BILINGUAL INSTRUCTION OF COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS IN THE CONTEXT OF TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH

Bilingual versus Non-Bilingual Students at

the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 Salzburg

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ABSTRACT

The book compares bilingual and non-bilingual students of international management and marketing at the business school HAK 1 Salzburg. The business students whose performance was assessed were all bilingual as they had studied English as a foreign language for 7 years prior to this research. The term ‘bilingual’ in this book refers solely to the students who attended the bilingual track or studied business subjects in English, their first foreign language. On the other hand, non-bilingual students studied the business subjects in German, their native language. The purpose of this research was to find out in what ways bilingual students were better than non-bilingual students. In other words, the results would reveal the biggest differences and similarities between the two groups of business students. For this purpose, the communicative tests were designed to assess the students’ general language proficiency, and their speaking and writing skills. In addition, the students’ social background was assessed by using the questionnaires designed for this study. The findings proved that bilingual students excelled non-bilingual students in all tests. The biggest differences between the two groups of students were found in the use of grammar and vocabulary. The slightest difference between them was revealed in the ‘fluency’ criterion of the speaking test.

In memory of my father

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Contents

Figures

Tables

1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Today knowledge of English and academic credentials in English are seen as a necessity for international upward mobility. The spread of English as a global language of business, travel, diplomacy and pleasure has been assisted by globalisation. In Europe, English is gradually becoming the language of higher education (Coleman 2006). Even though English has gained in importance, there has also been a trend towards promoting linguistic diversity in Europe, which is supported by European institutions. This support may be influenced by the wishes of some European countries whose languages used to be more widely spoken but have lost their importance, or by the uneasiness of some smaller European countries whose languages are becoming increasingly dominated by English. No matter what reasons lie behind the promotion of multilingualism, it is already a fact that speaking only one world language is no longer enough to succeed in international business. Companies have better chances of selling their products abroad if they also speak their customers' languages. In Europe multilingualism has therefore become the rule rather than an exception.

Learning languages has become popular especially in non–English-speaking countries in Europe. By far the best customers of foreign-language schools are businesspeople whose employers encourage them to attend business English courses and courses in other business languages. Businesspeople as job-experienced learners and business students at universities as pre-experience learners of business English are very demanding and competitive students. For this reason, teaching business English at university level and in foreign-language schools requires the use of the most modern teaching tools in classrooms. Business English teachers are therefore referred to as instructors whose active involvement in the learning process is the prerequisite for encouraging communication in class. Namely, the main attention of business English courses is paid to teaching and practicing the communication skills for business that are directly needed in day-to-day business contacts.

Furthermore, there are also business schools at secondary levels which increasingly offer not only business English courses, but also bilingual classes in which commercial subjects of study are taught in a foreign language, predominantly English. This is an added value of the school, which immediately attracts more motivated and ambitious students who are aware that success in their future business careers depends on their knowledge of business English. One such elite school is the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 (HAK 1) Salzburg, where this research took place.

The bilingual students at HAK 1 Salzburg, who chose to join the bilingual track (in which business school subjects are taught in English), are compared to the non-bilingual students, who study business school subjects in their native language. All students, both bilingual and non-bilingual, also attend business English courses throughout their studies in which the business content is incorporated into language study. The “non-bilingual” students in this study are also competent in two languages but they are referred to as “non-bilingual” because they are not enrolled in the bilingual track. Therefore the labels “bilingual” and “non-bilingual” in this study are used to differentiate between the two groups of students with regard to their different treatment in school.

Even though increasingly more schools in Europe are offering bilingual instruction in commercial subjects, research on teaching business school subjects bilingually is scant. Generally speaking, research on teaching business content and language in business English courses at all levels has been neglected, even though the popularity of such courses has been constantly increasing. This lack of research in business English may result from the fact that business English is not an easily defined area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP; Ellis and Johnson 1994). This study therefore seeks to bridge this research gap.

The first part of this dissertation provides a theoretical background with regard to the issues of bilingualism and bilingual education. The scope then becomes narrower, focusing on methodological concepts rather than school programmes. Content-based instruction (CBI) is discussed in greater depth together with a reminder that the need for teaching language communicatively brought about the idea that content and language cannot be separated in second-language classrooms. In this respect, the task-based approach, which has been extensively studied in the last decade, and which is inseparable from the concept of communicative language teaching, is also stressed, leading to the teaching of business English. The theoretical part also includes issues of second-language assessment.

The second part comprises the results and analyses of the comparative study including the C-test, writing and speaking test formats, and the questionnaires.

Finally, the outcome of this study will have pedagogical implications, which will contribute to further development in business English teaching.

