [accessed 26 June 2006].
[57] Subject benchmark statements for languages and related studies can be viewed at: http://www.qaa.ac.uk/academicinfrastructure/benchmark/honours/languages.asp#1 [[accessed 26 June 2006].
[58] This section is based on an evaluation of twenty-six handbooks provided online.

Coleman 1996). The focus in the first two years is on the four skills – writing, speaking, reading and listening. In addition, the vast majority of surveyed departments recognises that students lack grammatical understanding and language accuracy and offer remedial classes in grammar, or grammar is integrated into language skills. In the fourth year, students are introduced to advanced writing skills, which prepare them for the completion of dissertations. On average, three hours a week are dedicated solely to language teaching, which is less than at 'A' level (Elspaß 1999). Given the complaints about low linguistic standards and research findings, it is justifiable to ask whether this amount of time is sufficient to compensate for students' weaknesses. To what extent German is used and practised outside language classes is, on the basis of the surveyed materials, difficult to estimate. What has been identified so far is that the vast majority of departments do not state clearly their 'policy' towards the use of the target language. Some of the available handbooks indicate that content classes are taught in German, especially if the lecturer happens to be a native speaker, or in both English and German. In many cases, the written assessments, essays or coursework have to be submitted in German. However, as revealed in a quality assessment carried out by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) in 1996, content classes are frequently taught in English. German as a medium of instruction was used in less than 20% of visited departments[59]. Some lecturers argue that given the low linguistic competency of students, this is a strategy to maintain intellectual standards (Coleman 2004). However, Kolinsky (1994) observes that this is partly due to the fact that many specialists do not have the competency in German to be able to teach in the target language. Coleman (2004) adds that the new generation of academics is detached from language as the disciplinary identity, presumably because they were also taught content classes in English and wrote in English. Thus, it is not surprising to see that if the lecturer is a native speaker, classes are taught in German but if not, then in English.

As far as course content is concerned, great discrepancies were identified between different universities. In 'old' departments, literary courses are at the forefront. The emphasis is usually placed on selected prominent authors or literary periods. Frequently, literature is approached in a broad social, cultural and

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[59] See Subject Overview Report: Quality Assessment of German and Related Languages (1996) at: http://www.hefce.ac.uk/pubs/hefce/1996/qo03%5F96.htm [accessed 26 June 2006].

political context such as Literature and Film, German Literature of Protest and Revolution, History as Drama to name but a few. Surprisingly, in departments where literature is the dominant subject, modules on literary theories – *Literaturtheorie* – are practically absent (cf. Kolinsky 1993). In contrast, courses that embrace Culture, Media and Society are buoyant, for example German Cinema, Art in Weimar, Cabaret, Pop and Progress. Part of the syllabus is dedicated to History and Politics in German-speaking countries. In some departments, the syllabus includes courses that link German Studies and sociology and philosophy. With regards to Linguistics, not many options are available. The courses offered embrace either history of German/Germanic languages or selected aspects of Sociolinguistics, especially regional varieties. Textlinguistics is mentioned in two syllabuses. In brief, literary studies still remains the unquestionable field of teaching expertise in the 'old' departments, followed by contemporary cultural, social and political aspects of German-speaking countries.

In the 'post-1945' universities, the teaching focus is almost exclusively placed on contemporary aspects of German-speaking countries. There is a wider range of courses addressing the key historical, political and cultural developments of the 20th century. A number of universities offer courses that go back to the events of the 19th century and eight universities include literature. The focus is on selected writings and on authors of the 19th and 20th century. As for Linguistics, the discipline is marginal. Only five universities provide courses with a linguistic focus, for example German Dialects, Discourse Analysis, Language Politics and Communication. All in all, the profile of German Studies at the post-1945 universities is geared towards fostering an understanding of History and contemporary political and cultural issues in the German-speaking countries. Literature plays a secondary role and German Linguistics is virtually non-existent.

At the 'post-1992' Universities, the focus of the German syllabus is contemporary aspects of German-speaking countries. Courses addressing History, Politics and Media of the 20th century frequently occur. Three departments offer courses in German Literature. In brief, the range of courses provided at the 'post-1992' institutions is considerably smaller compared to other universities, not least because of the limited number of staff.

Given the lists of courses specified by the surveyed departments and sections, three types of curriculum could be distinguished. First, there is the model with a

stronger emphasis on literature and less on political and social aspects. Such a model is apparent in a few pre-1945 departments. A more common curriculum is the one which attempts to address both areas in a balanced way. This model can be found at some pre-1945 and post 1945-universities. The third type focuses on area studies. However, according to the description, it also includes a few courses on literature. This profile is typical of a number of post-1945 and nearly all post-1991 departments/sections.

3.4 German Studies – quo vadis?

The survey reveals a number of key phenomena, which shape the unique situation of German Studies in England. First, only a handful of departments preserve their departmental autonomy. In the vast majority of cases, German Studies has undergone structural reforms and amalgamations. It exists mainly in larger interdisciplinary schools combining languages with European or Culture Studies under the umbrella of humanities or social sciences. Secondly, departments increasingly market their degree courses by referring to features such as a wide range of modularised degree combinations and courses with a focus on contemporary affairs with little or no literature, the importance of German and Germany in Europe and their departmental reputation measured by the RAE score, tradition, size, and location. The benefits of a degree in German are, according to prospectuses, high employability and near-native competency. If we compare the advertised features and benefits with students' expectations and societal demands, then it can be assumed that the new curricula of German Studies has indeed responded to new challenges. However, if we have a closer look at the actual curricula and profiles of the departments, numerous gaps become evident.

The first issue to consider is a discrepancy, which comes into view when research interests are compared with the advertised objectives of curricula. As the survey has demonstrated, literature is the unquestionable domain of research and the vast majority of staff are literalists. History, Politics, Media and Society are in this respect secondary, not to mention German Linguistics, which is a peripheral area. This does not correspond to the promoted curricula, which according to

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prospectuses are based on cultural or area studies. Research maintains the literary tradition and this is highly valued by the RAE panel (Coleman 2004). Given that only those departments that thrive in terms of research will sustain their autonomy that, it is to be expected that in the near future, German Studies will be concentrated in a few prestigious departments, which focus on literary research, while others will vanish (cf. Kelly & Jones 2003). There is already a clear link between literary research, the number of staff, students, particularly postgraduate students, and the best scores in the RAE (see Appendix 16). Such a concentration will inevitably lead to the elitism of the discipline with sacrosanct literary boundaries, as was the case prior to the expansion of education. Doubts can be raised as to whether this exclusivity is in the interests of students, society and German Studies. Prior to mass education, departments of modern languages showed little concern for the world outside academia. Like other humanistic disciplines, the primary interest of language studies was the search for beauty and truth in literature and arts, and any preoccupation with practical, applied aspects was seen as contamination (cf. Reeves 1987). The route to mass education pressurised departments to respond to societal demands by considering the needs of the new generation of students. This has been particularly intensified in the last ten years, as the number of potential candidates has declined dramatically. Departments cannot survive solely on research funds and need additional income, which is calculated on the basis of student numbers. Thus, departments need to attract as many students as possible and offer them what they predominantly expect from a degree in German, namely high proficiency in the target language, a vocationally-orientated syllabus with little literature and a focus on contemporary affairs (Meara 1994, Coleman 1996, Coleman 2004)[60]. What is on offer these days sounds promising but as Coleman (2004) highlights and as the above survey confirms, there is a serious mismatch between what students seek and what academics offer. Sandford (1998) observes that in German Studies the acclaimed expansion of the discipline towards Cultural and Area Studies happened mainly in the field of literature, which went beyond the traditional canon and included post-

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[60] This should not imply that there are no students interested in literature. Interests are diverse and these are also subject to changes during the course of study. However, data provided by Meara (1994) and Coleman (1996) suggests that the majority of British students are inclined to study languages because of possible career options and the wish to achieve a high proficiency in the target language.

1945 work with its broader social, political and cultural embedding. However, it is still literature which dominates the syllabi. Sandford (ibid.) argues that a course or module may appear under the heading 'Cultural Studies' but will predominantly be anchored in literary texts often presented in an abridged form (ibid.).

This leads to the second mismatch between research and teaching, particularly language teaching. The increased emphasis on research has played down the position of learning and teaching and this paradoxically in institutions which are ascribed the educational role. Although governmental policies treat research and teaching equally, funding councils allocate their money to the former. There is little incentive to improve teaching and teaching concerns have focused predominantly on how to meet the objective of securing sufficient numbers of students (cf. Leftwich 1991). In terms of language departments, there is for example little information on what teaching approaches are applied and how these could bring students to the acclaimed near-native proficiency (cf. Coleman 2004). Drawing on the data provided in prospectuses, it can be assumed that departments apply two strategies. Firstly, language classes conducted by native speakers are seen as one of the measures and this is frequently emphasised in prospectuses. The second strategy is the year abroad in one of the German-speaking countries. While no one would question the linguistic abilities of a native speaker, there is evidence suggesting that many of them are not professionally prepared to teach GFL. A survey carried out by Berghahn et al. (1997) demonstrates that only a small proportion of native lectors, namely 18%, had formal qualifications in GFL, and only 23% had over one year's experience of teaching, and predominantly in Germany, that is to say in the context of German as a second and not as a foreign language. On the basis of this data, Berghahn et al. (ibid.) conclude that lectors are overall very well equipped to carry out their teaching duties. While there are certainly excellent teachers among them, it is questionable whether this data allows for this optimistic conclusion (Elspaß 1999). As discussed in 1.3, the mere fact of being a native speaker is not a sufficient enough qualification to be a teacher of one's own L1.

There is also a consensus that the residence in the target country is of benefit to students in terms of their linguistic development. However, it cannot be regarded as the magic key which will suddenly turn students into near-native speakers (1.3). While general linguistic progress is obvious, not all areas of

language competence improve (Coleman 1996). Fluency and sociolinguistic competence are the areas which benefit most from the residence abroad. In contrast, improvements in accuracy are harder to find. This should not be understood as an argument against the residence aboard, which is one of the most vital and enriching experience during the course of foreign language studies, particularly in terms of maturity, self-confidence, cultural and intellectual gains. However, it is important to remember that the language competence may not develop as well as it is widely expected.

Coleman (ibid.) is also sceptical about the quality of teaching provided in the departments and the professional abilities of language teachers. On the basis of a large-scale study, he concludes that the rapid progress which students make in the last two years of secondary education "slows during the first two years at university". It accelerates again during the year abroad and "seems to stop once students return to the UK" (ibid.). In fact, only one in ten students achieve a high level of proficiency in German – a distressing result for the departments, which claim to produce high competence. This data also indicates that the promoted high competency is expected to develop outside the departments, which further undermines the role of language teaching within. A study by Klapper & Rees (2004) also confirms that the rate of progression is poor among students of German. However, the authors question the assumption that teaching in the departments is responsible for this state of affairs. Individual variables and huge disparities between individual progress are seen as causes for this malaise. At the same time, a clear inference from this study is that the type of instruction received is directly linked to progress: "students on the programme linking meaning-based activities in German with a specific focus on grammatical forms made appreciably greater progress than those exposed to a predominantly meaning-based programme" (ibid.: 36). Thus, teaching when appropriately designed can significantly accelerate the learning process. Given the slow progress during the course of studies and the fact that high competence in the target language is expected from a graduate in German, why is language teaching and expertise in this field not more strongly emphasised? Coleman (2004) argues that the imbalanced hierarchy between research and teaching introduced by the RAE is one reason for this. Secondly, the discipline of Linguistics seems to be secondary and this paradoxically in the departments which are predominantly concerned

with language. Lodge (2000) observes that due to the search for its own academic legacy, in the 1960s Linguistics detached itself from Departments of Modern Languages and moved to new Departments of Linguistics. He highlights that this divorce was not beneficial to studies of modern languages, as in the last decades Linguistics has made great advances. New analytical tools were created to foster our understanding of the role of language in all aspects of human life. The concepts of grammar, text and discourse have been widely used beyond linguistic fields to examine social and cultural phenomena (Bausinger 1999). And yet, departments of German in the UK were kept away from these developments. Indeed, only a small number of academics are dedicated to research in Linguistics and only a few to FLE.

All in all, German Studies in Britain has been acclaimed as a new innovative and promising model of *Germanistik* abroad (Bausinger 1999). Indeed, the shift from the dominant philological and literary syllabus to the fields of Cultural and Area Studies, which happened in the 1970s, was revolutionary. *Germanistik* in the UK emerged as an autonomous discipline. It found its justification and new impulses by linking itself with the world of industry and services (Reeves 1987). This was certainly a great achievement for the discipline which, like all humanities, was previously elitist and little concerned with the outside world, *nota bene* to their own detriment. However, examining developments in the last two decades has indicated that the response was provisory. If we assume that the function of *Germanistik* abroad is to promote German language and culture in both teaching and research and to educate competent users of German who are knowledgeable about the target country and its culture (cf. Bertaux 1975) and able to operate in various fields of services and industry, then German Studies in Britain are only modestly responding to these responsibilities. Teaching, but language teaching in particular, is not fully endorsed and the immediate effect of this state of affairs is insufficient language competency emerging from the departments. It is certainly correct that the low linguistic level of first year students, huge discrepancies and individual variables are, to an extent, responsible for the slow progress made during the course of study. However, these factors should not be taken as excuses. Teaching can still do a great deal to accelerate the learning progress. Didactical concepts are needed, which exploit students' strengths and address their deficiencies. To date, this has not been of much

interest and this despite the fact that students and society expect graduates in modern languages to be competent target language users. Lodge (2000: 117) states this succinctly: "What sets modern languages apart from all other disciplines is our concern for language. What society expects our graduates to be above anything else is linguists". Given the recent changes, it is not difficult to foresee a situation where high language proficiency is not the main goal. The immediate effect will be a detachment from language as a disciplinary identity (cf. Coleman 2004, Lodge 2000). It is incorrect to say that departments of modern languages are solely responsible for this state of affairs. With the RAE favouring traditional research, there is little incentive to address any other areas. At the same time, there is evidence to suggest that academics are content to jump on the literary bandwagon, while vocational concerns of students, of which language is the key, are regarded as 'dumbing down' and a threat to the intellectual rigour of the discipline (Evans 1988, Coleman 2004, Claussen 2004). There is a resistance to change, so traditions continue. This is not to say that literature should be completely removed from research and curricula. However, if universities claim to be educational institutions, then they should surely show more concern for their students. In fact, the survey above has demonstrated that the gap between the research and teaching interests of staff and the learning interests of students is growing dramatically (cf. Coleman 2004).

For departments of German, this means that they need to establish a more balanced distribution between research and teaching. Stronger emphasis should be placed on Linguistics and on FLE and GFL. Language is the key to understanding societies, their history, politics, economy and particularly to the ability to read and interest in literature. It is the medium through which people express themselves and organise their societies. According to Lodge (2000), this is defined as the disciplinary dimension of language. Language is also the key competence, which students want to achieve in order to have a better understanding of foreign countries and cultures. It is also the competence which society expects from them. This is the instrumental dimension of language. Both dimensions are mutually dependent and equally important. Without good competency in German, students will not be able to engage in profound understanding of the German-speaking societies and to act successfully as intermediaries. Language teaching which is detached from the discipline will reduce this understanding to a few facts and

figures. German Studies needs to recognise the instrumental aspect of language and to establish a balance between both dimensions. This could avert the danger of elitism and scattered, less demanding syllabi. It could strengthen the links between humanities and modern society, in which humanistic knowledge is, these days, needed more than ever. German Studies is not an ivory tower but a responsible discipline at the service of education and (foreign language) education at the service of human development and societies (Reeves 1987). A prominent example of such an approach is work carried out by one of the forefathers of British *Germanistik*, Karl Breul (1860 – 1932), who was appointed the first lecturer in Germanic language and literature at Cambridge University. He was a scholar with literary interests dedicated to the promotion of German literature in England. At the same time, he was involved in FLE and published extensively on teacher training, designed teaching materials, handbooks and dictionaries (Breul 1909). The revival of this tradition should be the biggest challenge for German Studies if the discipline wants to avoid the fate of the Classics.

3.5 Summary of chapter 3

This chapter has demonstrated that the position of German and German Studies in Britain is largely determined by the broad socio-political factors, which shaped society and education in the last four decades. While the democratisation and expansion of education combined with internationalisation raised the popularity of the German language, the more recent shift towards marketisation and liberalisation has contributed to its decline across all educational sectors. In addition, the FL-policy recently implemented in conjunction with a perceived insignificance of languages other than English and the rather negative image of Germany among the general public will further diminish its status, particularly in the HE-sector. The position of German Studies is already weak and its future uncertain. However, every crisis poses a challenge, to which an adequate response can yield a constructive outcome. This chapter has argued that placing more emphasis on language teaching, and Linguistics could strengthen the disciplinarity and instrumentality of German Studies. However, to-date the area of language teaching and learning has been, as Elspaß (1999) comments, the dark side of

German Studies. There is indeed very little information and research on how German is taught and learned in British Higher Education. The difficulties that students and teachers have and the didactical strategies, traditional or innovative, which seem to work with British students of German are not revealed. The following parts of this study will attempt to shed light on the area of learning and teaching German. They are based on a case, which embraces a group of students and lecturers in one department of German Studies. Of course, the problems discussed and suggestions proposed cannot be generalised. However, it is not the purpose of this study to propose universal strategies. As discussed in chapter 1, universals are of rather limited use to FLE. This study seeks firstly to propose context-specific strategies and secondly to bring to the attention of potential readers, *Germanists* and FL-educationalists, an array of practical problems emerging in the context of teaching and learning German language and culture and to stress the relevance of language teaching.

4 The Micro-Context, Part I: Setting the Scene

This chapter presents the first part of the case study. As Yin (1994) stresses, any case study has to scrupulously depict the environment in which it is located, so that readers can better understand a range of contextual factors, make comparisons and draw their own conclusions. This section focuses, therefore, on the institution and the programme of German Studies. In order to place it within the context presented in chapter 3, this section will firstly discuss the position of modern languages within the University. Subsequently, I will move on to examine the profile of German Studies in the context under investigation. The following aspects will be considered: rationales for studying German and entry requirements, staff and research foci, range of degree courses and the profile of German Studies in terms of aims, content, teaching methods and assessment. In so doing, this chapter aims to position this micro-context within the macro-context of German Studies in the UK. Above all, the approach to teaching and learning German language and culture will be scrutinised against the background of methodological and didactical discussion presented in chapter 1.

4.1 The University and its language programmes

The micro-context under study is located in a post-1945 university. Until the 1950s, the university had the status of a technical college, which was upgraded to a College of Advanced Technology. Following the Robbins Report, it was granted a university charter at the beginning of the 1960s. The new university did not have a traditional faculty of humanities or arts and initially FLs were offered as subsidiary subjects. It was not until 1973 that a sovereign Department of Modern Languages within the Faculty of Social Sciences was established. The underlying mission of the newly established department was to "analyse and interpret both cross-cultural and national specific structures and processes in developing new understandings of social studies and of languages, and particularly of the interface

between the two"[61]. In subsequent years, the department was subject to a number of transformations, mergers and expansions, which were largely influenced by the nationwide decline in interest in modern languages (see figure 3). Currently, languages are offered in the School of Languages and Social Sciences (LSS), which recently came into being after the previous School of Languages and European Studies was expanded.

Figure 3: Accepted applicants for degrees with one or two languages in the context under study (1995 – 2005)[62]
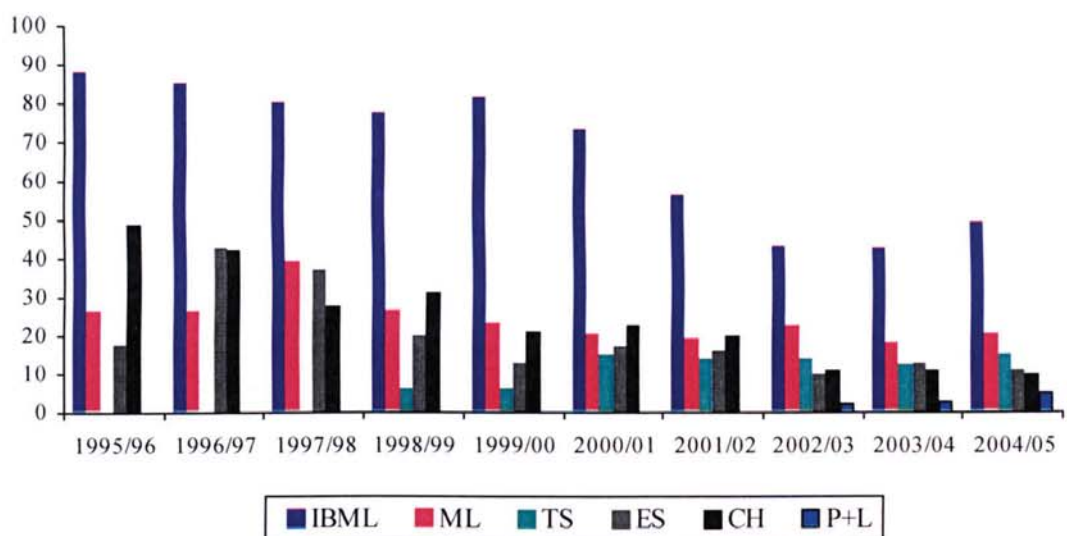
At present, LSS consists of 9 academic subject groups: French Studies, German Studies, Politics and Modern History, European Studies, Sociology, Translation Studies, and the newly introduced English Studies, Spanish Studies and International Relations. It offers a broad range of degree courses ranging from

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[61] This statement is from the document: "Department of Modern Languages RS5 Statement" circulated on 27th February 1989, which was obtained from the Registry Office of the university in question.

[62] The data was provided by the University Registry and Planning Services. The numbers refer to undergraduate full time cohorts as recorded on 1st December each year. The first column from the left includes accepted applicants for International Business with French, International Business with German, International Business with French and German. The second column presents figures for ML with French, ML with German, ML with French and German. The third refers to Translation Studies with French, Translation Studies with German, Translation Studies with French and German and the fourth to European Studies with French, European Studies with German, European Studies with French and German. The fifth column represents Combined Honours programmes with German and Combined Honours with French. The last (P + L) refers to Politics plus Languages. The entries for the academic year 2004/2005 are provisional and include combinations with Spanish.

Single Honours to various joint and combined programmes. All undergraduate programmes with a language component are designed as four-year courses with an integrated year abroad. There is also the option of three-year programs for mature students[63]. Each programme leads to a BSc degree, but there is the possibility of obtaining a Diploma of Higher Education after two years of study. The breakdown of applications into subsequent languages indicates that French is the most popular language in terms of uptake, although the number of students studying French as part of their degree courses has decreased sharply (see figure 4). German declined too. The decrease from 1996 to 2004/05 amounted to 33%, which is lower than the national average of 40%[64]. In terms of Single Honours degrees, there has been a slight increase with respect to both languages. However, on the whole, only a very small proportion of students follow this degree path.

Figure 4: Accepted applicants into combinations and Single Honours with French and German in the context under study (1995 – 2004)
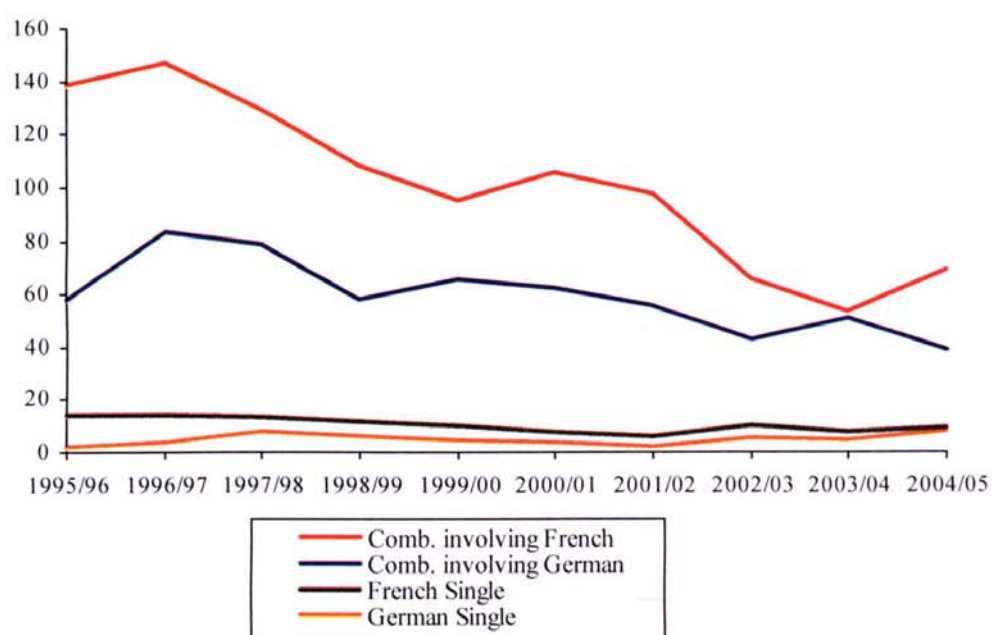
As Spanish is in demand, the School introduced this language to its language repertoire. It is believed that Spanish together with the newly included International Relations and English Studies will help to increase future intakes of students.

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[63] Mature students are students who at the time of enrolment are 21 or older.
[64] Ibid.

Given the description provided in chapter 3, it can be seen that this School shares a common history with other post-1945 departments across the UK. The location in an ex-technological university has had an impact on the curriculum, which is strongly geared to the contemporary political, social and cultural affairs of the cultures in question. Like many other departments at post-1945 universities, this School was affected by the decline in student numbers and consequently underwent a turbulent history of mergers and expansions. However, given the massive decrease in students nationwide, this School is still able to attract a substantial number of language students. According to data provided by the Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies (LLAS), in the academic year 2004/05, there was a total of 1384 accepted candidates for a degree involving German and 3879 for French. The School maintained its fair share of the pie as in 2004 it accepted forty-five candidates for German, which amounts to 3.2% of the total population and seventy-seven for French, which represents 2%. This School also has a clear language policy. The target language is used as the medium of instruction in both language and content classes. As discussed in chapter 3, this is not a common scenario in Britain.

4.2 German Studies in the context under investigation

4.2.1 Rationales for studying German and entry requirements

As far as rationales for studying German are concerned, the publicity materials distributed to future candidates begin by making reference to the high scores achieved in the recent Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA) and in the last Research Assessment Exercises (RAE). Secondly, the profile of the German programme and its main features are highlighted:

> "Our **German programmes** stress an understanding of contemporary German society and a practical command of German, emphasising language as a means of communication and mutual understanding in the contemporary world. To help students achieve this, the majority of teaching is undertaken in German."

The profile described in publicity materials reflects the general mission pursued by the School, which focuses on the integrated study of language and modern-day European societies. Central to this approach is teaching in the target language. In

terms of entry requirements, officially three 'A' levels are required with at least a grade B in German. According to data published in *The Times*, enrolled candidates achieved, on average, 21.6 points, which is approximately equivalent to the grades 'BBC'.

4.2.2 Staff and research foci

In terms of the number of staff, this German section can be classified as a medium-size section. There are, in total, nine members of staff, of whom four are core staff and three are lecturers partly involved in German Studies and partially in other sections, for example Translation Studies. In addition, there is one DAAD-lector and one Austrian lector. There are seven native speakers in total, including lectors – a high ratio for German Studies (see 3.3.4). The German section is also supported by two sessional lecturers – a tendency which is currently growing in the UK[65].

As far as research interests are concerned, the members of staff work and publish extensively on diverse aspects. The following main research strands can be identified:

a) Literary Criticism, with particular emphasis on Austrian and German Literature in the 20th century;

b) History of ideas and contemporary German culture;

c) Linguistics with a focus on Sociolinguistics and Discourse Analysis;

d) Translation Studies;

e) Politics with a particular focus on Regional and Federal Studies.

Research interests focus predominantly on the 20th century, which reflects the research spectrum prevalent at 'post-1945' universities. It also corresponds to the profile of studies which, as emphasised in the prospectus, is based on contemporary affairs of German-speaking countries.

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[65] See "Punch the clock", in: *The Guardian*, 24 May 2005: 20.

4.2.3 Range of degree courses

In the context under investigation, German can be studied as a Single Subject or in a variety of combinations. There is a range of joint degree programmes with two subjects being combined on a 50-50 basis. As a result, German can be studied with French, Spanish, English, Politics, European Studies, International Relations, Sociology and Translation Studies. German can also be combined as a minor option with French and Politics or as a major option with French, Politics, Spanish and International Relations. In addition, the School, in cooperation with the Business School, offers the following integrated degree programmes: International Business with German, International Business with German and French, International Business with German and Spanish. Furthermore, German can be combined as a minor and major option with other subjects offered at the University such as Computer Science, Business Administration, Economics or Human Psychology.

4.2.4 The profile of German Studies: aims, content, methods and assessment

There are two broad educational aims of the German programme. Firstly, this programme aims to develop students' interest in and knowledge about the German-speaking countries. Secondly, this programme intends to educate individuals, who will possess near-native proficiency in written and spoken German and thus be able to act as an intercultural communicator between the German-speaking and British cultures. These aims involve a range of sub-aims, which can be divided into four areas: a) language knowledge and skills, and b) subject-related knowledge and skills, c) research skills and d) transferable skills. In terms of language knowledge and skills, students who successfully complete the degree course should possess: a) near-native competence in written and spoken German, b) have a good understanding of language structure and academic writing skills in both English and German.

The syllabus is divided into four stages which correspond to four years of study: foundation, application, participation and analysis. Each year includes language and content classes. Generally, language classes aim to consolidate and enhance German grammar and the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking

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and listening. Content classes focus on subject-related knowledge and skills. Besides, the underlying principle of the programme is teaching in the target language. This means that in all seminars and lectures, German is used as the medium of instruction, which in turn should foster the development of listening and speaking skills in the target language. In addition, nearly all assessments – essays, class tests and oral presentations – are carried out in the target language, which aims to enhance students' speaking, reading and writing skills in German. The criterion for assessing students' written work is based on the evaluation of the quality of written German (50%) and content (50%).

The foundation year aims to establish and consolidate essential language competence and factual knowledge of historical, political and cultural events, which have led to the development of contemporary German-speaking societies. The language classes aim to improve accuracy and practise productive and receptive language skills. There are two hours of Communication Skills per week, one hour of German Grammar and one hour of Audio-Visual Comprehension (AVC) designed as a self-taught course. The assessment employed in language classes includes: a writing assessment based on summaries of five short stories, four grammar tests which take place throughout the year, and oral and written examinations at the end of the academic year. In addition, there is a one-hour test, which assesses listening comprehension. The subject-related knowledge and skills embrace a core course, which is an introduction to major historical events during the period 1750 – 1945 and *Landeskunde*, which conveys geography, political systems and aspects of the economy. In addition, there are a number of optional courses, which include an overview of cultural phenomena relevant to 20th century Germany, linguistic variations in German-speaking countries (Sociolinguistics) and an introduction to the mass media. The evaluation of subject-related knowledge is predominantly based on essays or a combination of essays with oral presentations or tests. The required length of essays in Year One is 1500 words.

The *application* year aims firstly at the consolidation of accuracy and the development of advanced writing and oral skills. This is carried out in language classes, translation classes and AVC. Language skills are evaluated in an assessment package which includes a written commentary on a German text, a translation of a 250 or 300-word German text into English, an oral presentation on a topic related to the set literary text, an oral examination in German, a one-hour

listening comprehension test and a 1500-word essay in German. In terms of subject-related knowledge, the core course provides an overview of historical events post-1945. There is a range of electives including Austrian Cultural History, History of the Jews in 20th century Germany, Politics and Society in the Weimar Republic and Discourse Analysis. Subject-related knowledge is evaluated by means of an essay or a combination of an essay and oral presentation. In contrast to Year One, the length of essays in Year Two is 2000 words.

The third year of study – the *participation* year – is spent abroad in a German speaking country. Students have three options: they can study at a partner-University, work as English teaching assistants or complete a work-placement in industry or the service sector. Towards the end of Year Three, students are required to submit a project in German – Year Abroad Project (YAP) – of 5000 words maximum. The topic can be related to any area of German Linguistics, Culture, Society, Politics or Economy. The submission of the projects is followed by an oral examination – Year Abroad Viva.

The *analysis* year is the last year of study, which is directed at the consolidation of generic research skills and their application in an independent research project. As far as language classes are concerned, emphasis is placed on the development of academic and journalistic writing skills as well as on practising advanced translation. Language skills are assessed on the basis of written tasks, which include a 250-300 word translation into German, a 300-word review in German and a summary of a 1000-word German text in English. In terms of subject-related knowledge, students have a core course in German Cultural History and a variety of options such as Literary History of Germany post-1945 and Minority Languages – the Case of Yiddish. Subject-related knowledge is evaluated through 3000-word essays. In Year Four, the largest assessment is an independent research project, which students are required to undertake. On the basis of their research, they write a dissertation – *Diplomarbeit*, which is a study of between 5000 and 10000 words. The *Diplomarbeit* has to be submitted towards the end of the final year and to be defended in an oral examination in the target language.

In terms of teaching, there are a variety of forms. Language classes are designed to be interactive seminars with a mixture of group and pair work, and self-taught activities. In Year One and Two, there are in total three contact hours,

while in Year Four the amount is reduced to two hours. Content classes are based on a combination of lectures and seminars with a reasonable amount of individual work in guided study weeks or in the form of independent research. The number of compulsory contact hours is two in Year One and two in Year Four and this number increases to three, as each student has to participate in a seminar designed to be academic preparation for the final year dissertation – *Diplomarbeit*. The following table provides a summary of content, types of assessment and teaching form in each year of German Studies in the case under investigation:

Table 5: The Curriculum for German Studies in the context under study

Year One: Foundation	Written Assessment	Oral Assessment	Teaching Form
Language Courses Grammar	4 Grammar tests (25%)		Lecture (1h)
Communication Skills	Exam: summary of a press article and description and interpretation of non-verbal data (25%)	20-minute exam conversation (15%)	Seminar (2h)
	Summaries of 5 literary short stories (10%)		
AVC	Listening comprehension test (25%)		Self-taught
Content Courses/Core German History and Society (1750 – 1945)	Written task in History (25%)	Presentations in class (5%)	Lecture (1h)
	Summary outline (5%) Essay (40%)		
Landeskunde	Test (25%)		Lecture (1h)
Optional Courses Weimar	1000-word essay (80%)	Presentation in class (20%)	Lecture/Seminar (2h)
Berlin in the 20th century	1500-word essay (70%)	Presentation in class (30%)	Seminar (2h)
Intro to Sociolinguistics	1500-word essay (100%)		Lecture/ Seminar (2h)
Major German News Media	1500-word essay (100%)		Lecture/ Seminar (2h)
Year Two: Application	**Written Assessment**	**Oral Assessment**	**Teaching Form**
Language Courses German Language Skills	Commentary in German on a set literary text, normally a book (25%)	Presentation in class (11%)	Seminar (3h)
	Translation into English (25%)	15-minute exam conversation (15%)	
AVC	Listening comprehension		Self-taught

	test (12%) 1500-word essay (12%)		
Content Courses/Core German History and Society (1750 – 1945)	2x 2000-word essay (100%),		Lecture (2h)
Optional Courses Discourse Analysis	Analysis of transcriptions of German (100%)		Lecture/seminar (2h)
Austrian Cultural History	2000-word essay (70%)	Presentation in class (30%)	Seminar (2h)
History of Jews	2000-word essay (70%)	Presentation in class (30%)	Seminar (2h)
Intercultural Text Comparison	2000-word essay (100%)		Lecture/seminar (2h)
Fit for Germany	3x 600-word essay (60%)	Oral exam (40%)	Lecturer/ seminar (2h)
Year Three: Participation	**Written Assessment**	**Oral Assessment**	**Teaching Form**
Residence abroad	5000-word project (70%)	Viva (30%)	–
Year Four: Analysis	**Written Assessment**	**Oral Assessment**	**Teaching Form**
Language Courses German language skills	Translation of a 250-300-word German journalistic text into English (25%) Abstract: summarising a 1000-word German text to a 200-word English text (25%) Translation of a 250-300-word English journalistic text into German (25%) Production of a 300-350-word journalistic text in German (25%)		Seminar (2h)
Content Courses/Core German Cultural History (I and II)	2x 3000-word essay (100%)		Seminar (2h)
Diplomarbeit	Diplomarbeit of between 5000 and 10000 words (50%)	Viva (50%)	Seminar (1h)
Optional Courses Intro to Yiddish	Translation and interpretation of a short Yiddish text (3000 words) or 3000-word essay (100%)		Lecture/ seminar (2h)
Interpreting German		Interpreting of a speech extract into German (30%) Interpreting a	Seminar (1h)

| German writing 1945 - 2000 | 3000-word essay (100%) | dialogue (70%) | Lecture/seminar (2h) |

As can be seen, content, teaching forms and assessment procedures are clearly defined. In addition, the School follows a rigorous attendance policy. At the beginning of each academic year, timetables are distributed to students, which include all core and chosen elective modules. Students are required to attend no less than 80% of listed contact hours. Failure to do so results in disciplinary procedures and in serious cases in withdrawal from the programme.

Any alterations to the existing curriculum in terms of contents, learning outcomes, methods of assessment have to go though the process of internal reviews. Changes must first be reviewed and approved by the Academic Subject Group of German Studies, which consists of all members of German Studies. Subsequently they need to be approved by the teaching committee. The curriculum has to comply with the external standards as set up by QAA and is subject to external reviews (see 3.2.6).

4.3 Summary of chapter 4

The profile of German Studies in the context under investigation presents an example of the new *Germanistik*, which emerged in ex-technological universities in the 1960s. Its main aim was to link the discipline of German Studies with the world outside academia and in so doing, to stress its usefulness and to prepare graduates for numerous professions in national and international services and industry. However, it is not a technical type of education. The academic ethos of *artes liberales* is maintained through a comprehensive study of culture, society and language, even though the focus is on contemporary affairs. The profile discussed above follows this new path. The main focus is on political, social and cultural aspects of the German-speaking countries. Literature is also present but is discussed in a broader context of cultural developments, which is a common trend in British German Studies (Sandford 1998). There is a fairly even distribution of subject matter. This includes language classes, German History, Politics and Society, German Culture embracing Literature, Arts and Film, and German

Linguistics. In terms of optional courses, the cultural-literary and linguistic strands dominate. Other characteristics involve a policy to use the target language as the medium of instruction, which can be regarded as a rare phenomenon in British German Studies. According to prospectuses, all content and language classes are conducted in German All assessments are also required to be accomplished in the target language and 50% of the total mark is accounted for by language. Moreover, the curriculum demonstrates a clear progression. In terms of core content courses a chronological order of historical and political events is apparent, starting with events in the second half of the 19th century and ending with post-1945 developments. This ensures provision of fundamental knowledge, which students can progressively deepen in optional courses selected in accordance with their interests. A progression is also visible in language courses, which, according to the handbook, begin with an introduction to fundamental aspects of grammar and with basic textual competences and end with writing a variety of complex academic text types such as the dissertation, written in the target language. This progression is also reflected in assessment. Students begin with shorter text types such as summaries and 1500-word essays and gradually complete longer essays. Finally, the curriculum reveals that students are predominantly assessed on the basis of their written work. If we consider the core language and content courses only, nearly 80% of all assessment forms are written tasks. In terms of optional courses, the most frequently applied assessment was an essay or a combination of an essay and oral presentation. This is a classic example of an academic context in the field of Humanities and Social Sciences, which have been traditionally based on writing socialisation (Kruse 2003). Research evidence suggests that English-speaking universities emphasise writing particularly strongly and essay is the most common assessment form (Clyne 1987). Thus, in terms of skills, all areas: listening, speaking, writing and reading are emphasised. However, given the assessment, writing receives the greatest weighting. Academic writing is a complex task, which is difficult even for native speakers. It involves numerous sub-skills such as reading, critical evaluation of materials, summarising, writing accurately and appropriately, namely in line with formal academic and linguistic conventions. For students of German, the additional difficulty is that they have to write in the target language and thus it can be assumed that those who have a good grasp of German grammar and accuracy will

be more likely to accomplish the academic writing tasks appropriately. However, as discussed in chapter 3, these are the areas in which students have serious problems (Durrell 1993, Kolinsky 1994, Claussen 2004). In the context under investigation, students are provided with explicit grammar teaching and also have to accomplish a range of general writing tasks such as summaries, translations or journalistic genres. Academic German is only a part of an hourly *Diplomarbeit* in Year One. Given the complexity of academic writing and its relevance throughout the course of study, it is crucial to ask whether this provision is sufficient.

If we position this curriculum within the didactical orientations discussed in chapter 1, then it becomes apparent that it transgresses a number of aspects which are typical of both the teachability and learnability orientation (see table 2). The former includes explicit grammar teaching, tests, translations, teacher-centred teaching, literary texts, clear progression and the priority given to written forms of assessment. There are also elements that are associated with learning innovations such as teaching in the target language, self-taught courses, project work and a focus on presentations/oral skills. Thus, on the one hand, there is a continuation of the academic tradition of teaching FLs, which for centuries focused on reading and writing mostly literary texts and was in line with the GTM (Ortmanns 1993). The main task of British *Germanistik* was to educate graduates who had a profound understanding of classic German literature (Sandford 1998). However, the new generation of students has diverse aims. There is now a large number of students interested in the contemporary affairs of the cultures and countries in question and in the achievement of high communicative competency in German (Meara 1994, Coleman 1996, Coleman 2006). Departments reacted to these new attitudes by changing content, and in particular by reducing the amount of literature. The curriculum above is a good example of these latest modifications. The questions which ultimately arise are: is this type of curriculum suitable for the context of learning and teaching German language and culture in Higher Education? Does the approach respond adequately to students' weaknesses and strengths? What are the teaching and learning areas which could be optimised? The following parts will address these issues from the perspective of first year students and lecturers working in the context under investigation.

5 The Micro Context, Part II: The Students

This chapter endeavours to examine the experience of students of German Studies in the context presented in chapter 4. It does so by looking at problems and difficulties which students experienced in their first year of studies. Year One was chosen as the unit of analysis as it is the transition period from 'A' level to university, which for many is the most turbulent time (Claussen 2004).

The experience of university students of modern languages in the UK has been examined in four research projects to date. Each of them followed different objectives and research methodologies. The first one was a qualitative study based on fifty interviews (Evans 1988). The interviews were designed along two main themes: the motives behind the choice of subject and personal experience of it. The qualitative, life-history approach enabled the researcher to demonstrate the complexity of university language environments and the problems of "language people". The prime focus was on 'life paths' of students and only partially on language teaching and learning. The second project is a longitudinal study conducted by Coleman (1996). On the basis of structured questionnaires, he examines gender, subject combinations, motivation, attitudes, language proficiency and experience during residence abroad for 3,824 students of German from all years of study. The purpose of this survey was to map the population as precisely as possible, for which quantitative methods were used. The third study was carried out by Elspaß (1999). On the basis of semi-structured questionnaires distributed to ninety-seven British and Irish students, age, gender, previous experience of learning German, motivation, attitudes, difficulties and learning strategies were examined. While Elspaß's sample is smaller than the one examined by Coleman (1996), his research provides authentic views and opinions of the respondents. In so doing, it sheds light on a range of issues and concerns, which a quantitative research method would not allow for. The most current research is a project conducted by Claussen (2004). The purpose of this study was to investigate students and staff experiences in order to indicate how students could be better prepared for studying modern languages. It was based on two sets of questionnaires and interviews. The issues under investigation included motivation, choice of university, expectations, study difficulties, preferred

learning strategies and students' perception of university teaching. The study has revealed among others that the areas which caused most difficulties for students in the transition from 'A' level to university were grammar, reading particularly literature, translation and generally time management. Some students were also dissatisfied with the fact that the target language was not used as a medium of instruction. Drawing on his study, Claussen (ibid.) has proposed a number of recommendations to ease the transition process. The most important were: a) more focus on textual work and grammar at 'A' level, b) a more recognition of vocational aspirations of students in the contents of degree programmes, c) inductions involving general study skills and d) an improvement of grammar teaching at university.

The following sections draw on the aforementioned research projects and is organised according to seven major themes: 1) general background, 2) exposure to the target language and culture, 3) reasons for subject and university choice, 4) attitudes and beliefs about learning FLs and German in particular, 5) experience of learning German at 'A' level, 6) difficulties experienced at university while studying German and 7) preferred learning strategies. Results were obtained from two sets of questionnaires distributed to the total population of students in Year One (see Appendix 2 & 3). Results are summarised in Appendix 4 & 5. To validate statements made by students in the questionnaires and to provide a more in-depth insight into the learning dimension, towards the end of the second term, interviews with eight students were carried out (see Appendix 6). A sample of the interview can be viewed in Appendix 7. To achieve clarity, I will firstly provide results obtained from questionnaires, which will then be further supported by comments made by students in the interviews.

5.1 General background

The first set of questions aimed to identify students' gender, age and the type of course on which the respondents were enrolled. It also includes queries about the linguistic situation in their family and about languages which they have learned (see Appendix 2, section QA). Subsequent questions were related to exposure to the target language and culture (Appendix 2, section QB).

The survey demonstrates that the majority of students were female (84%)[66]. There were only five male students in the sample. Most of the respondents were eighteen or nineteen years old. Only one was a mature student, that is to say over twenty-one. In terms of degree courses, the largest number of respondents (31%) chose Modern Languages (ML) with French and German followed by Translation Studies (TS) with both languages (25%) or only with German (9%). In addition, three students study European Studies (ES) with French and German and three ES with German only. Three students were enrolled on Combined Honours (CH) with Psychology and Computer Science. Only one respondent opted for a German Single Honours course. In fact, 70% of the surveyed population chose degrees which combined French and German with or without a third subject. The question of which languages are spoken at home reveals that English is the dominant language. Six of the respondents pointed to other languages and these were Punjabi, Welsh, French and Greek. Responses to the question of which FL they learned first signalled that it was French for 76% of them. Eight respondents mentioned German, two Punjabi and one Welsh. As far as the length of learning is concerned, most students had learnt their first FL for seven years. In terms of German, two thirds had learned it for five or six years and eight for seven years.

The second part of the first questionnaire (section QB) was related to exposure and the type of contact that students have had with the target country and native speakers. The data shows that more than one third of the respondents have had occasional contact with speakers of German outside the classroom (38%). Four respondents admitted to not having had any contact and four ticked 'very rarely'. In terms of visits to German-speaking countries, all students except for one have visited a German-speaking country, mainly as part of a school-exchange. The main purpose of these visits was, aside from a school trip, sightseeing (28%), visiting friends/family (28%) or working (19%).

In conclusion, an average first year student in the context under investigation is an eighteen-year-old female from a monolingual, English-speaking household, who started learning her first FL – French – seven or eight years ago and German five or six years ago and chose a degree course combining both languages. In addition, an average student has had only occasional contact with native speakers

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[66] The total number of students in this sample was 35.

and has visited Germany as part of school-exchanges. The findings obtained from this small survey are similar to the results of the large-scale study by Coleman (1996). They also correspond to the survey by Elspaß (1999). There are a few important facts to bear in mind. Firstly, in terms of students, the discipline of German Studies is a feminine subject area. There is substantial research scope examining how gender correlates with factors such as interaction, motivation, attitudes, learning strategies and proficiency (Sunderland 2004). Some data suggests that male students tend to dominate verbally, while female students show preference for activities such as listening and writing. Counterevidence has also been demonstrated (ibid.). In terms of proficiency, in the UK girls achieve better results than boys in languages and this is probably why they are more likely to continue with languages at tertiary level. At the same time, neurological evidence suggesting that females are better FL-learners is inconclusive (ibid.). Secondly, the case under investigation is a classic example of a GFL-context with its benefits and limitations. It is beneficial that in terms of age, L1 and linguistic and cultural background, the length of FL-learning, the group is fairly homogenous. Besides, the vast majority of them share the same first FL, French. If it is agreed that any languages previously acquired are important resources then referring to English and French could be of advantage when learning German. It is disadvantageous that the students have learned German in the context of sociolinguistic poverty, in institutionalised conditions with rather limited contact with the target language and culture.

5.2 Motivation: the choice of subject and university

The issue of motivation is a topic which has been extensively examined in FLE. Initially, researchers claimed that integrative motivation understood as intrinsic interest in the target language and culture was directly linked to learning success. In contrast, instrumental motives, understood as practical profits, were perceived as less effective. These assumptions have recently been challenged. Research indicates that learners, particularly in the context of FLE, have a mixed orientation and that instrumental motives are directly linked to learning persistence and success (cf. Edmondson & House 2003, Riemer 2003, Coleman

1996). Peirce (1995) claims that motivation is not an innate trait but is a product of complex interactions between an individual and society. She argues that the traditional division between intrinsic and instrumental motivation is inadequate and proposes the concept of motivation as an investment. This includes both symbolic, namely cultural, and material resources which FL-learners want to access. Besides, motivation is not a constant variable but changes over time. It can be influenced by the teacher, teaching contexts, materials and achievement. In other words, students who do well at school or have a positive experience with learning languages are more likely to develop stronger motivation to continue learning languages.

With regard to the motivation of British students of languages, Evans (1988) shows that the choice of subject is largely determined by the influence of friends and family. A positive experience of learning the target language, which he described as a fun-factor, is also significant. Differences are identified between students who chose a literary degree and those who opt for a non-literary choice. The latter have a more instrumental orientation, as they are mainly concerned with future career options. A later survey by Coleman (1996) has produced a different picture. For the majority of students, future career came top, followed by the travel-factor and the like-the-language factor. Students of German had the highest score for career – 85%. The least important factors were the influence of parents and friends. This survey also demonstrates that motivation changes over time. After residence aboard, integrative motives such as socialising and living abroad are rated higher than at the beginning. A survey by Elspaß (1999) yields slightly different outcomes. A general interest in languages was the main motive for choosing German, followed by a positive experience at school or a good teacher. Interestingly, career came third.

All in all, research demonstrates that students of modern languages have a mixed orientation. While career is certainly the main motive for studying modern languages, intrinsic aspects such as like-the-language, travel and socialising are also significant. Moreover, motivation has largely been perceived as an individual, innate trait. However, the studies cited above demonstrate that it could be greatly influenced by external factors such as a positive experience at school, the teacher or the year abroad.

To put this research into relation with these studies, a set of questions related to motivation was included in the first questionnaire. These involved Likert-scale based items, which combined integrative and instrumental motives (see Appendix 2, section QD). Results are summarised in figure 5. As can be seen, the greatest incentives for studying German in this case study was the desire to obtain an academic degree followed by a wish to travel to German-speaking countries, the career-factor and communication with native speakers. Conversely, less than one in ten students indicated an interest in traditional subject matters of *Germanistik* such as literature or history. The results obtained from this research are largely compatible with findings from the survey by Coleman (1996) and the conceptualisation proposed by Peirce (1995). German is indeed a form of investment in the future, that is to say an academic degree and career options. At the same time, the desire to access symbolic resources is important, albeit that the traditional cultural content of a degree in German Studies is not of much interest.

Figure 5: Motivation to learn German
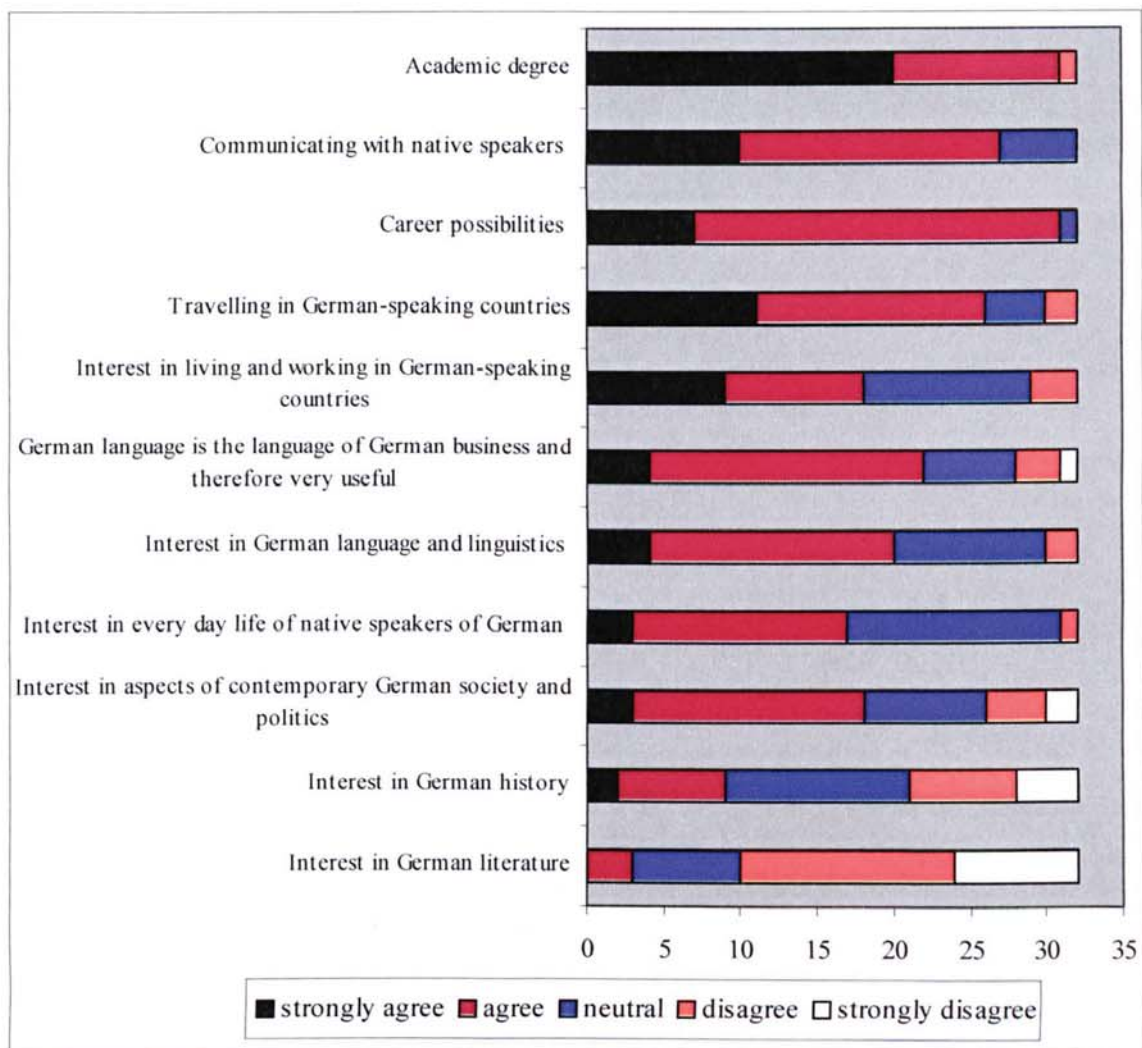
It seems that students are more interested in obtaining first-hand experience of the target culture, for travelling, and communication with native speakers were at the forefront. This implies a fair degree of curiosity and openness and also indicates that communication, and therefore language, is the key incentives. Evans (1988: 33) has arrived at similar results: "all content, both literary and non-literary, is viewed as of secondary interest and importance. What counts is language."

The decision to study modern languages is also accompanied by the choice of university. This is of particular interest to institutions of Higher Education (HE) in the UK, as the number of students is a crucial measure for securing public funds. Given the declining number of candidates with an 'A' level in modern languages and the large number of universities offering degree courses in ML, competition is indeed intense. Evans (1988) observes that in the UK, students tend to choose their university not so much on academic grounds but according to factors such as location and friendliness of academic staff. The second aspect is the distinction made between universities which concentrate predominantly on literature, and universities which offer less literary degree courses. The third incentive is the variety of course combinations offered. Teaching methods and research reputation do not have much influence on the choice of university (cf. Claussen 2004).

This research also sought to identify on what grounds the surveyed students chose their particular university. This was elicited on the basis of an open question, included in the second questionnaire and formulated as follows: why did you decide to study German at this university? (see Appendix 3, section QD). The vast majority of students provided two answers. Firstly, they explained why they decided to study German in general and secondly why at their particular university (see Appendix 5). This added a great deal of information to the data obtained from the Likert-scale-based items presented above.

The largest number of students (= 8) made reference to career opportunities. Answers such as the following are representative of this fact.

(1)   Because I would like to use German in my career after university
(2)   It will help me in the future when finding a job

However, surprising was the number of references pointing to a positive experience at school (n= 9).

(3)   I enjoyed studying languages at school and wanted to continue
(4).   German was one of my stronger subjects at GCSE and A-level

(5) A-level results were better than I had expected for the subject
(6) Because I enjoyed it at A-level
(7) That is a good question. I had a very enthusiastic German tutor at GCSE and A-level

The success-factor "I was good at it" and fun-factor "I enjoyed it" are at the forefront here. This led to a quasi-natural continuation of languages at degree level. This is closely followed by a general interest in FLs (n= 5) and in the German language in particular (n= 4). The choice of university was largely determined by the good reputation of its language programme and the profile of the German course, frequently described by the students as modern:

(8) Because it has emphasis on culture and modern day issues rather than medieval history and literature
(9) The course appealed to me because it seemed very practical, rather than a purely academic degree at X, for example. I want to work in business in the 3rd year placement and this university fully supports this. The modules in the university's German course also seemed varied and modern
(10) Because I wanted a course that was based more on language and culture than literature
(11) This university has a good reputation for languages

Other reasons mentioned included 'good open days' and 'close to home'. The question of motivation was also raised in the interviews. The same motives as above reoccurred:

S1: I knew it [*the university*] was good for languages but I also wanted a more modern course and I wanted to be able to do translation. A lot of people do that and hm I didn't want a course that had loads and loads of literature.

S3: I'd always wanted to go to university. I'd started German at the age of 11 and hm I just really like it. I like languages. I'd originally set my heart on doing German and Italian at university X. I went there and found that quite closed off and then came here and found it at the centre of everything, quite relaxed and teachers seemed nice.

S7: Recommendation from our teachers. Both here and X. X has the best classes but some classes are taught in English. My friend studies French at X and does classes on French History in English and can write essays in English.

This demonstrates that the students opted for their university not because they were motivated by the traditional subject matter of *Germanistik*. They wanted a modern, practical course, namely without emphasis on literature. Recommendations from their teachers and teaching in the target language were additional incentives.

In conclusion, the surveyed students see their degree course as a form of investment in their future career. Indeed, graduates in German are less likely to be unemployed and the degree is presumably seen as a security measure protecting them from low-paid work. They are not driven by a deep interest in Literature, Culture or History. This pragmatic attitude and the disinterest in literature are condemned by many academics in language departments as the greatest contributor to the deterioration of intellectual standards. Complaints about dumbing-down and materialistic students are frequently heard (cf. Evans 1988, Claussen 2004). However, while the career-factor is at the forefront, this is not the sole reason for studying languages. Other factors such as travel, communication and interest in German-speaking countries are also crucial. The students have decided to study German because they like it. They demonstrate a fair degree of openness and curiosity. Evans (1988: 68) describes students of languages as all-rounders of an exceptional educability and claims that they try to avoid strict specialisations; they do not want to learn "one big thing, they want to know (and be) many things." The concern with future career does not necessarily mean that students are materialistic or obsessed with the job market. It can also be interpreted as a sign of taking responsibility for one's own future and longing for security, which is increasingly difficult to obtain in the rapidly changing globalised world.

5.3 Beliefs and attitudes towards learning foreign languages.

Students who enter language classrooms at university already possess a set of beliefs and perceptions as to how FLs are learned, what a good learning/teaching method is and what is particularly difficult. These beliefs have their origin in students' previous learning experiences and are linked to their cultural and social background (Horowitz 1987, Richards & Lockhart 1994). They largely influence students' performance and how they approach FL-learning. Clashes can occur when these beliefs contradict methods and requirements encountered in new educational settings. If this is the case, then students' ultimate performance can be seriously impeded (Horowitz 1987). Thus, exploring student beliefs and

perceptions is an important source of information for teachers to guide their teaching practice.

This study also examined students' views about FL-learning in order to find out how, from their point of view, FLs are best acquired. In the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), this area is referred to as learner belief systems (Richards & Lockhardt 1994), while in GFL the term subjective learning theories is used (Grotjahn 1998). These aspects were not examined in the research projects cited above, nor is there much research in this area in the field of GFL. Thus, for this research I drew in particular on an inventory of beliefs designed by Horowitz (1987). The difficulty was that the inventory was orientated towards the needs of learners of English in the United States. At the same time, questions related to teaching methods and the role of the teacher were not included. Therefore, only items which made specific reference to the general nature of FL-learning including issues of fear and anxiety, as well as some language myths were selected (see Appendix 2, section QE). Statements which indicate the role of the teaching method and the teacher were also included, as the vast majority of students in the context under investigation have learned German in institutionalised settings, to which teachers and teaching are central. As figure 6 indicates, the respondents were overwhelmingly convinced about the efficacy of teaching methods. More than half of the students agreed and nine strongly agreed with the statement that teaching methods enable individuals to achieve learning success. Against this background, it is not surprising to see that the role of the teacher was attached great value as a motivational factor (66% agreed, 13% strongly agreed). In contrast, parental and peer pressure were rated as rather insignificant. The stay in the target country is also seen as the best way to learn a FL. Besides, nearly two thirds endorsed the concept of a special ability for FL-learning. In terms of selected skills, the vast majority of students believed that speaking is the most important part of FL-learning (strongly agree 16%, agree 69%). A large number of respondents, nearly two thirds, also agreed that FL-learning involves a large amount of repetition and memorising of vocabulary. Responses to the item which made reference to women being better at FL-learning, show a strong tendency to disagree.

Figure 6: Beliefs about FL-learning
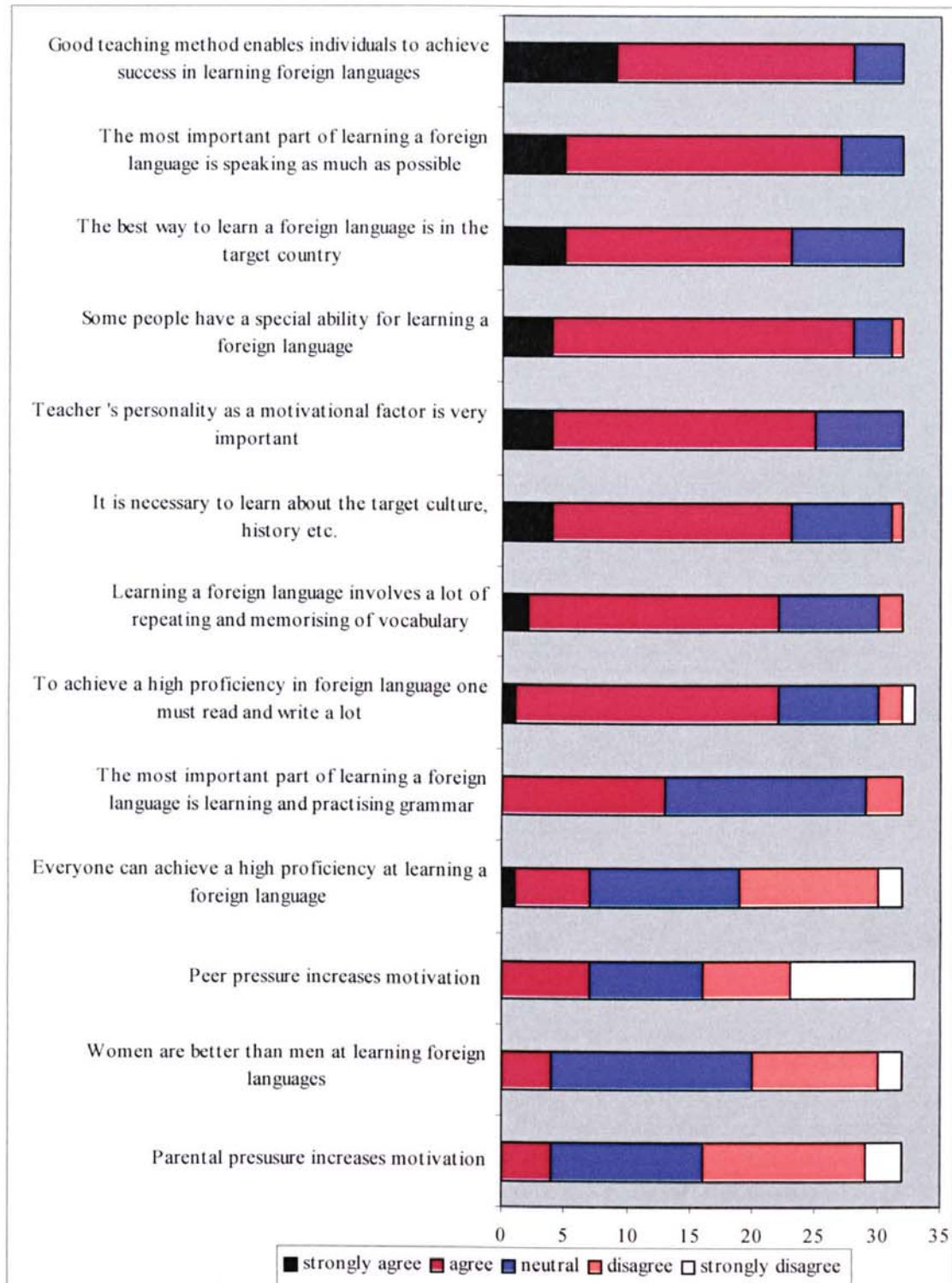
The questions as to what facilitates FL-learning best and whether some people have special learning abilities were also raised in the interviews. Overall, the responses indicate that residence in the target country and communicating with native speakers assist this process best. The following answers are representative in this respect:

R: How do people learn foreign languages best? What do you think accommodates this process best?
S6: Probably when you are in the actual environment. Because we can sit here, go through grammar exercises but it's not the same as actually being there. Because we can go and speak English, you would not do that in the environment.

S3: I think the best way to learn a foreign language is to go to Germany and speak the language in practical situations. That's what communication is about, two people communicating and if you get to speak it, hopefully it will lead onto reading and writing.

S5: I think it is good to go abroad. You can get native speakers and listen to the way they speak. They don't always speak textbook German. Also, talk to as many people as possible and listen to the news and read papers.

As far as special abilities and skills are concerned, the interviewed students made reference to intelligence, discipline, perseverance, but above all to interest and enthusiasm:

R: Do you think some people have a special ability to learn foreign languages? If so, what abilities?
S6: I think so. I know that you have got to have a certain way of thinking sometimes to take things in. You also need discipline.

S4: Hm, perhaps not an ability but some people are more keen. Sometimes it's whether you are interested in, because I know at school some people just shout it out 'I don't want to learn French or German' or 'what do I need that for?'. It's sad. But hm I think where you have a bit of interest in it, it is easier to pick it up.

S3: I think you have to be enthusiastic because it is going to take a lot of hard work. You have to persevere.

Moreover, languages were seen as being different to other subjects, predominantly due to the communicativeness, the inclusion of grammar and the fact that it involves continuous learning:

S8: I think they [*languages*] are different to other subjects, in the fact that you are doing more speaking and interaction. Nobody will correct your grammar in mathematics.

S6: It's not like some subjects where you have to take facts in and that's it. Not like history, you are learning but you have to learn constantly because of vocabulary, and just general things like grammar.

All in all, the results obtained from the surveys and interviews indicate that the vast majority of the students perceived the ability to speak a FL as special. Similar results were obtained by Horowitz (1987, 1999) on a larger population of learners. Thus, it looks like the learners of foreign or second languages believe in a kind of linguistic inequality. They are convinced that some individuals have a special

talent and therefore learn languages more easily. As discussed in chapter 1, the cognitivists were the first to draw attention to special, innate abilities for language learning. They coined the term language aptitude. However, research on aptitude has not led to conclusive results and we still do not know what exactly this special ability involves. From the perspective of the surveyed students, this ability consists of a certain set of skills and attitudes such as discipline, perseverance and above all, enthusiasm. Furthermore, the surveyed students saw speaking as the most important part of learning. The common belief that FLs are learned best in the target country is also confirmed by this survey. Another issue which deserves special consideration is the strong belief in teaching methods and the teacher's personality as a motivational factor. This stresses the importance of instruction and a direct contact with the teacher in the process of learning foreign languages.

The next aspect investigated in relation to student beliefs was attitudes to learning German, including fears and anxieties. Attitude is understood as a complex socio-psychological, emotional stance, which refers to a particular object and is "affektiv begründet und kognitiv repräsentiert" (Rost-Roth 2001: 722). Similar to motivation, attitudes to the target language and culture were supposed to correlate positively with proficiency. However, more recent studies have demonstrated that this relationship can be reversed. In fact, the more proficient one becomes, the more positive the attitude to the target language one may develop. In research, this is referred to as Resultative Hypothesis (ibid.). The same applies to anxieties and fears, which are generally regarded as serious obstacles to learning (Coleman 1996). At the same time, research indicates that anxieties can result from lower proficiency and might be reduced with growing language competence (ibid.).

Of interest to this research were the students' general perceptions of learning German. The aforementioned study by Elspaß (1999) shows that the vast majority considered learning German as difficult, predominantly because of grammar. Above all, the respondents demonstrated a low self-esteem, particularly in the first two years of study. The large-scale survey by Coleman (1996) shows analogous results. In the first year, students are more anxious about speaking in the target language and female students seem to be particularly affected. Particularly anxiety-provoking is the embarrassment associated with making errors. However,

after residence abroad, fears are reduced and upon return, students show considerably more confidence.

As figure 7 reveals, the majority perceive learning German as enjoyable and interesting. At the same time, for nearly all students, this process involves hard and systematic work. In addition, a large number of respondents view learning German as difficult. Nearly one third strongly agrees that it is frustrating. These findings demonstrate a kind of ambiguous attitude. On the one hand, the surveyed students feel positively towards learning German and find it enjoyable. On the other hand, there is a strong sense of frustration. This might have been generated by the increase in workload at university, a lower level of proficiency at the beginning of their studies or the general contradictions and irregularities which the system of FLs exhibit (Rost-Roth 2001).

As far as fears and anxieties are concerned, figure 8 indicates that the surveyed students are indeed inhibited to communicate in the target language. Only seven students do not feel intimidated when speaking in front of the class, for example. This could have been partly caused by the embarrassment which the respondents experience when making errors. This timidity could also be due to the constant

Figure 7: Attitudes to learning German

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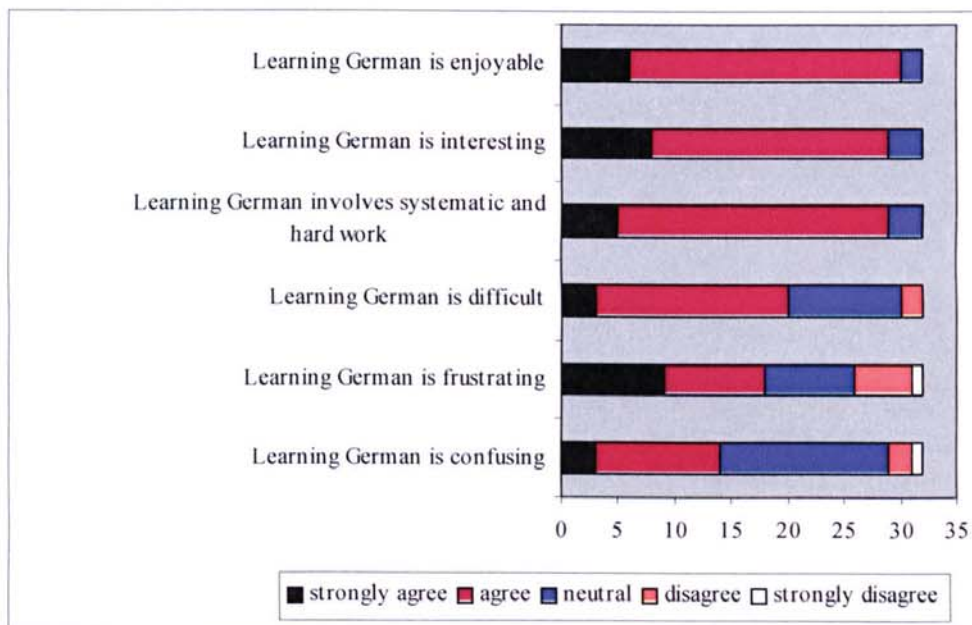
Figure 8: Confidence/ fears
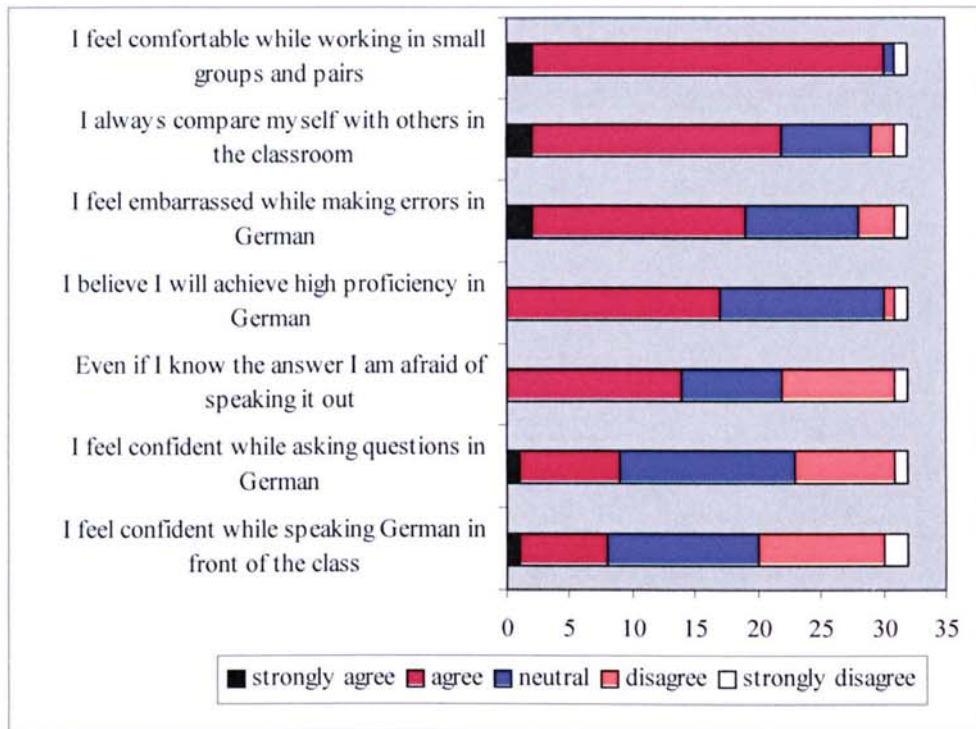
comparisons with others in the classroom (cf. Elspaß 1999). Conversely, the surveyed students feel more comfortable when working in pairs or small groups. Despite the fears and timidity, more than half of the students agree with the statement: I believe I will achieve high proficiency in the target language.

The issue of attitude towards learning German and fears when communicating in the target language were raised in the interviews too. The responses to the question – how is learning German for you? – confirm the ambiguity, which shape the students' attitudes:

R: How is learning German for you?
S1: I do enjoy it, there are some things where I get stuck on which are frustrating, where things don't 'click' and you can't understand it. When it does, then I do enjoy it.

S5: It is easier than it used to be. I've learnt new ways of picking up things. Quite challenging, because of genders to know, new words to learn which can be a bit frustrating.

S6: I find it quite difficult. Possibly because it's my second language, so I have not done it for that long and when I did do it, there was not much time allocated to it at school at first. I also go to France every year and not to Germany as much.

There is not much research concerned with ambiguity and learning of FLs. Overall, it is assumed that learners who have a higher tolerance towards ambiguity

may profit more from institutionalised teaching and learning (Rost-Roth 2001). However, this is a very individual variable and it is still not clear to what extent it can influence the learning of FLs.

In terms of fears and anxieties, the interviews indicate that the students feel ashamed when making mistakes or speaking in front of the class. However, many of them highlighted that the feeling was stronger in the first term. Being taught in smaller classrooms and giving oral presentations have raised their confidence considerably:

> R: Some people feel shy when they actually use the target language in the classroom. Do you feel this way about German?
> S5: It depends. Everybody was new. I'm not so bad now actually, especially in the communication class because everybody is friendly.
>
> S4: Maybe. I was nervous about doing presentations, but I've got used to them. It's good preparation for the next few years.
>
> R: Some people feel embarrassed when they make mistakes? Have you experienced this feeling?
> S6: Yes, sometimes I do if I get something wrong. I am finding now though that it bothers me less.

All also demonstrate a readiness to communicate in the target language regardless of one's deficient knowledge of grammar:

> R: Some people think that you should not say anything till you can say it correctly? What is your opinion?
> S4: Hm you can't stay quiet forever can you? And you're never going to be perfect, so you have to say something.
>
> S8: Hm you have to say something to learn. You have to say something to be corrected. So if you don't know something, then you'll be corrected. It does help if you know grammar though.
>
> S6: Hm I think the more you talk the better. Even if it's wrong, because you can be corrected as you go along. I think it helps when you practice and in confidence as well hm I think it's important to talk and be corrected.

As can be seen, the interviewed students demonstrate a positive attitude towards being corrected. To speak means the possibility of seeing whether one's speech is deficient and how it could be improved. The issue of corrections has been hotly debated in the history of foreign language pedagogy (see 1.3). While the traditional approaches placed a strong emphasis on explicit, direct interventions, newer concepts from the 1970s onwards focused on corrections in a rather implicit way similar to the manner in which children learn their L1 (James 1998,

Kleppin 1998, Königs 1995). Following Krashen (1988), it was assumed that corrections may induce anxiety on the part of the learner and seriously impede the learning process. However, corrections were not completely excluded. The proponents of the communicative didactics, for example, believed that interventions are pedagogically useful, although they should be applied only when errors are grave, causing serious misunderstandings or unintelligible utterances (cf. James 1998, Kleppin 1998). At any point, interventions should imitate the natural communication process and be rather indirect[67]. Such a practice differed utterly from the one used in the traditional approaches, which saw errors as "sins" to be immediately eradicated through drilling or overlearning (Kleppin 1998: 50). These days, such views would not find many supporters. However, explicit corrections, that is, emphasising and immediately correcting erroneous output and supplying rules, should not be totally abandoned. Research reveals that explicit corrections are one of the factors contributing to better performance, written and spoken. James (1998) provides here an extensive summary of studies. One of the explanations for their benefit is that explicit corrections may potentially increase learners' attention to linguistic forms, known as noticing, and consequently enable them to see certain patterns better, to recognise them as new language input, to avoid wrong forms and to help them self-correct their mistakes. Besides, it is interesting to see that the practice of explicit corrections is strongly favoured by FL-learners. A study by Leki (1991) demonstrates that 100% of her subjects expected their teachers to correct their errors explicitly and 70% expected all their errors to be marked. Another similar study by Kleppin (1998) shows that learners of GFL in various contexts were dissatisfied with their teachers when they did not correct their mistakes. A large-scale research by Schulz (1996) demonstrates a serious mismatch between students' and teachers' views on error correction. 94% of 842 students surveyed at an American university believe that teachers should correct their mistakes, while only 48% of teachers hold this view.

As indicated at the beginning of this section, an investigation into student beliefs and attitudes should lead to some suggestions, which could facilitate the

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[67] Kleppin (1998) defines the term implicit or indirect corrections as a type of teacher's interventions, which are similar to the interventions occurring in the natural communication process, when misunderstandings happen. They only hint towards erroneous forms, for example the teacher behaves, as if he did not understand a learner's statement, asks his question again or utters the learner's erroneous statement correctly but without directing his or her attention to the wrong forms.

learning process in the classroom. What primary implications can be drawn from the above for teaching German language and culture at British universities? Firstly, given that the students believe that speaking is the most important part of learning a FL, it could be assumed that greater emphasis should be placed on oral communication. At the same time, students cannot expect only speaking activities as they are in an academic environment, where traditionally more emphasis is placed on writing and reading (see table 5). Thus, students should be made aware of the fact that alongside speaking activities, reading and writing will constitute the largest part of their university work. The study by Claussen (2004) reveals that the amount of reading and writing shocked students and many experienced huge difficulties because they were not prepared for this. Secondly, students believe that the best method of learning the target language is in the target country. As discussed in 1.3, the period spent abroad is of benefit. However, the gains may not affect all areas of language competence and in fact accuracy may still remain deficient. However, if students receive explicit grammar teaching combined with meaningful activities prior to their stay abroad, improvements are visible in all areas (Klapper & Rees 2004, 2003). Thus, it is necessary not to treat the year abroad as a miracle cure and to raise lecturers' awareness that a thorough and systematic teaching of language structures is crucial for a successful stay abroad. Thirdly, students are generally lacking in confidence. However, more involvement in group work and oral presentations seem to reduce these fears considerably, as the above data suggests. Fourthly, learning German is a source of enjoyment but at the same time frustration. Whether this attitude is held specifically towards German and whether French is seen as easier, is not reported in this survey. Nonetheless, lecturers of German Studies should realise that language learning itself is, from the perspective of students, difficult and challenging. Above all, the students seem to strongly believe in a good teaching method and have a positive attitude towards the direct teacher's interventions. This attitude can be described as instruction-dependent. Taking into consideration the results demonstrated above, it seems that such innovative ideas might be difficult to introduce particularly in the first year of university study in the British context, when teaching methods and teachers are highly regarded (cf. Altmayer 2002).

5.4 Beliefs about learning in general. The role of the teacher/lecturer

The students' belief in the efficiency of teaching methods led me to investigate this issue in more depth by examining students' general beliefs about learning and the role of the teacher/lecturer. The reason for this was to determine to what extent the claims made by recent didactical concepts are appropriate for this group of learners. On the basis of the discussion on constructivism versus instructivism, I designed a set of questions which involved the main principles promoted by current didactical discourse. Particular attention was given to the role of the teacher/lecturer. These items were included in the second questionnaire (see Appendix 3, section QB).

As figure 9 indicates, the vast majority of students value the role of lecturer very highly. All respondents but one agreed that the lecturer is a resource person, who provides students with knowledge. At the same time, a large number of respondents were convinced that social interactions and discussions fostered the learning process best. Learning in a rich and authentic environment was also endorsed. Moreover, the vast majority of students interpreted learning as a process of direct instruction. Nearly 80% agreed with this assertion and 7% strongly agreed. In contrast, responses to the statement – learning is a process in which knowledge is actively constructed by learners – demonstrated a very mixed (understanding or attitude?) attitude, which maybe partially caused by a confusion over the meaning of the question. A rather neutral stance is reported with reference to the question whether students should decide about content and activities performed in the classroom. In contrast, the overwhelming majority of students held the opinion that formal learning in HE should impart practical knowledge. Moreover, figure 10 shows that all students held the view that the role of the teacher/lecturer is to help students learn effectively and to provide feedback. Interestingly, over 80% expect to receive instruction on what to do and endorse regular tests. Thus, the respondents' views can be described as traditional with a strong preference for the instructive mode of teaching. The teacher is seen as the authority figure who has to manage and control the learning process.

Figure 9: Students' views about learning in general

Figure 9: Students' views about learning in general
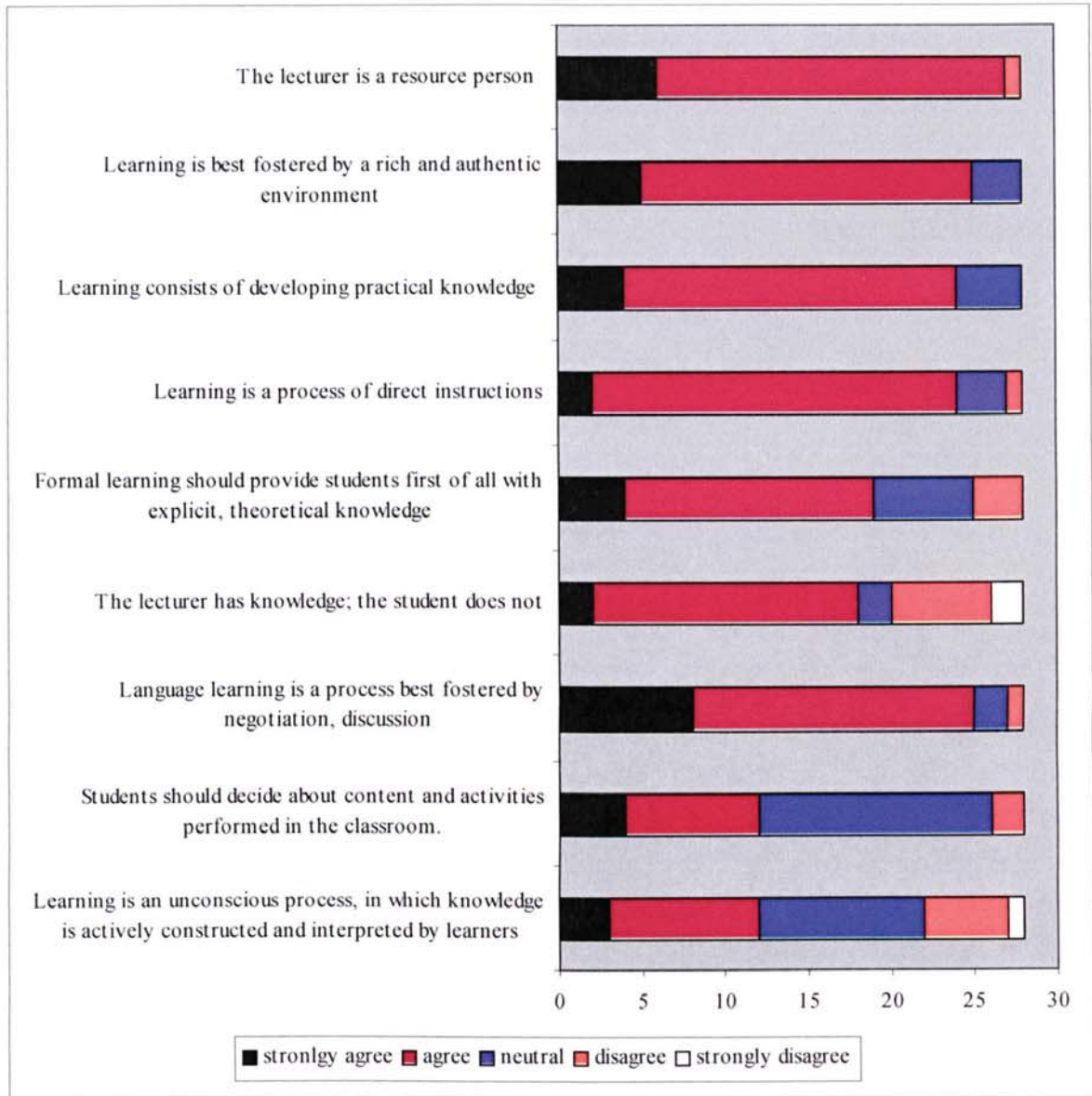
Having said that, answers to the open question – What attributes characterise a good lecturer? – demonstrate a number of other features (see Appendix 3, section QC). In total, fifty-nine different characteristics were listed. These were categorised and counted according to the similarity of the responses. As can be seen in figure 11, the feature which occurred frequently was 'easy to approach', followed by 'friendly'. A good teacher/lecturer is also a good communicator who is willing to listen to students' problems and views. Many students also made reference to good feedback and good explanations. Given all the characteristics prompted by the students, it emerges that they rate personal traits and ways of conveying knowledge, namely good feedback, explanations, clarity of speech, more highly than expertise in the subject matter.

Figure 10: The role of the teacher/lecturer is to...
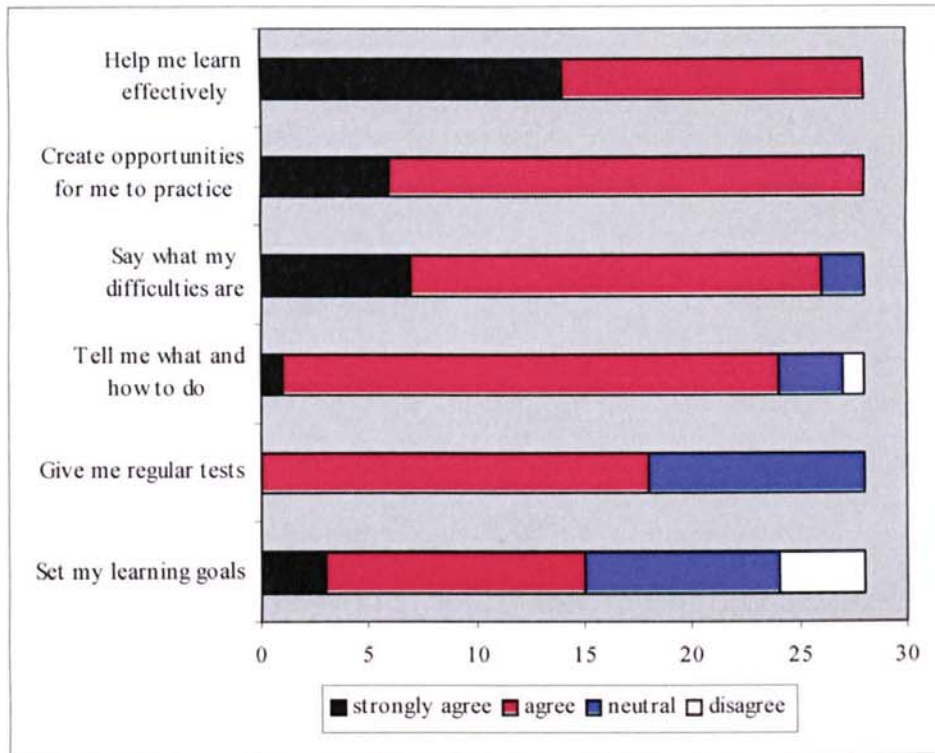
Figure 11: Attributes of a good teacher/lecturer
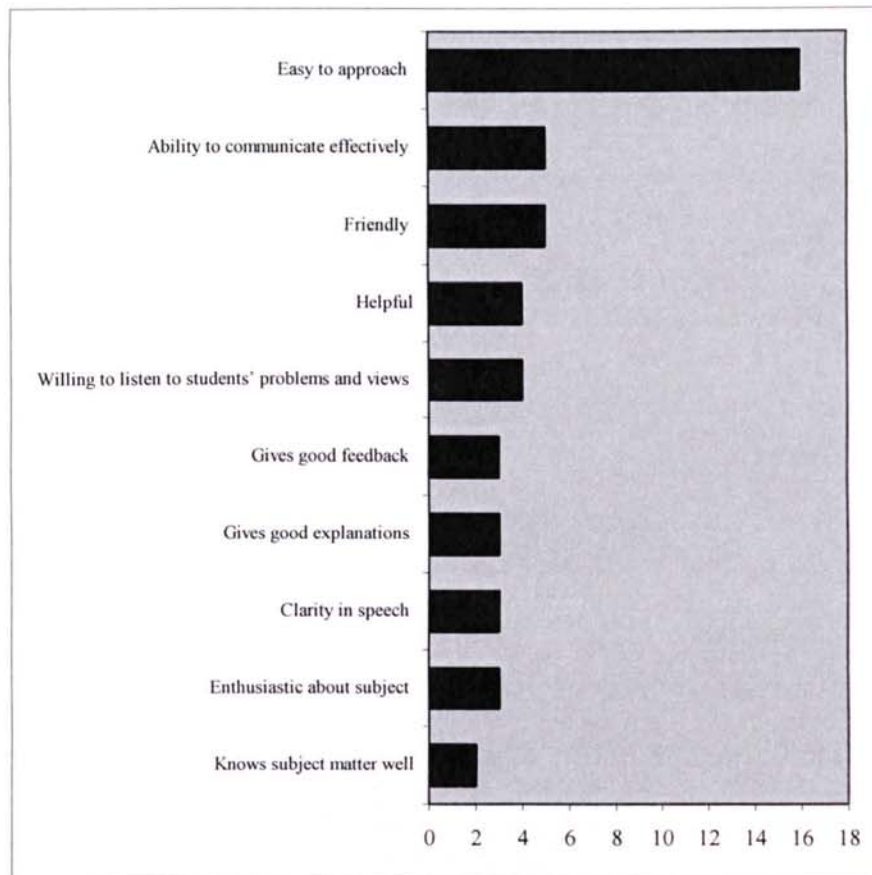
The findings demonstrate that students, to some extent, rely on explicit instruction and value the teacher highly. Learning, for them, is a process of receiving a solid body of knowledge but also of negotiations and interactions. Thus, the views identified here are, to some extent, compatible with the Vygotskian concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which highlights the relevance of collaboration and development under the teacher's direct instructions (see chapter 1). Moreover, the teacher/lecturer is a person who should decides about content, procedures and activities. His or her task is also to help students learn effectively, to provide feedback and explanations. At the same time, he or she should be kind and easy to approach. These findings are compatible with results obtained by Evans (1988). In his study, students "disliked 'weak' lecturers, i.e. those who lacked authority, but at the same time they wanted to see lecturers as fellow-adults, fellow members of a community and of a discipline" (ibid.: 128 – 9). The teacher-factor and teaching are indispensable and given the students' views, we can assume that for them learning is a result of teaching, for example instructions, feedback, and explanations (cf. Bailey et al. 1996).

5.5 German at 'A' level

The experience at 'A' level is, in many respects, crucial for university subject choices and student progression. Research by Watts (2003) indicates that the 'A' level experience of modern languages frequently discourages young people from studying languages at degree level. The group of students who participated in the current study are learners, who in contrast to the respondents in Watt's research decided to enrol on a German Studies programme despite the negative climate surrounding FLs in the UK. Against this background, it was deemed necessary to examine what the students particularly liked in terms of learning German at 'A' level, how many contact hours they had per week, what skills they practised and what grades they obtained (see Appendix 2, section QC). All results are summarised in Appendix 4. Providing data on 'A' level experience is important, because, as Elspaß (1999) observed, the vast majority of lecturers, particularly

native-speakers of German, in the context of British German Studies, do not know much about what happens in the pre-university stages.

According to the responses obtained, 80% of the students received their 'A'-levels from state schools. Two students named grammar schools and a further four attended public schools. The survey also demonstrated that the vast majority of respondents (80%) took French as a second 'A' level subject. Other popular choices were: English language and literature followed by General Studies and Business Studies.

In terms of the number of hours spent on learning German at 'A' level, the largest number of students had five contact hours per week. 22% of respondents indicated that they had more than five hours and one third less than five hours. Taking into consideration the types of school, the survey reveals that the number of contact hours per week ranged between three and seven in state schools. All students from public schools spent five hours or more on learning German.

As far as teaching practice is concerned, in the vast majority of cases, German classes were carried out by non-native speakers. Moreover, according to the survey, English was frequently used in the classroom. In most cases, this use was classified as fair. With regards to skills practised in the classroom, the answers indicate that all four skills – reading, writing, speaking and listening – were integrated into every lesson or practised at least once a week. Translation exercises were rarely practised. In terms of learning forms employed in the classroom, the survey demonstrates that the most regular form was individual work, followed by pair work. In contrast, oral presentations and role-plays were rarely employed. Furthermore, lessons were based largely on a textbook (60% every lesson). The limitation of this survey is that it can only demonstrate a general tendency and this tendency was towards the communicative approach. This was to an extent supported by the fact that teaching was predominantly based on a textbook. Given that the vast majority of the textbooks used for 'A' level in the UK follow the communicative approach, it could be assumed that teaching was geared to communicative tasks[68]. However, it should be noted that the use of

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[68] I examined three 'A' level textbooks, which were mentioned by students. They included *Brennpunkt*, *Aufgeschlossen/Aufgeklärt* and *Schauplatz*. These textbooks are recommended by CILT.

a particular textbook does not necessarily mean that the actual teaching practice strictly follows it.

As far as 'A' level grades in German are concerned, eight students received an 'A' and thirteen a grade 'B'. Nine students obtained a 'C' and two scored a 'D'. This suggests that the university accepts students with a wide range of 'A' level grades, which is a consequence of the dramatic decline in the number of candidates. As will be seen in 5.6.3, this results in a diverse proficiency level in Year One.

The survey also sought to elicit what students particularly liked or disliked in their German classes at 'A' level. In terms of positive aspects, students frequently made reference to the small size of the classes, as this results in good communication between the teacher and students:

(12)   It was intensive, there were only 3 of us
(13)   As it was a very small class (4 people) lots of teacher's help and attention
(14)   It was small so there was a good level of student-teacher time each lesson

A significant number of respondents mentioned skills and materials employed in the classroom. A few students made reference to interesting topics, especially when they were related to German culture. As far as dislikes are concerned, the most frequently mentioned aspect was German grammar:

(15)   grammar lessons were very difficult and taught at a fast pace
(16)   Grammar work. The work was quite difficult
(17)   The work was difficult especially the grammar because it was a big change from GCSE

Teachers' characteristics and some arrangements in the classroom were also perceived negatively:

(18)   Our teacher was lax
(19)   Teacher did not speak German
(20)   The class was too big, so big that I got no individual help

The interviews largely confirm the statements made in the questionnaires. Responses to the question of what they mostly liked about German classes at 'A' level again indicate that the small class size and good interaction between the teacher and students were the most positive aspects:

S3: It was very small, just five of us. It was a close-knit group. A nice atmosphere. We concentrated on speaking which I quite liked. We also had audio-visual materials which was good.

S5: It was small. It was easy to ask questions if you had problems as we had two members of staff and only two students. So it was one-to-one. We had a language

assistant once a week who was actually German. She told us a bit about the culture as well.

In terms of their dislikes, two students mentioned grammar work. References were also made to translation exercises and a lack of focus on contemporary affairs. The areas practised most, according to the responses, were speaking and listening. Grammar was mentioned by two students and it was perceived as helpful:

> S8: We did a lot of grammar which has helped a lot this year. I know there are a lot of people who have not done as much. We did do a lot of reported speech, things like that.