THEORETICAL PART

2 BILINGUALISM

The concept of bilingualism is a term with different shades of meaning. Mackey (2000: 26) states that “if language is the property of the group, bilingualism is the property of the individual.” Although some definitions also include social bilingualism, in the following investigation bilingualism focuses on individuals rather than a social group. In other words, bilingualism in this dissertation refers to the competences of individual students in English as their second language. Their competences developed due to exposure to and the use of English in the context of instruction in a specific type of bilingual programme and in the regular business English classroom in Austria.

2.1 ATTEMPTS TO DEFINE BILINGUALISM

In earlier research, bilingualism was defined in terms of equally balanced competence in two languages. Bloomfield (1933: 56) claimed that bilingualism is a “native-like control of two languages.” This definition was then modified by Haugen (1953: 7), who included bilingual speakers that had acquired a second language at a later period in their lives. This broadened the range of speakers that could be referred to as bilinguals, stipulating that bilingualism is the ability to produce “complete meaningful utterances in the other language”, which implies that the concept of bilingualism can only be used if speakers have reached a certain proficiency level in a language, and excludes speakers with low competence in a language. This is extreme at the one end, but another extreme viewpoint is “incipient bilingualism”, a term used by Diebold (1964), that presumes that people with minimal competence in a second language can also be described as bilinguals. However, the question arises whether tourists that learn a few phrases in a foreign language or businesspeople that are only able to greet their business partners in a second language can really be called bilinguals. Between the two extremes there are various shades of grey as it is dangerous to be too exclusive or too inclusive in describing a bilingual person. Scholars have therefore tried to find a further distinction between different skills in a language because some people are able to speak a second language but cannot write and read in this language. Some people are also proficient listeners in a second language but are unable to speak competently, and so on. Baker and Jones (1998: 91) conclude: “Where possible, the avoidance of simplistic classification and categorization is preferred. Instead, a multicolored canvas profiling the proficiencies of an individual may be preferable.”

2.2 MULTILINGUALISM

It also has to be noted that bilingualism is no longer limited only to the proficiency of two languages, but two or more languages. One would expect people that are multilingual to belong to the wealthy elite in a society, but this is not always true because the concept of multilingualism also varies from country to country and from individual to individual; for example, in India it is not uncommon to be able to speak three or more languages in everyday conversations with different people (Baker and Jones 1998). In Europe, it is not unusual to come across multilingual international students who frequently move between countries in order to pursue their degrees in their desired fields of study. During the process of their international studies they get in contact with different people, and it is often expected that they will switch from language to language on a daily basis.

The term “multilingualism” is therefore more appropriate for the European context than “bilingualism” because it is common nowadays for Europeans to speak or at least understand more than two languages, even though some authors doubt whether one can really find truly multilingual environments. Edwards (1994: 55) is sceptical about what a multilingual society is. He warns that a country may be officially bilingual or multilingual even though most of its citizens are competent in only one language.

Despite these doubts, the European Commission (1995) has pointed out that

> Proficiency in several Community languages has become a precondition if citizens of the European Union are to benefit from the occupational and personal opportunities open to them in a border-free single market. (European Commission 1995: 47)

Therefore in Europe those that speak two or more languages are likely to be professionally mobile, leaving those that speak only one language behind. It is important to note that multilingual environments in European non–English-speaking countries are very supportive of learning school content in English, especially among younger generations that will have better job opportunities in their future careers. The results of the questionnaires that are part of this research prove that bilingual students, who are taught business subjects in English, believe that learning school content in English will increase their future job opportunities (see the analysis of the questionnaires, Chapter 11, which reveals the students’ social backgrounds).

It is difficult to find a method to measure multilingualism because there is no single or definite type of multilingualism. In addition, multilinguals may be over-claiming or under-claiming the number of languages they speak and their skills within each language. For instance, they may have native-like fluency in their second language, good spoken skills in their third language, but only basic receptive skills in the fourth language.

Indeed, it is difficult to define someone that is multilingual due to having different skills in different languages, which explains why so little research has been done in this field. Nevertheless, defining people who speak two or more foreign languages can be easier if they are compared to people who speak only one language.

2.3 ADVANTAGES BILINGUALS HAVE OVER MONOLINGUALS

This section looks at the differences between the bilinguals and monolinguals, whereas this study does not compare the bilingual and monolingual individuals. In the present research, the non-bilingual students are also competent in two languages, but they are only referred to as “non-bilingual” because they do not belong to the bilingual track.

Although this study does not compare bilinguals and monolinguals, I consider research that focuses on the outcomes of bilingualism or the benefits bilinguals have over monolinguals. This helps to explain why it took decades until the undisputed advantages of speaking more than one language became widely recognised among linguists.