The student sees himself as an exception to the rest of the group and at the same time perceives the intensive focus on grammar as critical for study in Year One.

Responses obtained from the questionnaires and interviews indicate that the experience of German at 'A' level was diverse. Nonetheless, there were a number of commonalities. Firstly, the students had on average 5 contact hours of German per week. Secondly, most of them were taught German by non-native speakers and on the basis of a textbook. In terms of teaching methods, the general tendency was to follow the communicative approach. What was positive was the small size of the groups because this led to better communication in class. Given the description of the syllabus presented in chapter 4, one can justifiably assume that for many students, the first year at university could cause a serious shock. The small groups turn into large seminars or lectures; textbooks with structured progression are replaced by authentic, complex texts written for native speakers. Writing and reading suddenly become more important than oral communication. Indeed, there is a big gap between the language provision at 'A' level and at university. While a few decades ago 'A' level was considered a mini-university course and great emphasis was placed on the skills and content required by universities such as writing and grammar, this is not the case any more (Claussen 2004). An additional difficulty is the diverse language provision at the pre-university stage and the compulsion to take on students with lower 'A' level grades, which results, as will be demonstrated below, in very heterogeneous groups. However, this heterogeneity is not considered by the language departments. Students are not normally grouped in accordance with their proficiency. This, in turn, makes the selection and adaptation of teaching materials

very problematic. What further consequences this gap has on students' university experience will be demonstrated in the following section.

5.6 Learning experiences in German Studies in Year One

While the previous section focused on students' experience of learning German at 'A' level, this section will give an account of their university experience. The focus will be on difficulties and preferred learning strategies. The purpose of this is to examine what the students perceived as particularly problematic in the transition to the new teaching environment and how they coped with the new requirements. The term 'difficulty' as used here should not be equated solely with errors and mistakes. As Borneto (2000) observed, this is a common misapprehension, as many of the problems that students experience go beyond the linguistic level. Claussen (2004), on the basis of responses to open questions, identified two groups of difficulties. The first was related to problems encountered when learning the target language. Grammar, reading literary texts and translations were at the forefront. The second group involved general study difficulties such as time management, independent study research, short deadlines and seminar presentations. When students were asked how they could have been better prepared for learning at university, they referred to more grammar and text analysis at 'A' level and more information on what is involved in studying languages.

This section will also examine the problems experienced by the surveyed students. The first part focuses on study difficulties with reference to language and content classes. Subsequently, their learning strategies will be discussed. Finally, by evaluating grammar tests and analysing samples of student writing submitted in Year One, linguistic difficulties will be examined.

5.6.1 Study difficulties

As demonstrated in chapter 4, the pursued approach in the context under study follows the monolingual principle. All lectures and seminars are conducted in

German[69]. Students are also required to prepare seminar presentations and to write assessments in the target language. In contrast to their education at 'A' level, they also have to read complex texts, including literature – five short stories written by prominent German authors of the 20th century – and participate in lectures on History and German grammar, for example. Items related to these issues (n= 17) were listed on a five-point Likert scale and distributed to the students towards the end of the first term (see Appendix 2, section QF). Towards the end of the second term, the students were asked to comment in open questions on their overall learning experience in Year One (see Appendix 3, sections QE – QH). The results are summarised in Appendix 5. The interviews also required students to think retrospectively about what the most difficult aspects of their learning experience in Year One were. Their answers will be cited to support the results obtained from the questionnaires.

Responses to the Likert-scale-based items reveal that reading literary texts was regarded as the most difficult task (see figure 12). Three out of four found this difficult or extremely difficult. Reading complex but not literary texts ranked second. This was followed by coping with the amount of work set on the programme and the application of grammar. Interestingly, students did not seem to have many problems understanding grammatical rules. However, to apply them in writing and speaking was seen as problematic. Conversely, understanding lectures conducted in the target language did not pose difficulties. Likewise, respondents did not find it particularly difficult to answer questions in German. Speaking in German when discussing texts was also rated as fair. Moreover, the vast majority of respondents seemed to have coped well at university and in their new environment. Although a significant number of the surveyed students tended to "sit on the fence", a clear tendency in the perception of difficulties emerged. Reading complex, authentic texts, particularly literature, and the application of grammar in writing and speaking, are at the forefront. These items are followed by general study difficulties such as organising and coping with the amount of work. In contrast, teaching in the target language is unproblematic for the vast majority of students.

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[69] The practice of teaching in the target language in the context under study is discussed in more depth in 6.4.3.

Figure 12: Difficulties as experienced in the context under study
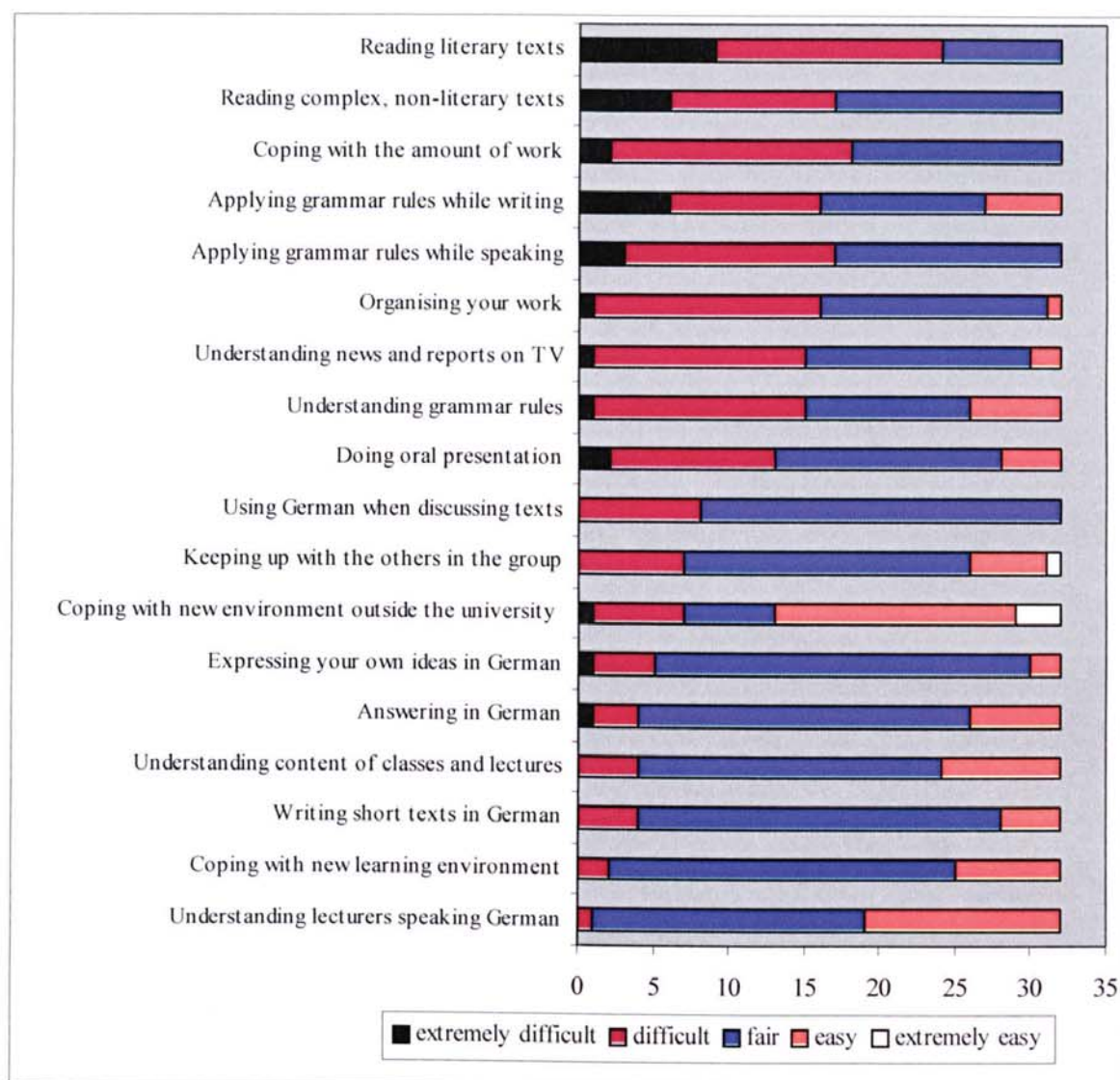
The issue of how the students coped with seminars and lectures conducted in German was raised in the interviews too. Responses confirm the results obtained from the survey. Nearly all interviewed students admitted that they became accustomed to this and did not have too much trouble understanding the subject matter:

> R: As far as the lectures go, how have you coped with the lectures being solely in German?
> S4: I found it surprisingly easy really. The history lectures were the first ones all in German and I was quite apprehensive about it. But then half way through the first lecture, I realised he was talking German and that I knew what was going on, so I was quite pleased by that.

> S3: At the beginning I thought I'm never going to understand any of it. But actually, it does improve your German, because you are listening constantly. Now I go into a lecture and expect teachers to speak German.

Regardless of their initial difficulties, the students coped quickly with classes being conducted in German. This could imply that they have well-developed listening comprehension skills presumably due to a stronger focus on communicative tasks in schools (cf. Durrell 1993). Moreover, the surveyed students see teaching in the target language as a chance to improve their language competence and are content with being able to understand spoken German. This in turn corresponds with findings obtained by Levine (2003), whose respondents grew in confidence when being taught in the target language. This supports the use of the target language as the medium of instruction in content classes in German Studies, where, as elaborated in chapter 3, is rather common to teach in English. At the same time, it should be noted that lecturing solely in the target language might be counterproductive at times. As demonstrated in 1.3, learners should be provided with additional means to ease comprehension and to reduce the danger of misunderstandings, which could result in the development of a classroom pidgin (Hammerly 1991, Butzkamm 2003). The use of L1 seems to be the most successful strategy to counteract these problems and research supports this (Levine 2003). In contrast, explanations in the target language, known as paraphrase, might result in confusion and a lack of clarity. The interviewed students also opted for the use of L1 when comprehension was problematic. When asked whether they preferred a translation in English or an explanation in German if unknown words occur, five out of the eight interviewees favoured English translation and dictionary support:

> R: When the teacher introduces a new word, do you prefer a translation of the word or an explanation of the meaning in German?
> S2: Translation, because I can work out the meaning. I feel more confident.
>
> S7: Translations in English. It is good that we are taught in German but sometimes I get it wrong. Perhaps if they said the German and then the English word - so that we have both.
>
> S8: I would like to know the English as well.
> R: If you cannot understand a word, what do you do?
> S8: Usually look them up. If I see a word that I do not recognise, I would ask what the English word is.

The use of L1 serves an important function in comprehension and to deny it would indeed be "a futile endeavour" (Levine 2003: 355). A provision of lists of key words, handouts with key points explained in both languages, and brief summaries of the content in the students' L1 are some examples of the

enlightened use of L1. This requires university teachers to possess an excellent command of the students' L1 if they happen to be native speakers of the target language. Conversely, non-native teachers must possess a near-native competence in the target language.

The second questionnaire focused retrospectively on students' opinions and views about their learning experience with reference to content and language classes. In terms of content classes, the responses to the questions – which class was the most difficult for you? – German History was at the forefront (13 nominations), predominantly due to a lack of previous knowledge:

(21)   German history as I had no previous knowledge of this subject
(22)   German history, because I had no background from A-level
(23)   Grammar lecture, too many people. It would be a good idea to split the class in half

This is not a surprise considering that only three students chose History as an 'A' level subject and the vast majority of them had only little exposure at GCSE level. *Landeskunde*, which incorporates Geography, Politics and Economy was also nominated recurrently (10 nominations). Large classes as well as lack of previous knowledge were the reasons provided. Thus, the difficulties are caused predominantly by the novelty of these areas. When students start their degree in German Studies, they do not possess much knowledge about historical, political or social aspects of the German-speaking countries and this knowledge needs to be conveyed in the early stages of their degree course in a chronological order, as this could help students to link various historical, social and cultural events in order to see continuity and interrelations between them. This in turn could enable them to get a more profound understanding of the country and culture in question. As demonstrated in chapter 3, this is rarely the case in departments/sections of modern languages. Syllabuses are often scattered and progression is not visible (cf. Kolinsky 1994).

Questions focusing on language classes were divided into three groups in accordance with areas covered and these included grammar, communication skills and the audio-visual course. As far as difficulties in communication-skills-classes are concerned, reading literary texts was rated as particularly difficult. Eight students wished that literature was excluded from the programme altogether. Apart from that, the students did not seem to have many problems and did not comment much on this area. The next aspect which emerged as particularly

problematic was grammar. In contrast to communication skills, this part generated a large number of responses (see Appendix 5)[70]. The surveyed students overwhelmingly endorse the relevance of grammar. All but one agreed that grammar is an essential part of learning German. Three categories of this relevance can be identified. Firstly, a large number of comments make reference to grammar as a basis or a fundamental of FL-learning:

(24)   it is a major part of learning German
(25)   because it is the basis of a language
(26)   without grammar you cannot speak a language

Secondly, grammar is perceived as a crucial aspect in the improvement of language skills, writing and accuracy in particular:

(27)   In everyday life when one has to write letters, give presentations or simply talk to a native in German, without grammar you would be nowhere
(28)   otherwise the language makes no sense. A lot of points are lost in essays, just for grammatical errors and it is a waste
(29)   I do not see how you can write anything in German and be understood without a reasonable knowledge of grammar

Thirdly, its relevance in assisting general language learning is highlighted:

(31)   it helps in the whole language learning process
(32)   as grammar is in every aspect of learning a language
(33)   grammar is needed for proficiency in a language to be achieved
(34)   to be able to be good at a language one must know the grammar

Against this background, it is not surprising to see that nearly all of the students find grammar lectures valuable or very valuable. Thus, the students are very much in support of explicit grammar teaching. More importantly, they see learning grammar as necessary for the improvement of their overall language competence. Similar results have been produced by large-scale research. Schulz (1996) demonstrates that 80% of 824 language learners at an American university believed that the formal study of grammar is essential to the mastery of the target language. The view that grammar is necessary presents a significant challenge to current thinking about this subject in British education. I shall return to this issue when discussing linguistic problems in the next section.

The next area, which generated a large number of responses, is related to the self-taught audio-visual course (AVC) (see Appendix 5). Each week, students

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[70] As chapter 4 has shown, in the context under investigation, grammar is taught in a weekly one-hour lecture based on a textbook: Reimann, Monika (1996): *Grundstufen - Grammatik für Deutsch als Fremdsprache.*

were provided with a 15-minute TV report recorded on videotapes. The task was to listen to the reports and to answer a number of comprehension questions listed in an AVC-booklet designed by the course convenor. This course was not timetabled and the students were free to organise listening sessions in their own time and at their own pace. Responses to the questions – Was the fact that you had to organise and monitor your own learning beneficial or disadvantageous for you? Why? and What changes would you like to see in the AVC? – demonstrate that the overwhelming majority of the surveyed students find this very difficult (see Appendix 5). The difficulties arose not from the complexity of the authentic spoken materials but from the fact that AVC, as a self-taught module, was not scheduled in the timetable. Hence, a large number of students (20 nominations) found it problematic to organise the sessions regularly. Difficulties with time management, lack of motivation and even personal laziness were frequently mentioned:

(35)   if it was a timetabled class I would have taken it more seriously and done it more often
(36)   because it was harder to go and do it when it was not actually on your timetable
(37)   I found it difficult to organise myself and did not do all of the exercises
(38)   I found it hard to keep up with AVC because it is not written into the timetable
(39)   Disadvantageous – I was a bit lazy at the start of the term, and needed more motivation to do the AVC videos

Only six responses signalled some advantages and this with respect to the improvement of self-planning and organisational skills. However, the vast majority of students wanted the course to be timetabled and regularly monitored by a lecturer:

(40)   Maybe timetable or made more compulsory to hand in to a lecturer. This would make me to do it more regularly
(41)   Make a compulsory lesson – then more people would do it
(42)   and perhaps would be better if you handed answers in to be marked. Would encourage people to do it properly
(43)   Monitored by lecturers e.g. answers

All in all, the opinions about the self-taught AVC indicate that when the students were given complete freedom to carry out tasks in their own time, they felt lost. There was a large degree of uncertainty, predominantly due to the fact that students could not ask for clarification or obtain immediate feedback. This resulted in students not accomplishing the tasks set systematically. At the same time, they were appreciative of the exposure to real German and current affairs in

the German-speaking countries. Thus, in order to motivate students and to improve learning effects, such a course should be timetabled and conducted under closer supervision. This implies that the concept of autonomous learning should not be understood as a process in which students are left to carry out tasks set by a language programme. It should, in fact, be developed in a progressive manner and supported by guidance and interventions of the teacher (O'Neill 1991). Research by Vygotsky (2002) demonstrates that students learn more effectively when their progress is carefully guided and monitored. He concludes that what students can accomplish today under guidance and supervision, they will be able to accomplish autonomously and independently tomorrow (ibid.: 327). The results from this study are very much in support of the importance of the teacher-factor. Even though the surveyed students were convinced about the importance of listening comprehension, when left alone to work independently without guidance, they felt demotivated and did not accomplish the tasks systematically.

5.6.2 Learning strategies

This section endeavours to identify activities and strategies, which, from the point of view of the students, were most helpful in handling the content conveyed in lectures and seminars. This section is divided into two parts. The first part focuses on techniques used to deal with content conveyed in content classes. The second part summarises techniques employed in seminars dedicated to language teaching. Questions related to learning strategies and preferred materials/activities were included in the second questionnaire (see Appendix 3, QE – QH). Results are summarised in Appendix 5. In addition, issues of strategies for learning grammar and vocabulary were raised in the interviews. Responses will be cited to support statements obtained from the questionnaires.

As far as content classes are concerned, students' responses to the questions – what activities and materials facilitated your learning best? – indicate that the use of OHPs (14 nominations) and handouts (9 nominations) was of great assistance, followed by group work and oral presentations. Answers to the question – how did you deal with and remember the content passed on to you in German? – demonstrate a preference for traditional strategies such as note taking (22 nominations), reading handouts and lecturers' notes. Only a few students made

reference to additional materials such as vocabulary lists (5 nominations) and supplementary reading (3 nominations). This data suggests that the students rely heavily on sources passed on to them in lectures and seminars and are less inclined to seek help through complementary materials.

As far as language classes are concerned, the questionnaire attempted to elicit separate answers for the individual courses. In terms of grammar, answers to the question – how did you deal with and remember grammar content? – indicate that the vast majority utilised note-taking (14 nominations). Completing exercises ranked second with eleven responses. Nine students made reference to the use of a variety of grammar books and only one person mentioned writing essays as a way to learn grammar. When asked what activities were most helpful, the vast majority of students made reference to exercises. Checks and correction carried out by the lecturer in the class were, for many, indispensable. The following responses are representative in this respect:

(44)   Exercises checked in the lecture and problems explained and corrected
(45)   Activities done in the class, when the lecturer is there to help if needed
(46)   Doing exercises, because then you know if you understand the content

Similarly, grammar tests were rated as very beneficial. They were of great assistance in monitoring one's own progress and functioned as a learning incentive. The responses below demonstrate this:

(47)   [grammar tests] showed me how much I understood and what I needed to improve on
(48)   because they motivated me to learn the new grammar points covered in the lecture
(49)   made me go over work more frequently
(50)   they showed me how well I understood the grammar rules from the previous 6 weeks

Responses to the question – How could you have improved your grammar better – indicate three major strategies: doing more exercises, attending additional grammar sessions and practising with the Internet/Intranet. Additional comments reveal that students wanted smaller classes and explanations in English.

Questions as to how the students learned grammar were also included in the interviews. The responses obtained confirm that the preferred strategy is to do exercises. Memorising of tables and rules were also mentioned:

R: How do you learn grammar?
S4: Hm practice and linking tables. Try and memorise and lots of practice. Practice with additional materials and books from the lecturer.

S6: Just doing the exercises really. I think the best way is to try and apply it. Sometimes I find it easier to do my own tables and rules.

S3: Hm I try to do the exercises that go through the sets. Sometimes they are a bit hard. If I don't understand then I'll ask the lecturer. I'll try and use the book, if I don't understand then maybe I'll ask another student if they understand it. Keep reading it through.

The question of how they monitored their progress in grammar learning indicates that checking against the rules, tests and feedback from the lecturer were the measures applied. As the survey and the interviews demonstrate, the students acquired grammatical knowledge by means of traditional learning strategies such as note-taking, exercises, memorising rules and tables. In terms of monitoring procedures, the students relied on grammar tests and lecturers' feedback.

As far as communication-skills-classes are concerned, the responses to the question – what materials were most useful for you? – predominantly made reference to handouts and OHPs (14 nominations). In terms of activities, oral presentations were perceived as very beneficial (13 nominations). This was followed by group work, discussions and writing. When asked how they could have improved their communication skills in German, the vast majority of the students pointed to increased participation in class.

During the interviews the students were also asked how they learned and remembered new vocabulary. The responses obtained again demonstrate a strong preference for traditional strategies such as memorising of single words or learning wordlists:

R: Imagine you have to prepare for a vocabulary test? How do you learn and remember new words?
S8: I would just read it, just keep reading it. It's probably not the recommended method. If I had a list of words, cover the German part, then answer each. Quite often I would get people to test me.

S4: I always used to do a big list and read through it a few times and then try and write them out again. Then keep trying to write them out and then get people to test me on them.

S3: I would hm write down all the vocabulary that we are going to be tested on, der, die or das. Look at the words for five minutes, then look, hold, cover, check method. Pretty logical.

After the evaluation of the interview responses, it was felt that the framing of the above question, particularly the reference to vocabulary tests, might have strongly implied the use of strategies such as memorising and learning of wordlists.

However, supplementary questions about further strategies such as the use of audio or visual aids indicated that the surveyed students rarely utilised additional techniques.

As demonstrated above, the audio-visual course posed a number of difficulties, which were, however, not related to the listening comprehension itself. When asked how they dealt with listening exercises, the vast majority of answers made reference to dictionary use, preparation of wordlists and answers provided on the Intranet by the course convenor.

All in all, the survey and the interviews demonstrate that students tend to use traditional learning strategies. Memorising of rules and wordlists, note-taking, translations into their L1 and the use of dictionaries, exercises and practice with a textbook are all favoured. Interestingly, the larger number of British and Irish students of German surveyed by Elspaß (1999) also favoured traditional learning techniques, particularly memorising. Elspaß (ibid.) observes that they predominantly utilised materials provided in seminars and lectures and rarely made use of additional resources. The results presented above also indicate that students rely heavily on materials provided by the lecturers.

As discussed in chapter 1, learning strategies – procedural knowledge – have recently received a great deal of attention in research and in teaching. Some scholars stress that learners possess a limited repertoire of strategies and should, therefore, be made aware of a variety of learning techniques (Wolff 1996, Schlak 2002). Two areas are particularly emphasised as being in need of an expansion of strategic repertoire: grammar and vocabulary. There seems to be widespread agreement that memorising, learning from examples, translating or using bilingual dictionaries are limiting. In contrast, guessing from context or semantic nets are seen as constructive. At the same time, there is little empirical evidence to demonstrate the benefits of strategy training for language competence. Recent research indicates that traditional cognitive learning techniques are effective with adult learners (Ecke 2004). Moreover, they see them as the most productive (Folse 2004). Introducing completely new forms could be disorientating or even alienating (cf. Holliday 1994). It is more appropriate to build on existing 'resources' and strengthen the strategies which students already apply, for example by providing guidelines on how to improve note-taking or how to use dictionaries appropriately. It should not be forgotten that memorising vocabulary

and rules is part of the process of FL-learning and that there is no evidence to suggest that these strategies are not successful (cf. Mitschian 2000, Rösler 1998, Glück 1991).

5.6.3 Linguistic difficulties

As elaborated in chapter 3, one of the major problems which German Studies is facing is the relatively low level of language competence of first year students of German (cf. Klapper & Rees 2004, Plassmann 2000, Durrell 1993, Townson & Musolff 1993). Falling linguistic standards are particularly reported with reference to two areas: grammar and writing. The dominance of the communicative approach, the widespread aversion towards grammar and nonchalant attitude towards language accuracy are named as the main reasons for this state of affairs (Wend 1998). The findings of research projects provide reasons for these serious concerns. A study by Townson & Musolff (1993) indicates that first year students of German have huge deficits in grammar, morphology and word order. In fact, only a small percentage of students received 70% or above in the given test and there were huge discrepancies regardless of grades achieved at 'A' level. In The Sunday Times (15 January 1995), Scott-Clark reports the results of a study which demonstrates that a large number of first year students struggled when they were asked to translate simple English sentences into German such as 'I prefer English tea'. A large quantitative study carried out by Coleman (1996) also shows huge discrepancies in language proficiency across all years of study. Moreover, only a small percentage of final year students achieve high competence in German. Coleman (ibid.: 48) assumes that this might be a result of inadequate teaching. Klapper & Rees (2004: 36) question the postulation that university teaching is responsible for poor proficiency arguing that individual learning differences are the cause of patchy improvements. At the same time, on the basis of a quantitative study, the authors demonstrate that explicit grammar teaching is a great advantage to learning progress. This suggests that teaching and explicit grammar instructions in particular can make a difference and this is regardless of individual characteristics.

5.6.3.1 Grammar

To assess the students' initial grammar competence, thirty-five grammar tests were evaluated. These tests were completed in the first week of the course. The purpose of this was diagnostic. The test consisted of six tasks (see Appendix 8). The first task was a fill-the-gap-exercise, which required the students to put finite verbs into the *Präteritum*. In the second task, they were asked to complete sentences by putting in the correct forms of the verb werden. In order to achieve this, knowledge of complex structures such as the *Passiv* was required. The third task involved adjective endings and the fourth *Relativpronomen*. The fifth exercise required them to put in correct prepositions and the last one to join two sentences using a suitable conjunction. The maximum number of points to be scored was 98 (= 100%). Results will be presented in percentages. The best score was 95%, which was achieved by two students, followed by 93% achieved by one student. The lowest score was 16.3%. The statistical mean amounted to 47.6% and the standard deviation was 23.5%. This indicates huge discrepancies among the students. The task which was particularly difficult was the second exercise involving the correct forms of the verb *werden*. Only two students scored the maximum number of points and there were six students who did not obtain any points at all. The second area with the lowest scores involved the *Relativpronomen*. Only one student achieved the maximum number of points. The third area was the gap-filling exercise related to the forms of the *Präteritum*. The maximum score of 40 points was achieved by one student. Three subjects received 38 points. The lowest score was 2, obtained by two students. The low results were partly attributable to the terminological confusion over the word *Präteritum*. In fact, many students wrote the correct forms of *Präsens* or *Perfekt*, for which they were, however, penalised. The area in which the students scored the highest number of points was the last task related to conjunctions and word order. The good results were not surprising as the task included simple sentences to be joined predominantly with the conjunction *weil*. This was followed by the third task, where the students had to write down an appropriate adjective ending.

Figure 13: Initial grammar test, results in %

Average: 47,6%
Std. Deviation: 23,5%
Maximum: 95%
Minimum: 16,3%
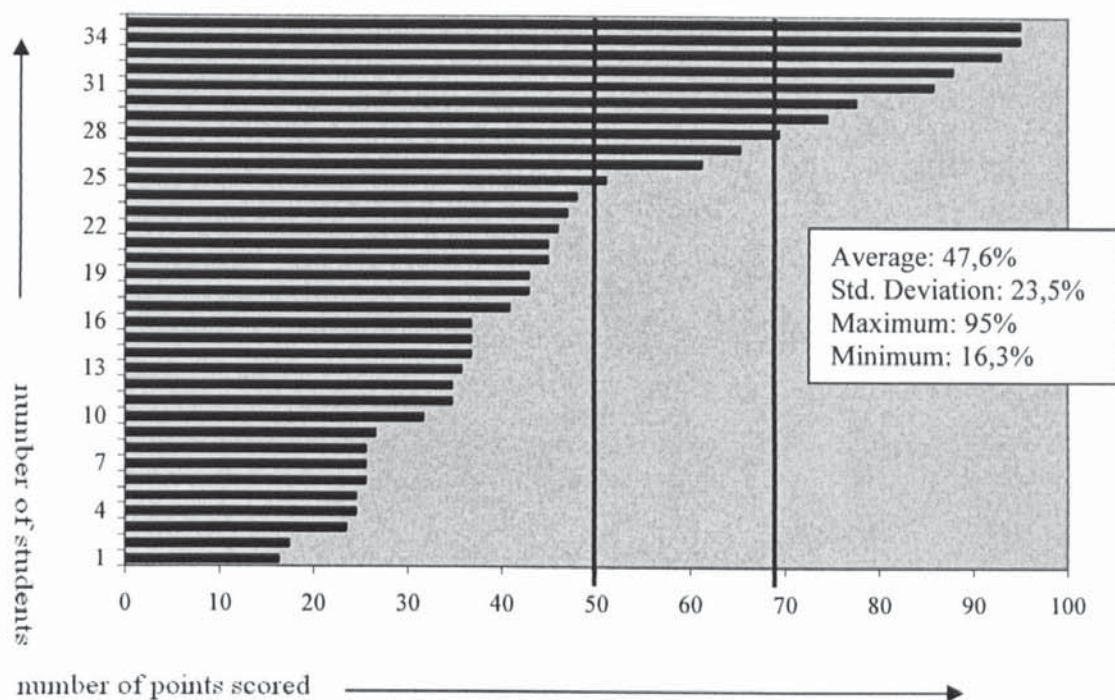
The results obtained from the grammar test confirm the large discrepancies between individual students. There were students who had a good understanding of the grammatical categories selected for the test. However, this group was considerably small – only seven students achieved more than 70%. What is worrying is the fact that two thirds of the subjects scored under 50% and this despite 65% of them receiving a grade 'A' or 'B' at 'A' level. All in all, the results indicate that grammar competence in the selected tasks was low. At the same time, it should be noted that tests may not necessarily be a good indicator of how well learners understand grammar. Indeed, it is often the case that learners may perform well in gap-filling exercises but are still not able to apply grammatical rules in speaking or writing (Tarone 1988). Others may not score well in grammar tests but can speak and write quite accurately. Furthermore, the most important outcome of grammar learning should not be the ability to complete gap-filling exercises but the ability to produce correct and appropriate utterances. Thus, in order to assess the students' language competence, it was felt that grammar tests were insufficient. For this reason, samples of students' written texts were also included.

5.6.3.2 Writing

Writing is one of the areas in German Studies which is identified as being particularly deficient. However, complex text production has so far been neglected in research. Investigations have tended to focus on grammatical and/or lexical tests (Klapper & Rees 2004, Townson & Musolff 1993). There is one study which examines students' writing in the context of British HE (Wend 1998). Wend analysed 105 final-exam stories written by students enrolled on *ab initio* language courses. Thus they were beginners but over 50% of them continued to study German at degree level afterwards. The analysed stories consisted of exam texts based on a given topic related to a holiday. The greatest number of mistakes was identified in the area of spelling, often caused by the confusion over capitals and small letters. Wend (ibid.) concludes that this was due to the economy principle – spelling mistakes, but capitalisation in particular, do not hinder understanding and therefore learners do not pay much attention to them. The second largest group of mistakes included incorrect cases after prepositions. This group was followed by wrong articles with reference to gender and number. The students had particular problems with feminine and neuter nouns. There was a clear tendency to overuse the article *die*, which was, according to Wend (ibid.), caused either by the phonetic similarity to the English *the* or by the overgeneralisation of the German plural form *die*. Verb endings and plural forms of nouns proved to be equally difficult. Fewer mistakes were identified in the area of word order but nearly all sentences were simple. All in all, Wend (ibid.) claims that the vast majority of mistakes were caused by students' own hypotheses. This was followed by interlanguage influences from English. Intralanguage interferences within German were less prominent, while influence from French was minimal. The difficulty with such a strict categorisation lies in the fact that many mistakes may simply be slips. Moreover, it is arguable whether some of the students' so-called own hypotheses are indeed their own creations not influenced by L1 or L2. Many examples provided by Wend (ibid.) could also be classified as overgeneralisations. It is difficult to correctly identify the causes of mistakes. Nonetheless, the major conclusion from Wend's research is a plea for a greater emphasis on explicit grammar teaching and language accuracy. Moreover, she emphasises the crucial role of the teacher, who should have a good understanding

of students' mistakes and adapt his/her teaching materials in accordance with emerging problems. Moreover, Wend (ibid.) highlights that nearly all the mistakes were not communication-hindering, which she attributes to the similarity between English and German. While this can be of advantage in the early stage of learning, there is a strong danger of fossilisation. Apeltauer (1997: 116) warns that:

> "unvollständige Formen oder falsche Formen werden sich insbesondere dann verfestigen, wenn ein Lerner seine kommunikativen Absichten mit Hilfe dieser Formen durchsetzen kann [...] Gelingt ihm die Kommunikation und erhält er keine Rückmeldung über formale Mängel, können „Verfestigungen" (Fossilierungen) begünstigt werden".

Thus, if mistakes are not corrected and explained, there is a danger that a classroom pidgin will develop.

The current study is based on an evaluation of eighteen stories written by students in Year One at the beginning of teaching period I (week 4). It was a piece of creative writing – a story about a *Begegnung* (see Appendix 9). The analysis embraced four levels: spelling and punctuation, grammar (syntax to include syntagmatic relations and inflectional morphology), lexis and textual aspects involving text functions and text coherence. All mistakes were counted and categorised. Lists can be viewed in Appendix 10 and I shall begin with the textual aspects.

As far as the text function is concerned, the texts were examples of the text type story. The main intention of a story is to share a personal experience, which can be true or fictitious and which is, from the storyteller's point of view, particularly interesting. The typical features of stories are the use of pronouns in the first person, a variety of adjectives, adverbs and verbs, which express liveliness, feelings, actions and personal opinions (Heinemann & Viehweger 1991). In terms of the text pattern, a story normally follows a linear structure, which is based on a temporal and causal chain of events, referred to as a plot or topical coherence. It is founded on four components: a) setting, which introduces place, time and people involved, b) complication, which describes main event(s), c) resolution, which is the end of complication(s) and d) evaluation, which includes personal judgments (ibid.). The evaluation of the stories examined a) whether they described a personal experience and b) whether the plot followed a narrative linear structure based on temporal events divided into four components, namely setting, complication, resolution and evaluation.

As far as the text intention is concerned, all the stories made clear reference to a personal encounter, which happened during the holidays. All stories were written in the first person singular or plural. Thus, it can be assumed that the students understood the task and successfully conveyed the text intention. In terms of structure, all of the stories followed a linear pattern based on temporal chains of events. All stories were introduced by making reference to a place, time and the people involved, for example:

> Vor vier Jahren, bin Ich nach Deutschland mit meiner Schule gefahren
> Es war der erste regnerische Tag dieses Sommers in Kanda, den wir erlebt haben....
> Es war einmal eines Urlaubs, als ich ...

This was followed by an introduction and description of a person encountered. The situations described referred to reunions, meeting famous or unusual people and making new friendships often preceded by an unexpected event involving some complications. The vast majority of stories also had a clear end – resolution, which involved a departure and personal opinions about the encounter, for example:

> Die Unterhaltung dauerte eine weitere halbstunde bis Ende des Flugs – es war der Höhepunkt meiner Ferien.
> Am Ende der Ferien, war es traurig, aber nun, schreiben wit Briefen und nächstes Jahr werden wir wieder treffen.

All stories followed a linear pattern of events, which was supported by the use of adverbs of place, time and direction. The students utilised a variety of conjunctions such as: *und, dass, weil, aber, obwohl, während, seitdem, deswegen, bevor* and *bis*. However, there were qualitative and quantitative differences between individual students. On the whole, students whose writing contained fewer mistakes applied, for example, a variety of lexical means in initial positions of sentences, which is usual in German but not always shared by English. In contrast, the weaker students relied predominantly on *und, dass* and *weil* and tended to start sentences repeatedly with personal pronouns. The following extracts make the differences visible:

> Extract 1:
> Um 9 Uhr des nächstes Tages, packten wir unsere Koffer und fuhren mit dem Auto in Richtung des Flughafens. Wegen des Verkehrs, kamen wir spät in Gatwick an — und infolgedessen, konnten wir nicht im Flugzeug zusammensitzen. Für die Dauer der 8-stundenlang Fahrt, sitzte ich neben einer großen und schlanken, athletisch-

aussehenden Frau, die blonde Haare hatte und einen Trainingsanzug tragte. Das Gesicht war mir ein wenig bekannt.

Extract 2:
Das Wochenende was sehr schön und witzig. Wir hatten für zwei Stunden gefahren, um Leipzig anzukommen. Wir hatten eine sehr große Nacht erstellt, Kaberet, Kneipe und Nachtlokal. Wir gingen zu Kaberet ....

In conclusion, all stories fulfilled the text intention successfully. Described events were, for the most part, communicated adequately and comprehension was not disrupted. This may be due to the fact that the patterns of the text type story were familiar to the students. When communication was disturbed, it was predominantly due to deficiencies in grammar.

The next area investigated involved spelling and punctuation. The rules of German spelling and punctuation are very different to English and thus it was expected that learners would have a number of problems in this area. The evaluation of the texts indicates that aspects which are completely different to English spelling, for example, the capitalisation of German nouns, do not pose many difficulties. In fact, only a few nouns were spelt with small letters. At times, there was a visible confusion over capitals and small letters, for example: in einem *Idealen Ort, waren wir sehr *Müde, eine *Deutsche *person. There were also a number of mistakes involving the Umlaute: Ich war *nür, in der *Nahe, *Sud-Frankreich. Some of the spelling mistakes were due to interference or borrowing from English: wir fuhren nach *Rome, *Klavier Stücke, diese *Method, bin *Ich nach Deutschland. Overall, there were many mistakes in this area, which is a surprise given that the students could consult a dictionary.

German punctuation poses numerous difficulties, as it is very different to that of English. In fact, all students were inclined to fall back on the rules of English. They used a comma after the elements in initial position (forty-two mistakes). The following examples are representative in this respect:

Letzte Sommer, fuhren wir
Einige Stunden später, gingen wir
Dort, haben wir

In contrast, when commas were necessary, for example before relative pronouns or conjunctions, they were left out, which again was due to interference from English. For example:

Die erste Person mit dem ich gesprochen habe
einen Geschäftsmann mit einer Aktentasche die gegenüber ihm sass.
Ich dachte dass ich dir
Als sie mich fragte was ich werde

The function of punctuation is to signal pauses and to support the flow of the text. This is why incorrect use of commas can be disturbing for the reader and hence hinder comprehension. Besides, students who study German at degree level should be familiar with the rules of German spelling and punctuation and apply them correctly, especially if they wish to use their German skills for professional reasons after their graduation.

The next area concerned grammar and was divided into two groups. The first involved mistakes of syntax or syntactical restrictions: word order, wrong tenses/aspect, conjunctions/relative pronouns, subject-verb agreement, verb-object agreement, endings of adjectives, prepositions + required cases and the use of definite and indefinite determiners. The second group embraced problems with inflectional morphology to include gender, plural forms of nouns and verb forms.

As far as German syntax is concerned, word order is a real problem for British students of German, particularly the end position of verbs in dependent clauses after the conjunctions *obwohl*, *dass*, *ob*, *weil*, *wenn* and *bevor*. The vast majority of mistakes are interferences from English:

Obwohl ich *interessierte mich   weil wir *machten blöde Wetten
daß sie *kannte meine Familie   ob ich *freue mich auf

In terms of word order in main clauses, there were significantly fewer problems. However, weaker students still tended to have difficulties and often fell back on English word order:

Jeden Tag wir *machten viel Spaß
Während der Reise die Frau *lächelte und lächelte
sie kann *helfen mir mit meiner Französich

In some cases there were missing words or confusion over the word order of dative or accusative objects, which at times hampered the clarity. Some students demonstrated a tendency to overgeneralise with respect to the end position of German verbs, as the examples below demonstrate:

Meiner Mutter ein bisschen überdrüssig *war.
Vielleicht es ein bisschen vor der Begegnung *gab, aber als wir
Meiner Mutter sehr überrascht *war.

An area which emerged as problematic was relative clauses. The vast majority of attempts to use *Relativpronomen* were erroneous. Some students resorted to their L1 for help and used the German equivalent of 'that' or left the pronoun out, for example:

> Wir machten natürlich die Dinge, *dass man
> Tatsächlich, errinert er mich an Carlos, *der ich vor einige Jahren in Tenerife getroffen
> Ich wohnte in ein kleines Dorf * heißt Veckenstedt in der nähe von Wernigerode

Most grammatical mistakes were related to prepositions and involved incorrect cases following prepositions, particularly *mit* and *von*:

> mit *diese Familie   von *meinen Heimatstadt
> mit *die zwei Söhne   von *meiner Urlaub
> mit *eine Deutsche Person   von *der greichische Insels

Also problematic was the use of *in*, which, depending on the context, requires either the dative or accusative. In fact, many students tended to overuse the dative or relied on the nominative:

> wir gingen *im Klubs   **gingen wir in *diesem Restaurant**
> Ich wohnte in *ein kleines Dorf   liegen in *die Sonne
> kam mit uns in *einer Disko

The next area was related to incorrect prepositions used in combination with verbs or adjectives. Overall, there were only a few occurrences of such phrases and many of them were incorrect – either the preposition or the case was wrong. At times, the required prepositions were left out:

> Sehr beeindruckt *mit unseren Stimmen   *das wir zuzammen teilgenommen hatte
> Angst *von meiner Prüfung   wenig über *diesem ..... Land weiss
> errinertern an *dem Sporttauchen   Auf *dem Bus warteten
> ich freue mich auf *meinem wichtigen Geburtstag

A number of texts demonstrated that the students had considerable problems recognising whether the proper case:

> Obwohl es *keinen Austausch war   Dann kam *einen Geschäftsmann
> erblickte ich *der Mann   ich half *sie
> hatte ich sofort *ein Brief geschrieben   Sie hat *mir gefragt

This was not surprising, as the German case system is difficult to comprehend for students whose L1 has virtually no cases.

Further mistakes on the level of syntax included erroneous subject-verb agreements:

> Ich und mein Vater *war   Keinen Taxt *sind gekommen

Ich *entschuldigten mich
weil sie (she) English *sprechen

Und sie *habt bei mir bleiben
Seine Haare *war jetzt

A number of students seemed to have difficulties in the formation of tenses, particularly the forms of past participles. Some used *Konjunktiv*, which was not suitable for the given context, for example:

als Sarah und Leanne lachten, *könnte ich nicht helfen
Das Ende des Urlaubs ist schnell gekommen und ich *müsste nach England zurückfahren
Wir haben da die ganze Nacht *sassen
wir haben uns *verabschieden
und wir hatten *zusammentranken

This indicates that the students were to some extent aware of the ways in which German past tenses are formed. However, knowledge of how to apply them correctly in sentences was not consolidated.

An area which is usually regarded as difficult is adjective endings. The current analysis identified only thirteen occurrences of incorrect adjectival endings. However, the adjectives used were predominantly the predicative ones, which do not require endings. Attributive adjectives were rarely applied. This could indicate that the students tried to avoid structures which require adding endings to adjectives. This in turn could be a sign of not knowing the rules. This is further supported by the fact that the vast majority of attributive adjectives had incorrect endings or lacked them completely, for example:

ein *Finster, gut *aussehend Mann
Ein sehr *schön Tag
des *nächstes Tages

Ich suchte in einen *kleines Geschäft
mit *lange *blonde Haare
Es gab einen *offizieller Streik

The last category investigated was the use of definite and indefinite determiners. The analysis of the texts demonstrated that on the whole, the students used articles and pronouns accurately. Only on a few occasions were articles missing or used incorrectly, for example:

waren wir in * Luft
Ein Tag war ich in * Freibad
für meinen Bruder und * Schwester an

den ich früher in * Restaurant gesehen habe
Ich starrte diese Frau mit *einem offenen Mund

One reason that so few mistakes were made in this area is the similarity between English and German – both languages distinguish between definite and indefinite determiners (cf. Wend 1998).

All in all, mistakes on the level of syntax and due to syntactical restrictions represented the largest group. In contrast, inflectional morphology posed fewer difficulties. This category embraced three types of mistakes: plural/singular forms of nouns, verb forms and gender. Here, the allocation of the right gender caused problems. A tendency to overuse the feminine article was observed, for example: *die Sommer, *die Platz, *eine andere Hotel, *diese Mädchen. In contrast, true feminine nouns were assigned the wrong gender, for example: Am ende *des Woches, *das Gegend. The second group formed incorrect plurals of nouns. This is not surprising given that German possesses nine different forms to mark the plural and English only one. In fact, some students tended to resort to their L1 for help and constructed forms such as: *Insels, *Nachlokals, *Kneipes. Another source of mistakes was the overuse of the ending –en, for instance: wurden wir gute *Freunden, die *Besuchen, schreiben wir *Briefen, Nachtkluben. In terms of morphological forms of verbs, not many mistakes were identified. The vast majority of them concerned the formation of the forms of the *Präteritum* or *Perfekt*. There were four examples of this regularisation[71]: *tragte, *sitzte, *verabschiedten, *zurückgekommt, a few examples of blended or incomplete forms, such as: *zerbroche ich, *stiegten ...aus, was ich so suss *gefaden and one of interference from English *winnte, which was supposed to mean *gewann*. Some students were still unaware of the difference between separable and inseparable verbs and in terms of reflexive verbs, the reflexive pronoun was often omitted.

As far as lexis is concerned, the vast majority of mistakes identified were related to incorrect use of word collocations or direct translations from English:

Wir machten blöde Wetten
Wir haben eine sehr große Nacht erstellt
Wir haben viele Jahre sehr viele Errinerungen erlebt

Später in Woche [Eng: later in the week]
Weil wir studierten Erdkunde [Eng: to study often used in the sense of to learn]
Ottawa, das Kapital von Kanada [Eng: capital, Gem: Hauptstadt]

In conclusion, as the table below demonstrates, the vast majority of mistakes occurred in the area of grammar, followed by spelling and punctuation. The

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[71] Regularisation (= Regularisierung) is defined as a mistake which occurs when irregular phenomena are made regular (Kleppin 1998).

largest group of grammatical mistakes was identified in the area of prepositions + required cases and word order. In terms of word order, the mistakes were

Table 6: The number of mistakes in each category

Category	The number of mistakes
SPELLING + PUNCTUATION	**Total= 125**
Spelling	84
Punctuation	42
GRAMMAR	**Total= 291**
Syntax + syntagmatic relations	
Preposition + required case	49
Word order	47
Wrong Preposition or omissions	28
Verb-object agreement	24
Subject-verb agreement	21
Tenses/Aspect	19
Conjunctions/*Relativsatz*	16
Adjective endings	13
Determiners	12
Missing parts of sentences	7
Morphology	
Gender	24
Plural of nouns	17
Verb forms	13
LEXIS	**Total= 40**

influenced by English. In contrast, wrong cases following prepositions were often of an intralingual nature or due to students' own hypotheses. Morphological errors were, in contrast, rare. This suggests that the greatest difficulties emerged on the level of syntax and syntagmatic relations. Overall, the texts demonstrated that the students were aware of the wide range of grammatical categories typical of German. However, they were often applied incorrectly, which indicates that knowledge was not consolidated or that students were not fully aware of what purpose certain grammatical features have. An area of concern was the fact that many mistakes could easily have been avoided by consulting a dictionary, for example spelling or morphological mistakes. This could indicate three things. Firstly, the students were not aware that they could have improved their accuracy by looking up forms in a dictionary. Secondly, they relied on their *Sprachgefühl* and were probably certain that they were right. Thirdly, these mistakes could have been motivated by the principal of economy, namely if certain aspects do not hinder communicativeness then it is not necessary to look at them carefully (cf. Wend 1998). In fact, it is striking that the vast majority of mistakes were not communication-hindering. There were only five instances of incomprehensible

word combinations and sentences. As the examples below demonstrate, erroneous sentences can still be understood:

er schien ungeduldig aus als er seinem Armbanduhr wiederholt sah an.
Wenn ich bin nach Hause zurückgekommt werden wir Brieffreundin

Wend (1998) ascribes the great comprehensibility of grammatically incorrect sentences to the structural and semantic similarity between English and German. However, the danger is that once such sentences are not corrected because they can be understood, students do not see the need to revise them. This is the fastest route to fossilisation, which can rarely be repaired (Apeltauer 1997). The last aspect which needs to be emphasised is the qualitative and quantitative differences between individual students. This is to be expected given that everyone learns the target language differently. In this respect, every piece of writing was individual with a unique set of mistakes. However, some mistakes occurred frequently in all texts. This group included spelling, punctuation, word order, prepositions and gender. At the same time, the quality of texts varied considerably between individual students. On the whole, students who scored over 60% in the grammar test tended to use a greater variety of lexical means and grammatical categories. However, not all of them wrote accurately. In fact, two students, who scored 68% and 64%, still demonstrated huge problems with reference to syntax, spelling and even morphology. Students who obtained 50% or less used simple sentences around the pattern: subject – verb – object. They focused less on accuracy and tended to have a much greater number of mistakes in each category.

5.6.3.3 Conclusions

The analysis of grammar tests and written stories demonstrate the following facts. Firstly, there are huge discrepancies between individual students, which are particularly observable in the results obtained from the grammar tests. However, only a small number of students have a good understanding of the selected grammatical aspects. Writing too exhibited qualitative and quantitative differences. Overall, students who obtained better results in the grammar test tended to write better texts with a greater variety of lexical and grammatical choices. This implies that a greater focus on grammar could indeed contribute to the improvement of writing skills. Research concerned with focus on form

provides strong support for this (Norris & Ortega 2000). Despite individual differences, the analysis of the texts indicates that there were numerous areas in urgent need of revision. Deficits in spelling, punctuation, word order, preposition + cases occurred systematically in almost every piece of writing. Moreover, the students frequently resorted to their L1 for help. While on some occasions this may be helpful, in the vast majority of cases this influence led to negative transfer. All in all, the analysis of grammar tests and samples of students' writing demonstrated great linguistic deficiencies. Examples of errors provided above indicate that this assertion is not overstated (for further examples see Appendix 9 and 10). One way of helping students write more accurately could be to offer them systematic training in recognising the differences between German and English (contrastive grammar) and relations which exist between form and meaning in a variety of language inputs. This should not be understood as a return to the grammar drills as advocated by the Grammar-Translation Method or overlearning of the Audio-Visual Method. There is research evidence suggesting that explanations of rules and patterns, and subsequent practice of them in exercises are not enough for linguistic forms to be acquired and used appropriately (Klapper & Rees 2003, Portmann-Tselikas 2003, Fotos 1993, Lightbown & Spada 1993). For proficiency gains to be durable, learners need to be able to notice grammatical features in a variety of communicative contexts and to be made aware of their purpose (Fotos 1993, Lightbown & Spada 1993). Drawing on the concept of noticing and consciousness-raising[72], Portmann-Tselikas (2003) proposes, for example, a model of receptive grammar (RG). In contrast to the traditional production-orientated or pedagogical grammars, which in his view are too heavily based on theoretical linguistic descriptions, RG is to prompt a conscious reflection on the semantic dimension of grammar, on links between forms and meanings. He supports a minimal use of linguistic terminology and urges teachers to guide their teaching by concepts of grammar already existing in learners' minds. Above all, he calls for a turn *from* the fixation on automatisation *to* training of noticing or conscious apprehension of grammatical forms. As some empirical evidence shows, noticing does indeed facilitate foreign language learning, with accuracy being noted in particular (Leow 2000, Schmidt 1990). The concept of RG so

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[72] Pedagogical implications of noticing and consciousness-raising have been thoroughly discussed in a volume edited by Doughty & Williams (1998).

understood could indeed be of help to students in the context under investigation. The analysis reveals that they knew many grammatical categories and features but used them incorrectly. This could be attributable to gaps in understanding of functions and purposes of certain grammatical features. Besides, such training in noticing could be particularly useful for English-native learners of German. German in contrast to the very analytic English has many elements of synthetic languages such as flexible word order, endings or cases which carry important semantic information[73]. Interestingly enough, research by Klapper & Rees (2003) reveals that these areas cannot be well developed without formal attention. This could suggest that students need to be helped to notice those elements in the target language. At any rate, such training requires the careful guidance of a competent language teacher, who him/herself is aware of students' linguistic level and the linguistic systems underlying English and German (cf. Wend 1998).

5.7 Summary of chapter 5

This chapter has given an account of how the target group of British students of German perceived the process of learning German, what their motivation was and what problems and difficulties they experienced at the beginning of their university education. The data was elicited by using questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaires contained a mixture of open and multiple-choice questions which provided systematic and comprehensive data on the students' general background, motivation, beliefs, previous and current learning experience, difficulties and learning strategies. The interviews verified many of the statements made in the questionnaires. A range of open questions also provided additional insights into students' personal experiences. The analysis of grammar tests and samples of writing pointed to the students' specific linguistic problems.

The surveyed students of German are adult learners, predominantly females, who have been learning German for on average five years in state schools in accordance with the communicative approach. All students share the same L1. Furthermore, the overwhelming majority have learned French as the first FL and all but one have continued with French at degree level. German is the second FL.

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[73] See Krasuski (1995) for differences between synthetic and analytic languages.

A degree in German is seen as an investment, as it can lead to better career prospects. However, it is important to highlight that not only materialistic resources are of importance. The surveyed students desire access to cultural resources, although traditional subject matter such as literature are of no relevance. What students want is to obtain first-hand experience with foreign people, countries and cultures. They are open-minded and curious. Their interests focus on current political and social affairs and they like learning German, which is also determined by a positive experience at school. However, the process of learning is marked by ambiguities. On the one hand, the students find it enjoyable, particularly when things 'click', as one student said. On the other hand, it is frustrating because German is already their second FL and its grammar is perceived as being very complex. Learning German requires a great deal of persistence and systematic work. The students are aware of this and the majority of them believe that they will eventually attain a high degree of competence in the target language. As far as the best method for achieving this high degree of competence is concerned, teacher instruction combined with a focus on oral communication and residence abroad can be seen as the best ways to achieve this aim. They have entered the academic environment of German Studies in this way. As presented in chapter 4, the profile in the context under investigation is the new type of *Germanistik*. It focuses on the contemporary affairs of the countries in question and largely departs from the traditional literary syllabus. However, literary texts are still a part of it, although not the most prominent. They are included in the language syllabus in the first and second year as well as in content classes with a cultural focus. In terms of teaching methods, this approach transgresses both innovation and traditional teaching forms. Didactical innovations incorporate the use of the target language as the medium of instruction, autonomous learning in a self-taught course on audio-visual comprehension and collaborative, oral forms of work. The traditional aspects include the long-established academic skills of reading and writing, with writing being given the greatest weighting of all the skills. Moreover, the curriculum includes one-hour explicit teaching of grammar. The questions which ultimately arise are which aspects, from the perspective of students, pose the greatest difficulties and which are particularly helpful? What are the students' strengths

and weaknesses? Given the academic requirements, how can teaching compensate for their weak points and exploit their strengths?

Firstly, reading complex texts, literary short stories in particular, proved to be the most difficult task. This implies that students do not arrive at university equipped with good reading skills and that the complexity of authentic texts overwhelms them. The reading of authentic texts constitutes a large part of language studies and the development of reading skills should therefore be one of the major foci. This could be best facilitated if, from the first week onwards, students are introduced to reading complex texts progressively, starting with shorter press articles, for example, and progressing to longer and more difficult text types such as academic extracts or even literature. This should be accompanied by a focus on grammatical features and on reading strategies, namely focused reading, global reading (cf. Cole & Dodd 1997). Secondly, given the analysis of students' written texts, it becomes obvious that writing poses numerous difficulties. Similar to reading, writing is the most important part of academic work. Thus, it seems logical that more emphasis should be placed on the development of adequate writing skills. The focus should be on spelling, punctuation and on grammatical features. This leads us to another issue, namely the explicit teaching of grammar. The study reveals that the students' attitude towards grammar and error correction was positive. They find it hard but important. As Townson & Musolff (1993) highlight, grammar teaching at university should be adapted to the needs of students and compensate for their weaknesses. If we look at the areas of linguistic problems demonstrated above, then it is obvious that grammar progression should strongly emphasise syntagmatic and syntactic features, particularly word order to include conjunctions and various types of sentences, the case system, prepositions. Above all, not so much the understanding of grammatical rules but their application is problematic. Thus, grammar work should be integrated into the writing, reading and speaking skills. Advances in Textlinguistics and in Discourse Analysis could provide some theoretical groundings[74]. This could potentially assist students in the development of good literacy, which in turn would prepare them to better tackle

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[74] There are already suggestions of how to adapt Textlinguistics and Sociolinguistics to the purposes of foreign language learning, see for example Ott (2000), Drewnowska-Vargáné (1997), Rosandić (1991). Teaching German based on the methods of Discourse Analysis (work with speech transcripts) was discussed by Reershemius (1998) and Günthner (2000).

academic challenges. Writing, reading and grammar work are traditional academic requirements and, as such, constitute the largest part of academic work. On arrival at university, students are not well-equipped with these skills and therefore the challenge for departments of German should be to put more effort into these areas. Integrating grammar work with the development of writing and reading skills underpinned by Text- and Sociolinguistics could potentially compensate for the weaknesses students have. Ultimately, this requires the expertise and involvement of linguists, particularly applied linguists. As demonstrated in chapter 3, unfortunately, this expertise is scarce in the UK.

One innovation applied in the context under study is teaching in the target language across all seminars and lectures. There is evidence demonstrating that teaching in the target language is of benefit (Levine 2003). The maximisation of input enhances FL-learning, particularly fluency and oral skills (cf. Cook 2001) and this is what students want (cf. Meara 1994). There are also potential dangers of conducting classes entirely in the target language. If learners do not have good competence in the language, they are more likely to misunderstand the issues being discussed and to develop deficient language structures (Hammerly 1991). Thus, scholars stress that teaching in the target language has to be supported by the use of students' L1 because L1 is the most natural and effective comprehension aid (Butzkamm 2003, Cook 2001). The current study shows that nearly all students did not find it problematic to follow classes conducted in German. They were themselves surprised how much they could understand spoken German and felt confident about it as the interviews demonstrate. This indicates that students have fairly well-developed listening comprehension ability, which is generally seen as a result of communicative teaching (Durrell 1993). Thus, there is a strong argument for teaching in the target language because it taps into a resource that students bring to HE. This also meets students' expectations (Claussen 2004). At the same time, the use of the target language should be facilitated by the students' L1. This implies that *Germanists*, especially native speakers of German, have to be competent users of English. They should have a good understanding of the language structures underlying English and be able to confidently switch between two languages. For a non-native lecturer, a high competence in the target language is a critical requirement. This poses a serious challenge to British German Studies, where as Kolinsky (1994) argues, many non-

native specialists do not have enough linguistic competence to be able to teach content classes in the target language.

Another innovation in the context under study is autonomous learning in the form of a self-taught audio-visual course. Learner autonomy has initiated a great deal of enthusiasm among teachers and scholars not least because of its moral, political and philosophical claims condemning traditional teaching as disenfranchisement. The learner is responsible for his or her learning, setting his or her objectives and monitoring progress. In terms of FL-learning, the final outcome of autonomous learning should be a target language user who can apply his or her target language knowledge and skills independently and successfully beyond the language classroom. This equates to good proficiency in the target language. However, ways suggested to achieve this aim are less spectacular, designed predominantly around computer-assisted learning, the use of authentic materials, some collaborative activities and self-evaluation sheets (Rösler 1998, Bimmel & Rampillon 2000). While some of them may be of benefit, they cannot fully replace the traditional form of learning based on the teacher's close guidance and supervision. The experience with the self-taught audio-visual course in the context under study demonstrates this. Without regular feedback and monitoring, they feel uncertain and unmotivated. It is interesting to see that they tend to prefer a rather traditional mode of teaching and are positive towards, for example, the teacher's interventions. With regards to this, it is again important to highlight observations made by Vygotsky (2002) that what learners can do today under careful supervision and monitoring, they will be able to accomplish tomorrow on their own. Thus, autonomous or self-directed learning that does not include guidance of the teacher and regular feedback, particularly at the beginning, may lead to less desirable results, for example loss of interest or uncertainties. Autonomy cannot be imposed; it has to be developed through adequate guidance and appropriate interventions (cf. O'Neill 1991).

As discussed in chapter 1, FLE should be appropriate and responsive to the problems and challenges which emerge in educational practice. For the academic context of teaching and learning German language and culture in Britain, the following have great potential. The first challenge is to increase language provision and alternate it with academic literacy. This does not imply a return to the Grammar-Translation Method but a focus on text-based work combined with

explicit teaching of language structures. More emphasis on the instrumental aspects of language could also strengthen the disciplinarity of the subject, as it could help students to understand better complex texts in the target language be it literature or politics. This leads to the second challenge, which is, in Butzkamm's sense, 'enlightened' teaching in the target language. Students bring with them good listening competence and the use of German as the medium of instruction does not pose many difficulties for them. In turn, it increases their confidence and exposes them to real, spoken German, which meets their expectations and increases input (cf. Claussen 2004). However, English should not be banned from classrooms, as at times it is needed as an aid to ease comprehension and in so doing to stop students from developing faulty language structures or concepts. As argued, this requires linguistically competent staff with good knowledge and skills in both German and English. Thus, departments should strive for high linguistic standards not only with regard to students but also staff (cf. Kolinsky 1994). Finally, it emerges that for the surveyed students, learning is a result of teaching, teacher instruction and feedback. This does not imply that the students want to be spoon-fed but they value aspects of teaching such as good feedback, good explanations, clarity of speech, more highly than knowledge of the subject matter.

This chapter has presented the voices of British students of German, their motivation, expectations, previous learning experience, strengths and weaknesses. Whether the picture presented above is a typical scenario in Year One only, it cannot be said as yet, as comparable data on other years of study is not available. Besides, the data for the current study has been obtained from questionnaires and interviews with a small group of students and the results cannot be generalised. However, the purpose of the current study was not to provide universal strategies but to demonstrate some critical issues in the field of teaching and learning German language and culture from the perspective of a group of British students and to point out some solutions. The aim of this is to instigate a debate about teaching approaches, on what can potentially and what cannot work in the context of British German Studies. There are already field-tested ideas and successful methods applied. However, they are rarely shared or debated.

As discussed above, learning is, from the perspective of the surveyed students, a result of teaching. Thus, it was deemed necessary to see what the experience of

teachers/lecturers in German Studies was. The next chapter will move to the other side of the language classroom, namely to the teacher.

6 The Micro-Context, Part III: The Lecturers

From the 1970s onwards, the main research interest in FLE was increasingly placed on the learner and learning processes (Krumm 1995b, 2001). This was much in line with the prevalent educational climate in the West, which was rather sceptical about the traditional teaching methods often described as authoritarian and which strived to develop more learner-centred, liberal approaches. It was emphasised that learners are not empty objects to be filled with facts and figures but humans who should play a more participatory and active role in the classroom (Freire 1993, Dewey 1963). In FLE, the shift was also intensified by the enthusiasm generated by research on the human mind and internal, cognitive processes, and a general dissatisfaction with behaviourism (see 1.2.4). As Aguado (2001) pointedly remarks, in order to teach effectively, we need to know how learners learn. Learner's strategies, motivation, emotions, interactions, beliefs were investigated extensively. All this research made a great contribution to our understanding of foreign language learning and also to teaching practices[75]. However, one of the consequences of the turn towards the learner and learning was, as Krumm (2001: 781) observes, a neglect of the teacher, which he describes as a "Stiefkind der Forschung". Indeed, it was only approximately 15 years ago that a number of scholars, predominantly in EFL, put the practising teacher back on research agendas (Garton 2004, Ryan 2004, Freeman 2002, Richards 1994,). While research in the 1980s saw the teacher in a behaviourist sense, as an implementer of curricula objectives, the years from the mid-1980s onwards shed light on the teacher as a person. A new generation of researchers began, by means of ethnographic-interpretative methods, to examine the hidden aspects of a teachers' life (Ryan 2004), what teachers have to say about their practice and how their past and present experiences influence the decision-making and teaching practice (Garton 2004). The terms 'teachers' narratives', 'teachers' beliefs' or "teacher thinking" were coined (Ryan 2004). This research has demonstrated that teaching cannot be fully understood without considering teachers' biographies and

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[75] This does not imply that all research on the learner and learning processes is of good pedagogic value to FLE. Numerous scholars are rather sceptical about this (Edmondson 1996, Glück 1991, O'Neill 1991, Widdowson 1987) and as discussed in chapter 1, some of the sceptical voices need to be considered.

their personal and professional roles (Freeman 2002). These elements guide teachers' practice and function as filters, through which teachers judge teaching situations, students' behaviour and performance. Moreover, for FL-teachers their experience as foreign language learners seems to be of particular influence to beliefs about teaching and consequently to their teaching practice. Research shows that teachers rely heavily on teaching models to which they were exposed while being FL-students (Bailey at al. 1996). Moreover, beliefs and assumptions, which were acquired at that time, seem to be resistant to changes. Even the professional teacher training may have little impact on changing previously formed beliefs (Gutiérrez Almarza 1996). Apart from the previous experiences, there is an institutional and social space in which teachers act which has immense impact on the way they teach and behave. A study by Lamb (2004) on FL-teachers and teaching in Hungary demonstrates the main aspect which influenced teachers' classroom practice were examination requirements and their relatively low salaries. This was the main source of motivation loss and frustrations and has a negative impact on teaching.

Although research on FL-teachers' thinking or beliefs is a relatively new field of inquiry in FLE, it has produced a substantial body of findings and Borgs (2003) offers here an extensive overview. Nonetheless, there are still two major gaps in this research. Firstly, the vast majority of studies were conducted in the context of English as a Foreign or Second Language and there is virtually no research on teachers of other languages. This is important not only because of the insights into teaching practice of languages other than English. Teachers of other languages may be confronted with different conditions and problems than those for English, for example raising unemployment due to decreasing popularity of languages other than English (cf. Krumm 1995). These conditions may totally override any positive pedagogical actions in the classroom. Secondly, teacher experiences are only rarely linked with specific social and institutional contexts of teaching. Freeman (2002: 11) urges that research should move away "from the simple technicist answers [...] to local responses" to see how teaching evolves in real-life practice and how the real-life practice influences teachers' attitudes and experiences. This chapter follows this claim by investigating the experience of five lecturers working in the real-life context of German Studies in the UK. Besides, investigating the teachers' experience is necessary inasmuch as Krumm

(1995) highlights, we can only optimise teaching practice, if we consider the perceptive of participating teachers. Learners' perspective is not enough. Teachers' interpretations of classroom realities and their own theories and observations need to be examined too and this will be presented below. In so doing, this chapter provides complimentary data to the learning dimension examined in chapter 5.

Research concerned with the experience of teachers or lecturers of GFL is rather scattered (Krumm 1995, 2001). The best source of information is reports by lectors/lecturers[76] working abroad published in relevant journals, for example "*Info DaF*". There are also a few attempts to examine teachers' experiences in a more systematic way but they are often related to teaching English as a foreign language in Germany (Schart 2001, Appel 2001). Some of the findings are interesting. Appel (2001), for example, discovered that teachers always think in terms of groups. Thus, they talk about good classes or bad years. Groups in which there is a great deal of interaction in the target language and collaborative forms of work, are regarded as good. In contrast, classes in which teachers face silence and little use of the target language are described as problematic. In 'bad' classes, teachers are forced to use traditional textbooks and to control progression. All in all, Appel (ibid.) concludes that the ideal classroom is a classroom in which the target language is greatly used and the focus is less on explicit teaching. In contrast, more control over progression is often associated with poor standards and a lack of interest on the part of learners. While there is nothing more satisfying than a group of learners eagerly communicating in the target language, it is crucial to emphasise that less interaction is not necessarily a sign of lack of interest. It is often due to the fact that learners do not have sufficient language resources to be able to communicate in that language (cf. Zhou et al. 2005, Stephens 1997). Appel (2001) demonstrates that teachers frequently fail to see the difference. This can easily lead to sweeping generalisations and prejudices, as learners who are inclined to be silent are underestimated. (cf. Hudson 1996). With respect to this, Pennycook (1994) argues that the focus on oracy is a typical trait of Western education, which generally prizes those who are verbally active. He calls it phonocentrism. Holliday (1997) disputes that oral participation is a

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[76] The term 'lecturer' designates a person who teaches in Higher Education.

Western trait. He argues that Western educational systems are so diverse that they cannot be "lumped under one Western cultural heading" (ibid.: 415). Holliday views the primacy of oracy as a product of professional-academic discourse. In other words, there are teachers and teaching books, which promote certain principles and ways of teaching. Moreover, he emphasises that the values inherent in academic-professional discourses are not necessarily to be dismissed. They only become problematic if they are promoted as the operational norm and taken automatically as the only way (Holliday 1994).

There is little research on the experience of teachers and lecturers of German in the UK. A small study by Block (2002) investigated the experience of native teachers[77] of German in British schools. He concludes that native teachers tend to strongly rely on the experience of their national educational cultures which, as he observes, leads to the formation of discourses competing with official British educational policy. They insist on grammar and accuracy, while in Britain communicative teaching objectives are enforced. Block (ibid.) concludes that the discourse of resistance towards communicative teaching resonates among British scholars and believes that it could potentially serve as a catalyst for educational change. Berghahn et al. (1997) investigated the role and teaching experience of native lectors sponsored by the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) and the Austrian Cultural Institute. Overall, the study shows that the vast majority of lectors were female, holding a degree in *Germanistik* and were specialised in literature. Their work duties were centred on language teaching and *Landeskunde* across all years of study. In contrast to part-time language assistants, who often happen to be non-native speakers, lectors were regarded as better-qualified teachers of German. However, questions related to their training and previous teaching experience indicate that only a small proportion (18%) received formal training in teaching German as a Foreign Language and 33% had no teaching qualifications at all. Furthermore, only a small group had full-time teaching experience of GFL. While the authors conclude that lectors are overall very well prepared to carry out language teaching duties, Elspaß (1999) observes that given these results, this conclusion is largely overstated. The survey by Berghahn et al. (1997) also reveals some friction, which was predominantly due to lectors' lack of

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[77] Here native teacher means a teacher who is a native speaker of German. In research literature, the term expatriate teacher is also frequently used.

knowledge about the academic culture of British German Studies. Having been educated in Germany, many automatically assume that German Studies is a form of *Germanistik*. A tendency to perceive German Studies as less intellectual, lacking "academic aspiration" was reported, while its "innovative strengths" were ignored (ibid.: 135). Thus, heads of German departments wish that expatriate teachers were better informed about the local academic culture. Overall, findings from this survey seem to be very optimistic. It is stated, for example, that language teaching is recognised in the UK as "an academic field in its own right with its theoretical and methodological framework" (ibid.: 132), which given the discussion presented in chapter 3, is largely overstated. Secondly, the survey states that lectors are generally satisfied with the host institutions. However, other reports, in which lecturers and lectors give an account of their experience point to a whole host of critical issues. Evans (1988) interviewed fifty lecturers of German and French, predominantly British nationals, working in departments of modern languages across Britain. One of the major findings which emerged from this study is that lecturers generally tend to complain about low standards as compared with previous generations. The new generation of students are seen as "obsessed with the job market", lacking enthusiasm and intellectual curiosity (Evans 1988: 122). There was some recognition that this vocational focus is related to responsibilities that students take for their own future. However, on the whole, the vocationality met with disapproval. The other side of the coin was lecturers' insecurities. Given financial cuts, redundancies, the rapidly declining number of students, research and administrative pressures, they felt unsure as to what the future will hold for them. The vast majority of them were specialists in literature, who suddenly had to teach other areas such as Politics, Economics or Area studies. It is also important to note that the surveyed lecturers did not see themselves as language teachers and treated this area as a "task for helot" (ibid.: 106). A study by Claussen (2004) yields similar results. When asked about their students, some lecturers mentioned that there is a 'dumbing down' as compared with previous generations. A lack of grammar and language accuracy and a lack of motivation to study literature were issues that were frequently mentioned. The root of the problem was, from the lecturers' perspective, inadequate preparation at 'A' level. All in all, there is a discourse of negativity emerging from departments of ML. Generally speaking, it appears that lecturers find it difficult to accept new

generations of students and particularly their vocational focus and disinterest in the traditional subject matter of *Germanistik*. They are prone to quickly point to their weaknesses, of which linguistic accuracy, literacy and study skills are seen as particularly deficient. They frequently refer to the good old days, when from their point of view students possessed greater intellectual capacities and showed more interest in literature, *nota bene* the lecturers' prime domain.

This study attempts to explore concerns and challenges experienced by lecturers of German and to see whether their experiences and views are similar or different to those discussed above. In so doing, it endeavours to complement the picture presented in chapters 3 and 5. Five lecturers were interviewed. The interviews were designed as semi-structured conversations and were designed to report their personal accounts of their teaching experience in the UK. As demonstrated by Appel (2001), teachers' biographical experiences come into play at every moment of teaching practice and are, at the same time, an inherent part of their professional knowledge. Thus, teachers' personal accounts of teaching – *Erfahrungswissen* – provide one of the best clues to understanding the dimension of teaching (cf. Krumm 1995). Therefore, the interviews concentrated on aspects such as previous experience as FL-learners, past teaching experience, acclimatisation to the new environment, and problems and challenges encountered whilst teaching at a British university. Subsequently, the lecturers were asked to report on the teaching methods and activities which proved to be successful in the context under study. Results will be categorised in accordance with the main themes of the interviews. A scheme of questions, which guided the interviews, can be viewed in Appendix 11. Appendix 12 presents a sample interview.

6.1 The participants: general background

This section will present brief portraits of the lecturers based on details given in the interviews in relation to their education, nationality and previous experiences of teaching GFL and reasons for working at a British university. Five lecturers were finally chosen for a series of target interviews. The choice was determined by two factors: a) their willingness to participate in this research project and b) their involvement in teaching first year students.

Lecturer A is in her mid-thirties and is a native speaker of German. She has been teaching German as a Foreign Language for over three years. She has also taught English as a Foreign Language and German as a Second Language, mainly on a sessional basis in Germany. She studied *Germanistik* and *Anglistik,* and holds also a professional GFL qualification. She arrived in the UK eight months ago and this was her first experience of working and living in this country. She is a full-time member of staff and teaches language classes as well as a range of courses related to the German-speaking culture.

Lecturer B is in his mid-thirties and is also a native speaker of German. He has some teaching experience in GFL, as he taught German for a short spell in Spain. Prior to his university education, he completed professional training as a *Reisekaufmann*. He began his undergraduate studies at a German university but was soon dissatisfied with his course and continued his education in the UK. He has a Master's degree in Translation Studies and is currently working towards on a doctoral thesis in this field. He is employed on a sessional basis and teaches classes related to Translation Studies and German.

Lecturer C is also in her early thirties. She is a German citizen but has learnt German as a Foreign Language and then as a Second Language. She completed her university education in the UK, where she has also been working as a university teacher in German Studies for seven years employed on various types of contracts. She teaches a range of language and culture courses across all years of studies.

Lecturer D is in her mid to early thirties and is a native speaker of German. She studied *Germanistik*, *Anglistik* and Pedagogy, and completed a PhD in Germanic Linguistics. She has been in the UK for over three years but only last year, she started working as a university teacher in German Studies. She taught German as a Second Language on a sessional basis in Germany and has also some experience of teaching German in a British school. She is currently a full time member of staff.

Lecturer E is also in her mid-thirties and a native speaker of German. Prior to her university education, she completed professional training as a *Buchhändlerin*. She studied *Germanistik, Anglistik* and Philosophy in Germany. She has some experience of teaching GFL, as she taught German on a summer school in Ireland. Currently, she works on a doctoral thesis in literature and teaches six hours of language and content classes. This is her first experience of teaching in British Higher Education.

The responses to the question – why did you decide to work at a British University? – reveal that each individual had a different set of reasons. However, some occurred frequently and these involve dissatisfaction with the situation in academia in Germany, with limited work opportunities, outdated teaching methods, a long duration of studies and a lack of effective doctoral supervision:

> A: Weil ich in Deutschland keine Zukunftsaussichten hatte, insofern als die Universitäten kein Geld für Festanstellungen haben und ich nur als Lehrkraft auf Honorarbasis war. Ich wollte nicht so von Semester zu Semester und auch mehr Verantwortung und in größeren Aufgabenbereichen.

> B: Der Ansatz an Uni X [*in Germany*], wenn ich jetzt darauf zurückblicke, peinlich, Katastrophe. Du hast wirklich nur einen Text gekriegt und dann hieß es ‚wer nimmt denn mal den ersten Satz'. /.../ Da habe ich auch 2 Jahre gespart.

> E: Um zu unterrichten im Bereich DaF, um meinen PhD zu machen. Englisches Betreuungssystem ist besser als in Deutschland.

As the extracts demonstrate, problems which have affected humanities in recent times, such as severe cuts and temporary appointments cause insecurities, which in turn prompt academics to try their luck abroad. The research opportunities offered combined with scholarships and a shorter duration of studies were the prime reasons for staying and working at a British university. At the same time, interests in English culture, the language and the way of life were also of importance. Thus, there is a combination of motives and instrumental reasons are also significant. Interestingly, only one interview (Lecturer E) stated that she wanted to gain experience in the field of GFL.

As far as experience in teaching GFL is concerned, the responses reveal that only one interviewee had received training in the didactics of GFL and has substantial experience of teaching German in Germany and abroad. One interviewee had some experience of studying GFL in Germany. She enrolled on a

course called German as a Foreign Language, but gave up after one year. In retrospect, she thinks that it would not have prepared her for the challenges of teaching in Britain:

> E: Ich habe ein Jahr DaF studiert, an der Uni in Deutschland, als Ergänzungsfach, es hat überhaupt nicht auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht hier vorbereitet, weil es da nur einen theoretischen und keinen praktischen Ansatz gab.

Three interviewees had little teaching experience before they took up their university posts. Two interviewees can be defined as experienced as they had taught German for over three years. One lecturer has had nearly seven years of experience in Britain to include Higher Education. The other has taught for over three years but not in the UK.

6.2 Acclimatisation to the UK

The process of adapting to a new working environment is challenging and turbulent. Individuals who happen to work in a foreign country, are suddenly confronted with unfamiliar cultural patterns, which can cause cultural stress and consequently have a serious impact on people's lives and work (Holliday 1994). Given that the perception of Germans and German culture in the UK is encumbered with a number of rather negative views (see 3.1), it was interesting to ask how the interviewees have coped with the new cultural conditions and whether they have been affected by negative attitudes.

In terms of acclimatisation, the interviewees did not have many difficulties in getting used to the new environment, although frequent complaints about bureaucracy were heard. Responses also indicate that the interviewees were not provoked because they were Germans or spoke German. Nevertheless, all of them were confronted with prejudices and perceived them as irritating. British TV and newspapers were thought to present a one-sided picture of Germany which proved annoying:

> B: Wenn man hier regelmäßig Fernsehen guckt und wenn man irgendwann etwas über Deutschland mitkriegt, dann formt sich ein Bild im Kopf von' em Deutschen mit dem Stahlhelm auf dem Kopf. Und das prägt sich natürlich da ein, das kriegen sie von klein auf reingehämmert. Durch die Filme, durch die Medien.

> D: Was mich nur verwundert oder ein bisschen stört, ist die Berichterstattung in der Presse, dieses Anti-deutsche und selbst wenn es nicht so stark ist, dann kommt es in Kleinigkeiten zum Ausdruck, einfach in Fehlinformationen.

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The conversations reveal that the interviewees did not experience many difficulties in acclimatising to the new environment. However, frequent comparisons between Germany and the UK were made, which led to cultural shocks or irritations. Some of the statements imply that the German culture and environment were perceived as better: „Vieles funktioniert einfach nicht so gut wie in Deutschland" (Lecturer D), „Ich hätte nie gedacht, dass die Bürokratie hier noch schlimmer ist als in Deutschland. Das hat mich schockiert" (Lecturer A), „Du siehst echt den Dreck überall auf den Strassen, und den Müll. Das war schon ein echter Kulturschock" (Lecturer B). The interviewees were not personally affected by the negative attitudes towards Germany and Germans. The stereotypes, which one frequently comes across in the media, were perceived as a sign of 'bad taste' and did not have much impact on the lecturers' lives or work.

6.3 Beliefs about learning foreign languages

The second part of the interviews focused on the lecturers' experience as FL-learners. It aimed to elicit the number of languages they had learned and the difficulties that they experienced. Above all, it was of interest to find out which learning methods were, from their point of view, particularly successful.

The interviews reveal that all lecturers are multilingual, as they can communicate in more than one FL. In fact, all of them claimed to be fluent in English and good at another language. In addition, three of the lecturers made reference to a third language, of which they have at least an elementary knowledge. The experience as FL-learners varies considerably between the interviewees and depends largely on the languages learned. Responses to the questions – what do you think is the best method of learning a foreign language? – indicate that a stay in the target country and speaking as much as possible are seen as the best strategies:

> D: Also nach Grundkenntnissen ins Land selbst zu gehen und dann sprechen müssen und auch verstehen müssen und wirklich so stark in Kontakt mit der Fremdsprache bleiben, dass man dann in der Sprache denken muss.

> A: Ins Land gehen.

> B: Durch Sprechen und Praxis. Die beste Lernmethode hm rausgehen immer schön, und hm und quasseln und quasseln ohne Ende.

The interviews indicate that the lecturers regard language as a medium of spoken communication and less as a system of grammatical rules. Only one lecturer, who is *nota bene* a non-native speaker of German, refers to grammar and sees the practice of rules as a crucial part of learning FLs:

> C: Ich würde sagen, man lernt am besten, wenn man erst grammatische Regeln lernt und die dann sofort anwendet /.../ die Anwendung ist das Schwierigste, manche Studenten kennen die Regeln aber haben Probleme, sie anzuwenden.

She also highlights the role of advanced grammar work before leaving for the target country:

> C: Wenn man ins Zielland geht, da muss man schon Vorkenntnisse haben. Man muss schon erkennen, was z. B. im Konjunktiv gesagt wird.

Furthermore, the interview data suggests that all lecturers share the opinion that learning languages is an individual, autonomous process, in which students' initiative and involvement are particularly important:

> D: Da ist die Eigeninitiative der Studenten gefragt. Die müssen selber herausfinden, was für Lerntypen sie sind und sich selber ein Lernsystem aufbauen, nach dem sie dann selber vorgehen können Der Lehrer kann da Hilfestellung leisten, indem er verschiedene Lernmethoden vorstellt.

As can be seen, the lecturer makes reference to the teacher's role as an adviser on learning methods. Apart from this comment, roles of teachers do not appear in the interviews. All in all, the lecturers hold similar views as to what the best method of learning is. The stay in the target country, combined with a great deal of interactions in the target language, are at the forefront. The non-native speaker departs slightly from this scenario, as she emphasises the role of grammar. All stress to some degree the role of intensive, individual effort and autonomous learning. Apart from the Berlitz Method, to which one participant was exposed in a language school in Spain and Tandem-learning, no other theoretical approaches were mentioned.

Research suggests that teachers' views on language learning and teaching are largely determined by their personal experience as FL-learners. Images from the past and memories of critical incidents guide their practice (Borg 2003). These views are thought to be resistant to change, although research suggests that

teacher training in FLE can lead to some conceptual change in teachers' views (ibid.). As will be seen in the following sections, views held by the participants with regards to learning FLs, and the principle of communication in particular, have a substantial influence on their expectations of students and on what they see as important learning aims. If we compare these statements with students' responses presented in chapter 5, it becomes clear that there were a number of compatible as well as diverging views. In terms of parallels, both groups believe that residence abroad and oral communication are the most important contributors to learning success. In terms of diverging views, the students believe more strongly in teaching methods, teacher instruction, correction and grammar, while the lecturers, in intensive, individual effort. The exception here is Lecturer D – a non-native speaker, who like students, stresses the importance of grammar instruction.

6.4 Work experience in a British university

The largest part of the interviews focused on the lecturers' experiences of teaching German language and culture at a British university. This section presents the major results. It is divided into three parts, which emerged from the semi-structured interviews. The first part is related to the views held about the British academic context, while the second part discusses their views on British students of German. The third part focuses on their teaching experience, particularly on teaching methods, which proved to work well in the British classroom. Finally, aspects such as teaching in the target language and the characteristics of a good language teacher are discussed.

6.4.1 Ich hätte nie gedacht, dass die Bürokratie hier noch schlimmer ist als in Deutschland" – The perception of the new learning environment

As discussed in chapter 3, British German Studies is different to the *Germanistik* in the German-speaking countries because of the local educational traditions, policies, problems and its position in the context of German as a Foreign Language and not as L1 (cf. Bertaux 1975). However, research indicates that many expatriate teachers/lecturers do not have much understanding of the

British academic environment, local educational policies, existing problems and challenges (cf. Berghahn et al. 1997). This often leads to disillusion, tension and impedes on teaching (cf. Fechter 2003). Thus, numerous scholars emphasise that expatriate teachers/lecturers should acquire a profound understanding of the host environment to include a very good competence in the local language (Hinkel 2001, Krumm 1994).

Three of the interviewed lecturers have only had a holiday experience of the UK prior to their teaching activities. One interviewee did a masters degree at a British university but did not have any previous experience of teaching in Higher Education. One lecturer completed her undergraduate studies in the UK and also had substantial experience of university teaching. Given this, it can be concluded that all but one had little insight into British Higher Education. Their post as a part-time or full-time lecturer was the first time they had come into contact with British German Studies and students of languages. Against this background, it is not surprising to see that they experienced a number of shocks when confronted with university in the host country. When asked about their impressions, they refer predominantly to the bureaucratic load and research pressures:

> A: Die Bürokratie eigentlich, diesen ganzen Papierkram hier an der Uni, es kam so viel auf einmal, die ersten Monate das war echte Bürokratie /.../ dass ich ja hier für alles einen Zettel brauche, ja, die Klausur wird von fünftausend Leuten gecheckt, bevor sie denn geschrieben werden kann. Das ist ja mehr Kontrolle hier.

> D: Ein ziemlicher bürokratischer Aufwand.

> B: Es gibt hier einen unglaublichen Druck, unter dem die Leute stehen. Publish or Perish halt und das sind alle so Einzelkämpfer. Ich habe immer gedacht, dass an der Uni die Leute so mehr zusammenarbeiten.

The way in which university teaching is organised is also a reason for puzzlement. As the example in chapter 4 demonstrates, British universities have structured curricula, which precisely describe what is taught and how it is assessed. Another trait is the strictly controlled attendance by means of attendance lists distributed in every class. At the beginning of each academic year, students are provided with fixed timetables. Failure to attend less than 80% of all listed courses can result in disciplinary procedures. Such rigorous procedures are not known in other Western European countries (cf. Coleman 1996). They are presumably a result of the strong demands for accountability and transparency following the reduction in public funding. The lecturers educated at German universities, where students

have to organise their own timetables, were not prepared for this. Such strict procedures are perceived as spoon-feeding and the university system as a school-like environment, "verschult":

> A: Und ich denke, dass es hier so ein großer Fehler an dem System ist, weil die Uni eigentlich so meiner Ansicht nach dafür da ist, die Leute aufs Leben vorzubereiten und ich nicht das Gefühl habe, dass sie hier aufs Leben vorbereitet werden. Ich meine hier vor allem die selbständige Arbeit, ich meine, dass die Studenten den Stundenplan schon vorgedruckt kriegen, da habe ich gedacht bitte? Ich muss den Studenten doch nicht alles vorkauen.

> B: Das ist ja halt alles so verschulter hier.

The interviews have demonstrated that the German lecturers are reasoning from the perspective of their home educational system, where organising one's own study timetable is seen as a part of the learning process. However, the example of German universities also demonstrates that the lack of timetables can have less desirable effects. In fact, it often results in a very long duration of study[78]. It is not the aim of this chapter to compare both educational systems and to prove the superiority of one over the other. Both systems have their advantages and disadvantages and these are a matter of heated debate in both countries. In Germany, the so-called eternal student and a high dropout rate are definite weaknesses. These are the reasons why three of the interviewees continued their postgraduate study abroad in Anglophone countries. In the UK, bureaucratisation due to single-minded concerns with income, the number of students, ranking lists and quality assessments are serious drawbacks. These issues have been severely criticised by numerous educationalists in the UK as threats to academic freedom and a cause of professional burnout[79]. It is important to highlight that the expatriate lecturers of languages join this discourse of resistance, which may even be a catalyst for change, as Block (2002) optimistically remarks. However, in every-day university life, they will have little influence over official educational practices, as they are a result of wider political, economic and social developments. Moreover, some of the policies, for example timetables, may not be necessarily evil, but given local conditions, a facilitating measure.

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[78] Spiegel-Online, 30 March 2006, http://www.spiegel.de/international/0,1518,408465,00.html [accessed April 2006].
[79] A survey conducted by the Association of University Teachers reveals that nearly one in three academics thinks seriously about a career change, the main reasons being workload stress (Smithers 2003).

6.4.2 „Ich frage immer: Habt ihr noch Fragen? Aber es kommt nichts" – The perception of British students of German

The motif which reoccurred in the interviews was the lecturers' bewilderment caused by students' reluctance to voice their opinion in the classroom and their apparent indirectness. The following extract is representative in this respect:

> A: die First Years hmm ja sie gucken mich teilweise schockiert an und sie geben mir das Gefühl, ich habe was Schlimmes gesagt, nun wenn ich nicht eine halbe Stunde drum labbere, sondern direkt sage, was ich will. Das hat mich schon am Anfang ein bisschen geärgert, dass sie selber nicht so viel Selbstbewusstsein und Courage haben, mir zu sagen, was ihnen nicht passt, sondern dass sie dann damit zum Staff-Student Consultant Committee gehen. Ich habe dann vor dem Meeting einen Zettel gekriegt, die First Years haben damit und damit ein Problem, da habe ich sie beim nächsten Mal angesprochen und da habe ich gesagt ‚Sagt mal, ihr seht mich jede Woche, könnt ihr mir das nicht sagen?'. Mit so was geht man dann nicht zum Lehrer, sondern da gehen wir direkt zu diesem Meeting, dafür ist es da. Sie können also nicht direkt sagen, das gefällt uns nicht, mach das bitte anders /.../ das finde ich sehr gewöhnungsbedürftig, weil das kenne ich aus Deutschland nicht.

This incident demonstrates that Lecturer A experienced a cultural clash in a confrontation with the British undergraduate environment. From her point of view, British students exhibit indirectness and this clearly conflicts with the direct, German way, to which she is used. Particularly frustrating for the lecturer is the fact that first year students do not openly discuss their problems with her. As the incident demonstrates, they were not satisfied with certain aspects of her teaching but did not mention it to the lecturer personally. Instead, they made a formal complaint to the staff-student committee. Thus, the cause of the clash lies in the different perceptions of lecturer-student relationships. The lecturer expects a more collegial, less-hierarchical atmosphere. She emphasises it in her interview:

> A: Ich lasse mich im Unterricht duzen, weil ich nicht will, dass sie mich siezen und ich sie duze und ich möchte, dass sie mich als Vertrauensperson ansehen, dass wenn sie ein Problem haben, dass sie zu mir kommen können, egal ob das jetzt privat ist oder den Unterricht angeht.

As can be seen from the extract above, she intends to establish a higher degree of informality by allowing students to address her by her first name. While this would presumably create an informal atmosphere in the German-speaking context, where it is the rule that students use surnames when addressing their lecturers, it may not have the same effect in the Anglophone environment, where students normally approach their lecturers by using the second person 'you' (cf. Fechter 2003). Moreover, the lecturer wants to create an open atmosphere, in

which problems are directly discussed. She is certainly not willing 'to beat about the bush'. However, this does not seem to work in the British classroom and in fact, causes more distance than openness: „sie gucken mich teilweise schockiert an". Students do not respond to her invitation to an open discussion, avoid open criticism and prefer to remain distanced. What is interesting is the way she reacts to this unfamiliar form of behaviour. As the interview indicates, firstly, she attempted to adopt the indirect behaviour: „Am Anfang habe ich versucht, das Indirekte, das Vorsichtige zu übernehmen". However, this is quickly rejected, as it camouflages her real identity: „Da habe ich gedacht, da habe ich keinen Bock zu. Das ist nicht meine Mentalität". Moreover, she justifies her direct behaviour with pedagogical arguments, seeing it as good preparation for students' stay in Germany in the third year of study:

> A: Sie müssen sich einfach drauf einstellen, weil wenn sie im dritten Jahr nach Deutschland gehen und wenn ich mich hier die ganze Zeit verstelle, dann kriegen sie einen Schock fürs Leben, wenn sie dann erfahren, wie die Deutschen wirklich sind.

The lack of directness and reluctance to voice one's opinions is also stressed as *gewöhnungsbedüftig* by Lecturer D:

> D: Ich fand etwas problematisch, dass die Studenten wenig kritisch sind, scheint mir, von ihnen kommt wenig, wenig Reaktionen, wenig Kritik, man weiß nicht genau, gefällt es ihnen oder gefällt es ihnen nicht, haben sie verstanden, haben sie nicht verstanden, haben sie noch Fragen, ich frage immer: Habt ihr noch Fragen? Aber es kommt nichts und nachher finde ich raus, da müssten doch Fragen gewesen sein /.../ ich würde mir eine etwas hm etwas mehr Kritikbewusstsein, etwas mehr Offenheit und Reaktionsfähigkeit wünschen.

The fact that students do not communicate whether they understand the subject matter discussed and do not ask questions is frustrating. It echoes exactly the opinion of Lecturer A. Interestingly enough, both lecturers relate this to a lack of openness and trust. This apparent lack of responsiveness also impacts on lecturers' teaching. Lecturer D, when asked what teaching strategies are particularly effective, stresses her uncertainty due to the lack of comments from students: "Das ist ja eben die Frage, weil so wenig Feedback kommt". Lecturer A also emphasises the importance of students' responses:

> A: Ich habe ihnen immer wieder angedeutet ‚wenn euch was nicht gefällt, ihr müsst mir das erst mal sagen'. Ansonsten kann ich nichts daran ändern, wenn ich nicht weiß, was ich anders machen sollte.

The question which ultimately arises is whether these disparities direct/indirect, critical/non-critical are due to differences between German and Anglophone

cultural norms. Research in cross-cultural pragmatics with focus on directness vs. indirectness does indeed indicate that native speakers of German, when compared with native Anglophones, use a higher level of directness, particularly in speech acts such as requests or complaints (House & Kasper 1981). English speakers, in contrast, tend to be indirect when complaining and such behaviour is, at the same time, regarded as polite. This is probably one line of explanation as to why students were shocked when being confronted with the direct behaviour of their lecturers:

> A: Sie gucken mich teilweise an, als wenn ich ihnen einen Eimer kaltes Wasser ins Gesicht geschmissen hätte.

It may also explain why British students do not address certain issues directly, because such a stance is considered to be inappropriate or even rude according to the 'local' cultural norms. While these norms may indeed have an impact on the way British students behave, the situative context, its formality and the asymmetrical power relations within should not be underestimated. The lecturer is in a position of power, while the student is the recipient and less powerful. Research on teacher talk has demonstrated that teachers dominate in classroom communication and have a particularly strong tendency to ask questions (Meerholz-Härle & Tschirner 2004). Some statements from the incidents described above indicate this, for example the fact that the lecturers attempted to push the students to contribute in class: "ihr müsst mir das sagen", "Ich frage immer: Habt ihr noch Fragen?" These attempts seem to be rather unsuccessful and students remain silent. These examples also indicate that the lecturers expected more oral participation. In the case of its absence, they feel frustrated and unsure as to the success of their teaching. The importance of verbal activity has been mentioned in nearly all interviews. The extracts are representative in this respect:

> B: dass man nicht über bestimmte Dinge diskutieren kann, da war die Diskussion sehr gering.

> E: Die Studenten haben extrem wenig Interesse gezeigt und nicht die Bereitschaft gezeigt, sich mit den Problemen des Studiums generell und dann speziell beim Sprachenlernen auseinanderzusetzen. Vielleicht fehlte auch die Fähigkeit oder beides, sie wollen sich nicht länger mit einer Sache beschäftigen und sprechen kaum im Unterricht.

Thus, it is not surprising to see that students who are communicative or groups in which there is a great deal of interaction are automatically perceived as good. The following extract illuminates this:

> A: Da jetzt gerade bei Final Years, da habe ich drei Leute, die super sind. Wenn ich jetzt da eine Diskussion mit der ganzen Klassen anfange, rede ich und die Drei.

As can be seen from the extract, oral participation is taken as a sign of responsiveness and consequently of students' engagement and interest. Its lack evokes feelings of distrust and exasperation on the part of the lecturers. As discussed at the beginning of this chapter, the primacy of oracy has been viewed as a typical trait of Western education (Pennycook 1994). Holliday (1997) disagrees with this point arguing that such a structuring of the problem leads to simplified views (cf. Liu & Littlewood 1997). He sees this primacy as a product of academic-professional discourse and not something typical of the 'Western way'. The overemphasis on oral participation is what teachers, lecturers and researchers expect and teaching manuals prescribe. This does not necessarily reflect how teaching and learning take place in Western classrooms. The experiences discussed above confirm that the lecturers anticipate verbal participation, which they see as appropriate behaviour in the classroom. This is also compatible with their views on what language learning should be about. Unfortunately, students 'deviate' from this norm, as they tend to remain silent. This could be caused by the psychological and emotional burden, which oral performance requires (see Holliday 1997) but also by a lack of good language competence. In terms of the former, chapter 5 has revealed that the vast majority of the interviewed students feel timid and embarrassed when speaking in front of the group. With regards to language competence, Stephens (1997) argues that the problem of silence and the supposed passivity is indeed caused by the low level of language proficiency and with linguistic growth students become more responsive. The large-scale study by Coleman (1996) provides here further evidence by demonstrating that after the stay abroad, fluency increases and at the same time anxieties decrease. Observations made by one lecturer, who teaches across all years of study, confirmed this:

> A: Bei dem ersten und zweiten Studienjahr würde ich sagen, völlig unselbständig, und viel zu wenig Selbstbewusstsein. Im vierten Jahr hat sich das schon ausgeglichen, schon wesentlich mehr Selbstbewusstsein /.../ Bei den ältern Studenten ist aber sehr angenehm, da sie dadurch, dass sie schon ein Jahr in Deutschland waren, Kontakte

zur deutschen Kultur hatten und sie können auch mit dieser direkten Art besser umgehen.