Early literature (from the 1920s and 1930s) on the outcomes of being bilingual and bicultural generally took a more pessimistic outlook on the effects of bilingualism. There was a widely held view that the acquisition of a second language hindered the development of linguistic skills in the native language and hampered the cognitive development in general. Some 50 or 60 years ago it was believed that bilingualism drove children into a split personality and emotional conflicts. Today research offers strong evidence that such problems are not caused by bilingualism itself, but are environmentally determined (Hoffman 1991; Oksaar 1989).

Compared to what was believed in the past, it is agreed today that negative results of early studies on bilingualism were due to insufficient research methods and unfavourable socioeconomic and educational environments. In addition, native monolingual speakers served as standards of comparison in assessing bilinguals, which led to semilingualism that refers to bilinguals who are weak in both languages. The idea of semilingualism was rejected because it “suggests quantifications that do not exist [...] and is without empirical support and theoretical basis” (Oksaar 1989: 35).

Eventually, evaluations of bilingual school programs, especially of Canadian immersion, longitudinal studies on childhood bilingualism – for example, pioneering work done by Ronjat (1913), and the detailed study carried out by Leopold (1939–1949) – finally proved that the fears concerning the handicap of bilingualism were groundless. Moreover, the modern research on bilingualism has proved that bilinguals have cognitive advantages over monolinguals as soon as their two languages are well-developed. For instance, the Thresholds theory (Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas 1977; Cummins 1976) explains that, when bilinguals have reached a certain level of competence in both languages (beyond the second threshold), they are likely to experience positive cognitive effects of bilingualism.

There are different routes to bilingualism. Namely, the second language can be acquired naturally or informally in the community (e.g. in early childhood from parents, friends in the street, or from television shows), or it can be learned formally later on in school.

2.4 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Bilingual education is an old form of education. Mackey (1978) observed that bilingual education is not a modern phenomenon because it has existed in various forms for at least 5,000 years. Bilingual education is a broad term that refers to the presence of two languages in instruction. Previously, it was connected with one language being superior and the other inferior. In English-speaking countries, bilingual education has not been favoured by the linguistic majority, and it seems that the situation has been improving only slowly. According to Charles Glenn (cited in Christian 1994: 1), the best bilingual school is "a school in which two languages are used without apology and where becoming proficient in both is considered a significant intellectual and cultural achievement". He actually tried to stress the positive outcome of being bilingual without making any language superior or inferior.

Even though scholarly research has revealed much support for bilingual education, public opinion has not been that favourable. McQuillan and Tse (1996) reviewed publications published between 1984 and 1994, and reported that 87% of academic publications supported bilingual education. On the other hand, they found out that only 45% of opinion articles in newspapers and magazines were supportive of bilingual education.

Such a discrepancy between the support of academic research and the unfavourable public opinion may be because bilingual education is understood differently in different environments. It seems that it is connected to the economic power of the majority of newcomers with good positions in the "new" country that want to preserve their native languages. However, if economically weak immigrants want to go to bilingual schools where they are also able to receive adequate education in their native language, the situation is drastically different and becomes unacceptable to the majority of speakers, who want them to forget their native languages and become immersed in the new linguistic environment. Thus, the term "bilingual education" can mean different things in different contexts (Romaine 1995). The term cannot be easily defined. Many bilingual programmes would not qualify if bilingual education were defined as a programme in which two languages are used as the media of instruction.

2.4.1 TYPES OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

A variety of terms are used in different countries for the concept of using a foreign language to teach different subjects of study. In Europe, CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) has become a generic umbrella term for an activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in learning a non-language subject; language and subject here have a joint curricular role. In Germany, for instance, *bilingualer Unterricht* (bilingual teaching) has existed for more than 30 years (Otten and Wildhage 2003:15). The authors agree that "der Begriff ist missverständlich" (ibid, p. 13). Thürmann (cited in Otten and Wildhage 2003:13) even says that the word has become an "amöbenwort", implicating that it appears clear on the one hand but, on the other hand, it takes different forms in different teaching contexts. All in all, in reality, there is great confusion because authors use different expressions in referring to a very similar phenomenon. Nowadays many European countries reinforce bilingual teaching, and the concept of bilingual education varies from country to country and even from school to school.

> There is no blueprint for bilingual education. No model, however successful, is for export. (Beardsmore, cited in Abuja and Heindler 1996: 4)

Austria, for instance, has adopted the term *Englisch als Arbeitssprache*, Slovenia uses the term *ucenje nejezikovnih predmetov v tujem jeziku* ('*teaching non-language school subjects in a foreign language*' [author's translation]), and in both countries "European" classes have been introduced to follow the European Commission's promotion of language learning and language diversity (European Commission 2004).