However, as can be seen from the extract, the lecturer still attributes improved performance to the students' experience of the new culture. While first hand experience of the German culture has a profound impact on students' confidence, the increased level of fluency seems to be more important (Coleman 1996). In general, Zhou et al. (2005) argue that the significance of national culture as the determinant of classroom behaviour should not be overestimated, as this can easily lead to overgeneralisation. Classroom-specific factors can be more decisive reasons for certain forms of behaviour, for example the students' reluctance to participate verbally. Holliday (1997) also stresses that the cultural argument, where culture is understood as the representative of a nation, leads to simplifications. The academic-professional ethos is more influential. If students do not conform to the norms of this ethos, then teachers tend to 'otherise' them "by putting them into simplistic cultural stereotypes" (ibid.: 411). Examples of such broad-brush views have emerged in the interviews too:

> B: dass die doch relativ bereit dazu sind, zur Gruppenarbeit und sie wissen auch alle, dass sie was tun müssen im Unterricht, dass sie nicht nur passiv rezipieren. In Spanien war das nicht so. Sie sitzen da, hören zu und schreiben.

> A: Da habe ich Studenten, die reden viel im Unterricht *[in the UK]*, die sehr aktiv sind. Ich habe die anderen, die sehr schüchtern sind. Während bei chinesischen Studenten kann ich sagen, sie sind grundsätzlich zurückhaltender, die musst du ansprechen, die melden sich nicht von sich aus, sie fragen nichts, das ist einfach da oben der Lehrer und der kleine Student da unten. Das ist in England nicht so.

> E: In Irland an der Uni waren die Studenten vielmehr interessiert als in England, da bin ich auf mehr Interesse und Vorbildung gestoßen.

Suddenly, when compared with national groups such as Spanish or Chinese, British students appear to be pro-active. In contrast, when compared with Germans or Irish students, they seem to be passive, indirect and disengaged. The comparisons with the German academic environment and German students are frequent and such comparisons do not put the British in a favourable light:

> B: Die Studenten sind unreifer als in Deutschland und unselbständiger auch /.../ Die sind in der Regel jünger.

> E: Die waren so wenig erwachsen und wenig selbständig. Sie waren wie Schüler der elften Klasse des Gymnasiums.

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A: Ich war überrascht wie unselbständig und kindlich die Studenten sind /.../ Man hat das Gefühl, man steht teilweise vor einer Gruppe von Kleinkindern.

The extracts demonstrate that the lecturers tend to perceive British students as immature and dependent. They are seen not as students but as school pupils. These views are obviously constructed on the basis of the lecturers' experience in their national, academic culture. This is not necessarily beneficial, as it can misguide them and induce over-negativity. British university is "a rite of passage, the beginning of adult independence" (Coleman 1996: 5). The vast majority of first year students are 18 or 19 and away from home for the first time. This is often the reason why many want to enjoy this freedom first and foremost and are more interested in life outside the university, rather than studying (cf. Fechter 2003). One of the interviews identifies this immediately:

A: vor allem bei First Years, wenn sie sich die ganzen Nächte bis 5 Uhr morgens um die Ohren hauen /.../ die First Years sind eben so. Für die ist das erste Jahr in erster Linie Party, in zweiter Linie Uni.

In Germany – the country of origin of four interviewees – the situation differs considerably. In brief, the average age of a first-semester student is twenty two and it is not uncommon to complete a university degree in late twenties[80]. In contrast, at British universities, a first-term student aged 22 is a rarity; he or she will be recognised as a mature student – a concept unknown in Germany (ibid.)[81]. In fact, by this time, British students have finished their degrees. These facts have to be taken on board when teaching in the UK.

Another issue which the interviewed lecturers pointed to was the students' lack of motivation to learn the subject matter of German Studies. In their view, British students are not particularly passionate about the subject studied and are not clear as to why they are studying German language and culture:

E: Ich hatte die Vorstellung, dass ich da auf großes Interesse und große Offenheit stoße, gegenüber der deutschen Kultur und Literatur, was aber den Tatsachen nicht entsprochen hat. Das Desinteresse hat mich besonders irritiert und frustriert /.../ Ich habe sie mal gefragt, warum sie Deutsch studieren? Da haben sie geantwortet, dass sie es im 'A' level hatten und nicht wussten, was sie sonst machen sollten. Da waren ganz wenige, die sich für deutschsprachige Länder und deutsche Kultur interessiert

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[80] A report compiled by *Wissenschaftsrat* in 2000 shows that the on average, it takes 6 or 7 years to finish the first degree in language or cultural studies in Germany. By that time, the overage student is 29. The report can be viewed at:
http://www.wissenschaftsrat.de/Veroffentlichungen/veroffentlich.htm [accessed April 2006].
[81] Students who on entry to undergraduate programmes are 21 or older, are classified in the UK as mature students.

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haben. Ich habe sie gefragt, was sie nach dem Studium machen wollen, was sie sich davon erhoffen und die meisten konnten keine klare Antwort geben.

As the extract demonstrates, the lecturer, who is *nota bene* a specialist in literature, is frustrated by the apparent lack of interest in German literature and culture. She herself studied *Anglistik* because the Anglophone countries have, as she says, "eine dichte und reiche Kultur- und Literaturgeschichte". This problem is also echoed by lecturer A, who identifies a difference between herself and her students. She decided to study because she was genuinely interested in her subject. She cannot say the same things about the students she teaches. In her view, they are driven solely by 'A' level grades and this is for the lecturer highly suspect:

> A: Ja, da sagen sie schon, ich habe Deutsch in der Schule gehabt, das interessiert mich. Wenn ich aber dann merke, was sie über Deutschland wissen, nämlich Null, da frage ich mich warum sie das studieren. Mir wurde gesagt, dass es hier in England wohl so ist, dass die Studenten ihr Fach nicht nach Vorlieben auswählen, sondern danach, welche Zensuren sie im A-level bekommen hatten. Wenn sie jetzt einen Deutschlehrer hatten, der die Noten verschenkt hat? Ich habe jetzt mein Studienfach nach Interesse gewählt.

The results obtained at 'A' level are indeed important because of admission procedures, which normally require three 'A' levels. Chapter 5 has demonstrated that many indeed decided to study German language and culture because they received better grades than expected. But this was not the sole reason. In fact, there was a combination of instrumental and intrinsic motives. While future career and an academic degree are prominent motivational factors, enthusiasm to learn German has also been reported. However, as Berghahn et al. (1997) point out, many expatriate lecturers and lectors tend to perceive German Studies as a replica of *Germanistik* and take an interest in literature for granted. In Britain, the situation differs considerably. As chapters 3 and 5 show, a) the students demonstrate little interest in literature, and b) they study German because competence in German combined with a university degree is likely to give them better chances in the employment market. They simply hope for a better and secure future and a degree in German should bring this return in the future (cf. Peirce 1995). Expatriate lecturers are not alone in being disappointed about the apparent lack of interest in literary and cultural studies. Native British lecturers too complain about this state of affairs and frequently refer to the good old days when students supposedly exhibited more literary interests (Evans 1988, Claussen

2004). As discussed in chapter 5, this disinterest is partly due to the fact that students have little previous exposure to the subject matter or lack the linguistic resources to access them. Indeed, linguistic standards, but writing in particular, were recognised by the lecturers as very deficient:

> A: Wenn sie mir sagen, wir hatten schon 7 Jahre Deutsch in der Schule und sie können keinen einzigen deutschen Satz formulieren, dann glaube ich einfach hm die sind dann an der Uni falsch aufgehoben, Fremdsprachen zu studieren.

> B: Qualität der Aufsätze das war das schlimmste. Das war o Maaann! Ich habe die ganze Woche diese ganzen Aufsätze gelesen. Das war wirklich schlimm, da habe ich mir gedacht, hat das alles überhaupt was gebracht? Kauderwelsch. Wenn einer einen Aufsatz schreibt, wo also wirklich in jedem, fast in jedem Wort ein Fehler ist, oder in jedem zweiten Wort. Diese Aufsätze also das ist hmm, das weiß ich nicht, das ist hmmm, manche haben einfach nicht begriffen, worum es geht.

Given the results obtained from the analysis of students' written stories, the statement that there were mistakes every other word is not an exaggeration (see 5.6.3). Lecturer A is in this respect suspicious about the state of language teaching in schools. Lecturer B also sees the root of the problem in education as being at pre-university level, as it does not prepare students to tackle academic challenges. A certain narrowness of the British approach to education and culture is mentioned:

> B: Die Studenten haben sehr viele Aha-Erlebnisse bei sonnem Studium, denke ich, weil sie halt durch die Schulbildung darauf nicht gut vorbereitet werden und auch durch die allgemeine Kultur. Alles ist so auf Großbritannien zentriert. Der Weitblick ist nicht unbedingt da.

This problem is also echoed by lecturer C:

> C: Grammatik und Allgemeinbildung, Allgemeinwissen nicht nur über die deutsche Geschichte, sondern die Weltgeschichte. Das war das Problem.

The interviewed lecturers are universal in suggesting that British students lack general knowledge, good language skills, knowledge of German History, and an interest in literary and cultural studies. They largely resonate the voices of British lecturers. The root of the problem lies, in their opinion, in the inadequate teaching syllabus at pre-university level. Generally speaking, academics urge 'A' level classes to place more stress on grammar, language accuracy and the development of literacy with essay writing in particular (cf. Claussen 2004). While it is important to highlight the dissatisfaction with the 'A' level syllabus voiced by the lecturers, the issue is not as straightforward as may appear. Given the dramatic

decline in the number of 'A' level candidates in German and the general abhorrence of grammar in the UK, placing more stress on grammar and language accuracy could possibly discourage an even greater number of students from learning German (cf. Durrell 1993). This, in turn, would be a 'lethal' outcome for German departments. Durrell (ibid.) argues that departments of modern languages should take responsibility for accommodating the weaknesses of the new generation of students. Some possible didactical strategies have been discussed in chapter 5.

Finally, given the rather critical perception of British students, I asked the lecturers how they would define a good language student. A picture of an intrinsically motivated, well-organised learner has emerged from the extracts. He/she has control over his or her learning and is able to identify his/her learning needs. He/she takes the initiative, is autonomous, participatory, reads a lot and demonstrates an interest in matters which go beyond subjects studied:

> A: Sehr fokussiert, dass sie genau wissen, was sie wollen, warum sie das machen. Sie sind sehr organisiert, sehr gutes Timemanagement und sehr interessiert.

> B: Das sind Leute, die über das Fach hinausschauen, die viel lesen, die hm denen bewusst ist, dass sie kreativ sein müssen, die das A und O des akademischen Schreibens verinnerlicht haben und das haben die wenigsten.

> C: Sie nehmen vor allem Kommentare und Feedback ernst und versuchen, diese umzusetzen. Sie sind auch sehr interessiert und wollen ihre Kenntnisse vertiefen.

> D: Diejenigen, die ihr Studium ernst nehmen, die hm engagiert sind.

> E: Fleißig, offen aber das allerwichtigste ist das Interesse und die Bereitschaft, sich mit der Fremdprache und was damit zusammenhängt, auseinanderzusetzen.

Interestingly enough, native lecturers focus their descriptions more on autonomy. A good learner is independent, shows interest and readiness to undertake a thorough language study. In contrast, the non-native lecturer focuses on the students' ability to follow teachers' comments and feedback. The learner is seen in conjunction with the teacher and teaching. Research indicates that native and non-native teachers exhibit different attitudes and teaching behaviours. Medgyes' (1994) comprehensive study reveals that native teachers, for example, tend to have far-fetched expectations and are rather orientated towards perceived needs in contrast to non-native teachers, who focus more on real teaching conditions. While caution is advised when making such broad generalisations, one cannot be

but struck by seeing that the non-native lecturer interviewed here differs in her attitude and approach. I shall return to this issue in the next section when discussing teaching methods.

All in all, characteristics that are mentioned with reference to a good language student are what the interviewed lecturers missed in the British classroom. However, if we construct a picture of a student based on these traits, we quickly come to realise that such a student is a rarity in the language classroom and this not only at British universities but also probably throughout the world. However, teachers generally tend to prefer students, who come close to such an ideal, namely engaged, communicative, critical and knowledgeable (cf. Appel 2001, Holliday 1997). Such expectations are manifested in teaching methodologies, which are driven by ivory tower visions. As argued in chapter 1, such ideals can provide a certain inspiration (Mitschian 2000). However, they can also misguide teaching practice. Holliday (1994) argues that ideals are part of the notion of excellence, which education and its professional-academic ethos generally implicate. They are very powerful and, at the same time, dangerous, as they often result in the creation of expectations and strong agendas, which make lecturers, particularly expatriates, blind towards the local teaching and learning environments. Holliday (ibid.: 133) calls it sociological blindness. This may even lead teachers/lecturers to see encountered forms of behaviour as irrational or in Holliday's terms, as exotic. Attempts to reform or 'cultivate' these behaviours in "a missionary zeal" may be well-intentioned but could also have a whole host of unforeseen repercussions (Holliday ibid.: 101 – 102). For this reason, it is more important to gain a profound understanding of the local conditions and to hold expectations which are more in line with these conditions.

6.4.3 Teaching methods and activities

As presented in chapter 3, British Universities enjoy a great deal of autonomy with regards to teaching content and methods. This aspect came into view when surveying the curricula of German Studies. There is no such thing as a 'typical' programme for German Studies. On a departmental level, lecturers have to abide by general course objectives and aims as stated in programme specifications (see chapter 4). At the same time, they have a high degree of freedom regarding the

choice of materials and activities. This is positive inasmuch as it allows for creativity. Instead of obeying a fixed plan or a textbook, each lecturer can implement his/her own ideas in the classroom. On the other hand, a lack of a fixed plan is demanding, as it requires a great amount of preparation and understanding of lesson planning.

As far as effective teaching methods/activities are concerned, the interviewees make reference to group work, presentations and computer-assisted activities. However, group work turned out to be the most successful, as it encourages students to speak in German and to contribute to classroom activities:

> R: Welche Lehrverfahren haben sich in Ihrer Unterrichtspraxis an der Uni X als die effektivsten erwiesen?
> B: Einsatz von OHP's, die von Studenten in Gruppen vorbereitet wurden, Aufgabelösen in Gruppen. Was da noch besonders gut lief, das war sehr innovativ übrigens, Übersetzen mit dem elektronischen Korpus, wo du halt siehst, wie die Kollokationen funktionieren.
>
> A: Am meisten Gruppenarbeit, weil ich merke, dass sie untereinander mehr reden, natürlich muss ich dann an jede Gruppe rangehen, wenn du daneben stehst, reden sie auch Deutsch /.../ da jetzt gerade bei Final Years, da habe ich drei Leute, die super sind. Wenn ich jetzt da eine Diskussion mit der ganzen Klassen anfange, rede ich und die Drei und alle anderen, die sitzen nur da und die bringe ich nur zum Sprechen, wenn ich Gruppenarbeit mache.

As can be seen, verbal participation is again at the forefront. Teaching literature was also perceived as a frustrating task, as it required the lecturer to explain step-by-step the content and vocabulary of discussed texts. This does not lead to good results, as the extract below demonstrates:

> A: Wir haben wieder heute die Kurzgeschichte „Die geöffnete Order"[82] gelesen. Ich habe die ganze Geschichte nochmal durchgekaut. Sie haben nichts verstanden, gar nichts.

As chapter 5 reveals, reading literary texts was seen as the most difficult task. However, vocabulary is not the only problem. In actual fact, Lecturer A says that literary texts which are closer to the students' experience are well received:

> A: Für aktuelle Themen sind sie auch dankbarer als für irgendwelche Sachen, die schon weit zurückliegen. Sachen, wo sie sich mitidentifizieren können, mit diesem Buch „Sonnenallee", das finden sie ganz Klasse, weil das eben auch Jugendliche sind.

Thus, it seems that a choice of texts, which are topically related to students' background could potentially ease the literary experience for both students and

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[82] This is a literary short story by Ilse Aichinger, which is a part of the curriculum in the first year, in the context under study.

lecturers. Furthermore, introducing easier texts before more complex ones could better assist students in the development of reading competence. Two lecturers express uncertainty as to the success of their teaching methods. In one case, doubts are due to the lack of feedback from students:

> R: Welche Lehrverfahren haben sich in Ihrer Unterrichtspraxis an der Uni X als die effektivsten erwiesen?
> D: Das ist ja eben die Frage, weil so wenig Feedback kommt. Ich habe unterschiedliche Kurse, da muss man was Unterschiedliches machen. Das kommt auch auf das Jahr an.

One lecturer feels unprepared to carry out teaching duties and this with particular reference to teaching German grammar. A lack of experience regarding planning and preparation of language materials as well as a lack of understanding of problems that GFL-learners face are seen as huge obstacles:

> E: Es hat mich Stunden gekostet, eine Unterrichtsstunde vorzubereiten, weil ich nicht genug Erfahrung in der Unterrichtsvorbereitung hatte. Ich hatte Zweifel an meinen Unterrichtskonzepten, weil ich nicht wusste, ob meine Unterrichtsvorbereitung gut war. Bei den deutschen Fällen habe ich lange gebraucht, um zu verstehen, wo genau die einzelnen Probleme der Studenten liegen.

Interestingly, when advice and help on how to teach German grammar are needed, she – a native speaker of German – would rather turn to people who themselves have learned German as a foreign language. In her opinion, they have a greater awareness of problems which students of German encounter and which she, as a native speaker, is not able to detect:

> E: Das hat oftmals keinen Zweck gehabt, sich über die Probleme mit Muttersprachlern zu unterhalten. Ich habe das mit Leuten besprochen, die selber Deutsch als Fremdsprache gelernt haben. Ich kann mir manche Probleme der Lerner nicht nachvollziehen. Jemand der selber die Sprache als Fremdsprache gelernt hat, weiß, dass diese spezifischen Probleme existieren, auf die ich nicht kommen könnte.

Here, we see evidence that a native competence in the target language is not enough when one is responsible for teaching his/her mother tongue. One needs to have a good understanding of problems that learners face. One also needs to know how the target language works and how it can be best explained to speakers of other languages. This case is not a single example. Indeed, many native teachers of German are not well-prepared to teach GFL and struggle when explaining the grammatical peculiarities of their mother tongue (Hinkel 2001). However, as Coleman (1996) observes, departments of modern languages in the UK are not concerned with professional expertise in teaching modern languages and always

take native proficiency as a sufficient teaching qualification. As the extracts above illustrate, a lack of expertise in language teaching can be frustrating for the teacher, who spends hours preparing teaching materials and in the end does not know whether they were effective or not. Given the limited number of language classes and fairly low level of general language competence in German (see 5.6.3), such experiments are not in the best interest of students (cf. Hinkel 2001).

One part of the interview focused on teaching in the target language – a policy which is pursued in the context under study and which is, as discussed in chapter 1, a part of the methodological consensus in FLE (cf. Cook 2002, Macaro 2001). However, the total exclusion of learners' L1 is still a matter of heated debate. The opposition camp argues that the use of the target language only deprives students of a proper understanding of the target language (Butzkamm 2003) and is not adequate for the linguistic situations and minds of FL-learners, who normally translate and code-switch between two or more languages (Cook 2002). As interviews with the students have revealed, learners indeed do not suppress their mother tongue and often resort to their L1 for help through translation, for example. The radical stance of the proponents of target language exclusivity is of less pedagogical value. However, this does not imply that teaching should be increasingly carried out in L1. Rather L1 should be treated as an important teaching aid and should be used in such a way that it becomes a facilitator of the development of competence in the target language – a position which is referred to as enlightened monolingualism (Butzkamm 2004). Against this background, it was interesting to see what stance the interviewees held towards teaching in the target language and whether they used the students' L1 or not. When asked what language is used as a medium of instruction, everyone made reference to German. At the same time, the interviews indicate that lecturers do not strictly follow the monolingual policy and indeed use English in a variety of situations, of which the most frequently mentioned include explanations of grammatical problems, vocabulary and background knowledge:

> D: Wenn das Vokabelerklären mit der Umschreibung nicht mehr weiter hilft hm um Unterschiede zwischen der deutschen und englischen Sprache klar zu machen. In der Grammatik, da haben wir am Anfang sogar mit Englisch angefangen und wir sind dann immer mehr zu Deutsch übergegangen.

> B: Wenn ich das Gefühl hatte, sie kommen nicht mit.

C: Wenn es um historische Hintergründe geht und wenn das nicht verstanden wird, dann fasse ich alles noch einmal auf Englisch zusammen. Fachvokabular und auch bei der Grammatik.

A: Ich sage bei vielen Sachen, wenn ich dann nur Fragezeichnen in den Gesichtern sehe oder wenn es um die Hausaufgaben geht, sage ich alles wieder auf Englisch, aber ansonsten versuche ich schon alles auf Deutsch zu machen. Da bin ich daran gewöhnt, da ich in * auch Deutsch als Fremdsprache unterrichtet habe aber Studenten aus allen Nationen hatte.

The extracts show that the lecturers do not completely ban English from the classroom. The students' L1 is used to ease comprehension and to highlight differences between English and German. It fosters effectiveness and efficiency of communication and matches expectations of students. Interviews summarised in chapter 5 reveal that although the students are positive towards the use of the target language, they still prefer explanations in English when unknown words appear or clarity is endangered. Experience reported by one lecturer exemplifies this:

E: Im Medienkurs habe ich zwischen Deutsch und Englisch gewechselt. Ich habe mir zuerst vorgenommen, nur Deutsch zu sprechen aber dann haben die Studenten wenig verstanden. Ich habe dann immer gefragt: Habt ihr das verstanden? Soll ich das noch einmal auf Englisch erklären? Die haben dann erleichtert genickt.

Interestingly enough, one of the lecturers sees the exclusive use of the target language, from a practical point of view, as less facilitating. Given the amount of time dedicated to language teaching, she thinks that it is a hindrance to the effectiveness of her teaching activities, because it is too time-consuming. The use of the students' L1 assists, in this respect, with economy of time – an issue which is crucial in any institutionalised teaching and learning situation and which is rarely voiced:

A: Ich glaube, dass dieser Ansatz, alles auf Deutsch zu machen, besser ist aber zeitaufwendiger. Ich würde um einiges mehr schaffen, wenn ich es auf Englisch machen könnte, weil es einfach schneller vorangeht, weil es natürlich seine Zeit dauert, wenn du eine Vokabel drei Mal erklären musst.

Thus, it can be seen that even in a situation where the target language is prescribed as the medium of instruction, it is not possible, given limited teaching time in language classrooms, to carry out classes solely in the target language. At the same time, L1 should not be overused and employed only on pedagogical grounds, namely when comprehension and teaching efficacy are jeopardised.

Another problem, which was reported with reference to the use of the target language and L1, is the huge heterogeneity of students:

> B: Ich habe jetzt gerade die Fragebögen ausgewertet. Manche Studenten wollten mehr Deutsch, manche mehr Englisch. Die, die mehr Deutsch wollen, das sind die, die halt relativ gut sind, denke ich.

As demonstrated in chapter 5, the linguistic discrepancies between individual students are huge and this poses a massive challenge. While for some students an increased use of German is beneficial, others, presumably weaker students, may feel lost and eventually demotivated. Another interesting issue with regards to the use of German and English in the classroom is raised by lecturer E. When a provision of examples in German and English fails to clarify a specific problem, for example grammar, lecturer E resorts to French for help:

> E: Da habe ich öfter auf französische Vergleiche zurückgegriffen, weil sie die Satzstrukturen des Deutschen näher bringen können. Das kannst du nur dann machen, wenn du Studenten dabei hast, die auch Französisch studieren. Das veranschaulicht die Grammatik besser.

Given that for the vast majority, French is the first FL and many combine both languages, to refer to French when explaining certain linguistic peculiarities presents a considerable didactical potential. There is widespread consensus that L1 and any previously learned languages foster the learning of additional FLs (Hufeisen 2001). In the field of GFL, there are already a number of successful approaches which were developed in response to the most common sociolinguistic constellation of German as a foreign language namely: L3-German after L2-English after any L1. Such approaches exploit linguistic, etymological and typological similarities and differences between languages one has learned (Hufeisen ibid.). A concept of "L3-German after L2-French" has not been addressed as yet.

When asked which are the most frustrating aspects of their teaching practice in German Studies, the lecturers mainly refer to a lack of visible progress and involvement on the part of the students:

> D: dass man manchmal den Erfolg nicht sieht, dass man etwas gerade erklärt hat und dann in den nächsten Stunden stellt man fest, dass da gar nichts mehr von übrig ist und das frustriert vor allem.

> C: Wenn die Studenten nicht mitarbeiten und das Studium und ihre Fächer nicht ernst nehmen.

B: Was ich immer schwer finde, wenn du den Studenten die Aufgaben erklärst, die sie machen müssen, im Unterricht, und teilweise muss ich fünf oder sechs Mal erklären, und sie haben immer noch nicht kapiert, auf Deutsch oder auch auf Englisch.

Conversely, the most rewarding or satisfying aspects mentioned in the conversations involve evidence of students' improvement and a more active stance in the classroom:

D: Wenn man eben merkt, dass das Gegenteil erreicht wird, dass bei einigen eben doch das, was man besprochen hat, dass das dann im Kopf geblieben ist.

C: Wenn die Studenten das Interesse zeigen und Fortschritte machen.

As can be seen, student progress is seen as a consequence of teaching and is the most rewarding aspect. The lecturers experience moments of satisfaction if there are visible signs that students understand the content discussed in class and show interest. When this is not the case, exasperation is reported. An interesting comment is made by lecturer E. For her, the teaching experience was a good learning process. It enabled her to look critically at herself and to question certain negative attitudes which she feels her fellow countrymen exhibit:

E: Man lernt total viel im Umgang mit Menschen und man lernt, dass man bestimmte Dinge akzeptieren muss und dass man als Deutscher oft mit Arroganz an Dinge rangeht. Du bist doch ein Lehrer und als Lehrer hat man eine bestimmte Vorbildfunktion. Man darf nicht sagen, ihr seid alle unkritisch und bei euch ist alles schlecht.

Although she was initially stunned by the behaviour of British students, in retrospect she acknowledges that an over-negative attitude on the part of the teacher/lecturer is not the way forward. Being a foreign teacher/lecturer, one needs to understand and to accept the local rules and ways of behaving.

Finally, I asked the interviewees what attributes a good lecturer/teacher of languages should possess. A good relationship with students and mutual respect and trust are of particular relevance but at the same time not easy to establish:

A: Ich möchte, dass sie [*students*] mich als Vertrauensperson ansehen, dass wenn sie ein Problem haben, dass sie zu mir kommen können, egal ob das jetzt privat ist oder den Unterricht angeht, ich möchte aber auch, dass sie mich trotzdem respektieren, ich will nicht nur Kumpel sein, ich möchte Freund, Lehrer und Respektperson sein, so alles in einem und da den Mittelweg zu finde, das ist besonders schwierig.

Sensibility and awareness of hierarchical power relations are also seen as essential:

> B: Sensibilität ist besonders wichtig, weil man als Lehrer unheimliche Macht hat und dessen sind sich viele Leute gar nicht bewusst Man muss sich halt dieser Macht bewusst sein, weil man immer der Stärkere ist, egal was man tut. Man muss das gut ausbalancieren.

Lecturer C makes reference to patience and a good knowledge of the students' native tongue:

> C: Man muss vor allem Geduld haben, man muss verstehen, wo die Probleme liegen. Man soll auch gute Kenntnisse der Muttersprache der Studenten haben, weil man da besser weiß, worauf die Fehler zurückzuführen sind und man kann dann später darauf eingehen.

Lecturer C, who is a non-native speaker of German, places particular emphasis on a good knowledge of the students' L1 and the identification of mistakes. In contrast to other lecturers, she does not refer to any personal relations but to explicit teaching procedures. This is an aspect which frequently appears in her interview. At the beginning, she makes reference to grammar and highlights that practising rules is the most important part of FL-learning. This attitude is, according to research, typical of non-native teachers (Medgyes 1994). Awareness of students' linguistic problems is also echoed by Lecturer E. She admits that as a native speaker and a graduate in literature without GFL-qualifications, she could not see problems which the students had when learning German. This is again an aspect which has been confirmed by research. A number of studies concerned with grammatical understanding demonstrate that native teachers have a significantly lower lever of grammatical knowledge or general knowledge about language than non-native teachers (Hinkel 2001, Árva & Medgyes 2000, Andrews 1999). For many native teachers, the possibility of teaching abroad is often the first time when they gain insights into the structures of their mother tongue (Blühdorn 2000). The lecturer concerned here thinks that teaching German abroad should therefore be carried out by native as well as non-native teachers:

> E: Deswegen finde ich auch wichtig, dass der Deutschunterricht im Ausland von sowohl Muttersprachlern als auch von Nicht-Muttersprachlern erteilt wird. Es muss halt eine Mischung sein.

Interestingly enough, research suggests that FL-learners see huge advantages to being taught by both native and non-native teachers at the same time (Benke & Medgyes 2005).

The data above is derived from five individuals and cannot therefore be taken as a general picture of experiences and problems with regards to teaching German

Studies in the UK. Nonetheless, the data demonstrates a number of issues, which are certainly familiar to many *Germanists* in the UK. Teaching suggestions, to which this data hint, are also in line with this.

Firstly, collaborative forms of work, particularly group work seem to be particularly successful. These are perceived as beneficial because they encourage interaction. This is also in line with what lecturers see as important and what they think should happen in the classroom, namely communication and speaking. Moreover, literature, which seems to be a sensitive issue within German Studies, does not need to be a deterrent. The introduction of texts discussing issues close to the students' background, interests and linguistic level could facilitate the development of reading competence and even reading pleasure, which according to many lecturers has disappeared from departments of modern languages. Another critical issue is teaching in the target language. The context under investigation follows a monolingual policy, namely both language and content classes are conducted in German. The interviewed lecturers as well as students demonstrate a strong approval for this. However, the exclusivity of the target language is neither possible nor desirable. English is used on pedagogical grounds, such as when teaching efficiency and comprehension are jeopardised. The position voiced here comes close to the principle of enlightened monolingualism. With regards to this, it is important to note that not only the students' L1 but also other FLs could be utilised in the classroom. For the context of British German Studies, French could be of benefit, when explaining grammar, for example. Furthermore, the data highlights the importance of understanding GFL and the problems that GFL-learners face. Native competence in the target language is simply not enough when one has to teach the language to foreign students. This issue should be taken more seriously in departments of modern languages in the UK. Moreover, the interview data suggest that lecturers feel rewarded when they see signs of student progress and engagement. In contrast, a lack of communication and comprehension on the part of students causes exasperation. Thus, personal satisfaction is strongly related to students' good performance, which is, as elaborated above, predominantly associated with verbal activity and responsiveness.

6.5 Summary of chapter 6

The results demonstrated above are derived from a small sample and therefore cannot be generalised in a traditional, experimental sense. However, as discussed in chapter 2, the purpose of case studies is not to provide generalisations but to point to issues which are critical and in so doing to contribute to the raising of awareness, to knowledge-sharing and -building. In this sense, the data presented above point to a whole host of problems and practical issues which other studies did not consider but which are crucial to teaching in British German Studies (cf. Berghahn et al. 1997). It also complements the problems discussed in chapter 3 and 5. First and foremost the data has demonstrated a complexity and multifacetedness of the teaching experience in German Studies in British Higher Education. This is largely attributed to the diversity of personal biographies, socialisation, educational backgrounds and interests. All the factors have a profound impact on lecturers' practice and the way they interpret and evaluate learning and teaching environments. It would indeed be naïve to assume that teachers leave their biographies outside the classroom. The classroom is, in a sense, a place where their past and present experiences interact and the interviews have demonstrated this. For the native speakers, their socialisation in the German educational system in particular functions as a lens through which they interpret and evaluate the host educational environment. They are outsiders. Being an outsider can be of advantage, as it may allow for the detection of critical issues, which insiders may have routinised or may not realise anymore. An outsider can also have a distorted view, particularly when he or she does not have much understanding of the foreign context. Holliday (1994) exemplifies how this can easily lead to misinterpretation and even serious conflict. Conflicts can happen even within the same national culture with local teachers, as the teacher is always alien to students. There are strict boundaries and no collaborative or autonomous forms of work can dismantle them (ibid.). However, in terms of expatriate teachers, the danger of conflict is greater, as they are foreigners in a twofold way. There are two demarcations lines: a teacher-student boundary and a national, cultural-linguistic boundary. This is a kind of double otherness and it is the second boundary which many claim to be responsible for tension in the classroom.

Holliday (1994) objects to this by demonstrating numerous examples, which suggest that the reason for conflict is due to a lack of knowledge about the host educational environment on the part of expatriate teachers. An interesting case is illustrated by Fechter (2003) – a native speaker of German and lecturer in anthropology in the UK – who discusses her teaching difficulties caused by a lack of familiarity with the British educational system and the British 'undergraduate culture'. Having not been made aware of the subtleties of the local academic context prior to her appointment, she automatically assumed that British students and universities would be similar to the ones in Germany. Issues that shocked her were almost identical to the problems expressed in the interviews above: students' reluctance to speak in class, immaturity and the functionality of the choice of degree course. As Holliday (1994) argues, for expatriate teachers it is necessary to go beyond their actual teaching practice. They have a responsibility to learn about the host educational and social context. For teachers/lecturers taking a position in German Studies, it is crucial to understand the local policy towards FLs, curricula objectives, methodological discussions, why students decide to study German, how universities function, how German Studies differ from *Germanistik* and what difficulties the discipline faces. It is beyond doubt that in their practice, they will come to understand many of the problems. Nonetheless, prior training in GFL and combined with an insight into the host educational environment and its specificity could help them avoid many adverse reactions and disillusion and enable them to cope better with day-to-day teaching activities (Baur 2000, Krumm 1994). Even a slight opportunity to experience training prior to their appointment, on-going collaboration between lecturers and sharing of knowledge about teaching problems and strategies, and workshops to exchange ideas could be of advantage. It could promote a critical engagement with teaching and provide insights into learning; it could also challenge lecturers' perceptions and encourage them to draw conclusions appropriate to their contexts (Klapper 2003). The data above has revealed that there are numerous problems but also effective solutions. Teaching literature could be eased by the selection of texts related to students' backgrounds, the reluctance to participate verbally was overcome by group work and teaching in the target language supported by the use of English or French. Undoubtedly, there are many more problems. I also firmly believe that effective responses to these difficulties exist. The problem is that they are rarely shared and exchanged.

A possible reason for this missed opportunity is the fact that practical teaching experience and teaching strategies are not regarded as intellectual activities and are, therefore, not acknowledged (Coleman 1996). Another issue which should be stressed is the understanding of FLE and GFL. As the data above indicates, a native-competence in German is simply not enough when one is responsible for teaching the language to foreign students. One needs to understand the problems that learners have when they acquire German as a foreign language. One also needs to know the rules underlying German and how to explain them (Hinkel 2001). A good competence and understanding of the structures underlying the learners' mother tongue is necessary. Why is this so important? As Blühdorn (2000) remarks, for FL-learners the new language is baffling and perplexing. They frequently resort, consciously or unconsciously, to their L1 for help. The analysis in chapter 5 confirms this. Hinkel (2001) stresses that to make the baffling self-evident and to help students understand transfer are the biggest challenges for FL-teachers. To be able to do this, the teacher has to be familiar with the students' L1, from phonology to pragmatics, as well as with structures underlying his/her own L1. If this is not the case, then learners can feel lost, as do teachers, who do not know what their students find problematic and why (Baur 2000). At the same time, it should be noted that for native speakers, this is not an easy task. Hinkel (2001: 592) expresses it succinctly:

> "Deutschen Absolventen eines deutschen DaF- oder Germanistikstudiums fehlt aber beim Lehren ihrer eigenen Sprache und Kultur im Ausland nicht nur die Fremdperspektive [...]. Ihnen fehlt gleichzeitig die Distanz zu ihrem Studienobjekt und Lehrstoff, da sie sich selber darin befinden [...] So wie der Landschaftsingenieur den Wald verlassen und der Architekt aus dem Gebäude, dessen Fassade er beurteilen will, heraustreten muss, so ist der Berg, auf dem wir selbst stehen, für uns nicht sichtbar und unsere Sprache und Kultur uns so selbstverständlich, dass wir eher Abweichungen von ihr wahrnehmen, nicht aber die Normalität unserer Vor-Urteile, unserer Gewohnheiten und unseres Fühlens, Denkens, Glaubens und Handelns;"

Thus, professional expertise and experience should be the factor which decides whether one can work as a language teacher or not. Native speakers are undoubtedly role models in terms of language use but not necessarily in terms of language learning. But it is language learning for which they are responsible abroad. Thus, for them, it is important to develop the "Aussensicht auf das Deutsche" [= the outsider perspective on the German language] (Hinkel 2001: 587). This could be facilitated by stronger cooperation and exchanges between

native and non-native speakers/learners. However, until now, the process has always been understood as a one-way transfer of language – from the native to the non-native (Kramsch 1997).

The third aspect is the tendency to broad-brush views. Such generalisations, particularly when one teaches in a foreign context, can quickly lead to ethnocentric attitudes. Holliday (1994) stresses that they are unavoidable. However, they need to be addressed so that expatriate teachers/lecturers "can see the implications of what they are doing and therefore better solve the problem of how to be appropriate." (ibid: 167). One needs to understand the host environment and to acknowledge the power position which one holds as a lecturer. This is not to say that expatriate teachers/lecturers should accept everything that they face. However, criticism should be realistic and constructive, that is to say its purpose should be improvement within the realms of possibility. Otherwise, there is a serious danger of becoming what Holliday (ibid) defines as an over-negative partisan – an attitude certainly not of benefit for teaching. In conclusion, this chapter has demonstrated that the experience of teaching in British German Studies is turbulent and baffling for native lecturers. A good understanding of the host educational environment and the problems which learners of German as a foreign language face and a stronger exchange of teaching ideas between native and non-native speakers could potentially smooth this experience and contribute to the improvement of teaching and learning in departments of modern languages. Teachers, lecturers and lectors should be encouraged to articulate and share their ideas, the successful as well as the less successful.

7 Final Summary

The aim of this thesis was to explore the key aspects and problems of institutionalised teaching and learning of German as a foreign language in the context of German Studies in British Higher Education (HE). This was examined from the perspective of both the macro- and micro-context. The analysis of the macro-context was essential, as each learning and teaching context is always embedded in a wider socio-political and educational environment, which influences it profoundly. It determines the distribution of resources and, to a large extent, curricula aims, objectives, teaching methods and materials as applied in the micro-context. The micro-context is, above all, determined by human experiences of learning and teaching FLs. These experiences provide a powerful insight into real-life practice, problems and challenges, which a mere analysis of the macro-context would never be able to reveal. It was argued that such a double perspective could enable the researcher to gain a profound understanding of teaching and learning conditions in the context of German Studies and consequently suggest implications, which could potentially contribute to the optimisation of teaching and learning German in HE in Britain (cf. Lamb 2004). This was thought to be important due to various reasons. As chapter 1 has demonstrated, the prevalent discourse of teaching and learning, as led in FLE and in GFL, only rarely takes into account regional needs and problems. In fact, the vast majority of approaches, but innovative ones in particular, are based on research in SLA, often conducted in strictly controlled conditions and without taking into consideration the complexity and multifacetedness of teaching and learning practice. While this research has produced interesting results, in terms of practice, it only scratches the surface (Holliday 1994: 5). Furthermore, the prevalent discourse focuses predominantly on the learner and learning, while the teacher and teaching are not considered much. Indeed, there is a strong tendency to polarise the arguments. Teacher-centred, explicit instruction, namely the teachability orientation, is largely condemned, while the learnability orientation is promoted (see table 1). The latter comes into view in concepts such as learner autonomy, intercultural education and constructive didactics. Few will dispute that the aims proposed by these concepts are not laudable. Tolerance, multicultural understanding and autonomy are all commendable goals for learners. However,

accounts from scholars and practitioners working in various GFL-contexts have demonstrated that many of these aims are not achievable within the confines of institutionalised learning and teaching (Glück 1991, Steinmann 1991, Wasmuth 1991, Kramsch 1997, Rösler 1998, Harden 2000). Besides, they follow general pedagogical notions, which should be, in fact, fostered across educational institutions and not specifically in FLE, which is primarily responsible for foreign language learning and teaching (Glück 1998, Pfeiffer 2003). Lastly, there has been for some time a belief that teachers should reduce their interventions as much as possible. While it is beyond doubt that some learning takes place without explicit teaching, in the context of institutionalised FLE, teachers' feedback, guidance and instructions are extremely important (Norris & Ortega 2000, Kleppin 1998, Glück 1991, O'Neill 1991, Widdowson 1987). In short, the dominant discourse of teaching and learning has created some universal ivory-tower visions, often detached from the real conditions of institutionalised learning and teaching, which in turn has resulted in an even larger gulf between theory and practice (cf. Holliday 1994). FLE is first and foremost a practice-orientated discipline, whose aim is to provide implications for the optimisation and enhancement of teaching and learning practice (Grotjahn 1995: 457). This does not mean that theories are unimportant. However, theories in FLE should derive from real-life practice, "constrained and inspired as it is, in and by its own context" (Edge & Richards 1998: 572). As discussed in chapter 1, a shift from universal ideals to context-specific appropriate responses is needed (Kramsch 1997). It was argued that a case study presented in the broader context of socio-political and educational developments, namely the macro-context, is best suited to such context-specific exploration. The current study has attempted to provide an example of such an analysis by looking at a case of teaching and learning German in British Higher Education and examining it against the background of socio-political and educational developments which have affected the sector of modern languages in the UK, and German in particular. The situation in Britain can be seen, to an extent, as a paradigmatic example of the current position of German in English-speaking and industrialised countries, as many trends which have impacted on German at tertiary level in those countries has come into view in the UK (McGuiness-King 2003).

The investigation of the macro-context has confirmed numerous facts and assumptions about German Studies and language teaching in the UK and undermined others. By considering the most up-to date statistical data, chapter 3 has demonstrated a further decrease in German across all educational sectors. This is due to a whole host of historical, socio-political and educational factors. The most crucial are: the dominant status of English in businesses and services worldwide, the traditional dominance of French as the first foreign language, the perception of Spanish as being more useful than German, prejudices about Germany and German, and foreign language policy, according to which modern foreign languages are not a part of the compulsory curriculum at key stage 4 (Brumfit 2004b, Coleman 2004, Watts 2003, Stables & Wikeley 1999). German is indeed affected by a range of disadvantageous aspects. The key arguments to spark interest in German are a variety of career options and high employability. This situation has had a serious impact on German at tertiary level in a quantitative and qualitative sense. As a result of the expansion of the university sector post-1945, the number of departments and students of German increased. This was followed by methodological changes in approaches to German language and culture. At the beginning of the 1960s, a new type of *Germanistik*, known as German Studies, emerged which reduced the traditional literary-orientated curriculum and expanded to include new areas such as Area or Cultural Studies with a focus on the 20th century. In addition, great importance was attached to high competency in the target language and students were given the opportunity to combine German Studies with other subjects such as Law or Business Studies. This proved to be successful and throughout the 1980s the number of students grew. However, it reached its peak at the beginning of the 1990s and from this time onwards steadily declined, which was a result of a fall in demand for German at pre-university levels. This, combined with strong marketisation of the HE-sector and cuts in governmental funding, became a serious problem for many departments and in some cases led to closures. These external pressures resulted in greater competition between departments for funds and students, amalgamations of languages into larger interdisciplinary units, stronger emphasis on the RAE and research activities, and further diversification of curricula for German Studies. Indeed, as the survey of prospectuses demonstrated, it is impossible to find two similar curricula for German Studies. In fact, each

department/section has created its own profile which, according to prospectuses, consists of a blend of History, Politics, Cultural and Media Studies, normally with little Literature. This diversity has certainly brought a fresh perspective to the discipline, which was previously marked by rigid boundaries of literary research and teaching. However, the evaluation of the profiles of the departments/sections has demonstrated that there are also numerous disparities and some developments do not allow for much optimism. Firstly, there is a discrepancy between research interests pursued and the advertised objectives of curricula. In fact, literature is still the main domain of research and it is particularly cultivated in the large pre-1945 departments/sections. Approximately three out of four *Germanists* work on literary areas, as do the vast majority of PhD-students. However, undergraduate students do not show much interest in literature and thus, it is less apparent in the curriculum, or is hidden behind the headline of cultural studies (Sandford 1998). Other research areas are secondary. Linguistics and GFL in particular seem to be a peripheral phenomenon in British German Studies and this, paradoxically, in the discipline which is expected to educate linguists (cf. Lodge 2000). Secondly, the increased emphasis on research activities has downplayed the position of teaching. There is evidence to suggest that language teaching is particularly depreciated. This could be explained by the aforementioned demise of linguistic interests in departments of German and also by the fact that traditionally the field of GFL has not been seen as a part of *Auslandsgermanistik* (see 1.1.1). The RAE, which as Coleman argues (1996, 2004) downplays the role of language teaching as true research contributions, also plays a substantial role as there is, consequently, little incentive to address the area of teaching and learning German. Despite the fact that nearly all departments/sections promote their degree courses in German by assuring high or near-native competence by the end of the programme, there is very little information on how German is taught and learned in British HE and what strategies seem to work in this context. Some evidence suggests that content classes are increasingly taught in English, whilst language provision is offered in a few language classes or relocated solely to language centres. This could only further deepen the gulf between the disciplinary and the instrumental dimension of German Studies which is, as highlighted in chapter 3, only to the detriment of the discipline. Without good competency in German, students will not be able to acquire a profound understanding of German-speaking societies and their culture.

Language teaching which is detached from the discipline will only reduce this understanding to a few facts and figures. Furthermore, given the rather low initial language competencies and progress rates, which are, in the case of German, often unsatisfactory, neglecting the instrumental dimension of German Studies is not in the best interests of students, who expect a good competence in the target language from German Studies, which they presumably intend to use in their future occupations. Nor is it in the interests of employers who require language graduates to possess a good command of the target language and who are, as some research data suggests, dissatisfied with the linguistic competences emerging from education (Nuffield Language Inquiry 2000). Above all, it is the German language which sets the discipline of German Studies apart from other disciplines such as Comparative Literature, Area or English Studies. As argued in chapter 3, more emphasis on Linguistics, FLE and GFL in particular, in research and teaching could potentially strengthen the instrumental and simultaneously the disciplinary dimension of German Studies and in so doing avert the danger of elitism and the demise of the discipline. However, to-date the area of language teaching and learning has been, as Elspaß (1999) comments, the dark side of German Studies and there has been little research concerned with the practice of teaching and learning German in HE in Britain. Chapter 4, 5 and 6 have attempted to explore this practice by examining learning and teaching experiences in one context, which was a department of German Studies in a British university. This micro-context was interesting in many ways. The approach to German Studies pursued is an example of the new *Germanistik*, which emerged in the ex-technological universities at the beginning of the 1960s. A distinctive feature of the approach in the context under study is the policy of using the target language as the medium of instruction across the curriculum, which is rare in German Studies in Britain. At the same time, the approach includes traditional aspects such as explicit grammar teaching, reading and writing with the latter being the skills traditionally cultivated in academia (Kruse 2003). Besides, as chapter 4 has demonstrated, the context under study has been largely affected by the socio-political developments on the macro-level, of which the nationwide decline in demand for modern languages, and German in particular, was particularly critical. The department underwent a number of amalgamations and expanded to include new disciplines such as Spanish, English, International Relations and Sociology. This is currently

a common scenario in the UK and also in other English-speaking countries (cf. McGuiness-King 2003).

The exploration of learning experience has corroborated a number of facts about learners and the learning of German at tertiary level in Britain (Coleman 1996, Elspaß 1999). It has also revealed a number of aspects for which other studies did not account. Firstly, the learners are adult, predominantly female, who study German in combination with French and/or another subject. Motivation is rather functional, namely the choice to study German is determined by the desire to obtain an academic degree, which in turn is presumably seen as a security measure protecting the individual from low-paid employment. The fact that unemployment rates among graduates in German are very low is a key argument here. However, the current study has demonstrated that the career-factor is not the sole reason for studying German. Students' previous positive experiences of learning in schools and their desire to gain first-hand experience of the target language and culture through travelling and contact with native speakers have been mentioned. Conversely, the traditional subject matter of *Germanistik*, especially literature, is of little interest to them and this is one of the reasons why they chose their particular university. This all indicates that students have mixed motivational reasons and are not solely concerned with the job market, as commonly assumed (cf. Evans 1988, Claussen 2004). Although they put career options at the forefront, it was argued that this may be a sign of taking responsibility for their own future and a longing for security, which is very difficult to attain in our modern increasingly globalised world. The current study has also confirmed that the process of learning German is marked by ambiguity as it is a source of enjoyment but simultaneously frustration. Difficulties result from the fact that German is, for the vast majority, the second foreign language and its grammar is perceived as highly complex. Further problems emerge from the gap between 'A' level and the first year of university study. In contrast to 'A' level, students are suddenly required to participate in large lectures, to read complex texts and to write assessments in the target language. Many are linguistically not prepared to tackle these challenges and struggle when writing even simple stories. Besides, many fundamental aspects of German grammar are not consolidated, which may be a further reason for writing and reading difficulties. One indication in support of the link between grammar and writing is the fact that students who

achieve better scores in grammar tend to write better texts, as the analysis of grammar texts and students' written stories has demonstrated. A related problem are the huge discrepancies in initial linguistic competence between individual students. Despite the difficulties, there are also numerous strengths which students bring with them to the classroom. They have well-developed listening comprehension ability, and a positive attitude towards both learning grammar and teacher correction. They enjoy working in groups and pairs and like giving oral presentations. This, in turn, seems to raise their confidence, which they lack at the beginning of their university study. A particularly important finding, which emerges from this research, is that students generally tend to rely on teacher instruction, teaching methods and materials provided by the teacher. Conversely, self-taught autonomous learning was a cause of disorientation and resulted in a lack of motivation because it was not timetabled or closely monitored. This leads us to the other dimension, namely the teaching perspective. The interviews with five lecturers of German demonstrated a whole host of issues related to teaching in the given context. It also provided an additional perspective on the learning dimension. Four of the interviewed lecturers were native speakers and one was a non-native speaker of German. Investigation into the teaching experience of native speakers was thought to be particularly interesting as they carry out the bulk of language teaching in British German Studies (see 3.3.6) and this is often seen as a guarantee of high quality teaching (Coleman 1996). The data has shown that teaching experience can be turbulent and baffling for native speaker lecturers, which is due to the fact that they have had little or no exposure to German Studies and interpreted the host educational environment through the lens of their socialisation in the German educational system. This led them to assume that German Studies and British students are similar to *Germanistik* and to German students which, in turn, resulted in disillusion, clashes, some rather negative perceptions and even a tendency to broad-brush views. Frequently, the British students were seen as shy and immature. What frustrated them in particular was students' reluctance to voice their opinions in class. Research suggests that language teachers have a tendency to value oral activity very highly and its lack is often interpreted as disinterest on the part of learners (Appel 2001). However, in the case of language students, deficits in language competence and psychological burdens cause them to remain silent. Besides, the formality of the language

classroom and asymmetrical power relations within have a substantial impact on student and teacher behaviour. Cultural differences may play a role but they should not be overestimated (Holliday 1997, Zhou et al. 2005). The interviews with the lecturers also demonstrated that the native-speakers and the one non-native had different attitudes. The non-native lecturer seemed to place a strong emphasis on explicit teaching, highlighted the importance of grammar and a good knowledge of students' L1. To a large extent, non-native teachers have a better understanding of students' problems because they themselves went through similar processes. This does not necessarily make them better teachers, as they need to possess an excellent command of the target language and should know how to teach it. The same is important for native speakers, whose linguistic competence is not enough to qualify them to be a language teacher. They need a good understanding of the structures underlying their mother tongue as well as an excellent command of their students' L1. Furthermore, they should take responsibility for learning about their host environment and its social context. It was argued that more exchanges of teaching ideas and teaching problems between native and non-native lecturers could smooth the experience of the native lecturers and contribute to the optimisation of teaching and learning in departments of German.

As discussed in chapter 1, appropriate teaching methodologies should be responsive to problems as they occur in a given learning and teaching practice. It should exploit emerging strengths and compensate for weaknesses with the aim of optimising and possibly enhancing teaching and learning. Given the key characteristics of the surveyed student group and the institutional requirements of the academic context of German Studies, it seems that language provision in the first year of university study in particular should be combined more strongly with academic literacy, namely advanced text-based work combining reading and writing with explicit teaching of grammar. This is important for various reasons. Firstly, students have huge deficits in these areas. Secondly, a focus on grammar work in the first two years of university study results in greater benefits when abroad. Fourthly, employers are dissatisfied with the lack of language accuracy emerging from education (Nuffield Language Inquiry 2000). Finally, German has a complex morpho-syntax, of which students have to be made aware if they want to speak the language fluently and appropriately. This is particularly important in

the case of learners whose L1 is English. As the analysis of students' writing demonstrated, students do not seem to pay much attention to relationships between words and sentences. Due to the structural and semantic similarity of English and German, erroneous sentences can be comprehended (Wend 1998). However, the danger is that if incorrect forms and structures are not corrected because they can be understood, they can quickly become fossilised and fossilisations are rarely repaired (Apeltauer 1997). The emphasis on academic literacy does not suggest that speaking activities should be disregarded. Oral communication is important and this is what students particularly want. Within the academic framework, there are numerous possibilities for speaking activities. It is, however, crucial to bear in mind that communicative 'dialogues at the greengrocer's' or the intercultural stereotypical conversations around the line: this is the way we do things in Germany, so how is this done in your country? (Steinmann 1991) are not necessarily beneficial in an academic context. More important would be to integrate the content of German Studies with oral activities, for example through discussions about certain aspects of German-speaking countries, oral presentations or project-work carried out in the target language. In fact, one of the most important findings which has emerged from the current study, is that students do not have any problems understanding subject matter being taught in German. Thus, there is a strong argument for 'enlightened' teaching in the target language, namely German should be used as the medium of instruction and English - on pedagogical grounds - when teaching efficacy and comprehension are jeopardised. This meets students' expectations and increases their confidence and linguistic input, which is very limited in the context of German Studies. This is also welcomed by the lecturers, who frequently use English as a comprehension aid. Not only English but also French could be treated as additional resources to ease the understanding of grammar, for example.

The analysis of the micro-context against the background of socio-political and economic developments at the macro-level has demonstrated that teaching and learning German language in British HE is, these days, constrained by many problems, to which the innovative approaches, as discussed in chapter 1, do not seem to respond adequately. They offer desirable visions and it is certainly a commendable aim to educate young people who are tolerant, culturally sensitive, autonomous and have deep interests in German literature. However, practitioners

should not be disappointed if these aims do not come true and given the reality of GFL-contexts, this possibility is fairly high (Glück 1991, Harden 2000). Instead of setting unattainable expectations, it is more important to look at practice of teaching and learning as it takes place in real-life situations and to try to understand how it is constrained by its own context and then to propose didactical implications which are within the realm of possibilities in the given macro- and micro-conditions.

The limitation of the current study is that it is based on an exploration of one case, namely one group of students and lecturers, in one department of German in the UK. This case has been presented against the background of the developments which have affected German Studies in the UK in the last few decades, which was the macro-context. Many problems and issues revealed at the micro-level are a continuation of the macro-constraints and are also echoed in other studies (Coleman 1996, Elspaß 1999). Nonetheless, investigations into comparable cases including other years of study are needed in order to see what other problems and challenges students and university teachers face and what teaching solutions could be suggested. In addition, the didactical implications proposed here are combined with the academic demands of language studies. While they may be of benefit for tackling the academic challenges of language studies, it is important to bear in mind that they may not be fully appropriate for the needs of students beyond university, namely in future professions. If foreign language education understands itself as a discipline at the service of individuals and society, then, alongside academic literacy, it should be also concerned with the preparation of students for their future careers, particularly with reference to language competence. This is why more research into the use of the target language beyond graduation is needed. It seems imperative to explore to what extent, in what situations and which skills students use in particular and which skills they lack. This would provide invaluable data for further optimisation of language programmes, which in turn could gear them better towards societal and individual demands. Finally it is crucial to realise that research projects and practical implications derived from them may resonate little if departments of German do not recognise GFL as an academic field in its own right and professional expertise in language teaching as critical. A change of 'climate' is needed, which acknowledges that language is the core of the discipline and teaching German to

high standards, by expert-teachers, one of its main tasks. Above all, more support and initiative is needed on the part of educational decision-makers. Without an increase in the provision of resources for teaching modern languages at tertiary level, the enhancement of language learning will not be achieved. This thesis hopes to provoke all stakeholders to rethink the roles and responsibilities played by each party in the process of language learning and teaching.

8 References

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9 Appendices

Appendix 1: Institutions and organisations[83]

The National Centre for Languages, CILT <http://www.cilt.org.uk/> previously the Centre on Information of Language Teaching, is an independent trust established in 1966 with the aim of collecting and disseminating information on all aspects of teaching and learning of modern languages in the UK.

The Association for Language Learning, ALL <http://www.all-languages.org.uk/> is an association of teachers of foreign languages in the UK.

The University Council of Modern Languages, UCML <http://www.ucml.org.uk/> is an organisation which is concerned with issues related to modern languages, linguistics, cultural and area studies in Higher Education throughout the UK.

The Nuffield Foundation <http://www.nuffield.org/home/> is a charity, founded in 1943. In 1998 – 2000, the Nuffield Languages Inquiry came into being in order to evaluate the current state of modern languages in the UK.

Subject Centre for Languages Linguistics and Area Studies, LLAS http://www.lang.ltsn.ac.uk/index.aspx is an organisation, which supports teaching and learning languages, linguistics and area studies in Higher Education in the UK.

The Conference of University Teachers of German in Great Britain and Ireland, CUTG <http://www.cutg.ac.uk/> is an organisation established in 1932 with the aim of promoting research in German Studies and discussing issues penetrating the discipline.

Women in German Studies, WiGS <http://www.wigs.ac.uk/> is an organisation established in 1988. Its aim is to bring together and to support female university teachers of German in the UK in all aspects of their professional life.

The Higher Education Funding Council for England, HEFCE <http://www.hefce.ac.uk/> is responsible for the distribution of public money to universities and colleges of Higher Education in England.

Department for Education and Skills, DfES <http://www.dfes.gov.uk> is a governmental body responsible for educational policies and matters at all levels.

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[83] This appendix includes only these institutions and organisations, whose reports were consulted for this research.

Appendix 2: Student questionnaire I

1. Gender:
2. Age:
3. Course:
4. What languages were spoken in your home by your
parents?..
5. What was the first foreign language you learned? If German was your first foreign
language go to question 7 ....
6. When did you start learning your first foreign language?

....

7. When did you start to learn German?

....

QB. Exposure to the target culture

1. Do you have any contacts outside of the classroom to native speakers of the German
language?

very often	regular	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. How often have you visited Germany or any other German-speaking country?

very often	regular	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. What was the purpose of visiting Germany or any other German-speaking countries?

sightseeing	visiting friends	visiting families	working
☐	☐	☐	☐

learningGerman	school exchange
☐	☐

others, please specify..

QC. 'A' level Education

1. What type of secondary school did you attend (grammar school, comprehensive school,
public school, state sixth-form school, others)?

....
2. How many hours (weekly) were spent on learning German?.................................

3. To what extent were the following skills practised in the classroom?

Reading

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Writing

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Speaking,

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Listening

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Translations

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Grammar

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

To what extent were the following activities practised in the classroom?

Working in pairs

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Group work

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Oral presentations

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Individual work

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Role plays

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

What sort of material was used in the classroom?

Text books

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Authentic texts (e.g. press articles)

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Audio material

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Visual material

every lesson	once a week	occasionally	very rarely	never
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Was your teacher a native speaker of German?

Yes	No
☐	☐

5. How would you describe the use of English in the classroom?

extremely low	low	fair	high	extremely high
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. What did you mostly like about your German classes at A-level?

7. What did you dislike?

8. What grade did you score in
German?..

9. What other subjects did you choose for your A- level?
....

QD. Motivation
I study German at university because....

1. It increases my carrier possibilities
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. I want to meet and to communicate with native speakers of German
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. I want to get an academic degree
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. I want to live and work in German speaking countries
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. I want to travel in German speaking countries
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. I want to get familiar with every day life of speakers of German
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. I am interested in German language and linguistics
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. I am interested in German literature
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. I am interested in German history
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. I want to understand aspects of contemporary German society and politics
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. German language is the language of German business and therefore very useful
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

others, please specify..

QE. Beliefs and attitudes about learning foreign languages

1. The best way to learn a foreign language is in the target country, where the language is spoken
strongly agree	agree	neutral disagree		strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning and practising grammar
strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. Teacher 's personality as a motivational factor is very important

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Some people have a special ability for learning a foreign language

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. It is necessary to learn about the target culture, history etc.

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Learning a foreign language involves a lot of repeating and memorising of vocabulary

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Good teaching method enables individuals to achieve success in learning foreign languages

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. The most important part of learning a foreign language is speaking as much as possible

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Parental pressure increases motivation

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. Everyone can achieve high proficiency in a foreign language

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. To achieve high proficiency in a foreign language one must read and write a lot

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. Peer pressure increases motivation

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Considering your experience, learning German

15. involves systematic and hard work

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. is frustrating

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. is confusing

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. is difficult

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19. is interesting

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

20. is enjoyable

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. I feel confident while speaking German in front of the class

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

22. I feel confident while asking questions in German

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

23. I feel embarrassed while making errors in German

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

24. I feel comfortable while working in small groups and pairs

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25. I always compare myself with the others in the classroom

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

26. Even if I know the answer I am afraid of speaking it out

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

27. I believe I will achieve high proficiency in German

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

QF. Difficulties at university

1. Understanding grammar rules

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Applying grammar rules while writing

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. Applying grammar rules while speaking

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Reading complex non-literary texts

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. Reading literary texts

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Writing in German

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. Using German when discussing texts

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Answering in German

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. Doing oral presentation

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Expressing your own ideas in German

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. Understanding news and reports on TV

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. Understanding lecturers speaking in German

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. Understanding content of the classes and lectures

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. Coping with the amount of work set

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15. Organising your work

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. Keeping up with the others in the group

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. Coping with new learning environment

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. Coping with new environment outside the university (new town, new mates, new accommodation)

extremely easy	easy	fair	difficult	extremely difficult
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

other please specify...

...........................Thank you very much for your cooperation................

Appendix 3: Student questionnaire II

1.   Gender:
2.   Age:
3.   Course:

QB.   Assumptions about learning

1. Learning is a process of direct instructions; it consists of receiving and acquiring a body of knowledge

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

2. Learning is a process in which knowledge is constructed by learners

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

3. Language learning is a process best fostered by negotiation, discussion and other forms of social interaction

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

4. Learning is best fostered by a rich and authentic environment

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

5. The lecturer is a resource person who provides learners with knowledge

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

6. The lecturer has knowledge; the student does not have

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

7. Formal learning (e.g. Higher Education) should provide students first of all with factual, theoretical knowledge

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

8. Learning consists of developing practical knowledge (know- how, problem solving tasks)

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

9. While learning in a formal setting, it is important to have an opportunity to apply formal knowledge in practical situation

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

10. Students should decide about contents and activities performed in the classroom

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

QC. The role of the lecturer

The role of the lecturer is to:

1. Tell me what and how to do e.g. particular tasks

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

2. Say what my difficulties are

strongly agree   agree   neutral   disagree   strongly disagree
    ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

3. Create opportunities for me to practice

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Set my learning goals

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. Give me regular tests

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Provide feedback

strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. What attributes characterise a good lecturer?

QD. Motivation
1. Why did you decide to study German language and culture at this university?

QE. Considering the content classes (e.g. Landeskunde) you attended in the first year of your studies
1. Which was the most difficult class? Why?

2. What activities and materials used in the classroom facilitated best your learning?

3. How did you deal with and remember the content passed on to you in German?

4. What do you think was most valuable for you?

5. What changes would you like to see in the content classes?

QF. Considering the grammar lecture
1. Do you think it is important to learn grammar? Why/ why not?

2. To what extent was this lecture valuable for you?

3. How did you deal with and remember the grammar contents?

4. What activities do you think contributed best to acquiring new grammatical knowledge?

5. Were grammar tests useful for you? Why/ why not?

6. How could you have improved better your grammar?

7. What changes would you like to see in the grammar lecture?

QG. Considering AVC

1. To what extent was the course valuable for you?

2. How did you organise your AVC sessions (when and how often)?

3. How did you deal with the AVC contents?

4. Was the fact that you had to organise and monitor your own learning beneficial or disadvantageous for you? Why?

5. What changes would you like to see in the AVC?

QH. Considering Communication Skills

1. What activities contributed most to your improvement in German?

2. What materials were most useful for you?

3. How could you have improved better your communication skills?

4. What changes would you like to see?

..........................*Thank you very much for your cooperation*..............

Appendix 4: Results obtained from questionnaire I

Appendix 4.1. QA. General background:

1. Gender:
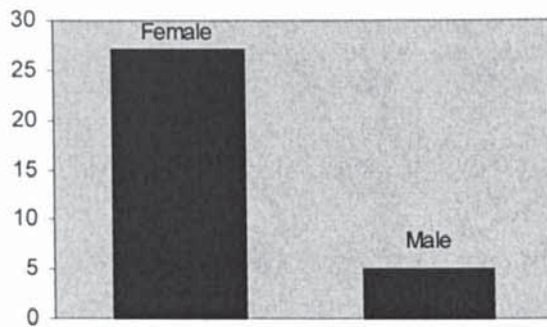
2. Age:
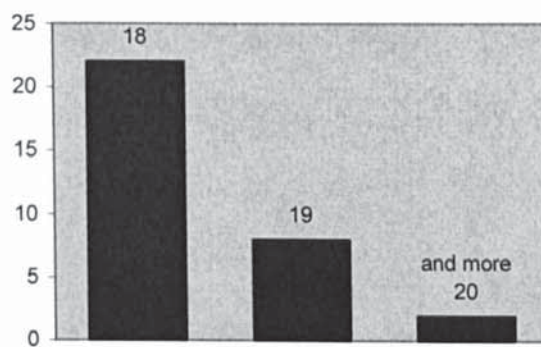
3. Course:
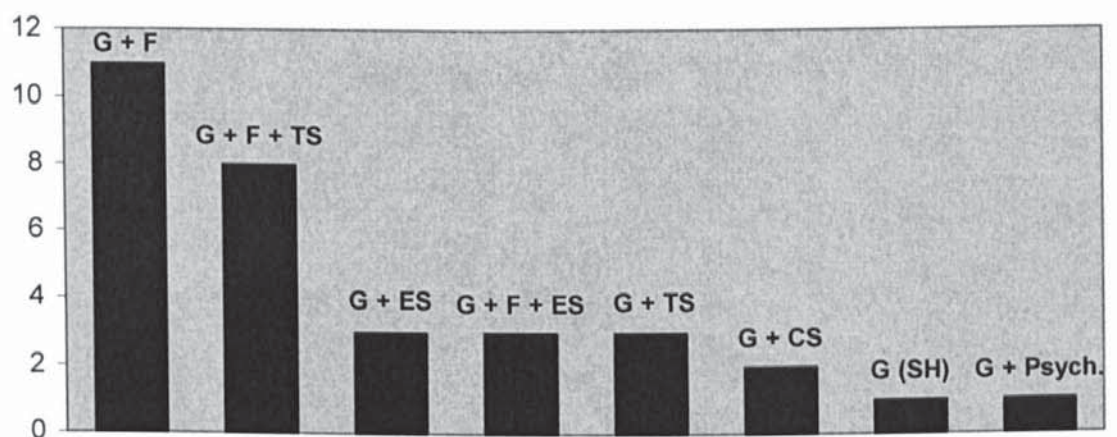
G – German, **F** – French, **TS** – Translation Studies, **ES** – European Studies,
CS – Computer Sciences, **SH** – Single Honours, **Psych**. – Psychology

4. What languages were spoken in your home by your parents?
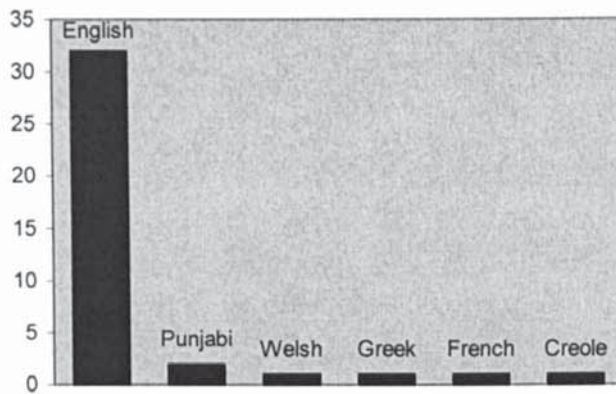
5. What was the first foreign language you learned?
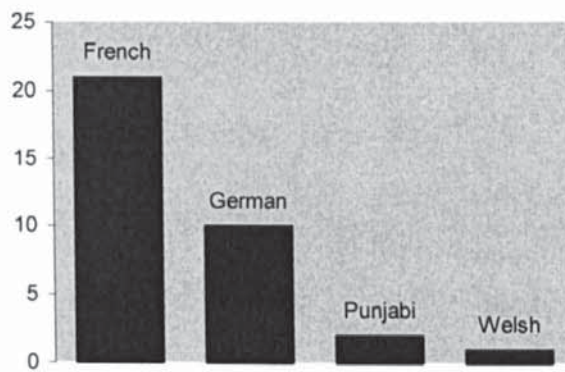
6. When did you start learning your first foreign language?
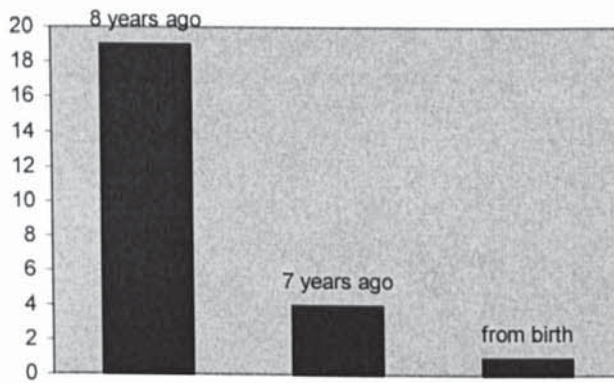
7. When did you start learning German?
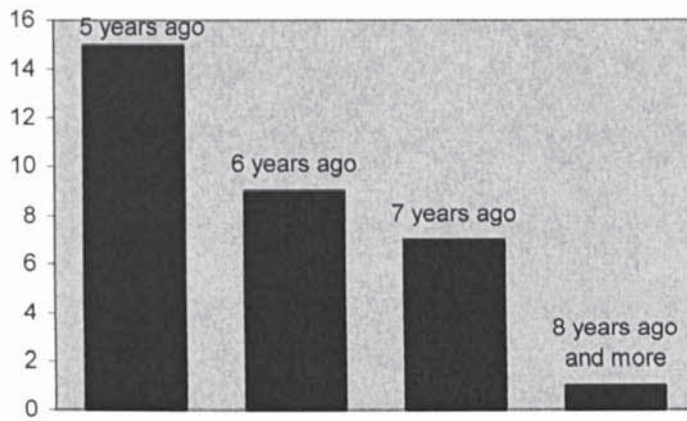
Appendix 4.2: QB Exposure to the target language and culture

1. Do you have any contacts outside of the classroom to native speakers of the German language?
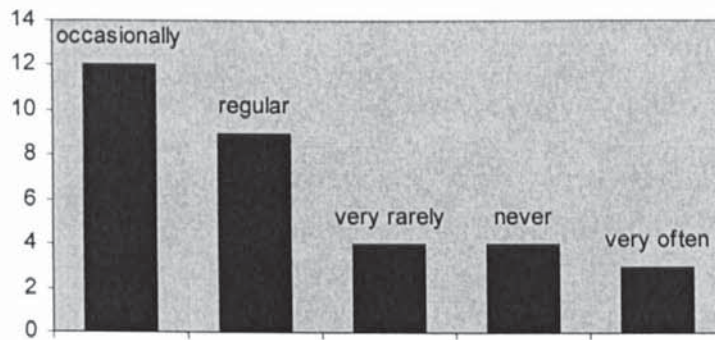
2. How often have you visited Germany or any other German speaking country?
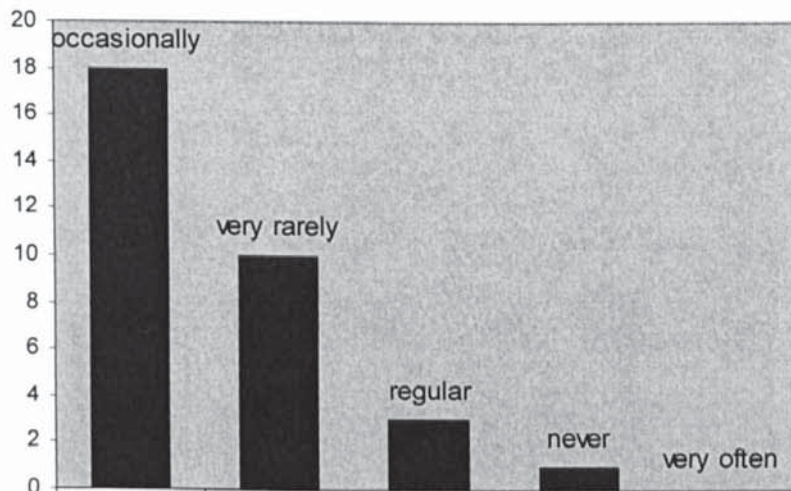
3. What was the purpose of visiting Germany or any other German-speaking country?
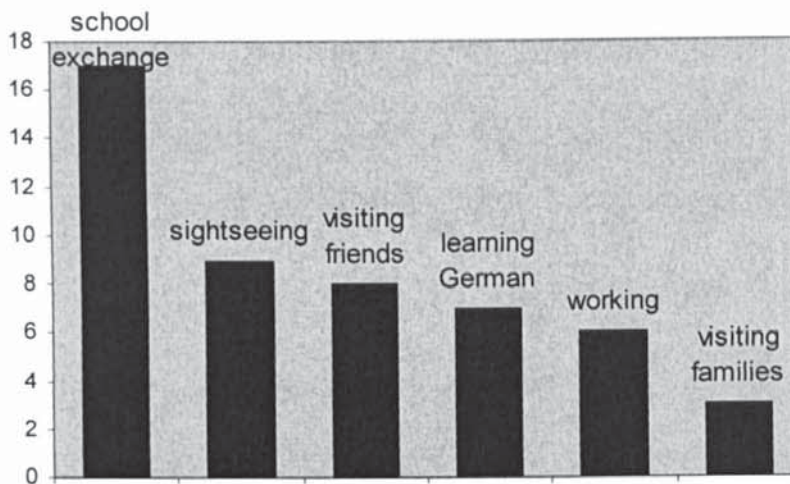
Appendix 4.3: QC 'A'-level Education

1. What type of secondary school did you attend (grammar school, comprehensive school, public school, state sixth-form school, others)?
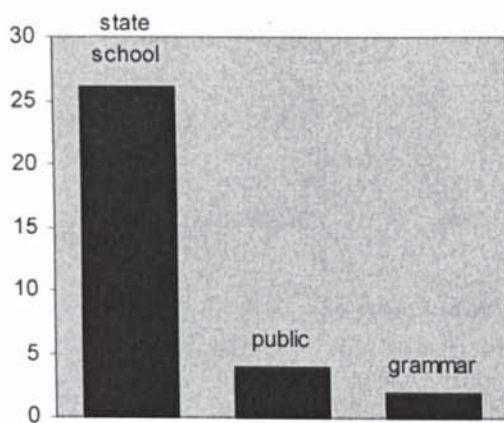
2. How many hours (weekly) were spent on learning German?
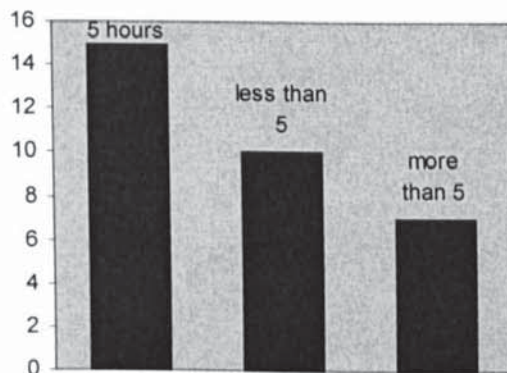
4. Was your teacher a native speaker of German?
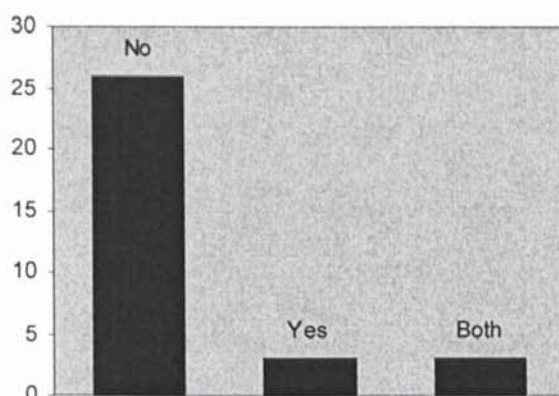
5. What did you mostly like about your German classes at A-level?

References to	Responses (in brackets the number of the same or similar answers)
Small size	"small class" (5x) "it was small so there was a good level of student-teacher time each lesson" (5x) "small classes, lots of one to one work" "it was intensive, there were only 3 of us"
Teacher	"good teacher" "teacher's help and attention" "our teacher was encouraging and helpful"
Materials and Skills	"writing" (2x) "using and speaking about authentic texts" (2x) "translating" "reading" "revising and learning grammar" (x3) "watching German videos"
Topics and content	"the interesting topics we studied" "variety of topics" "learning about German culture" (4x) "literature" (2x)
Activities	"lots of communication" "group work" "oral work"
Other	"very relaxed (almost too relaxed)" "to talk a lot about our personal experience" "learning was made to be fun"

7. What did you dislike?

References to	Responses (in brackets the number of the same or similar answers)
Grammar	"grammar lessons were very difficult and taught at a fast pace" "did not practice enough grammar" "grammar was difficult" (5x)
Materials and Skills	"we had a lot of vocabulary sheets to learn" "there was too much reading" "we did not do much listening and video watching" "listening" (3x)

	"I hated textbook work, because it was so boring"
	"Presentations" (2x)
	"literature" (2x)
Teacher	"Teacher was lax"
	"Teacher did not speak German"
	"My teacher was not particular helpful"
	"teacher used a lot of English"
Activities	"more work due to small group"
	"translation"
Others	"the class mates because they were unsociable and kept to their owns"
	"the class was too big, so big that I got no individual help"
	"lessons too long"
	"difficulties in the transfer from GSCE" (3x)
	"not enough hours"

8. What grade did you score in German?
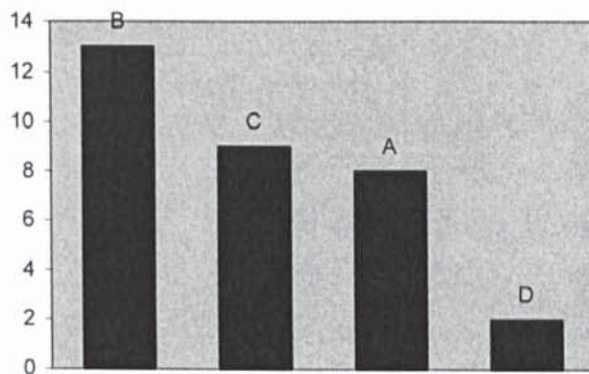
9. What other subjects did you choose for your A- level?
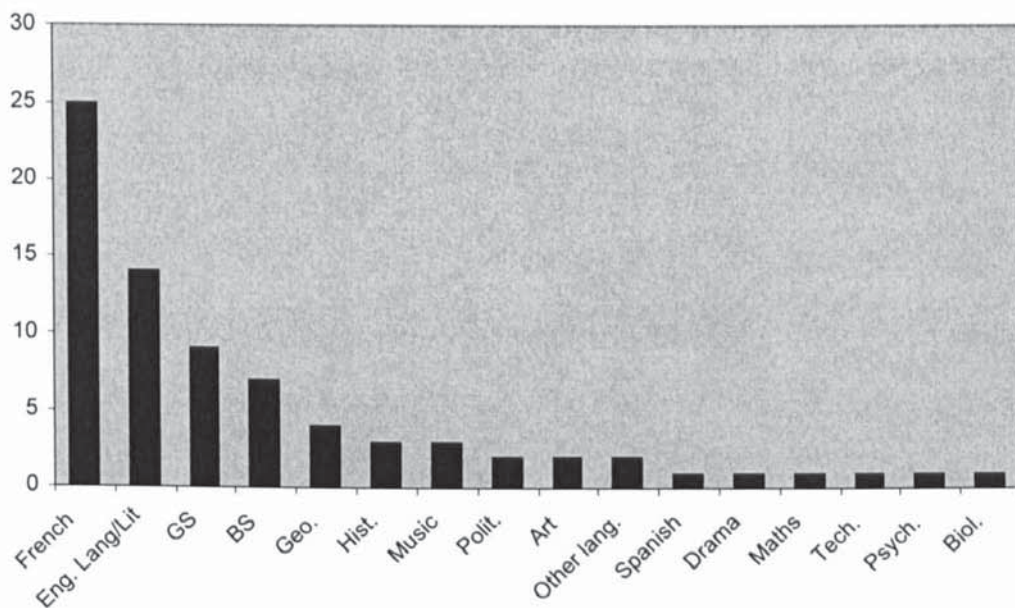
Appendix 5: Results obtained from questionnaire II

Appendix 5.1. QD. Motivation

1. Why did you decide to study German language and culture at this university?

References to	Responses
Positive experience at 'GCSE' and 'A' level	"I became interested at GCSE-level and decided to carry it on" "That's is a good questions. I had a very enthusiastic German tutor at GCSE and A-level" "I enjoyed studying languages at school and wanted to continue" "I have always been interested in both the German language and culture since I started to learn it at secondary school" "Because I enjoyed it at A-level" "German was one of my stronger subjects at GCSE and A-level" "German was my best subject a A-level and I enjoy it" "A-level results were better than I had expected for the subject" "After sitting French, German and English at A-level it seemed like the right choice"
Career	"After my degree I hope to work in Germany" "I thought the course would be interesting and would be a good subject to learn for future career prospects" "It will help me in the future when finding a job" "I want to work in Germany in the IT- field" "Because I would like to use German in my career after university" "Good career opportunities" "thought it would be useful to carry on at university level (job prospects etc.)" "To further my career options"
General interest in foreign languages and countries	"I like learning languages; I am interested in other countries, cultures and travelling abroad" "Interested in languages" "I like travelling abroad and learning languages" "I have always enjoyed learning foreign languages therefore want to further my knowledge of them and also to learn about countries/ cultures where they are spoken" "I have always been interested in learning languages"
Particular interest in the target language, country, contemporary affairs	"I wanted to study German language and culture because it had interested me since a child" "I chose to study German because I have always enjoyed languages and wanted to carry on, to study more about the history, culture and contemporary society in Germany today" "Wanted to study German because I find it enjoyable" "Because I love German and enjoy the challenge"

Reputation of the University and its German programme	"I wanted to study it at [*this university*] because it is the best place in the country to do so and [*this university*] has a very high graduate employment rate"
	"The University has a very good reputation, I feel privileged to study here and I found the course best suited me out of all the other universities I looked at"
	"and [*this university*] has a good reputation for languages"
	"Because I wanted a course that was based more on language and culture than literature"
	"Because I wanted to study Translations Studies and there are few universities"
	"I chose [*this university*] because it has emphasis on culture and modern day issues rather than medieval history and literature"
	"The course appealed to me because it seemed very practical, rather than a purely academic degree at Oxford, for example. I want to work in business in the 3rd year placement and [*this university*] fully supports this. The modules in this German course also seemed varied and modern"
	"This course was one, which seemed most interesting"
Other	"[*this university*] is close to my home"
	"I thought that it would give me a broad base of knowledge which I could take with me into "real world""
	"Plus the fact I hated French although I was better at it"
	"Because I have been studying German since I was 11 and spent 6 months living and working in Germany"
	"It was one of my A-levels"
	"Good open days"

Appendix 5.2. QE. Considering the content classes (e.g. Landeskunde) you attended in the first year of your studies

1. Which was the most difficult class? Why?

References to	Reasons
Landeskunde (10x)	"Landeskunde- Austrian accent hard to understand -in such a large classroom hard to concentrate"
	"Landeskunde- too much information to learn in a given time"
	"Landeskunde- not much previous knowledge"
	"Probably Landeskunde because of the size of the class and also because it was unclear at the beginning what the class encompassed"
	"Landeskunde- large class size for the room. I was also unaware at the beginning of the year that we had to do this"
	"Landeskunde because I did not know much about it"
German History (13x)	"German history- so much to learn, so little time"
	"German history, the essay was very difficult"
	"German history as I had no previous knowledge of this subject"
	"German history. It was a new subject to me"
	"German history because I did not know much about it"
	"German History- Lecturer incomprehensible"
	"German History Lecture. The lecture was difficult to understand because was jammed into one- hour"
	"Grammar lecture, too many people. It would be a good idea to split the class in half"
	"German history, because I had no background from A-level"

	"German history, in the first term was difficult as I did not now much about German history and was being taught purely in very quickly spoken German"
Introduction to Linguistics (2x)	"Linguistics lessons- we don't get taught that much at A-level- it is a massive jump" "Intro to linguistics- found it complicated"

2. What activities and materials used in the classroom facilitated best your learning?

References to	The number of nominations
OHPs	14
Handouts	9
Group work	4
Videos	3
Giving presentations	3
Notes on intranet	2

3. How did you deal with and remember the content passed on to you in German?

References to	The number of nominations
Note taking	22
Handouts/ Lecturer's notes	7
Vocabulary Lists	5
Additional Reading	3

4. What do you think was most valuable for you?

References to	The number of nominations
Note taking	22
Handouts/ Lecturer's notes	7
Vocabulary Lists	5
Additional Reading	3

Appendix 5.3.QF. Considering the grammar lecture

1. Do you think it is important to learn grammar? Why/ why not?

References to	Responses
Basis of foreign language learning	"without grammar you cannot speak a language" "basic/ fundamental part of learning a language" "you cannot learn a language without knowing the basic grammar of a sentence" "because it is basis of a language" "fundamental for learning a language" "cannot progress past basic German grammar" "it is a major part of learning German"
crucial for writing/ speaking	"helps with all skills" "imperative for language skills" "it improves all aspects of the language learning e.g. speaking, reading, listening and writing" "In everyday life when one has to write letters, give presentations or simply talk to a native in German without grammar you would be

	nowhere" "it helps improve written skills" "otherwise the language makes no sense. A lot of points are lost in essays, just for grammatical errors and it is a waste" "I do not see how you can write anything in German and be understood without a reasonable knowledge of grammar"
crucial for overall proficiency	"it helps in the whole language learning process" "help with general knowledge of the language" "as grammar is in every aspect of learning a language" "Yes, because then the language you use makes more sense and it is more accurate" "to be able to be good at a language one must know the grammar" "Very important in order to speak and to know the language properly and manipulate the language" "to understand properly how the language works" "grammar is needed for proficiency in a language to be achieved"

2. To what extent was this lecture valuable for you?

References	Comments
positive responses (25x)	"Good – basic knowledge" "Very valuable, clearly explained helped to improve my grammar" "I did find it valuable, however would be better of the class was smaller" "Good because my grammar needed improving but would have been better in smaller groups with explanations in English sometimes" "BUT HARD!!!" "The grammar lectures helped me a great deal" "I understand German grammar a lot better now in most areas" "It helped understanding, which was useful for other aspects of the course" "Very valuable, I was able to go over previous learnt skills and learn new ones" "I learned more technical grammar skills than from my A level" "Most of the time it was quite valuable" "Very good, but still cant not get the gist" "I found grammar the hardest so it was good that we had 1 hour a week dedicated to grammar" "It was useful in reinforcing grammar techniques"
neutral/ negative responses	"It was OK" "Reasonable valuable" "Some stuff was repeated from A-level"

3. How did you deal with and remember the grammar contents?

References	The number of nominations
Note taking/ reading them	14
Doing exercises/ homework	11
Working with different grammar books	9
Attending additional grammar session	2

Put into practice in essays	1

4. What activities do you think contributed best to acquiring new grammatical knowledge?

References to	Responses
Exercises in the lecture/ Homework	"Exercise and practice" "Practice" "Practising and exercises"(5x) "Grammar exercises" "Practical exercises during lectures" "Doing the grammar exercises in the set book" "Homework" "Exercises in class and homework" (2x) "Going over exercises in class together" "Exercises form the text book and software on the computer" "Exercises checked in the lecture and problems explained and corrected" "Activities done in the class, when the lecturer is there to help if needed" "Having to do exercises in case you get picked on to answer in lectures" "Regular homework" "Doing the grammar exercises gave us the chance to practice the things we had learnt" "Doing exercises, because then you know if you understand the content"
Others	"OHPs, explanations in German" "Group work – knowledge was checked and reassured me" "Probably the grammar test, as the exercises in the book were to easy compared to the grammar tests" "Continuous repetition"

5. Were grammar tests useful for you? Why/ why not?

References to	Responses
Realising weaknesses/ monitoring progress	"it showed my weaknesses and what I needed to learn more" "Because, you know how you were doing, how much you understood" "to see any progress" "to find out how I am really doing" "they showed me how well I understood the grammar rules from the previous 6 weeks" "they showed that I still have a lot to learn2 "to monitor progress" "gave a good feedback on my skills" "to see what I was not good at and what I was OK at" "showed what areas I still needed to work at" "showed me how much I understood and what I needed to improve on" "showed me what I knew, made sure that I learnt what had been done in class" "show me where weakness were and how well I had learnt each

	topic"
	"taught me to pull my socks up"
Revision	"they forced me to learn/ revise the content of the class"
	"they encouraged me to revise grammar"
	"forced to revise"
	"reinforced knowledge"
	"made me go over work more frequently"
	"because they motivated me to learn the new grammar points covered in the lecture"
	"revision was helpful"
Other	"Suppose so"
	"Not always- my grammar is better in essays"

6. How could you have improved better your grammar?

References to	The number of nominations
More exercises/ practice/ homework	13
Attending additional grammar session	5
Practising more on computer/ Internet	3
Continuous repetition	1
Talked with natives	1
By reading more authentic texts	1
Smaller class	1

7. What changes would you like to see in the grammar lecture?

References to	The number of nominations
Smaller class	8
More individual help	4
None	4
More explanations in English	1

Appendix 5.4. QG. Considering AVC

1. To what extent was the course valuable for you?

References	Comments
positive responses	"Very valuable" (2x)
	"Helpful with comprehension skills"
	"Definitely made my listening better"
	"Useful since it encouraged us to watch real German resources, helped listening comprehension"
	"Very because they were about current affairs in Germany, very interesting and informative"
	"It helped me improve speaking and listening skills"
	"It helped my German listening and comprehension skills"

	"Good comprehension, valuable because it is real German TV"
neutral/ negative responses	"Not very valuable- only some topics interested me" "Not" "Not at all" "Quite" (4x) "A little" "To be honest, I have been a bit lax with AVC this year. I find it hard so tend to accidentally on purpose forget to do it" "Not very, I did not have time to go every week" "Not very- did not do enough of it" (2x)

2. How did you organise your AVC sessions (when and how often)?

References	The number of nominations
Once a week	14
Every 2 weeks	3
Not regularly	10

3. How did you deal with the AVC contents?

References	Comments
Use of other mediums such as dictionaries, internet, background info	"With the help of a dictionary" "With the use of other mediums, i.e. dictionary, internet" "I used a dictionary and checked my answers on the Intranet" "looked up unknown word in the dictionary" "Checked the meaning of things I did not understand and occasionally looked at articles" "Anything that I did not understand I tried to get more background info" "Tried to do it often and re-read my answers when I had finished, using the answers off the Internet" "I used answers on internet" "Wrote notes on it, then answered the questions, then checked the answers on the Intranet" "For the areas I did, I wrote vocabulary down I did not understood"
relistening, re watching	"Watched the video several times and paused it after important sections" "Rewatching of parts of the video If I did not understand it" "I listened carefully" "Listened all the way through once and then scanned out the material I needed to answer the questions" "listened through once and then again trying to answer the questions"

4. Was the fact that you had to organise and monitor your own learning beneficial or disadvantageous for you? Why?

References	Comments
Advantageous	"Yes, beneficial made me learn more independently" "Beneficial in a way because I could fit it in when I liked but sometimes I forgot and would have to do 2 or 3 in one week" "Yes- got to do it when I had time to spend on it" "Beneficial because it made me more organised"

	"I am quite organised so it was OK but sometimes It was hard to remember and perhaps would be better if you handed answers in to be marked. Would encourage people to do it properly " "Beneficial, helped with my planning and organisation skills"
Disadvantageous	"Disadvantageous as I found it quite easy to forget to do" "Disadvantageous because I was sometimes to busy to do the exercises so I was left with several to do in one week" "A bit disadvantageous as no one is pushing you to go" "I found it hard to keep up with AVC because it is not written into the timetable" "Disadvantageous- because it was harder to go and do it when it was not actually on your time table" "Disadvantageous, I am lazy" "Disadvantageous- I was a bit lazy at the start of the term, and needed more motivation to do the AVC videos" "A little disadvantageous I sometimes forgot of could not be bothered" "No- structure is always better especially if managing time is a problem" "Disadvantageous; it would be easier if we had to do it by groups, it would motivate more" "Disadvantageous" (3x) "if it was a timetabled class I would have taken it more seriously and done it more often" "Disadvantageous I need more motivation" "cannot always motivate myself" "Motivation was hard, had to force myself to go" "Disadvantageous- did not do it often and videos were not always available when I had time free" "Probably more disadvantageous because I sometimes lacked motivation" "Disadvantageous because I found it hard to get around to doing it" "it was difficult, it would be easier if we had to do it by groups, it would motivate more" "I found it difficult to organise myself and did not do all of the exercises"

5. What changes would you like to see in the AVC?

References	Comments
Timetable/groups	"Structured time" "Should be compulsory, timetabled in every week" "It should be a class" "A set time each week where it has to be done" "Put it in timetable" "Timetable class" "It would be easier if we had to do it by groups, it would motivate more" "It should be timetabled" "Make a compulsory lesson- then more people would do it" "Maybe more integrate into the language classes to force people to do it" "I felt, it should be put on the timetable"

	"Maybe timetabled in or made more compulsory to hand in to a lecture. This would make me to do it more regularly"
Lecturer's guidance/ checks	"Monitored by lecturers e.g. answers" "A content check to ensure the exercises are done"
Content	"Perhaps variations in materials used" "More interesting topic" "More videos" "Keep all videos available, provide them on video CD so they can be copied and watched at home "Perhaps make scripts of the videos available to help comprehension"

Appendix 5.5. QH. Considering Communication Skills

1. What activities contributed most to your improvement in German?

References	The number of nominations
Presentations	13
Group work/ discussions in the group/class	9
Writing	7
Reading	4
Corrections	1
Literature	1

2. What materials were most useful for you?

References	The number of nominations
Handouts/ OHPs	24
Reading Texts	7
Videos	2

3. How could you have improved better your communication skills?

References	Comments
Participation	"Contributing more in class" "Participate in class discussion" "Maybe participating a bit more in class" "Made more contribution to lessons" "Participated more in speaking exercises in class" "By participating a bit more in lessons" "Being more involved in group work"
Speaking	"Could have spoken more" "More speaking" "More focus on spoken language, building confidence, improving accent" "Spent more time actively answering in German" "Speaking more" "Could have contributed more by speaking a bit more"
Being confident	"Felt more confident, i.e. been made to feel more confident" "Been more confident- taken more active part on lessons"
Reading	"Getting the chance to read more aloud"

	"Read more authentic German" "Done more background reading" "Perhaps read more German texts outside of the classroom" "Reading papers" "Reading over handouts after class"
Time Management	"also managed my time better concerning essays etc."
Attendance	"By not missing any classes"
Revision	"Checking work thoroughly + better knowledge of grammar"

4. What changes would you like to see?

References	The number of nominations
Less or no literature	5
More speaking	4
Better time arrangements	3
None	3

Appendix 6: The guide for interviews with students

A. General Background
1. What course do you do?
2. Was German your first foreign language?
3. When did you start to learn German?

B. German at 'A' level
4. What type of secondary school did you attend?
5. What did you mostly like about your German classes at A-level?
6. And what did you dislike?
7. What did you learn and practice mainly?
8. Did the teacher speak in German?
9. Did you have any contact with native speakers and German culture outside of the classroom? Have you been to Germany?