Many other terms have been favoured by various authors that may refer to various bilingual programmes or only to various methodological concepts. For instance, in Europe, terms have appeared that have their origin in the US or in Canada, and therefore may not always be regarded as comparable concepts of bilingual teaching on the two continents. For instance, the term "language across the curriculum" has also been used by some authors in Austria and Slovenia referring to teaching non-language subjects in English, but its origins go back to the US, where the concept of bilingualism and bilingual education cannot be paralleled to the situation in the European non–English-speaking countries. Originally, "language across the curriculum" or the "curriculum approach" was meant to encourage language development across all subjects of the curriculum, not only as a subject in its own right (Baker and Jones 1998). In addition, the terms "language bath" or "language shower", which are strongly associated with the immersion programmes in Canada, have appeared in Slovenia as well. The terms appropriately describe the bilingual Slovenian-Italian and Slovenian-Hungarian immersion programmes, which have been successfully operating for more than 30 years, aiming to help the Italian and Hungarian minorities integrate into the Slovenian language environment while preserving their native languages.

All in all, bilingual education has become an umbrella term in many countries to refer to programmes that integrate content and language as well as immersion programmes (e.g., in Austria and Germany). In Slovenia, on the other hand, the term *bilingual education* has been used for bilingual Slovenian/Italian and Slovenian/Hungarian immersion programmes for many years, and therefore it has not been common practice to connect the term with the concept of teaching non-language subjects of study in a foreign language. Nevertheless, it is expected that the term *bilingual education* will also slowly be extended to the teaching of non-language school subjects in a foreign language in Slovenia for two reasons: first, such programmes have been introduced only recently, and therefore people need time to become used to them and, second, traditionally as well as recently, Slovenia has always slowly adopted Austrian and German concepts not only in education but also in many other areas.

BAKER'S CLASSIFICATION OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

As stated above, the concept of bilingual education is very hard to define due to its different understanding in different learning environments. Cazden and Snow (1990, cited in Baker 2001: 192) stress that bilingual education is a "simple label for a complex phenomenon." Nevertheless, I will mention a widely accepted classification of bilingual education programmes introduced by Baker.

According to Baker (2001) there are ten types of bilingual education; six of them can be defined as weak forms of education for bilingualism, and four of these types are presented as strong forms of education for bilingualism and biliteracy. The complete table can be found in Baker and Jones (1998: 470) and in Baker (2001: 194). The classification is largely relevant to the situation in the US and Canada, and only partially to the situation in the European non–English-speaking countries.

The weak forms often aim to produce monolingualism or limited bilingualism rather than full bilingualism. On the other hand, strong forms result in bilingualism and biliteracy, meaning that the students will be proficient in two languages and biliterate as well.

The weak forms of education for bilingualism are:

- Submersion (structured immersion)
- Submersion (withdrawal classes/sheltered English)
- Segregationist
- Transitional
- Mainstream with foreign-language teaching
- Separatist

The weak forms of bilingual education mostly include programmes for minority language speakers that are forced to take courses in the majority language. In structured immersion there may be some native language assistance, but the first language is not developed. For this reason, the terms “immersion” or “structured immersion” are not appropriate terms because they are used in subtractive environments in which the aim is to replace the minority language with the majority language. Baker (2001: 205) also strongly argues against the use of “immersion” in such a situation, and he believes it should be avoided.

Among the weak forms of bilingual education, only the mainstream programme with foreign-language teaching is aimed at language majority speakers. In North America, such mainstream programmes rarely result in speakers that are truly able to communicate in the foreign language. The situation is similar in the UK, where the majority of speakers that take foreign-language classes in German, French or Spanish are not able to function competently in these languages. Their low competence in these foreign languages demonstrates the learners’ lack of motivation to improve their skills in a foreign language, which is not surprising because they do not need to learn foreign languages to be able to succeed in their careers. Baker agrees that “a very limited form of fluency in a foreign language tends to be the typical outcome for the mass of the language majority” (Baker 2001: 200).

In comparison, in European non–English-speaking countries many learners that study English as a foreign language throughout primary and secondary school become fluent in English. Their improvement in English is greatly motivated by the positive status of English, which enables better career and study opportunities abroad. In these countries, the outcome is not limited bilingualism but full bilingualism. Mainstream programmes with foreign-language teaching in European non–English-speaking countries are therefore strong rather than weak forms of bilingual education.

On the other hand, the aim of all strong forms of bilingual education is bilingualism that is fostered in school. The strong forms of education for bilingualism and biliteracy are:

- Immersion
- Maintenance/heritage language
- Two-way/dual language
- Mainstream bilingual

The immersion bilingual programme is mostly associated with the concept of Canadian immersion, which started in the 1960s. In Europe, immersion programmes in border areas have also been in place for decades.