C. Subject and university choice
10. Why did you decide to study German and why here?

D. Experience at university
11. What did you expect from the German courses?
12. Did the first year of your studies meet your expectations? Why, why not?
13. What was most difficult for you at the University?
14. What was easy for you?
15. How did you cope with lectures conducted in the target language?
16. What contributed most to the improvement of your German skills? What sort of materials and activities?
17. What skills have you improved while learning German language and culture here?
18. What did you like in particular?
19. What did you dislike?

E. Beliefs and attitudes towards learning foreign languages
20. What do you think is the process of learning foreign languages?
21. Do you think some people have a special ability to learn foreign languages? If so, what abilities?
22. Do you think you have any special ability which help you in learning?
23. Do you think you lack certain abilities which would help you be a better learner? What abilities do you wish you had?
24. How do the people learn foreign language best? What do you think, accommodates the learning best?
25. How is learning German language for you?

F. Learning techniques and strategies
26. Imagine you have to prepare for a vocabulary test? How do you learn and remember new words?
27. Do you think about a relationship between the word you already know and new things?
28. Do you use pictures to remember new words?
29. Do you practice the sound of new words by e.g. talking aloud?
30. Do you look for similarities in your mother tongue or other foreign languages?
31. When a teacher introduces a new word, do you prefer a translation of the word or an explanation of the meaning in German?

32. How do you read new texts in German?
33. How do you learn grammar?
34. Do you use rules and formulas?
35. Do you do a lot of exercises?
36. How do you check that everything is right?
37. Do you compare the German grammar rules with rules of English or other foreign languages?
38. If you cannot understand a word, what do you do?
39. If you cannot find a word in conversation, what do you do?
40. What do you do with your feedback?
41. Do you mind being corrected?
42. Do you plan your schedule for learning German?
43. How do you know that you do well or not? How do you monitor and evaluate your learning?
44. What do you think is your weak point?
45. Some people think it is important to talk in a foreign language regardless of the lack of grammar? Some people think that you should not say anything till you can say it correctly? What is your opinion?
46. Some people feel embarrassed when they do mistakes? Have you experienced this feeling?
47. Some people feel shy when they actually use the target language e.g. in the classroom? Do you feel this way about German?
48. Do you feel comfortable when you work in groups or pairs?
49. Do you feel stressed or afraid in the classroom? If so, why?
50. Imagine you scored an excellent mark in your German exam. What would you do afterwards?

Appendix 7: Student interview – a sample

R: What course do you do?
S3:   German with translation studies.
R: Was German your first foreign language?
S3:   Yes.
R: When did you start learning German?
S3:   When I started at secondary school, so that is around the age of 11.
R: What type of secondary school did you attend?
S3:   Hm, a college.
R: What did you mostly like about your German classes at A-level?
S3:   It was very small, just five of us. It was a close-knit group. A nice atmosphere. We concentrated on speaking which I quite liked. We also had audio visual materials which was good.
R: What did you dislike?
S3:   Not that I really disliked it, but grammar.
R: What did you learn and practice mainly?
S3:   Speaking and writing mainly.
R: Did you use a text book?
S3:   Yes, used quite a few textbooks. I can't remember what they were now.
R: Did you use authentic materials or audio- visual?
S3:   Yes, both.
R: Did the teacher speak in German?
S3:   Whenever we were learning something about Germany, it was in German.
R: Did you have any contact with native speakers and German culture outside of the classroom?
S3:   The actual German teacher was born in Germany so she was fluent. She left, but the second was a fluent German speaker and we had language assistants as well.
R: Did you have any contact with German culture outside of your German classes?
S3:   Hm, no I lived in a very small village away from where the college was.
R: Have you ever been to Germany?
S3:   I did two times, in Frankfurt
R: Why did you decide to study German and why here?
S3:   I'd always wanted to go to University. I'd started German at the age of 11 and hm, I just really like it. I like languages. I'd originally set my heart on doing German and Italian at university X. I went there and found that quite closed off and then came here and found it at the centre of everything, quite relaxed and teachers seemed nice.
R: What did you expect from German courses?
S3:   Hm, I just expected it too be hard. I don't know actually, I didn't expect it to be focused on the culture, which is a good thing. The translation module, I just thought I'd be given a piece of text and told to translate it into German. It is a lot harder than I thought with linguistics. There's a lot of theories in it.
R: Did the first year of your studies meet your expectations? Why, why not?
S3:   Hm, I think it has exceeded my expectations. I really do like the Aston and the courses that it does. Hm, I don't think I could drop a course. Maybe Intercultural *Landeskunde*. No offence to anyone but I don't think I learnt anything. I could not drop any of the courses. I think they are all very important.
R: Would you like to add something?
S3:   I had heard that they were talking about getting a Media module open. I'd really like to do that.
R: What was most difficult for you at the University?
S3:   Grammar side. I've never been good at grammar. It will probably be a problem even beyond university.
R: What about lecturers talking in German?

S3:	At the beginning I thought I'm never going to understand any of it. But actually, it does improve your German, because you are listening constantly. Now I go into a lecture and expect teachers to speak German.
R:	What was easy for you?
S3:	Hm, getting on with everybody and with lecturers. To be able to help is very easy. In terms of content German history was relatively easy.
R:	Did you do history for your 'A' level?
S3:	No, I did cover a bit on Hitler. I had no idea about Napoleon or Bismarck.
R:	What contributed most to the improvement of your German skills? What sort of materials and activities?
S3:	Hm, probably discussion classes specifically designed for speaking. There are a few people there. I like the fact that there are computers that you can go on and listen to the news at the same time. I wish there were more of those. And also more of the German news.
R:	What skills did you improve while learning German language and culture here?
S3:	Listening definitely. Reading has improved a lot. Writing has improved to an extent. I understand how to write academic essays and not 'A' level essays.
R:	What did you like in particular?
S3:	Hm, people, situation of the University in relation to Birmingham. Hm, the atmosphere and classes that the university offers here.
R:	What did you dislike?
S3:	I don't think so. The tower blocks could improve.
R:	What do you think is the process of learning foreign languages?
S3:	I think the best way to learn a foreign language is to go to Germany and speak the language in practical situations. That's what communication is about, two people communicating and if you get to speak it, hopefully it will lead onto reading and writing.
R:	Does learning take place at a conscious or subconscious level?
S3:	Hm, you have to do a lot of conscious work because you just have to. With listening, if you do listen to German a lot, you get to know dialects and accents and you get to understand it.
R:	Do you think, some people have a special ability to learn foreign languages? If so, what abilities?
S3:	Hm, I think some people have certain abilities that other people don't, like people who do maths. I can't do maths, that's their ability. Hm, but I think everybody could possibly learn the basics of a language.
R:	Do you think you have any special ability which helps you in learning?
S3:	I think you have to be enthusiastic because it is going to take a lot of hard work. You have to persevere so in that respect I think I'm O.K. But I don't think it is built within me to learn.
R:	Do you think you lack certain abilities which would help you to be a better learner?
S3:	Hm, the ability to do work in advance. I'm a last minute person.
R:	How is learning German for you?
S3:	I'd say it is difficult, frustrating, hard work, challenging but not in a bad way. Because I like learning languages so much that it doesn't matter.
R:	Imagine you have to prepare for a vocabulary test? How do you learn and remember new words?
S3:	I would hm write down all the vocabulary that we are going to be tested on, der, die or das. Look at the words for five minutes, then look, hold, cover, check method. Pretty logical.
R:	Do you think about a relationship between the word you already know and the new words?
S3:	Its actually been beneficial. Especially long words, and break down the words, you can get an idea of what is going on.

R:	Do you practice the sound of new words by e.g. talking aloud?
S3:	Yes, I do try and read aloud a lot.
R:	Do you look for similarities in your mother language or other foreign languages?
S3:	Hm, sometimes, when you translate things literally that cannot be good. Some of my essays have been referred to as being 'very English German', so its English sentence structure with German words basically which is not really that good.
R:	When the teacher introduces a new word, do you prefer a translation of the word or an explanation of the meaning in German?
S3:	Hm, I have to say explanation. If you just give a translation, its not explaining what the actual meaning is, when you can use it, what you can use it with. If you explain what the word means, it just becomes irrelevant I think.
R:	Do you read for pleasure in German?
S3:	I have not actually read any books. I do try and read newspapers and things, but I prefer to watch. I have films at home.
R:	How do you read new texts in German?
S3:	I basically read the section to get an overview, then maybe split down paragraph by paragraph. Then maybe just write a keyword besides each paragraph, to explain what it is. If you need to go into further detail, then look at the words.
R:	How do you learn grammar?
S3:	Hm, I try to do the exercises that go through the sets, sometimes they are a bit hard. If I don't understand then I'll ask the lecturer X. I'll try and use the book, if I don't understand then maybe I'll ask another student if they understand it. Keep reading it through.
R:	Do you use rules and formulas?
S3:	Not so much.
R:	Do you set goals for your grammar?
S3:	Basically, it is just to pass my grammar tests. That's my goal. I don't care whether it is a good mark.
R:	Do you think everybody could learn grammar? Why are some people good at grammar and others not?
S3:	Some people say that learning grammar is logical. Some people say that if you are good at maths, then you'll be good at grammar. Hm, I don't think my mind works logically. It's not a 'two times two equals four' thing [?] it loses concentration when things get if I get lots of rules that I don't use. It takes [?]. I'm not confused, I just lose concentration. It overpowers me I think, that's just grammar.
R:	You recognise that grammar is your weak point but do you think your grammar has improved?
S3:	Slightly. I passed the last test.
R:	How do you check that everything is right?
S3:	I try and check it to the best of my ability and then maybe if I'm not to sure on a point then I'll ask the teacher or a student.
R:	Do you compare the German grammar rules with rules of English or other foreign languages?
S3:	I try not to. I do try and concentrate specifically on German grammar.
R:	If you cannot understand a word, what do you do? Do you try to guess the meaning?
S3:	If I'm in a lecture, I'll ask somebody what it means. If they don't know then I'll go home and look in a dictionary. If it's not in a dictionary, then on the Internet and then as a last resort, I would go and ask a native German speaker what it means.
R:	If you cannot find a word in conversation, what do you do? Do you use gestures?
S3:	I try and find another way of saying it. I use gestures.
R:	Do you try to make up new words, even if you are not sure?
S3:	Sometimes, but usually it is not correct.

R: Do you do anything to increase the possibility to use German language?

S3: I'm trying to get short term work in Germany next Easter. But I'm trying to persuade my parents to go to Germany but they always say no.

R: What do you do with feedback?

S3: I try and take it all on-board and think of ways to improve on what I've just learnt.

R: Do you mind being corrected?

S3: No.

R: Do you plan your schedule (time tables) for learning German?

S3: I write a lot of lists.

R: Do you stick to them?

S3: Usually. I do not do a timetable, the list is a task list, as I would not stick to times.

R: Do you set the goals and objectives for yourself?

S3: Sometimes, just basic goals. Nothing specific really.

R: What do you think is your weak point?

S3: Grammar.

R: What do you think is your strength?

S3: Enthusiasm and I'm not afraid to let it get to me.

R: Some people think it is important to talk in a foreign language regardless of the lack of grammar? Some people think that you should not say anything till you can say it correctly? What is your opinion?

S3: Hm, the more you speak the better you become at grammar. You do need grammar if you want to speak it fluently. But its like kids learning their mother-tongue, they get things wrong, but its all about learning.

R: Some people feel embarrassed when they do mistakes? Have you experienced this feeling?

S3: Hm, if I'm in a big group, say a grammar lecture and I got something wrong I'd feel a bit strange. If I'm in a communication class, I'm not bothered, as I know everyone.

R: Some people feel shy when they actually use the target language e.g. in the classroom? Do you feel this way about German?

S3: Hm, people who don't speak German are always trying to get me to speak German outside. I don't like that.

R: Do you feel comfortable when you work in groups or pairs?

S3: Yes.

R: Do you feel stressed or anxious in the classroom? If so, why?

S3: Sometimes stressed if I don't understand things. Never afraid though.

R: If you feel stressed, afraid of anxious do you talk to other people about your feelings?

S3: Hm, watch T.V or go for a walk or listen to music.

R: Imagine you scored an excellent mark in your German exam. What would you do afterwards?

S3: I would feel very happy with myself.

Appendix 8: The initial grammar test

German grammar – Year 1

Name..
Programme...

1. Ergänzen Sie bitte die Verben von unten im Präteritum

Wir .... einmal einen guten Chef. Er .... uns allen sehr gut. Er .... war
sehr elegant .... und .... immer die neuesten Krawatten. Er ....
unverheiratet, und man ....ihn nie mit einer Freundin. Er .... kam immer
früh ins Büro, meistens .... er schon um acht mit der Arbeit. Zuert
.... er die Post .... Er .... keine Arbeit liegen und .... alle
Termine .... Abends ....er immer als letzter im Büro und oft .... er
noch bis nach neun am Schreibtisch. Manchmal .... er auch Arbeit .... nach
Hause. Er .... nie den Geburtstag seiner Sekräterin.

bleiben, haben, sein, vergessen, kommen, einhalten, mitnehmen, beginnen, sitzen,
nehmen, gefallen, fahren, aussehen, durchlesen, tragen, sehen, lassen

2. Ergänzen Sie bitte die Formen von „werden"

1. Ich möchte wissen, was aus ihr .... ist.
2. Ich bin schon oft gefragt ...., ob ich das Haus verkaufen möchte.
3. Gestern beim Essen .... mir plötzlich schlecht.
4. Unser Freund musste ins Krankenhaus gebracht .... Zum Glück konnte er
   aber schnell wieder entlassen .... Morgen .... er schon wieder
   zur Arbei kommen. Er .... uns sicher erzählen, was passiert ist.
5. Erst jetzt ist mir klar ...., was das alles bedeutet.

3. Bitte ergänzen Sie die Adjektivendungen

1. Was willst Du mit diesen alt............. Büchern machen?
2. Sie lebt von einer klein......... Rente.
3. Und bei diesem schön............ Wetter willst du arbeiten?
4. Sie kommt aus einer reich........... und bekannt............ Familie.
5. Nach diesem schwer........... Essen brauche ich einen doppelt......... Cognac.
6. Im Urlaub wohne ich bei einem alt.............. Freund.
7. Trotz des niedrig................... Lohnes mußten sie die Arbeit annehmen.
8. Ich wartete schon seit einer halb........... Stunde auf Dich.
9. Woher hast Du das Buch? – Aus der neu.......... Bibliothek.
10. Statt der erwartet................... Verbesserungen gab es noch schlechtere
    Arbeitsbedingungen.
11. Wie lange müssen wir noch mit diesem alt..................... Maschinen arbeiten?
12. Und mit diesem alt....................Wagen willst du durch Afrika fahren?
13. Wegen des stark.............. Regens muß das Tennisspiel ausfallen.

4. Bitte ergänzen Sie die Relativpronomen

1. Wer ist die Frau, ... du gerade begrüßt hast?
2. Wer ist das Mädchen, ... du die Blumen schenken willst?
3. Sind Sie die Frau, ... die Sachen hier gehören?
4. Das ist ein Kollege, ... ich gestern kennengelernt habe.

5. Wo läuft der Film, ... ich mir ansehen sollte?

5. Bitte ergänzen Sie die Präpositionen

1. Der Tich ist nicht .... Holz.
2. Ich suche eine Stelle .... Babysitter.
3. Hier riecht es .... Kaffee.
4. Er ist .... AIDS gestorben.
5. Sie arbeitet .... Technikerin .... Halberstamm & Co.
6. Er versteht nichts .... Fußball.
7. Der Wein schmeckt .... Korken.
8. Freust Du dich ....Weihnachten?
9. Ich halte nichts .... Frau Wenke .... Ministerin.
10. Interessierst Du denn........................ gar nichts?
11. Sie ist .... einem Arzt verheiratet.
12. Wann bist du .... der Arbeit fertig?
13. Ich bin .... den Film neugierig.

6. Machen Sie aus zwei einfachen Sätzen einen komplexen Satz:

Beispile: Ich fahre in den Ferien nach Deutschland. Ich möchte gerne mein Deutsch verbessern
Ich fahre in den Ferien nach Deutschland, um mein Deutsch zu verbessern.

1. Annete fährt im Urlaub ins Ausland. Sie möchte fremde Kulturen kennenlernen.

   ....

2. Hartmut fährt um 17 Uhr zum Flughafen. Er muss seine Kusine abholen.

   ....

3. Wir gehen einmal pro Woche schwimmen. Wir möchten fit bleiben.

   ....

4. Frau Hansemann fährt in die Stadt. Sie möchte Geschenke einkaufen.

   ....

5. Herr Schwarz spricht mit seinem Chef. Er möchte ihn und seine Frau zum Essen einladen.

   ....

Appendix 9: Stories written by students in Year One

Text 1:

Als ich 7 war, hatten wir meine Eltern und meine Schwester, Jugoslawien besucht. Der Besuch war meinen erste Mal auf ein Flugzeug und errine ich mich, dass ich sehr aufgeregt war. Das Flugzeug flog ab und 10 Minuten später waren wir in Luft. Das Hotel war schon und wir eine schöne Aussicht von dem Meer haben. In dass Hotel war ein großes Schwimmbad, die mit Meerwasser voll war. Es war auch immer kalt und schmeckt mir nicht gut! Eines Tages, traffen wir eine ältere Frau. Sie sagte, dass sie Deutsch war und sie sagte auch, dass sie in Stuttgart lebt. Später in Woche sagte sie, dass ihre Geld sammeln. Meiner Mutter ein bisschen überdrüssig war. Ich fragte „warum?". Sie dachte, dass die ältere Frau Geld bekommen möchte. Jedoch, gab meiner Mutter ein bisschen Geld die ältere Frau. Die Frau war überrascht und dankvoll. Die nachte Tage traffen wir die ältere Frau weiter. Plötzlich, gab die ältere Frau teueren Schmuck zu meiner Mutter an. Meiner Mutter sehr überrascht war. Sie hat die ältere Frau bedanken. Jedoch am nachsten Tage fährt sie ab.
Diese Gesichte war meine erste Begegnung mit eine Deutsche Person. Naturlich habe ich andere Deutsche heute getroffen, seitdem ich nicht eine schrecklich Deutsche person treffen.

Text 2:

Es war der erste regnerische Tag dieses Sommers in Kanada, den wir erlebt haben, als ich die Australierin traf. Wir waren zum ersten Mal in Ottawa, das Kapital von Kanada, es war rund vier Uhr Nachmittags und wir waren alle müde. Wir gingen aus dem Busbahnhof zur Bushaltestelle und haben mit ein paar Leute gesprochen, die auf dem Bus zur Innenstadt warteten. Einer diese Leuten kam aus Australien.
Diese australische Mädchen hatte kurze hellbraune Haare mit buntem Perlen darin. Was hat mich auch aufgefallen über sie, was, dass sie sehr braun war und viel verschiedene Ohrringe trug. Sie war vielleicht besser bereit zum Reisen als uns, da sie wasserundurchlässige Shorts und eine wasserundurchlässige grüne Jacke und kleine Wanderstiefel trug. Sie hatte dabei einen grossen Rucksack und im Gegensatz zu uns, trug sie ihn mit Leichtigkeit.
Während unserer Busfahrt erzählte uns die australische Mädchen, dass sie von Mai bis dem Ende August in die Vereinigten Staaten herumfahrt, aber später in der Jugendherberge haben wir mehr über sie entdeckt. Sie ist schon in Peru herumgereist- das Jahr davor glaube ich, was fand ich faszinierend, da ich so wenig über diesem südamerikanischen Land weiss. Im Vergleich zu Sudamerika hat diese geheimnisvolle Mädchen Kanada und die Vereinigten Staaten sehr teuer gefunden.
Meiner Meinung nach hatte diese junge Reisende viel Mut, da sie nur drei und zwanzig Jahre alt ist und jedes Jahr allein im Ausland fahrt. Ich glaubte, dass diese Method sehr einsam sein muss, aber sie erklärte und, dass sie Reisen immer genossen hatte, da sie jedes Jahr viele neue Freunden trifft, die aus jeden Enken und Winkeln der Welt kommen. Eine Freundin, mit deren ich nach Kanada gefahren bin, sagte, dass die Australierin vielleicht zu reiselustig sei, da sie so viel Zeit im Ausland verbringt und nicht auf ihr Studium konzentrieren kann. Ich war der anderer Meinung, da ich glaubte, dass ihre Erlebnisse sehr reizvoll zu Arbeitgeber in der Zukunft. Wichtig ist weiterhin, dass sie ruhig in dem Bewusstsein sein kann, dass sie etwas in ihrem Leben erreicht hat. Obwohl ich interessierte mich viel für was sie sagte, kann ich mich beim besten Willen ihre Name nicht erinnern!

Text 3:

Vor mehreren Jahren war ich in Sud-Frankreich mit meiner Familie in einem Campingplatz. Auignon war die Stadt wo ich habe meine, jetzt, gute Freundin getroffen. Sie war auch mit seiner Familie in dem gleichen Campingplatz.
Ein Tag war ich in Freibad und Solene, meine Freundin, kommt allein im Freibad auch. Ich bin sehr gesprächlich deshalb hatte ich mich vorgestellt. Da endeckt ich, dass sie frazösich war und die gleiche Alt wie ich. Wir könnten uns verstanden, weil ich sehr gut Französisch sprechen kann. Von da an waren wir unzertrennlich.
Während des Rest des Urlaubs waren wir immer zusammen, ich half sie um English zu lernen, wir gingen im Klubs um Jungen zu finde, lagen in der Sonnen, wir gingen Einkaufen, wir gingen zur See und wir sind bessere Freundin geworden.
Das Ende des Urlaubs ist schnell gekommen und ich müsste nach England zurück fahren und sie müsste nach Paris zurück fahren. Es war sehr schwer, wir wüssten, dass wir für nur zwei Woche uns kannten, aber wir waren sehr traurig. Wir haben unsere Adress ausgetaucht und wir haben uns verabschieden.
Zurück in England, hatte ich sofort ein Brief geschrieben und sie auch, dann entdeckte ich, dass auch e-mail hatte, von da an war es sehr einfahr in Verbindung stehen. Sie bleibt bei mir in Ferien und ich auch bleibt bei ihr. Ich habe ihre familie kennengelernt und sie hat meine familie kennengelernt.
Jetzt sind wir sehr eng Freunden. Wir haben viele Jahre sehr viele Errinerungen erlebt. Wir haben ganz anderes leben aber wir sind immer in Verbindung.

Text 4:

Ich traf Amy auf einem Kreuzschiff. Ich war nür sechzehn und sie war auch sechsehn. Sie hatte kurze braune Harre und blaue Augen. (was ich so suss gefaden war ihre Sommersprossen). Die Teenagers Klub war ganz schlecht und daher sprachen wir in einer Gruppe. Wir fuhren nach Rome, Barcelona, Monte Carlo, Pisa und Majorca. Ich sah Amy nür Am Abend und durch Zufall sassen wir am desselben Tisch für Abendessen. Wir gingen spazieren rund das Schiff und wenn es kein Wind oder das Schiff stampfte und schlingte nicht war es sehr romantisch.
Als wir in Majorca kamen, beginnt die Handlung. Ich bleiben eine Woche mehr im Hotel in Majorca, aber es gab einen offizieller Streik des Autocars. Wegen des Streiks belieben wir auf dem Schiff bis zum Mitternacht. Daher sass ich mit Amy und wir hatten zusammentranken weil das Alkohol kostenlos war! Wir haben die ganze Nacht da sassen. Keinen Taxt sind gekommen- die Reisefirma war ganz langsam. Um halbzwei gingen wir ins Taxi, nicht zur Hotel ‚President' sondern zur eine andere Hotel, wo wir übernachteten hat. Früh morgens gingen wir schnell bis zum Tür weil unserer Taxi kam ab. Diese Reise dauerte einen Stunde und Amy und ich uns unterhalten.
Durch Zufall auch fuhren Amy und ich zur Hotel President. Es war eine Entaüchung. Das Essen war furchtbar und im ganzen und grossen war das Restaurant schmutzig. Das war eine Entschuldigung zum Essen ausgingen!! während des Tages haben wir dem Bus nahmen und bis zum Stadt fuhren. Das Gegend war doch schon- aber es gab nichts zu tun. Wir besuchten der Strand und liegen mit Sommenbrillen in die Sonne! Wir gingen auch einkaufen um Alkohol zu kaufen! Abends gingen wir zur Parties oder Nachtkluben! Am ende des Woches waren wir sehr Müde und fliegen zurück zur England. Weil Amy in Manchester wohnt mussten wir uns verabschiedten. Alles war sehr traurig. Amy heulte, sagte „ich werde sich telefonieren" aber es geht nicht.

Text 5:

Juli, letztes Jahr, ein sehr schön Tag. Er war heiß, sonnig und ich spazierte durch ein altes kleines Dorf an der Küste. Der Ort, Sud-Frankreich.

Dieses Dorf war voll von den Touristen von der ganzen Welt. Dazu gab es Sonnenanbietern am Strand, Kindern mit den Drachen und als ich aufs Meer hinausblickte, gab es viele Windsurfen.

Ich müsste ein Geschenk für meine Freundin kaufen. Ich suchte in einen kleines Geschäft, wo ich eine tolle Kerze sah. Es war perfekt! Aber bevor ich sie gekauft hatte, weil es so belebt war, zerbroche ich eine sehr teure Vase! Ich fühlte extrem verlegen, obwohl die Verkäuferin verständlich war. Sie sagte, „Nein, bezahlen sie nichts. Es war versehentlich". Ich fühlte schuldig aber sie waren sehr freundlich.

Wir gingen ins Cafe und wir sprachen für eine lange Zeit. Celine heißt diese Mädchen. Sie war achtzehn Jahre alt und kommt aus Paris. Im Sommer arbeitet sie für ihre Tante im dem Geschäft. Sie waren sehr Chic. Ihre Kleider waren teuer und modern. Sofort, mochte ich Celine, die sehr lustig, hilfsbereit und zur Begrüßung war.

Nach diesem Tag, wurden wir gute Freunden. Wir erforschten die Umgebung, setzten in Cafes und wir besuchten dem Strand. Jeden Tag wir machten viel Spaß!

Am Ende der Ferien, war es traurig, aber nun, schreiben wir Briefen und nächstes Jahr, werden wir wieder treffen.

Text 6:

Während der Weihnachtsfeiertage schied nach Birmingham zu gehen um Geschenke. Meine Freundin und ich gingen zu Bahnhof aber im Zug gab es keine leere Sitze zusammen. Eine alte Frau, die wie ein Zigeuner aussieht bot der Sitz neben ihr an, ich lächelte, nahm der Sitz an und saß neben die Frau.

Während der Reise die Frau lächelte und lächelte, welches ich fand ganz merkwürdig. Aber man könnte sagen, daß die Frau, sich selbst sehr seltsam war, weil sie tragte helle, große Kleidung mit vielem Make-up wie eine wirkliche Zigeuner. Sie tragte auch Perlen und andere billige Schmuck und sie hatte einen großen Beutel und einen roten Schal auf ihrem Schoß. Ich drehte mich, um sie gegenüberzustehen und lächelte, als sie mich fragte was ich werde für meinen jüngeren Bruder und Schwester als Geschenke zu kaufen. Ich war erschüttert, daß sie kannte meine Familie und daß ich Geschenke kaufen werde. Jedoch wußte ich nicht wie viel mehr sie kannte! Danach fragte sie mich, ob ich freue mich auf meinem wichtigen Geburtstag in Februar, weil ich achtzehn werde sein. Ich starrte diese Frau mit einem offenen Mund an. Ich war überraschte, daß dieser Fremde mich wie eine Freundin oder ein verwandter kannte.

Sie lächelte noch mal und sagte, daß sie wusste, daß ich Angst von meiner Prüfungen hatte aber ich musste keine Sorgen machen. Ich war bestürzt und könnte nichts sagen. Warum weiß diese Frau diese Dinge? Ich hatte sie nie gesehen und ich hatte sie mit ihr vor heute sprechen. Dann gab sie mir ein hell blau Armband und sagte, daß ich muss über nichts beunruhigen und muss für mich selbst sorgen. Sie erzählte, daß ich muss den Armband behalten.

Plötzlich hörte ich ein Geräusch und erkannte, daß es der Zugfahrer war. er sagte durch, daß wir waren in Birmingham und jeder ihre Sachen mit ihnen nehmen muss und man kann nicht in der Bahnhof rauchen. ich stand auf und suchte meine Freundin, die in der nahe von der Tür war. Dann drehte ich zur Frau, die lächelte und winkte. Ich ging zu meine Freundin und ziegte ihr der Armband, aber wenn ich suchte die Frau die neben mich stand gab es niemand dort, meine freundin und ich stiegten den Zug aus, wo ich stand mit ein Gesicht von Schock und Überraschung mit vielen Fragen und der Armband in meinen Händen.

Text 7:

Dieser Abend, an dem ich in Correlo war, fing wie jeder anderer. Sass mit meiner besten Freunden, Sarah und Leanne, suchte wir durch unsere Speisekarten für etwas neu zu probieren. Immer und immer wieder, gingen wir in diesem bestimmten Restaurant. Direkt neben der Küste, lag dieses Restaurant in einem Idealen Ort. Ich betrachtet die Welle des

meeres und die kühle Brize lindertet meine Verbrannten Schultern. nach dem beschäftigten Tag fühlte ich mich ganz müde. Als Sarah und Leanne lachten, könnte nicht helfen, ich bemerkte dass ein Finster, gut aussehend Mann gegenüber mich sass.

Er sass allein mit einer Zeitung im Hand und er schien ungeduldig aus als er seinem Armbanduhr wiederholt sah an. Es war Klar dass er bemühte sich, sich frei zu machen. Er musste jemand erwarten, dachte ich, aber niemand kam. Ich fand dieses Mann ein Rätzel. Tatsächlich, errinert er mich an Carlos, der ich vor einige Jahren in Tenerife getroffen aber ich könnte nicht sicherer sein. Seine Haare war jetzt kurzer und ordnungsliebender als ich könnte es erinnern und er sieht so viel älter aus ale der letztes Zeit ich ihm gesehen habe. Dann kam einen Geschäftsmann mit einer Aktentasche die gegenüber ihm sass. Sie diskutieret, lachten und unterschrieb Kontrakten. Nach ungefähr eine Stunde sind sie beide aufgestanden und schüttelte ihre hände. Er sah mich an mit Merkwürdigkeit, trank sein Wein aus, lächelt und ging schnell vom Restaurant. Einige Stunden später, gingen wir zu fuss entlang den Strand mit blossen füssen. Als wir quatchten, erblickte ich der Mann den ich früher in Restaurant gesehen habe. War er Carlos? Dieses Mal, sass er allein auf einer Steinmauer. Er schien nachdenklich aus ale er die Welle betrachtet. Ich entschuldigten mich und Sarah und Leanne andauerten zurück zum Hotel. „Macht es Ihnen etwas aus, wenn ich neben dir sitzen?" fragte ich. Sichere war es kein Problem. „Es ist Komisch," sagte er, „aber ich bin sicher dass wir schon getroffen haben. Früher ins Restaurant, habe ich dir gesehen als du beobachtet mir. Bist du die Sonya, die ich in Tenerife getroffen habe?"

„Du hast recht!" sagte ich, „Carlos, es ist so gut von dir zu sehen! Ich dachte dass ich dir nie noch mal gesehen würde. Ins Restaurant, könnte ich nicht sicher sein wenn es dir war, du hast doch viel verändert, besonders deine Haare!" Wir sassen auf dieser Mauer seit einige stunden als lachten und quatchten über das erste Mal wir getroffen hatten. Wir errinertern an dem Sporttauchen, das wir zuzammen teilgenommen hatten. Als wir den Sonnenaufgang betrachteten, er nahm mich in den Armen. Ich fühlte mich so eng mit diesem Mann, selber wenn ich nicht seit zwei Jahren gesehen habe. jetzt war er reifer und bewusster und ich fühlte mich als ich könnte ihn alles erzählen, Wir austauschten unsere Telefontnummern und vereinbarten morgen Sporttauschen zu gehen.

Text 8:

Letzte Sommer, fuhr ich mit vier Freunden nach Kreta, ein von der greichischeInsels. Die erste Nacht entscheideten wir in einer Kneipe zu gehen und Karaoke zu machen. Wir sangen ein paar Lieder (sehr laut und sehr schlecht- wir tranken ein oder zwei coctails davor) und eine frau in dem Publikum, die in Urlaub mit ihren mutter war, sehr becindruckt mit unseren Stimmen war (ich weiß nicht warum). Sie hat mir gefragt, ob ich wurde ein Lied mit ihr singen. Sie war zu verlegt, das Lied allein zu singen und ihrer mutter mochte nicht, so ich sagte ja. Wir sangen ein Lied von Aliyah, die Sängerin die ein paar Wochen später tötet in einem Flugzeug Unfall war. Kaja's mutter möchte Kneipes nicht und ging nur weil Kaja wolltet und weil Kaja kannte niemand anders in ihrem Hotel. Kaja's mutter ging nach das Hotel nach der Karaoke und Kaja kam mit uns in einer Disko in Hersinissos und naher, meinen freunden und ich nahm sich nach ihr Hotel mit, bevor wir gingen nach unseren Hotel.

Kaja genießt ihr Urlaub mit ihre mutter in dem Tag, aber sie sagte es war langweilig im Abends, weil Sie kannte niemand das gleiches Alter (17), und ihrer mutter möchte nicht in den Diskos gehen. Folglich, verbrachte sie (Kaja) ihr Abends mit uns. Wir traffen alle im Empfang ihren Hotel rund 8 Uhr jeden abend und wir gingen ins Restaurants und Diskos in der stadt und partys auf der strand usw. Wir waren auch ein bisschen kinderisch weil wir machten blöde Wetten, z.b. wer könnte die meisten Schwimmringen von verschiedene Hotels stehlen1 (Meine Freundin Freya winnte). Kaja war sehr kontaktfreudig und extrovertiert und außerdem, ich sie lebensfroh. Sie kommt aus Österreich aber sie kann sehr gut English. Sie ist keineswegs langweilig und ich stehe mit ihr in ständiger Verbindung, durch e.mail und briefe. Dazu sieht sie sehr hübsch aus weil,

sie sehr groß und schlank mit lange blonde haare und blaue augen ist. Sie hat alle Männer wir traffen gefallen.

Text 9:

Es gibt viele Gründe, warum die Leute reisen. Viele Leute reisen, um sich zu entspannen und um sich von der Arbeit aufzuruhen. Viele Arbeitnehme betrachten elf Monate des Ajhres nur als eine Vorbereitung auf den zwölften den Urlaubsmonat. Dann kann man sportarten ausüben wie Wandern, Schwimmen oder Skifahren. Aber persönlich reise ich, um verschiedene Leute und Kulturen kennenzulernen.
Ich habe schon zweimal eine kreuzfahrt mit meiner Schuler gemacht. Wir haben Ägypten, Israel, Griechenland und Syrien besucht. Alle diese Länder waren Interessant, aber Ägypten und Syrien haben mir am besten gefallen. In Syrien haben wir eine Kreuzfahrerburg besucht. In Ägypten haben wir die Pyramiden besucht und wir sind auch Kamellen geritten.
Am Schiff gibt es viele Schulerinenn von alle Großbritannien und auch vom Ausland, habe ich eine sehr nette Französin getroffen. Sie heißt Marie und sie war wie alt als ich. Zufällig habt sie in die Partnerstadt von meinen Heimatstadt. Es war sehr gut mit ihr sprechen, weil sie Englisch sprechen und ich Französich sprechen, um meine Französich zu verbessern. Wenn ich bin nach Hause zurückgekommt werden wir Brieffreundin und sich habe bei ihr in Frankreich bleiben und sie habt bei mir bleiben.
Deshalb finde ich eine sehr gute Freundin von meiner Urlaub und sie kann helfen mir mit meiner Französich.

Text 10:

Letztes Jahr, blieb ich für drei Monaten in Deutschland, ich wohnte in ein kleines Dorf heißt Veckenstedt in der nähe von Wernigerode. Ich arbeitete in einem Internat. Ich traf eine junge Frau. Sie hieß Nora. Sie kam aus Berlin, um ihr Abitur zu wiederholen. Sie war schon neunzehn oder zwanzig Jahre alt aber in dem Winter, hatte sie einen schweren Umfall gehabt. Im Abend, ging ich ins Kino oder Kneipe mit Nora. Auch fuhren wir nach Leipzig, um in dem Nachtlokal zu gehen. Das Wochenende was sehr schön und witzig. Wir hatten für zwei Stunden gefahren, um Leipzig anzukommen. Wir hatten eine sehr große Nacht erstellt, Kaberet, Kneipe und Nachtlokal bis früh morgen. Wir gingen zu Kaberet aber denn fanden wir eine sehr kleine irische Kneipe, wo Tequila nur zwei DM war. Da blieben wir die ganze Nacht!
Nora und ich waren sich sehr ähnlich. Die beide uns kamen aus große Städte. Wir mochten Kneipen, Nachtlokals, Kinos usw. In Veckenstedt, gab es nur eine sehr sehr kleine Kneipe. es war sehr anders als das leben in Berlin und auch in Leeds.
Nora hatte lange blonde Haare und blaue Augen. Sie war groß und schlank. Ihre Leistungskurse waren Deutsch und Mathe. Obwohl, war ihr Englisch besserer als mein Deutsch, sagte sie immer, dass die nicht gut genug war.
Leider wenn ich zurück nach England kam, war sie im Urlaub mit ihr Familie und jetzt stehen wir nicht mehr in Verbindung.

Text 11:

Als ich 13 Jahre alt war, wohnte ich in Le Vesinet in der nahe von Paris in Frankreich. Ich wohnte da für nur ein Jahr aber während dieses Jahr kennenlernte ich viele Leute. Ich ging zu die Britische Schule von Paris also war die meisten Kinder Englisch oder sprachen sie gute Englisch. Nach einen Jahr sind wir zurück nach England umgezogen. Ich blieb nicht in Verbindung mit der meistens von ihnen und ich glaubte, dass ich ihnen wahrscheinlich nie wiedersehen würde. Ich traf jedoch ein Jahr später eine Freundin von dieser Schule. Ich fuhr nach Paris mit meiner Familie für einen Urlaub. Während unserer Besuch entschied wir unseren alten Haus zu besuchen. Wir besuchten auch die

Nachbarschaft, in der wir gewohnt hatten. Es war hier, dass ich meine Freundin sah. ich erkannte sie sofort dass ich sie gesehen hatte und sie erkannte mich auch. Es war wunderbar sie wiederzusehen und wir haben sehr viel gesprochen. Ich nahm seine Addresse und als ich zurück nach England fuhr, entschied ich in Verbindung mit ihr zu stehen, wir stehen jetzt immer noch in Kontakt mit einander.

Text 12:

Jedes Jahr fahren wir nach Frankreich und bleiben am gleichen Campingplatz.
Jedes Jahr treffen wir die gleichen Leute und sehen Gesichte bekannten vor.
Letztes Jahr wurde nicht unähnlich irgendeinem anderen. Jedoch, einen Tag mein Vater und ich hat eine Familie am See getroffen.
Wir haben begonnen, mit diese Familie zu sprechen, weil wir alle angeln.
Jeden Tag trafen wir am See und mein Vater sprach mit dem Vater und der Mutter, während mein Bruder und ich mit die zwei im Teengaeralter Söhne sprachen.
Wir alle kamen gut aus und wir alle hatten viel gemeinsam.
Einen Tag sprachen wir über die Schule und ich entdeckte, daß ich ihren Cousin kannte, weil wir studierten Erdkunde und ich saß neben ihnen.
Die zwei Jungen hatte den Name der Schule wieder erkannt und Sie wußten, daß wir in Colchester leben. doch erwähnten Sie den Name ihres Cousins.
Seit ich zurückgekommen bin, haben wir einmal getroffen, weil Sie besuchten ihre Familie in Colchester.
Ich hoffe nächstes Jahr ihnen zu sehen, weil ich nach Frankreich fahren werde und bleibe am gleichen Campingplatz.

Text 13:

Es war einmal eines Urlaubs, als ich und meine Familie nach Florida flog. Ich war sehr gespannt auf die Reise, weil ich nie vorher mit dem Flugzeug geflogen war. Dieser Urlaub war ein wirkliches Abenteuer für mich!
Wir haben am 4. August das Haus verlassen und wir kamen natürlich später am Abend an Florida. Wir wohnten in einem Ferienhaus in der Nahe vom Strand. Wir machten natürlich die Dinge, dass man auf Urlaub tun wurde. Z.B. gingen wir am Strand und sonnten stundenlang, wenn es trocken war. Außerdem besichtigten wir die Sehenswürdigkeiten im Gebiet.
Mein Vater und ich spielte ein bisschen Golf in Florida. Florida ist ganz berühmt für schone Golfplatze, weil es viele kleine Seen an den Platzen gibt. Sie brauchen sie, damit die Rasen gut leben können. Hier hatten wir die Begegnung.
Leider war dieser Platz überhaupt nicht sicher, dort zu sein. Der Grund dafür war wegen den vielen Spielern am Platz. Sie konnten ihre Balle gar nicht kontrollieren. Ein Mann spielte in der Nahe von uns und etwas Schreckliches passierte. Sein Ball schlug meinen Vater. Dann gab es die Chance, eine spannende Begegnung zu haben.
Zum Gluck ging es mit meinem Vater OK. Er brauchte keinen Krankenwagen! Dann kam der Mann zu uns. Ich und mein Vater war nicht böse darüber. Der Mann entschuldigte sich sehr viel und wir dachten, dass er weinen wurde, aufgrund seines Gesichtes.
Die Situation hatten unerwartlich keine wirkliche Spannung. Vielleicht es ein bisschen vor der Begegnung gab, aber als wir uns trafen, waren alle nett. Nach einiger Minuten, fanden wir heraus, dass der Mann ein Deutscher war. Deshalb hatten ich viel zu sagen! Natürlicherweise wollte ich mein Deutsch üben. Wir besprachen mein Wissen von Deutschland. Ich sagte, dass ich im Ruhrgebiet war, um ein Arbeitspraktikum zu machen. Dann sagte er, dass er in der Nahe davon wohnt. Ihn zufolge arbeitete er als Stahlarbeiter in Thyssen aber er war arbeitslos wegen dieses Unternehmens.
Nach einer halben Stunde entschieden wir uns, auf Wiedersehen zu sagen. Trotzdem wollte ich noch eine Treffung haben. Das nächste Mal wurde viel wenige Spannung

haben. Jetzt haben wir eine neue Freundschaft geschlossen. Nach ein paar Tagen spielten wir zusammen. Das bedeute, dass es keine Chance mehr gäbe, geschlagen zu werden. Insgesamt war ich von dieser Begegnung total überraschend. Es ist komisch, wie man neue Leute kennen lernt. Ich wurde diese Begegnung nie vergessen.

Text 14:

Die Klingel läutete zum letzten Mal des Trimesters; die Sommer hatte endlich begonnen. Ich hatte 12 Wochen der Entspannung, vielmehr Faulheit bis Aufsätze und Hausaufgaben machten mir Sorgen.
Dieses Jahr, entschied meine Familie, einen Urlaub in Amerika zu nehmen.
Um 9 Uhr des nächstes Tages, packten wir unsere Koffer und fuhren mit dem Auto in Richtung des Flughafens. Wegen des Verkehrs, kamen wir spät in Gatwick an — und infolgedessen, konnten wir nicht im Flugzeug zusammensitzen.
Für die Dauer der 8-stundenlang Fahrt, sitzte ich neben einer großen und schlanken, athletisch-aussehenden Frau, die blonde Haare hatte und einen Trainingsanzug tragte. Das Gesicht war mir ein wenig bekannt.
Während einer Fortsetzung der Komödie „Friends", fragte sie mich "bist du allein?"
"Nein, ich bin mit meiner Familie; wir nehmen einen Urlaub in Florida" antwortete ich.
Nach einer Pause, sagte ich, "ich bin sicher, daß ich Sie irgendwo gesehen habe."
"Vielleicht während der Olympischen Spiele," erwiderte Sie.
Ich wurde immer mehr neugieriger. Ich bemerkte, daß diese Frau fremd klang — sie war tatsachlich deutsche.
"Ich bin Hochspringer," äußerte sie; "Mein Name ist Heike Drechsler."
Es war nicht zu glauben, ich sitzte im Flugzeug mit einer Goldmedalliengewinnerin.
"Warum sind Sie hier? Haben Sie nicht ein privates Flugzeug?" fragte ich frech.
"Nein!" lachte sie, "ich trainiere in Florida, weil ich dort das Klima voziehe."
Die Unterhaltung dauerte eine weitere halbstunde bis Ende des Flugs — es war der Höhepunkt meiner Ferien.

Text 15:

Vor vier Jahren, bin Ich nach Deutschland mit meiner Schule gefahren. Wir sind in einem Hotel in der Nahe von Köln geblieben. Obwohl es keinen Austausch war, habe Ich der Urlaub sehr nützlich gefunden. Wir haben viel über die deutsche Kultur kennengelernt und wir habe die deutsche Nahrung probiert. Trotz des schlechten Wetters, haben wir viele historische Gebäude und Monumenten besucht, wie die Platz der Mauerfall in Berlin, die in neuenzehnhundertneunundachtzig zerstören war.
Am zweiten Tag, sind wir mit dem Reisebus nach Köln gefahren. Dort, haben wir eine Kreuzfahrt am Rhein gemacht.
Die erste Person mit dem Ich gesprochen habe, war eine Musiklehrerin Wir haben über die Musik klassisch und Klavier Stücke für einer ganzen Stunden gesprochen.
An einem Tag, habe Ich zum ersten Mal Kalbfleisch gegessen, und es hat mir sehr gut geschmeckt.
Um eine Fremdsprache zu lernen, glaube Ich, daß es unerlässlich die Kultur und die Geschichte eines Landes kennenzulernen ist, also Ich habe die Besuchen sehr interessant gefunden, weil jetzt meine Ich, daß Ich Deutschland besser verstehen kann.

Appendix 10: Lists of errors

Spelling
1. errine ich
2. Das Hotel war schon und wir
3. In dass Hotel
4. naturlich
5. quatchten
6. einfahr
7. Die nachte Tage
8. Mit eine Deutsche person
9. Eine schrecklich Deutsche person
10. Keinen Taxt [Taxi]
11. um halbzwei
12. Entaüchung
13. tatsachlich
14. Kamellen
15. Errinerungen
16. Kaja's mutter
17. naher
18. meinen freunden
19. weil Sie [she] kannte niemand
20. jeden abend
21. auf der strand
22. in der nähe
23. denn [dann]
24. Chic
25. In einem Idealen Ort
26. Rätzel
27. errinert
28. zuzammen
29. Sportauschen
30. ziegte [zeigte]
31. unsere Adress ausgetaucht
32. ganz anderes leben
33. naher [nachher]
34. die Kinder waren Englisch
35. sportarten
36. weil Sie besuchten
37. Klavier Stücke
38. mit einander
39. voziehe
40. schone Golfplatze
41. diese Method
42. aus jeden Enken
43. Ich war nür
44. Sie war sechsehn
45. so suss
46. wir fuhren nach Rome
47. belieben
48. am ende
49. waren wir sehr Müde
50. greichische
51. zwei coctails
52. eine frau
53. mit ihren mutter
54. parties
55. z.b.
56. briefe
57. nür Am Abend

58. email
59. augen
60. Sud-Frankreich
61. ein Finster, gut aussehend Mann
62. es war Klar
63. ihre hände
64. zu fuss
65. mit blossen füssen
66. ein verwandter
67. meine familie
68. Waren Interessant
69. In der Nahe
70. bin Ich nach Deutschland
71. Z.B.
72. belieben [blieben]
73. Um vier Uhr Nachmittags
74. Sudamerika
75. sportarten
76. waren Interessant
77. Telefonnummern
78. in einem Flugzeug Unfall
79. Die Teenger Klub
80. Umfall
81. Gluck
82. eine kreuzfahrt
83. die Welle des meeres
84. meine Verbrannten Schultern

Punctuation
1. Eines Tages,
2. Plötzlich,
3. Letzte Sommer, fuhren wir
4. Die Sängerin die ein paar Wochen später
5. Im Abend, ging ich
6. Folglich, verbrachte
7. Direkt neben der Küste, lag
8. einen Geschäftsmann mit einer Aktentasche die gegenüber ihm sass.
9. Ich dachte dass ich dir
10. Als sie mich fragte was ich werde
11. War die Stadt wo ich
12. Bis sehr gesprächlich deshalb
13. Trotz des schlechten Wetters, haben wir
14. Die erste Person mit dem ich gesprochen habe
15. Um 9 Uhr des nächstes Tages, packten wir
16. Obwohl, war ihr
17. Sofort, mochte ich
18. Nach diesem Tag, wurden wir
19. Am Ende der Ferien
20. Jedoch, einen Tag
21. Immer und immer wieder, gingen wir
22. Er schein ungeduldig aus als er
23. Es war Klar dass er
24. Ins Restaurant, könnte ich ...
25. Einige Stunden später, gingen wir
26. Dieses Mal, sass er
27. aber ich bin sicher dass wir schon getroffen haben.
28. suchte die Frau die neben mich stand gab es
29. Jedoch, einen Tag
30. Am zweiten Tag, sind wir
31. Dort, haben wir

32. Wegen des Verkehrs, kamen
33. Nach einer Pause, sagte ich
34. er schien ungeduldig aus als er
35. und ausserdem, ich ....
36. aber in dem Winter, hatte sie
37. In Veckenstadt, gab es ....
38. Auignon war die Stadt wo ich habe
39. Zurück in England, hatte ich
40. Während einer Fortsetzung der Komödie „Friends", fragte sie mich
41. und infolgedessen, konnten wir nicht ....
42. An einem Tag, habe Ich...