SUBTRACTIVE FORMS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

The fact that bilingual education cannot easily be classified and that there are almost as many different programmes as there are countries and even schools, the view of societies and public opinion also differs greatly from country to country. In countries in which the linguistic majority is unfavourable towards bilingual education, weak forms of bilingual education and resistance to bilingualism and bilingual education often develop. In such environments, a subtractive form of bilingualism has developed because it is mostly connected with immigrants acquiring the language of the majority in order to find jobs and become involved in the community. It seems that little goes easily in bilingualism and bilingual education.

Past views were mostly unfavourable towards bilingualism and bilingual education. Fortunately, some of these views have changed for the better especially in Europe, but in some countries public opinion still remains sceptical even though research has revealed positive outcomes of bilingual education.

In a subtractive bilingual environment, there are therefore attempts to replace a home language with the language of the powerful majority, which has negative effects on the school success of minority language students. Lambert (1984) claims that the loss of a native language results in lower success in school in general, not only in a lower level of second-language attainment, but also with regard to psychosocial problems. In addition, Baker (2001: 251) looked into eleven pieces of research that studied the effectiveness of bilingual education, and concluded that “the use of native language instruction helps achievement in English”. Apparently, the use of the home language is connected with better achievement in school than the exclusive use of English in instruction.

Interestingly, researchers, politicians, and local communities – in other words, all persons that have not been directly involved in bilingual education – have often argued against bilingual teaching and have expressed their doubts and fears regarding the effectiveness and positive benefits of bilingualism. Sadly enough, their resistance and scepticism have sometimes hindered the development of bilingual teaching. It seems as though they have not been willing to listen to bilingual students, their parents and their teachers, who have always expressed their enthusiasm for the numerous benefits and opportunities that mastering two or more languages positively contributes to their future careers.

Although there was relatively great resistance to teaching non-language school subjects in English in some smaller European countries (e.g., in Slovenia), this has subsided because English has gained in importance. Apparently in the last decades the situation has changed positively, especially in European non–English-speaking countries, which is supported by globalisation and the spread of English as the language of business (see Chapter 4).

In the US, there have been attempts by many authors that tried very hard to convince politicians and local communities of the effectiveness of using two languages in the educational process. Namely, in North America (except Canada) bilingual education still engenders much controversy among local communities. In his introduction to *A Meta-Analysis of the Effectiveness of Bilingual Education*, Greene (1998: 1) reports that there was a political initiative in California that tried to ban “the use of foreign languages in the instruction of younger children with limited English proficiency”. The supporters of this initiative tried to persuade voters that scholarly research proves their case, but Green is emphatic that their reading of literature is biased: it is “often selective, exaggerated, and distorted.”

There has been a common argument against bilingual education that lies in the fact that many people have succeeded in life without it or, in other words, they have achieved linguistic success without bilingual education. However, they must have had comprehensible input in the second language but without a special school programme.

ADDITIVE FORMS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

In comparison to subtractive forms of bilingual education, additive forms of bilingual education support bilingualism and bilingual education and, as a result, strong forms of bilingual education develop. An additive form of bilingualism occurs when "a second language and culture have been acquired with little or no pressure to replace or reduce the first language" (Baker 2001: 114).

In an additive bilingual environment, all students are given the opportunity to acquire a second language at no expense to the home language and culture (Cloud et al. 2000; Cummins 2000). This is enrichment bilingualism, which leads to higher levels of proficiency in both languages (Skutnabb-Kangas 1981; Hernandez-Chavez 1984).

Lindholm (1994) maintains that additive bilingual environments also improve cross-cultural understanding. In such a positive attitude towards bilingualism, tolerance towards speakers of other languages is increased as well as the self-confidence of the speakers of minority languages.

Bilingual education in European countries has a long tradition, especially in bilingual areas of neighbouring regions, where forms of immersion bilingual education have been practiced for many years. It is important to note that, for instance, Luxemburg and Malta both have more than 100 years of bilingual tradition.

Nevertheless, bilingual instruction is relatively new in many European countries, and each country has found an individual approach to this form of education. In most cases, bilingual forms of different types mostly started in the late 1980s or early 1990s.

As already mentioned, many schools in Europe now offer bilingual programmes in which all school subjects or only certain school subjects are taught in a foreign language, predominantly English. The introduction of bilingual or "European" classes instantly gives a school a more modern and attractive profile, which offers the school a wide range of international activities. In addition, "European" classes allow the schools to accept better, more motivated, and more ambitious students. In their immediate communities, such schools are labelled as elite schools – for example, the

Bundeshandelsakademie 1 (HAK 1) Salzburg, where this research took place, is considered very demanding, and is known for producing high-profile future businesspeople. An additive form of bilingual education has been developed at this school because the teachers, students, their parents, and the public all greatly support the bilingual teaching of commercial school subjects in a foreign language.

The positive support of the people involved in the education process as well as the public is one of the factors that add to the quality of the bilingual programme. For instance, among the results of workshop 12, which was held at the European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz, Austria, in 1996, the situational/outcome variables (Beardsmore 1996) that influence a bilingual programme also included the attractiveness of bilingual schools for teachers, students and parents.

2.4.2 RESEARCH ON CANADIAN IMMERSION PROGRAMMES

The Canadian immersion programme as a strong and additive form of bilingual education can be compared to Austrian and German bilingual programmes in which non-language subjects are taught in a foreign language, most commonly in English. The comparison is based on the fact that the bilingual programmes in these countries try to preserve and foster the students' native languages while adding an additional language, which is an additive quality of the programme that does not entail making one language superior and another inferior. The societies in these countries are favourable to these forms of bilingual education.

Immersion bilingual education originates in Canadian educational experiments with the purpose of improving the students' level of proficiency in French as a second language. Prior to this innovative experiment, students had been taught French in short grammar-based lessons, but in the new "immersion" approach the teachers used only French throughout the school day. Apparently, in the immersion group, all classroom management and all instruction of content material was in the second language. These immersion attempts started in St. Lambert, Montreal, in 1965. Today, over 250,000 students in Canada attend French immersion programmes (Swain 1991a).

The Canadian immersion programmes have been praised by scholars and society, who have stressed the positive outcomes of being bilingual. Considerable research has been done on the effectiveness of immersion programmes not only in Canada but also throughout the world.

For instance, Tucker and d'Anglejan (1972) mainly studied the Canadian model and maintained that English students who study French as a second language in a traditional programme will never be able to read, write, speak and understand French like the immersion students that become proficient in French easily and at no cost.

Research findings from some of the Canadian French/English bilingual education immersion programmes support the idea that bilingualism encourages intellectual development and academic achievement.

For example, studies carried out by Barik and Swain (1976), and Genesee, Polich and Stanley (1977) revealed that late immersion students do significantly better than core French students on all French tests administered. Genesee, Polich and Stanley (1977) compared students' reading and listening comprehension, grammar, enunciation, rhythm and intonation, vocabulary use and fluency based on a standardised test of French and interviews with students. The students in this study were assessed at the end of their seventh year. On the other hand, Barik and Swain (1976) studied students at the beginning of their eighth year. They assessed students' reading and listening comprehension and their speaking skills.

Interestingly, studies that compared early and late immersion students in Canada showed that it may be better for students to join immersion programmes later because they may be more effective after students have acquired at least some aspects of a second language. These comparisons surprisingly reveal that there are few differences between early and late immersion students in their French skills when they graduate from secondary school (Hart and Lapkin 1989a, 1989b; Wesche 1989). Whereas early immersion students demonstrate superior speaking skills and, less consistently, superior listening comprehension skills, they are similar to late immersion students in their reading and writing skills. A study by Swain and Lapkin (1989) also revealed a similar phenomenon. The Austrian students in this study can be compared to Canadian late immersion bilingual students. Namely, the bilingual students assessed in this study joined bilingual programmes where they were taught business content in English, their first foreign language, after they had studied English as a foreign language for seven years. Canadian late immersion students also join bilingual immersion programmes in which certain school subjects are taught in their first foreign language at the secondary level after they have been studying this language for about seven years.

Furthermore, the support of the society and especially of immersion students' parents greatly contributes to the success of immersion programmes in Canada, but there are also other factors that are favourable to bilingual immersion. The same can be said about the success of bilingual programmes in Austria.

One of the main advantages of such programmes is also the immersion teachers' commitment to bilingual education and bilingualism in society. According to Roberts (1985), teachers' enthusiasm in bilingual teaching is very important, especially in minority-language-medium education.

Both the Canadian bilingual immersion students and the students in the Austrian bilingual model can choose to join bilingual programmes. The motivation is apparently high because there is student interest, parental support and teacher commitment.

Even though Canada is very supportive of bilingual education, French-English immersion education has not always been without problems. Namely, bilingual Canadians that speak French as their first language feel disadvantaged over those bilingual Canadians whose first language is English because they are gaining power, prestige and privilege in areas that used to be the domain of bilinguals whose first language is French (Baker 2001).

3 INTEGRATION OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE IN BILINGUAL CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Although CBI (Content-Based Instruction) is most often associated with the genesis of immersion bilingual education in Canada, the integration of language and content has been a growing issue in language teaching only since the early 1980s.