GRAMMAR

Word order
1. Was hat mich auch aufgefallen, was...
2. ,was fand ich fanszieniered
3. Obwohl ich interessierte mich
4. Wir haben über die Musik klassisch
5. weil jetzt meine Ich
6. Jedoch, einen Tag mein Vater und ich hat
7. weil Sie besuchten ihre Familie in Colchester
8. von alle Großbritannien und auch vom Ausland, habe ich eine sehr nette Französin getroffen
9. daß sie kannte meine Familie
10. ob ich freue mich auf
11. daß ich muss über nichts beunruhigen
12. daß ich muss den Armband behalten
13. Vielleicht es ein bisschen vor der Begegnung gab,
14. bis Aufsätze und Hausaufgaben machten mir Sorgen
15. Wenn ich bin nach Hause zurückgekommt
16. sie kann helfen mir mit meiner Französich
17. Ich ging zu die Britische Schule von Paris also war die meisten Kinder Englisch
18. dass wir für nur zwei Woche uns kannten
19. ich auch bleibt bei ihr.
20. Während der Reise die Frau lächelte und lächelte
21. welches ich fand ganz merkwürdig.
22. als sie mich fragte was ich werde für meinen jüngeren Bruder
23. als du beobachtet mir
24. wenn ich suchte die Frau
25. wo ich stand mit ein Gesicht von Schock
26. als er seinem Armbanduhr wiederholt sah an.
27. Er sah mich an mit Merkwürdigkeit
28. Einige Stunden später, gingen wir zu fuss entlang den Strand
29. weil unserer Taxi kam ab.
30. Amy und ich uns unterhalten
31. Das Hotel war schon und wir eine schöne Aussicht von dem Meer haben.
32. Meiner Mutter ein bisschen überdrüssig war.
33. Jedoch, gab meiner Mutter ein bisschen Geld die ältere Frau.
34. Meiner Mutter sehr überrascht war.
35. Jedoch am nachsten Tage fährt sie ab
36. Jeden Tag wir machten viel Spaß!
37. Obwohl, war ihr Englisch besserer als mein Deutsch,
38. Leider wenn ich zurück nach England kam, war sie
39. ob ich wurde ein Lied mit ihr singen.
40. und weil Kaja kannte niemand
41. bevor wir gingen nach unseren Hotel.
42. weil wir machten blöde Wetten

43. Wir wüssten, dass wir für zwei Wochen uns kannten
44. dass er bemühte sich
45. als ich könnte es erinnern
46. weil wir studierten Erdkunde
47. Durch Zufall auch fuhren

Relativsatz/ Conjunctions

1. Es war hier, dass ich meine Freundin sah
48. Wir hatten für zwei Stunden gefahren, um Leipzig anzukommen.
49. ich erkannte sie sofort. dass ich sie gesehen hatte
50. Wir machten natürlich die Dinge, dass man
51. Tatsächlich, errinnert er mich an Carlos, der ich vor einige Jahren in Tenerife getroffen
52. lachten und quatchten über das erste Mal wir getroffen hatten
53. ich wohnte in ein kleines Dorf heißt Veckenstedt in der nähe von Wernigerode
54. Sie hat alle Männer wir traffen gefallen
55. In dass Hotel war ein großes Schwimmbad, die mit Meerwasser voll war.
56. Dann kam einen Geschäftsmann mit einer Aktentasche die gegenüber ihm sass.
2. Die erste Person mit dem ich gesprochen habe
3. Eine Freundin, mit deren ich nach Kanada
4. Ins Restaurant könnte ich nicht sicher sein, wenn es dir war
5. Wir sassen auf dieser Mauer seit einige stunden als lachten und quatchten
6. Sie wußten, daß wir in Colchester leben. doch erwähnten Sie den Name
7. Seit ich zurückgekommen bin,

Wrong Tenses/ Aspect

1. Dass man auf Urlaub tun wurde
2. Wir wüssten, dass wir für zwei Wochen uns kannten
3. Ich war bestürzt und könnte nicht sagen
4. trank sein Wein, lächelt und ging
5. haben wir dem Bus nahmen
6. Ich hatte sie mit ihr vor heute sprechen
7. als Sarah und Leanne lachten, könnte ich nicht helfen
8. und wir hatten zusammentranken
9. Wir haben da die ganze Nacht sassen
10. wo wir übernachteten hat
11. Als wir in Majorca kamen, beginnt die Handlung
12. Das Ende des Urlaubs ist schnell gekommen und ich müsste nach England zurückfahren
13. wir haben ...... für einer ganzen Stunden gesprochen
14. dass wir nur für zwei Wochen uns kannten
15. blieb für drei Monten in Deutschland
16. Wir hatten für zwei Stunden gefahren
17. Ich wohnte da für ein Jahr
18. dass er weinen wurde
19. Das war eine Entschuldigung zum Essen ausgingen

Missing words

1. dass auch e-mail hatte
2. Sass mit meiner besten Freunden, Sarah und Leanne
3. der ich vor einige Jahren in Tenerife getroffen.
4. wenn es kein Wind oder das Schiff stampfte und schlingte nicht war es sehr romantisch
5. Während der Weihnachtsfeiertage schied nach Birmingham
6. und ausserdem, ich sie lebensfroh.
7. Deshalb finde ich eine sehr gute Freundin von

Subject-Verb Agreement

1. Ich und mein Vater war
2. weil sie (she) English sprechen
3. und ich Französisch sprechen

4. Und sie habt bei mir bleiben
5. Als du beobachtet mir
6. meinen freunden und ich nahm sich
7. Ich bleiben eine Woche
8. Keinen Taxt sind gekommen
9. seitdem ich nicht eine schrecklich Deutsche person treffen
10. Seine Haare war jetzt
11. Deshalb hatten ich viel zu sagen
12. Wir habe die deutsche Nahrung probiert
13. Da endeckt ich
14. Mein Vater und ich spielte ...
15. Ich betrachtet
16. suchte wir
17. wo wir übernachteten hat
18. Das bedeute
19. die kühle Brize lindertet
20. sie [they]...... unterschrieb
21. wenn ich neben dir sitzen

Verb-Object Agreement
1. Obwohl es keinen Austausch war
2. ich hoffe, nächstes Jahr ihnen zu sehen
3. erblickte ich der Mann
4. Was hat mich auch aufgefallen
5. Sie war besser .... als uns
6. Kaja genießt ihr Urlaub
7. Sie hat mir gefragt
8. habe Ich der Urlaub sehr nützlich gefunden
9. Wir besuchten der Strand
10. wir besuchten dem Strand
11. Dann kam einen Geschäftsmann
12. trank sein Wein aus
13. Als du beobachtet mir
14. dass ich dir nie noch mal gesehen würde
15. ich könnte ihn alles erzählen
16. hatte ich sofort ein Brief geschrieben
17. nahm der Sitz an
18. ich ihm gesehen habe
19. ich ihnen ..... nie wiedersehen würde
20. ich half sie
21. Dazu gab es .... Kindern mit den Drachen
22. Sie hat die ältere Frau bedanken
23. haben wir dem Bus nahmen
24. war meinen erste Mal

Preposition + Required Case
1. mit diese Familie
2. mit die zwei Söhne
3. mit ein paar Leute
4. Haare mit buntem Perlen
5. mit der meistens von ihnen
6. mit eine Deutsche Person
7. helfen mit meiner Französisch
8. Mit ihr Familie
9. mit ein Gesicht
10. mit ihren mutter
11. mit lange blonde Haare
12. in der Bahnhof
13. allein im Ausland fahrt
14. wir gingen im Klubs

15. Ich ging zu meine Freundin
16. gingen wir in diesem Restaurant
17. Früher ins Restaurant, habe ich dir gesehen
18. Ich ging zu die Britische Schule
19. In dem Nachtlokal zu gehen
20. Ich suchte in einen kleines Geschäft
21. Ich wohnte in ein kleines Dorf
22. kam mit uns in einer Disko
23. in einer Kneipe zu gehen
24. gingen wir zur Parties
25. die neben mich stand
26. Während unserer Besuch
27. In dass Hotel war ein grosses
28. von meinen Heimatstadt
29. von meiner Urlaub
30. von verschiedene Hotels
31. von der greichische Insels
32. seit einige Stunde
33. errinertern an dem Sporttauchen
34. Aus große Städte
35. vor einige Jahre
36. saß neben die Frau
37. Auf dem Bus warten
38. Während des Rest
39. gegenüber mich sass
40. liegen in die Sonne
41. für drei Monaten
42. wegen den vielen Spielern
43. ins Restaurants
44. nach ungefähr eine Stunde
45. ihn zufolge
46. ich freue mich auf meinem wichtigen Geburtstag in Februar
47. zu Arbeitgeber
48. Nach einiger Minuten
49. wenig über diesem ..... Land weiss

Wrong prepositions + Omissions

1. nach das Hotel
2. wir kamen an Florida.
3. Ich fuhr nach Paris für einen Urlaub
4. sehr reizvoll zu
5. und bleiben am gleichen Campingplatz
6. wir kamen ..... an Florida
7. berühmt für schone
8. Schulerinenn von alle Großbritannien und auch vom Ausland
9. Zum Glück ging es mit meinem Vater OK
10. arbeitete als Stahlarbeiter in Thyssen
11. er war arbeitslos wegen dieses Unternehemens
12. errstes Mal auf ein Flugzeug
13. Angst von meiner Prüfung
14. kann nicht in der Bahnhof rauchen
15. suchte wir durch unsere Speisekarte für etwas
16. ging schnell vom Restaurant
17. Im Abend
18. Sehr beeindruckt mit unseren Stimmen
19. eine Kreuzfahrt am Rhein
20. am Schiff gibt es viele
21. in dem Tag
22. gehen zu Kabaret
23. wir haben sehr viel über die deutsche Kultur kennengelernt

24. Ich kann mich ihre Name nicht erinnern
25. errine ich mich, dass ich
26. sie hatte die ältere Frau bedanken
27. ,das wir zuzammen teilgenommen hatte

Determiners
1. waren wir in Luft
2. gingen zu Kabaret
3. Dazu gab es ..... Kindern mit den Drachen
4. Den ich früher in Restaurant gesehen habe
5. Meine Freundin und ich gingen zu Bahnhof
6. tragte helle grosse Kleidung
7. für meinen Bruder und Schwester
8. Ein Tag war ich in Freibad
9. in woche
10. Dann gab es die Chance, ...
11. Ich war der anderer Meinung

Adjectives
1. war meinen erste Mal
2. eine schrecklich Deutsche person
3. das gleiches Alter
4. ein Finster, gut aussehend Mann
5. mit lange blonde Haare
6. Es gab einen offizieller Streik
7. Ein sehr schön Tag
8. sind wir sehr eng Freunden
9. Ich suchte in einen kleines Geschäft
10. Der letztes Zeit
11. gab es keine leere Sitze
12. des nächstes Tages
13. war ich von dieser Begegnung total überraschend

MOPRHOLOGY

Gender
1. Letzte Sommer ...
2. das Alkohol
3. Am ende des Woches ...
4. Das Gegend war doch ...
5. gingen wir nicht zur Hotel ...
6. eine andere Hotel ...
7. zum Tür ...
8. die Sommer
9. die Platz der Mauerfall
10. ein von der greichische Insels
11. Der Besuch was meinen erste Mal
12. bevor wir gingen nach unseren Hotel
13. unserer Taxi kam ...
14. zum Mitternacht
15. diese Mädchen
16. zum Stadt
17. im Hand
18. dieses Man
19. und andere billige Schmuck
20. ziegte ihr der Armband
21. unseren alten Haus
22. Keinen Taxt ist gekommen
23. Die Teenagers Klub

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Plural of nouns

1. Insels
2. verbrachte sie ihr Abends
3. Nachtkluben,
4. Nachlokals
5. gab es viele Windsurfen
6. wurden wir gute Freunden
7. schreiben wir Briefen
8. viele Arbeitnehme
9. haben wir historische Monumenten besucht
10. an den Platzen [could be a spelling mistake]
11. Kneipes
12. die Besuchen
13. sie konnten ihre Balle [could be a spelling mistake]
14. Gesichte
15. wir sind bessere Freundin geworden
16. die meisten Schwimmringen

Verb forms

1. tragte,
2. fahrt (could be a spelling mistake)
3. sitzte ich neben einer grossen
4. verabschiedten
5. schlingte
6. zerbroche ich eine teure Vase
7. was ich so suss gefaden
8. stiegten ....aus
9. zurückgekommt
10. sie diskutieret
11. entscheideten
12. Meine Freundin Freya winnte [gewann]
13. Dieser Abend .... fing wie jeder anderer.

LEXIS

1. Unterschrieb Kontrakten
2. Sarah und Leanne andauerten zurück zum Hotel
3. Sie war zu verlegt
4. Unerwartlich
5. Die Sängerin, die ein paar Wochen später tötet ... war.
6. Wir waren .... kinderisch
7. Das war eine Entschuldigung zum Essen
8. Ottawa, das Kapital von Kanada
9. und ich spazierte durch
10. Dazu gab es Sonnenanbietern
11. Weil wir studierten Erdkunde
12. Wir haben das Haus ...... verlassen
13. Dauerte eine weitere halbstunde
14. noch eine Treffung haben
15. Ich drehte mich um, um sie gegenüber zu stehen
16. Ich muss über nichts beunruhigen
17. Später in Woche
18. Die nachte Tage traffen wir die ältere Frau weiter
19. Wir habe die deutsche Nahrung probiert
20. Ein Finster .... Mann
21. Er bemühte sich frei zu machen
22. Seine Haare war jetzt kurzer und ordnungsliebender
23. Er sah mich an mit Merkwürdigkeit
24. Mit blossen füssen

25. Es ist so gut von dir zu sehen
26. und die gleiche Alt wie ich
27. Letztes Jahr wurde nicht unähnlich irgendeinem anderen
28. Einen Tag sprachen wir über Schule und ich entdeckte
29. Wir machten blöde Wetten
30. Wir haben eine sehr große Nacht erstellt
31. Zurück in England, hatte ich
32. Wir haben viele Jahre sehr viele Errinerungen erlebt.
33. Ich werde sich telefonieren
34. Was hat much auch aufgefallen über sie,
35. dass sie ruhig in dem Bewusstsein sein kann
36. die sehr lustig, hilfsbereit und zur Begrüssung war
37. damit die Rasen gut leben können
38. Leider war dieser Platz nicht sicher, dort zu sein
39. Der Mann entschuldigte sich sehr viel
40. nach dem beschäftigten Tag

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Appendix 11: The guide for interviews with lecturers

A. General Background
1. Abschluss und berufliche Qualifikationen: ....
2. Seit wann sind Sie in Großbritannien? ....

B. Acclimatisation in the new environment
3. Warum haben Sie den Entschluss gefasst, nach England zu kommen?
4. Welche Eigenschaften, Phänomene haben Sie mit Briten und Großbritannien vor ihrer Einreise verknüpft?
5. Können Sie sich daran erinnern, was Sie nach Ihrer Einreise besonders verblüfft hat?
6. Welche Angelegenheiten haben zu besonderen Belastungen im neuen Alltag geführt?
7. Was denken die Briten über Deutschland und Deutsche, Ihrer Meinung nach?
8. Sind Sie hier als Deutsche/ Deutscher provoziert, oder diskriminiert worden?

C. Professional experience of teaching, particularly German as a foreign language
9. Seit wann unterrichten Sie?
10. Haben Sie zuvor in einem anderen Land gearbeitet? Wenn ja, wie würden Sie denn ihre Erfahrung einschätzen?
11. Sind Sie zusätzlich in Forschungsaktivitäten involviert?

D. Past language learning experience
12. Welche Fremdsprachen sprechen Sie?
13. Was war besonders schwierig für Sie? In welchen Teilbereichen (Wortschatz, Grammatik usw.) hatten Sie die meisten Probleme?
14. Was ist, Ihrer Meinung nach, die beste Lernmethode? Welche Lernformen, – techniken fördern das Fremdsprachenlernen am besten?

E. Teaching experience in the context under study
15. Wie würden Sie Ihre ersten Erfahrungen an der Uni X beschreiben? Was war besonders neu oder merkwürdig für Sie?
16. Gibt es allgemeine Eigenschaften, die Ihrer Meining nach typisch für britische Studenten sind?
17. An der Uni X wird in der Fachrichtung „German Studies" nach den Prinzipien des monolingualen Ansatzes unterrichtet [Alle Seminare und Vorleseung werden auf Deutsch abgehalten] Sind diese Prinzipien etwas Neues für Sie?
18. Wird English im Unterricht eingesetzt? Wenn ja, dann in welchen Situationen?
19. Welche Methoden der Leistungsmessung werden von Ihnen eingesetzt?
20. Wer entscheidet über die Unterrichtsinhalte?
21. Welche Lehrverfahren haben sich in Ihrer Unterrichtspraxis an der Uni X als die effektivisten erwiesen?
22. Warum studieren Ihre Studenten Deutsch?
23. Manche Studenten zeichnen sich durch besonders gute Leistungen aus? Welche Eigenschaften besitzen die guten Studenten?
24. Gibt es Studenten, die im Unterricht nicht vorankommen? Welche Eigenschaften besitzen die schwachen Studenten?
25. Deutsche Sprache- schwere Sprache- diese Meinung ist weit verbreitet. Hat sich diese Ansicht in Ihrer Unterrichtspraxis in Großbritannien bestätigt?
26. Was irritiert und frustriert Sie im Unterricht am meisten?
27. Was ist besonders lohnend für Sie?
28. Eigenschaften von gutem Lehrer?

29. Im Unterricht sind Konflikte oft unausweichlich. Können Sie sich an Situationen erinnern, die Spannungen oder Konflikte ausgelöst haben?

Appendix 12: Lecturer interview – a sample

1. Abschluss und berufliche Qualifikationen:

Studium der Germanistik und Anglistik in Deutschland, Auslandsaufenthalt in Amerika-Studium der Anglistik- Anglistik als Hauptfach.

2. Seit wann sind Sie in Großbritannien?

Oktober 2002

3. Warum haben Sie den Entschluss gefasst, nach England zu kommen?

A: weil ich in Deutschland keine Zukunftsaussichten hatte, insofern als die Universitäten kein Geld für Festanstellungen haben und ich nur als Lehrkraft auf der Honorarbasis war. Ich wollte nicht so von Semester zu Semester und auch mehr Verantwortung und in größeren Aufgabenbereichen.

4. Welche Eigenschaften, Phänomene haben Sie mit Briten und Großbritannien vor ihrer Einreise verknüpft?

A: So nur vom Urlaub und das war anders. Ich glaube einfach, dass man die Eindrücke, die man als Tourist erlebt, nicht mit den Eindrücken vergleichen kann, die man mitkriegt, wenn man da lebt. Das war auch in Amerika so. Ich war vorher 8 Wochen in den Staaten im Urlaub, es war alles super toll, ich habe alle Amerikaner geliebt und als ich da gelebt habe, da habe ich auch dann eben auch die schlechteren Seiten gesehen und genauso ist es in England auch. Als Tourist ist alles Klasse aber wenn du dann hier lebst und du musst dich mit der Bürokratie auseinandersetzen, dann ist es eben was anderes. Als Tourist lernst nur Hotel buchen, einkaufen und wenn du hier lebst, du musst dich halt mit den alltäglichen Dingen beschäftigen, Wohnung mieten, Makler, Strom, Council Tax, diese ganzen Sachen.

5. Können Sie sich daran erinnern, was Sie nach ihrer Einreise besonders verblüfft hat?

A: Ja, ich hätte nicht gedacht, dass die Bürokratie hier noch schlimmer ist als in Deutschland. Das hat mich schockiert und ich war überrascht wie unselbständig und kindlich die Studenten sind.

6. Welche Angelegenheiten haben zu besonderen Belastungen im neuen Alltag geführt?

A: Die Bürokratie eigentlich, dieser ganze Papierkram hier an der Uni, es kam so viel auf einmal, die ersten Monate das war echte Bürokratie.

7. Was denken die Briten über Deutschland und Deutsche, Ihrer Meinung nach?

A: Ich habe jetzt gerade mit Final Years ein Marketingprojekt entwickelt um das Deutschlandbild in England zu verbessern und wir haben auch so Fragen gemacht. Die grundsätzlichen Aussagen, die fast alle geäußert haben, war, dass sich die Deutschen super geschmacklos kleiden, dass die Deutschen sehr direkt sind, was bei Engländern

teilweise ale unhöfflich erachtet wird hmmm und dass die Deutschen keinen Humor haben. Also schlechte Kleidung, schlechter Musikgeschmack, und eben zu direkt.

8. Sind Sie hier als Deutsche verachtet, provoziert, oder diskriminiert worden?

A: Überhaupt nicht. Ich habe nie selber mit diesen Stereotypen über Deutschland zu tun gehabt. Das habe ich eigentlich durch die Werbekampagne mitgekriegt und weil ich mit den Studenten darüber geredet habe. Ich habe das selber nie persönlich so erfahren außerhalb der Uni. Mir wurde hier schon an der Uni gesagt dass ich zu direkt bin, sie gucken mich teilweise an, als wenn ich ihnen einen Eimer kaltes Wasser ins Gesicht geschmissen hätte. Aber überhaupt keinerlei negative Erfahrungen. Ich habe viel darüber gelesen, in den Zeitungen aber persönlich gar nichts.

9. Seit wann unterrichten Sie?

Seit 1999- Deutsch als Fremdsprache und Englisch in privaten Sprachschulen

10. Haben Sie zuvor in einem anderen Land gearbeitet? Wenn ja, wie würden Sie denn ihre Erfahrung einschätzen?

In Amerika, Deutschunterricht in der Sommerschule in den letzten 4 Jahren. Sehr gute Erfahrung.

11. Sind Sie zusätzlich in Forschungsaktivitäten involviert?

A: Noch nicht, ab nächstes Jahr.

12. Welche Fremdsprachen sprechen Sie?

Englisch fließend
Spanisch- gut
Französisch- Grundkenntnisse

13. Was war für Sie besonders schwierig? In welchen Teilbereichen (Wortschatz, Grammatik usw.) hatten Sie die meisten Probleme?

A: Im Englisch die unterschiedliche Satzstellung und die Verwendung der Zeiten. Im Spanischen hm die Aussprache, die Grammatik leichter, weil das nämlich die dritte Fremdsprache war.

A: Ich habe mit Englisch angefangen und dann habe ich in der siebten Klasse Latein dazu genommen und ich finde, dass Latein erleichtert einfach vieles, weil diese ganzen Begriffe so geläufig werden und Latein hat eine sehr komplizierte Grammatik und wenn du die verstanden hast, dann erscheint alles danach wesentlich leichter.

14. Was ist, Ihrer Meinung nach, die beste Lernmethode? Welche Lernformen, – techniken fördern das Fremdsprachenlernen am besten?

A: Ins Land gehen ja ins Land gehen.

15. Wie würden Sie Ihre ersten Erfahrungen an der Uni X beschreiben? Was war besonders neu oder merkwürdig für Sie?

A: Dass die Studenten so, man hat das Gefühl man steht teilweise vor einer Gruppe von Kleinkindern. Bei den ältern Studenten ist aber sehr angenehm, da sie dadurch, dass sie schon ein Jahr in Deutschland waren, Kontakte zur deutschen Kultur hatten und sie können auch mit dieser direkten Art besser umgehen, während die First Years hmm ja sie gucken mich teilweise schockiert an und sie geben mir das Gefühl, ich habe was Schlimmes gesagt, nun wenn ich nicht die halbe Stunde drum labbere, sondern direkt sage, weil ich will und dadurch dass sich die Studenten so verhalten, das hat mich schon am Anfang ein bisschen geärgert, dass sie selber nicht so viel Selbstbewusstsein und Courage haben, mir zu sagen, was ihnen nicht passt sondern dass sie dann damit zum Staff Student Consultant Committee gehen. Ich habe dann vor dem Meeting einen Zettel gekriegt, die First Years haben damit und damit ein Problem. Da habe ich sie beim nächsten Mal angesprochen und da habe ich gesagt: ‚Sagt mal, ihr seht mich jede Woche, könnt ihr mir das nicht sagen?' Mit so was geht man dann nicht zum Lehrer, sondern da gehen wir direkt zu diesem Meeting. Dafür ist es da. Sie können also nicht direkt sagen, ‚das gefällt uns nicht, mach das bitte anders'. Bei den Final Years klappt das mittlerweile. Ich habe ihnen immer wieder angedeutet ‚wenn euch was nicht gefällt, ihr müsst mir das erst mal sagen'. Ansonsten kann ich nichts daran ändern, wenn ich nicht weiß, was ich anders machen sollte. Ich muss mich auch erst mal an alles hier gewöhnen und wenn ihr mir sagt, ja aber wir müssen bis nächste Woche Präsentationen vorbereiten, können wir vielleicht für diese Hausgabe jetzt zwei Wochen haben, damit habe ich absolut kein Problem, nun ihr müsst mir das sagen.

16. Gibt es allgemeine Eigenschaften, die Ihrer Meining nach typisch fur britische Studenten sind?

A: Da habe ich schon teilweise gedacht O Gott, sie wissen ja überhaupt nichts, das kann man natürlich nicht so generalisieren. Da habe ich Studenten, die reden viel im Unterricht, die sehr aktiv sind. Ich habe die anderen, die sehr schüchtern sind. Während bei chinesischen Studenten kann ich sagen, sie sind grundsätzlich zurückhaltender, die musst du ansprechen, die melden sich nicht von sich aus, sie fragen nichts, das ist einfach da oben der Lehrer und der kleine Student da unten. Das ist in England nicht so. Das mag mit meiner Art zusammenhängen, wie ich auf die Studenten zugehe.

A: Dieses Nicht-Direkte, dass dieses Vertrauensverhältnis von der einer Seite nicht da zu sein schneit oder dass sie den Mut nicht haben, etwas zu sagen, das finde ich sehr gewöhnungsbedürftig, weil das kenne ich aus Deutschland nicht und ich denke, dass es hier so ein großer Fehler an dem System ist, weil die Uni eigentlich so meiner Ansicht nach dafür da ist, die Leute auf das Leben vorzubereiten und ich nicht das Gefühl habe, dass sie hier aufs Leben vorbereitet werden. Ich meine hier vor allem die selbständige Arbeit, ich meine, dass die Studenten den Stundenplan schon vorgedruckt kriegen, da habe ich gedacht bitte? Ich muss den Studenten doch nicht alles vorkauen. Du musst dir selber alles einplanen und koordinieren und wenn du das nicht an der Uni lernst, bitte wann willst du denn das lernen?

17. An der Uni X wird in der Fachrichtung „German Studies" nach den Prinzipien des monolingualen Ansatzes unterrichtet [Alle Seminare und Vorleseung werden auf Deutsch abgehalten] Sind diese Prinzipien etwas Neues für Sie?

A: Das finde ich völlig in Ordnung, weil ich habe bei einigen, wenn sie mir sagen, wir hatten schon 7 Jahre Deutsch in der Schule und sie können keinen einzigen deutschen Satz formulieren dann glaube ich einfach, dass der Fremdsprachenunterricht bei ihnen größtenteils in der Muttersprache stattgefunden hat und das finde ich nicht gut. Sicher das Problem, dass du Leute dabei hast, die leider nichts verstehen ich glaube, die sind dann an der Uni falsch aufgehoben, Fremdsprachen zu studieren. Ich habe den größten Teil meiner Vorlesungen auf Englisch gehabt und natürlich sitzt man da, man hat was nicht

verstanden aber da kann man immer nachfragen oder nachlesen. Ich sage bei vielen Sachen, wenn ich dann nur Fragezeichnen in den Gesichtern sehe oder wenn es um die Hausaufgaben geht, sage ich alles wieder auf Englisch, aber ansonsten versuche ich schon alles auf Deutsch zu machen. Da bin ich daran gewöhnt, da ich in * auch Deutsch als Fremdsprache unterrichtet habe aber Studenten aus allen Nationen hatte.

18. Wird English im Unterricht eingesetzt? Wenn ja, dann in welchen Situationen?

A: Wenn ich das Gefühl habe, dass das jetzt sehr wichtig ist und dass sie das nicht verstanden haben oder wenn es um welche Vokabeln geht und ich versuche es drei Mal auf Deutsch zu erklären und sie gucken mich he? Dann mache ich es schon auf Englisch. Ich glaube, dass dieser Ansatz, alles auf Deutsch zu machen, besser ist aber zeitaufwendiger. Ich würde um einiges mehr schaffen, wenn ich es auf Englisch machen könnte, weil es einfach schneller vorangeht, weil es natürlich seine Zeit dauert, wenn du eine Vokabel 3 Mal erklären musst.

19. Welche Methoden der Leistungsmessung werden von Ihnen eingesetzt?

A: Das ist mehr oder weniger vorgegeben, meistens Tests.

20. Wer unterscheidet über die Unterrichtsinhalte?

A: Es kommt auf den Kurs an. In der Wirtschaftsgesichte ist mir relativ viel vorgegeben. Es. wir gesagt, das musst du machen, das musst du machen aber wie ich das jetzt letztendlich aufbaue, das wird mir größtenteils dann überlassen.

21. Welche Lehrverfahren haben sich in Ihrer Unterrichtspraxis an der Uni X als die effektivsten erwiesen? Welche Lehrverfahren sind die beliebtesten bei den Studenten?

A: Am meisten Gruppenarbeit, weil ich merke, dass sie untereinander mehr reden, natürlich muss ich dann an jede Gruppe rangehen, wenn du daneben stehst, reden sie auch Deutsch. Das hängt ja auch natürlich von der Klasse ab. Es gibt Klassen, da funktioniert die Gruppenarbeit gar nicht. Es gibt auch Klassen, wo sie sich nicht trauen und lieber untereinander reden und da jetzt gerade bei Final Years, da habe ich 3 Leute, die super sind. Wenn ich jetzt da eine Diskussion mit der ganzen Klassen anfange, rede ich und die Drei und alle anderen, die sitzen nur da und die bringe ich nur zum Sprechen, wenn ich Gruppenarbeit mache.

A: Für aktuelle Themen sind sie auch dankbarer als für irgendwelche Sachen, die schon weit zurückliegen. Sachen, wo sie sich mit identifizieren können, mit diesem Buch „Sonnenallee" das finden sie ganz Klasse, weil das eben auch Jugendliche sind. Wir haben wieder heute die Kurzgeschichte „Die geöffnete Order" gelesen, ich habe die ganze Geschichte noch mal durchgekaut. Sie haben nichts verstanden, gar nichts.

A: Welche Unterrichtsform erfolgreich ist? Das hängt von der Klasse ab, das kann ich nicht so sagen, bei den Final Years sicherlich Gruppenarbeit aber das hängt immer von der Persönlichkeit der Studenten ab.

22. Warum studieren Ihre Studenten Deutsch?

A: Gute Frage, das würde ich manche Studenten auch gerne fragen. Ja, da sagen sie schon ich habe Deutsch in der Schule gehabt, das interessiert mich. Wenn ich aber dann merke, was sie über Deutschland wissen, nämlich Null, da frage ich mich warum, sie das studieren. Mir wurde gesagt, dass es hier in England wohl so ist, dass die Studenten ihr Fach nicht nach Vorlieben auswählen, sondern danach welche Zensuren sie im A-level

bekommen hatten. Wenn sie jetzt einen Deutschlehrer hatten, der die Noten verschenkt hat? Ich habe jetzt mein Studienfach nach Interesse gewählt, ich habe das Gefühl, dass sie hier noch nie deutsche Geschichte gelesen haben, dann frage ich mich, wie kann man dann so was studieren?

A: Ja dass sie Geld verdienen können, dass sie hinterher gut Deutsch können, ihr Studium gut abschließen und gutes Geld verdienen können

A: Ich glaube, dass im vierten Jahr, nachdem sie in Deutschland waren und gearbeitet haben, sind sie der ernsten Lage bewusst, sie wissen, dass sie sich bald Jobs besorgen müssen. Das erste Jahr ist, glaube ich, nur Party im zweiten Studienjahr, da kann ich schlecht urteilen, weil ich nur eine kleine Gruppe habe, wo ich aber schon das Gefühl habe, sie kriegen jetzt ein bisschen Panik, da sie sich um Praktikumplätze kümmern müssen.

23. Manche Studenten zeichnen sich durch besonders gute Leistungen aus? Welche Eigenschaften besitzen die guten Studenten?

A: Sehr fokussiert, dass sie genau wissen, was sie wollen, warum sie das machen. Sie sind sehr organisiert, sehr gutes Timemanagement und sehr interessiert

24. Es gibt Studenten, die im Unterricht nicht vorankommen? Welche Eigenschaften besitzen die schwachen Studenten?

A: Die da nur sitzen und nichts machen

25. Deutsche Sprache- schwere Sprache- diese Meinung ist weit verbreitet. Hat sich diese Ansicht in Ihrer Unterrichtspraxis in Großbritannien bestätigt?

A: Glaube ich auch, unregelmäßige Verben, Präpositionen, Kasusendungen ganz extrem, weil es im Englischen nicht gibt. Das sind so die Hauptprobleme.

26. Was irritiert und frustriert Sie im Unterricht am meisten?

A: Mittlerweile gar nichts, mittlerweile habe ich mich an alles gewöhnt. Im Unterricht, da muss ich ehrlich sagen, da habe ich mich daran gewöhnt. Am Anfang habe ich versucht, das Indirekte, das Vorsichtige zu übernehmen. Da habe ich gedacht, da habe ich keinen Bock zu, das ist nicht meine Mentalität. Sie müssen sich einfach drauf einstellen, weil wenn sie im dritten Jahr nach Deutschland gehen und wenn ich mir hier die ganze Zeit verstelle, dann kriegen sie einen Schock fürs Leben, wenn sie dann erfahren, wie die Deutschen dann wirklich sind. Ich habe mich an die Studenten und an ihre Art gewöhnt, vor allem bei First Years, wenn sie sich die ganzen Nächte bis 5 Uhr morgens um die Ohren hauen aber ich würde auch nichts daran ändern können. Das sind so Sachen, da habe ich mich mittlerweile schon arrangiert und das nehme ich einfach hin. Woran ich mich immer noch nicht gewöhnt habe und was aber mit den Studenten nichts zu tun hat, das ist die Bürokratie, dass ich ja hier für alles einen Zettel brauche, ja, die Klausur wird von fünftausend Leuten gecheckt, bevor sie denn geschrieben werden kann. Das ist ja mehr Kontrolle hier,

27. Was ist besonders lohnend für Sie?

A: Mittlerweile alles, dadurch dass ich mich mit den Studenten arrangiert habe und mich über ihre Eigenart nicht mehr aufrege, sondern einfach sage, OK die First Years sind eben so, für die ist das erste Jahr in erster Linie Party in zweiter Linie Uni und dass sie jetzt so auftauen, in den ersten Wochen, da habe ich gedacht, O Gott die sagen ja gar nichts.

Mittlerweile gehe ich jetzt gern in jede Klasse rein. Es gib immer Stunden, die nicht so toll laufen aber eigentlich macht mir jede Stunde Spaß.

28. Eigenschaften von gutem Lehrer?

Einfühlungsvermögen
Grenzen setzen zu können

A: Das ist, glaube ich, ja ganz schwer diesen Mittelweg zu finden, ich lasse mich im Unterricht duzen, weil ich nicht will, dass sie mich siezen und ich sie duze und ich möchte dass sie mich als Vertrauensperson ansehen, dass wenn sie ein Problem haben, dass sie zu mir kommen können, egal ob das jetzt privat ist oder den Unterricht angeht, ich möchte aber auch, dass sie mich trotzdem respektieren, ich will nicht nur Kumpel sein, ich möchte Freund, Lehrer und Respektperson sein, so alles in einem und da den Mittelweg zu finde, das ist besonders schwierig.

29. Im Unterricht sind Konflikte oft unausweichlich. Können Sie sich an Situationen erinnern, die die Spannungen oder Konflikte ausgelöst haben?

A: Nööö, eigentlich nicht. Nur einmal, da habe ich einen aus der Vorlesung rausgeschmissen, da er eingeschlafen ist, wo mich der Rest der Klasse so angeguckt hat, als wenn ich jetzt was ganz Schlimmes gemacht hätte, aber wo ich mich dann einfach draufgesetzt habe, dass die Studenten mit dem Direktsein nicht umgehen können aber dadurch dass ich merke, wenn ich zu direkt bin, ich sehe das ja an ihren Gesichtern. Dann sage ich ja einfach, das ist jetzt meine Art, das ist jetzt nicht böse gemeint aber das muss jetzt mal gesagt werden. Bis jetzt habe eigentlich nie irgendwelche Situation gehabt, wo ich gedacht habe Upps. Das geht mit ein bisschen Humor.

Appendix 13: GCSE and A-level results in Modern Languages (1985 – 2005)

GCSE level examinations in German 1988 – 1991[84]

Year	1988	1989	1990	1991
German GCSE	76320	80456	84306	89909

'A' level examinations in German 1985 – 1991[85]

Year	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
German 'A' level	8358	7858	7293	7153	7718	9425	10583

GCSE Candidates in ML (1992-2002)[86]

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
French	323,535	319,821	328,306	350,027	347,16	335,997	337,577	342,227
German	101,388	108,401	118,985	129,386	134,286	134,604	134,286	137,011
Spanish	29,468	32,148	36,335	40,366	42,553	43,468	47,406	49,329

	2000	2001	2002
French	344,305	350,227	338,503
German	134,356	136,437	126,22
Spanish	51,264	53,709	58,011

'A' level Candidates in ML (1992-2002)[87]

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
French	31,261	29,886	28,942	27,563	27,487	25,881	23,579	21,333	18,341
German	11,338	10,857	10,832	10,632	10,726	10,44	10,228	9,777	8,718
Spanish	4,72	4,85	4,74	4,837	5,232	5,606	5,644	5,876	5,702

	2001	2002
French	18,079	15,615
German	8,575	7,013
Spanish	5,743	5,573

GCSE results 2003[88]
French

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	155034	5.5	4.9	9	10.6	18.5	21.3	16.1	11.2	6.4	2
Female	176055	6.1	8.1	13.3	14.5	22.4	19.2	11.6	6.7	3.2	1
All	331089	5.8	6.6	11.3	12.7	20.6	20.1	13.7	8.8	4.7	1.5

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[84] The data includes entry figures for England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Only the period from 1988 to 1991 was taken into consideration, see Rock (1993).

[85] The data comprises entry figures for England, Wales and Northern Ireland, see Jones (1993).

[86] Data distributed by the Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies (LLAS) 2003/2004, originally based on figures from Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) and the Joint Council for General Qualifications (JCGQ). It represents England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

[87] Ibid.

[88] "GCSE results 2003" in *The Guardian*, 20. August 2003.

German

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	60398	2.1	4.6	9.1	11.7	23.3	23.3	14	8.3	4.4	1.3
Female	65265	2.3	7.6	13	15	26	20.5	9.8	5	2.4	0.7
All	125663	2.2	6.2	11.1	13.4	24.7	21.8	11.8	6.7	3.3	1

Spanish

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	25059	0.9	8.1	12.5	12.5	18.1	17.5	12.5	9.7	6.5	2.6
Female	36264	1.3	12.2	16.7	15.3	20.4	16	9.1	5.8	3.4	1.1
All	61323	1.1	10.5	15	14.2	19.4	16.7	10.5	7.3	4.7	1.7

A-level results 2003[89]

French

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	5006	1.4	33.5	25.7	19.3	12.5	6.6	2.4
Female	10525	2.6	30.4	26.7	20.4	13.7	6.6	2.2
All	15531	2.1	31.4	26.4	20	13.3	6.6	2.3

German

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	2473	0.7	34.3	23.6	17.9	14.3	7.6	2.3
Female	447	1.1	20.4	24.8	20.3	15.3	7.5	2.7
All	6950	0.9	31.2	24.3	19.5	14.9	7.5	2.6

Spanish

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	1861	0.5	35.4	27.3	18	12.1	5.4	1.8
Female	3920	1	31.9	27.7	19.5	13.1	5.7	2.1
All	5781	0.8	33	27.6	19	12.8	5.6	2

GCSE results 2004[90]

French

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	146542	5.1	5.7	8.7	12.0	19.7	19.1	15.2	11.2	6.5	1.9
Female	171553	5.7	8.8	12.5	16.6	22.2	17.2	11.3	7.0	3.4	1.0
All	318095	5.4	7.4	10.7	14.5	21.1	18.1	13.0	8.9	4.9	1.4

German

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	58493	2.0	5.3	9.2	13.7	25.1	19.3	12.3	8.6	5.1	1.4
Female	63530	2.1	7.9	13.2	18.0	26.3	16.2	9.3	5.6	2.8	0.7
All	122023	2.1	6.7	11.2	16.0	25.7	17.7	10.7	7.0	3.9	1.1

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[89] "A-level results 2003" in *The Guardian*, 14 August 2003.
[90] "GCSE results 2004" in: *The Guardian*, 26 August 2004.

Spanish

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	26439	0.9	10.4	11.9	13.2	18.8	17.1	12.1	8.8	6.0	1.7
Female	37639	1.3	14.6	16.0	16.4	20.2	14.9	8.6	5.5	3.0	0.8
All	64078	1.1	12.9	14.3	15.1	19.6	15.8	10.0	6.9	4.2	1.2

A-level results 2004[91]

French

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	4914	1.4	34.7	26.4	19.2	11.7	6.2	1.8
Female	10235	2.5	32.8	26.9	20.1	13.0	5.7	1.5
All	15149	2.0	33.4	26.8	19.8	12.6	5.8	1.6

German

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	2269	0.6	35.3	23.6	17.4	14.2	6.9	2.6
Female	4121	1.0	31.4	25.0	20.5	14.6	6.8	1.7
All	6390	0.8	32.8	24.5	19.4	14.4	6.9	2.0

Spanish

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	1852	0.5	37.6	28.0	18.7	9.2	4.3	2.2
Female	4114	1.0	34.1	27.7	20.5	11.2	4.8	1.7
All	5966	0.8	35.2	27.7	20.0	10.6	4.6	1.9

GCSE results 2005[92]

French

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	122712	4.3	6.7	10.1	14.2	22.2	19.6	13.2	8.7	4.2	1.1
Female	149428	5.1	9.9	14.2	18.0	24.0	16.5	9.4	5.1	2.3	0.6
All	272140	4.7	8.5	12.3	16.3	23.2	17.9	11.1	6.7	3.1	0.9

German

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	50425	1.8	6.4	11.3	15.8	27.0	19.3	10.5	5.8	3.1	0.8
Female	54863	1.9	9.3	15.9	20.0	27.1	15.2	6.9	3.5	1.6	0.5
All	105288	1.8	7.9	13.7	18.0	27.0	17.2	8.6	4.6	2.4	0.6

Spanish

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A*	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	U
Male	25376	0.9	12.1	13.6	14.8	19.2	16.5	11.4	7.4	4.0	1.0
Female	37080	1.3	15.7	16.5	17.6	20.5	14.6	7.8	4.6	2.1	0.6
All	62456	1.1	14.2	15.4	16.4	20.0	15.4	9.3	5.7	2.9	0.7

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[91] "A-level results 2004" in: *The Guardian*, 19 August 2004.
[92] "GCSE results 2004" in: *The Guardian*, 25 August 2005.

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'A' level results 2005[93]

French

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	4591	1.3	34.3	26.7	19.6	12.2	5.6	1.6
Female	9893	2.3	32.2	28.0	20.1	12.5	5.6	1.6
All	14484	1.8	32.9	27.5	20.0	12.4	5.6	1.6

German

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	2222	0.6	36.7	25.5	18.3	11.7	5.8	2.0
Female	3679	0.9	34.9	24.9	19.7	13.0	5.7	1.8
All	5901	0.8	35.6	25.1	19.2	12.5	5.7	1.9

Spanish

Gender	Number sat	% of total no. sat	A	B	C	D	E	U
Male	2007	0.6	39.0	27.4	19.5	9.1	3.9	1.1
Female	4223	1.0	35.7	27.9	19.5	11.1	4.2	1.6
All	6230	0.8	36.7	27.8	19.5	10.5	4.1	1.4

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[93] A-level results 2005 in: *The Guardian*, 18 August 2005.

Appendix 14: Unemployment rates among new graduates[94]

Reality: AVERAGE UNEMPLOYMENT RATES AMONG NEW GRADUATES IN THE UK 1996-2002	% OF GRADUATES UNEMPLOYED
MEDICINE/DENTISTRY/VET SCIENCE	O.44%
EDUCATION	3.19%
LAW	3.65%
GERMAN	**4.67%**
FRENCH	**4.85%**
ALL MODERN LANGUAGES	**5.51%**
MATHEMATICS	6.21%
PHYSICAL SCIENCES	6.25%
ENGLISH	6.49%
BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES	6.61%
PSYCHOLOGY	6.64%
BUSINESS/ ADMINISTRATION	6.66%
AGRICULTURE/ FORESTRY	6.70%
HUMANITIES	6.94%
SOCIOLOGY/ ECONOMICS/ POLITICS	7.12%
ENGINEERING/ TECHNOLOGY	7.77%
COMPUTING	8.91%
MEDIA STUDIES	9.48%
CREATIVE ARTS/ DESIGN	9.51%

Appendix 15: Jobs for language graduates[95]

THE JOBS NEW UK LANGUAGE GRADUATES REALLY DID IN 2002	
BUSINESS SERVICES	25.3%
BANKING / FINANCE	10.8%
WHOLESALE & RETAIL SALES/ MAINTENANCE	11.5%
MANUFACTURING	9.0%
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	9.2%
COMMUNITY / SOCIAL / PERSONAL / SERVICES	6.9%
EDUCATION	8.0%
TRANSPORT / COMMUNICATIONS	6.9%
HEALTH / SOCIAL WORK	5.3%
HOTELS / RESTAURANTS	4.4%
INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS	0.2%
OTHER AREAS	2.4%

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[94] Data obtained from UCML, http://www.ucml.org.uk/members/c7.htm, originally created by Keith Marshall on the basis of HESA statistics.
[95] Ibid.

Appendix 16: German Departments in England: based on a ranking list distributed by *The Times* in 2004

	TQA	RAE		A Levels	Destinations	Overall Score
University College London	23	5*	A	25.7	90	100.0
Cambridge	22	5*	A	29.8	90	98.9
Exeter	24	5*	A	22.6	55	95.5
Nottingham	22	5*	A	27.1	75	95.0
Warwick	23	5	A	24.9	65	93.3
Durham	22	4	A	27.4	85	92.9
Queen Mary	23	5	A	16.4	75	90.9
Oxford	21	5	A	29.4	60	88.4
Bristol	21	5	B	26.1	75	88.1
Aston	22	5	C	21.6		86.9
Newcastle	22	4	A	22.0	65	86.8
Kingston	21	4	A			85.8
Manchester	21	5*	B	22.3	60	85.5
King's College London	20	5*	A	21.3	70	85.1
Leeds	22	4	C	23.2	60	83.7
Salford	20	5	A	20.5		83.0
Northumbria	23	3b	E			82.9
Liverpool	19	5	A	22.6	80	82.4
Portsmouth	21	5	C		65	82.2
Bath	19	5	A	24.4		81.5
Sheffield	20	4	A	25.1	60	81.3
Birmingham	19	5*	B	23.6	65	80.8
Central Lancashire	21	3b	A		70	80.2
Hull	21	3a	C	17.5	80	79.9
Southampton	18	5*	A	22.7		79.2
Reading	20	4	B	19.6		78.8
Leicester	21	3b	A	19.5	65	78.5
Royal Holloway	19	5*	C	23.3		78.5
Kent	19	4	B	16.8	85	77.4
Keele	19	3a	A			73.6
Oxford Brookes	19	4	B	16.7		73.4
East Anglia	19	3b	B		75	73.1
Brighton	20	5	E	14.8	75	72.5
Surrey	18	5	C	22.2		72.4
Manchester Metropolitan	21			17.8	65	71.9
West of England	21			16.2		70.1
Lancaster	19			20.6	70	68.0
Sussex	17	4	A			67.3
Nottingham Trent	17	3a	B	13.4	70	65.2
Coventry	21			13.1	35	64.5
Wolverhampton	17	3a	A			64.3
Goldsmiths College	17	4	C			63.0
Liverpool John Moores	19			13.8	55	62.1