The term *content-based language learning* is the most often used term for integrating language and content in communicative foreign/second-language teaching, but there are important differences between countries regarding the level of L2 competence of the students that are allowed to enter content-based programmes.

In the US, ESL students are rarely taught content or school subject matter through their L1, so they need to develop their L2 (English) to a very high level as a medium of learning if they want to benefit from education. This is contrasted with Canadian immersion students, who are also taught school content in their L1 and whose access to content programs in school does not only depend on their progress in L2 (Mohan and Beckett 2003). On the other hand, when content is learned through L2 in Europe, it is mainly reserved for more ambitious students whose grades, parents and of course their own interest allow them to join bilingual programs or “European” classes. European Content and Language Integrated Learning or CLIL can therefore be compared to bilingual immersion programmes in which the learners obtain better career opportunities by learning school content in their L2 without losing their L1 (see more on the similarities between bilingual immersion programmes and the European bilingual model in the previous chapter).

The focus of content-based language learning is based on learning the foreign language through content, while in the European context CLIL stresses the teaching of content matter in a foreign language aiming to improve students’ competence both in the content matter and in the foreign language.

As a matter of fact, CLIL encompasses more than just teaching content matter in a foreign language. Namely, in Europe CLIL aims to promote multilingualism and multiculturalism by devising new approaches to teaching foreign languages (Müller-Hartmann and Schocker-v. Ditfurth 2004: 151–161). Since multiculturalism refers to developing students’ intercultural communicative competence, the content matter is concerned with comparison between cultures, which is also significantly evident in teaching business English. Cross-cultural awareness in doing business abroad is one of the most important issues discussed in business English courses. It also should be pointed out that CLIL encourages a task-based approach to communicative language learning. The task-based approach to language learning is discussed later on in this chapter, and teaching business English is extensively covered in Chapter 4.

Even though the most common term for teaching school content in a foreign/second language used by many authors is *content-based language instruction*, it is not always understood in the same way. Crandall and Tucker (1990: 187) say that CBI is “an approach to language instruction that integrates the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes within the context of teaching a second or foreign language.”

Curtain and Pesola (1994: 35) limit the definition of CBI to those “curriculum concepts being taught through the foreign language [...] appropriate to the grade level of the students.”

It should be noted at this point that learning a language always includes content, so there is no teaching of language without using appropriate content in class.

For instance, Schleppegrell, Achugar and Oteíza (2004: 67–68) strongly believe that CBI “can be enriched through an understanding that language and content are never separate, that content in school contexts is always presented and assessed through language, and that as the difficulty of the concepts we want students to learn increases, the language that construes those concepts also becomes more complex and distanced from ordinary uses of language. No language is ever taught in isolation from content.”

There have been constant debates among authors that try to stress the importance of learning content and those that emphasise learning the language as a primary goal of CBI. Brinton et al. (1989: 5) view the target language largely as “the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study”. Furthermore, Wesche (1993) claims that CBI is aimed at developing skills in the second and foreign language.

The importance of content/subject matter and the foreign language and the relationship between them have also been debated in Europe among authors that have studied CLIL programmes, even though CLIL is believed to stress content that is taught in a foreign language (Müller-Hartmann and Schocker-von Ditfurth 2004: 152). In CLIL programmes students primarily concentrate on understanding, memorising facts or solving problems concerning the subject matter. Language learners definitely acquire most language when they are involved in cognitively demanding tasks, that is, when they are asked to solve non-linguistic tasks using language like in CLIL classes. Therefore, CLIL programmes offer excellent opportunities for language learning because 'some of the most effective language learning comes peripherally out of the corner of one's eye', but learners must be aware that 'learning is really taking place, even though it is not directly controlled' (Ehrman 1996: 183).

As far as language awareness in content-based instruction is concerned, Swain (2001b) stressed that language instruction needs to be systematically integrated into content instruction. This integration is essential because teaching grammar that is disconnected from content is not enough to develop native-speaker levels of proficiency in a second language.

THE ROLE OF CONTENT IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

The discussion of content in language teaching leads to the conclusion that learning a language with the help of carefully chosen topics and tasks from the subject matter is the basis of communicative language teaching.

It is evident that the integration of language and content in ESL classrooms has been a constant dilemma among authors that focused on content-based communicative language teaching. More accurately, this dilemma has been about the balance between focus on form and focus on meaning.

As far as this balance between form and meaning is concerned, Howatt (1984) determined that one needs to differentiate between "strong" and "weak" forms of communicative language teaching. The business school where this study took place has introduced a strong form of communicative teaching. Namely, the bilingual students study business subjects in their second language and there is no focus on language form whatsoever, which is considered a strong form of communicative teaching. In addition, all students also take business English courses in which the practice of language form is included but in a highly contextualised environment. According to Howatt's differentiation between "strong" and "weak" forms of communicative language teaching, it seems that business English courses should fall into the "weak" category of communicative teaching because grammar is included. However, I would like to point out here that, even though business English courses include a certain focus on language form, it should still be considered a "strong" form of communicative language teaching because the subject matter is the only factor that is essential in deciding what language is to be learned. Moreover, the form is of course not a primary focus of the business English courses; the language knowledge is meant to serve only as a tool that helps students increase their self-confidence in using English for business communication (see Chapter 4).

Williams (1995) extended Howatt's distinction between "strong" and "weak" forms of communicative language teaching to content-based language teaching. He concluded that there is a "strong" form of integrated language and content teaching in which the content is the sole factor for determining what language form will be learned. Of course, there is also a "weak" form in which the language factors are such deciding factors. In a "weak" form of integrated language and content teaching, there is more linguistic input and the subject matter is of minor importance.

The awareness of the importance of using appropriate subject matter content in language teaching is consistent with the development of the communicative language teaching approach.

The origins of communicative language teaching go back to the late 1960s, when British applied linguists started realising that there was a need to focus on communicative proficiency. They strongly believed that the audiolingual approach, which focused on mere mastery of language structures, failed to see the communicative potential of languages. The International Association of Applied Linguistics was formed with the effort of the Council of Europe, which promoted research on language teaching. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 65) noted that at that time "the need to articulate and develop alternative methods of language teaching was considered a high priority". Together with the emergence of communicative language teaching, the highly praised Canadian immersion bilingual programmes started (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.2).

The content in communicative language teaching is defined differently in the literature on second-language acquisition (SLA). The authors' different views on content or meaning are influenced by specific teaching approaches used in different contexts for different communicative purposes and different learners' needs. While Crandall and Tucker (1990) see content as clearly academic subject matter, Genesee (1994: 3) (see Chapter 14-Online Sources) suggests that content "[...] need not be academic; it can include any topic, theme, or non-language issue of interest or importance to the learners". Met (1991: 283) also proposes that content in content-based programs represents material and classroom activities that are "cognitively engaging and demanding for the learner, and is material that extends beyond the target language or target culture". Chaput (1993: 150) defines content as "any topic of intellectual substance which contributes to the students' understanding of language in general, and the target language in particular".

CLASSIFICATION OF CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE PROGRAMMES AND WHAT IS BEING ASSESSED IN CONTENT-BASED COURSES

In previous sections different views on the importance of content or language in content-based courses have been discussed. Due to the fact that there are wide ranges of content-based programmes in which content is taught using the second language designed especially for secondary and university levels, there have been attempts to classify them. For instance, Met (2007) (see Chapter 14-Online Sources) presents a figure that lists content-based language programmes as a continuum of content and language integration. On her list, these programmes are presented from left to right (here, from the first to the last programme on the list below). She gives the following range of content-driven to language-driven programs:

- Total and partial immersion
- Subject courses taught in L2 (e.g., sheltered classes, foreign language-enriched university courses)
- Subject courses plus language instruction (e.g., adjunct model, English for academic/social purposes)
- Language classes based on themes (e.g., theme-based courses)
- Language classes with frequent use of content for practice (e.g., multi-disciplinary activities used to improve language proficiency)

The assessment of learners during or at the end of the course determines whether a content-based programme is content or language-driven. For instance, in immersion programmes students' language growth is not assessed because these programmes are content-focused. Met (2007: 16) reports that in "many immersion programmes, little formal assessment of students' language proficiency is done on a year-to-year basis, and students may not even be evaluated at the end of their immersion experience." Nevertheless, she believes that, because content and language are integrated in the learning process, they also need to be assessed in an integrated way. Furthermore, even though a content-based programme is language-driven, some content mastery needs to be included in the assessment process because "language cannot be used in a vacuum, and must be used to communicate about something; it is likely that language assessment will need to be based on the topics and tasks used in instruction" (Met 2007: 17).

As an illustration, the students in bilingual classes at the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 Salzburg (HAK I Salzburg), whose communicative competences are analysed and compared to non-bilingual students in this study, are expected to demonstrate their mastery of content in the end-of-year assessment process, whereas their second-language progress is not tested at all. However, their English progress is assessed in business English classes, in which language and content are integrated in the assessment process.

SECOND-LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH IN SUPPORT OF CONTENT-BASED COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

There has been much SLA research supporting CBI. Krashen's contributions in SLA research have been among the most influential. Apparently, Krashen believed that SLA is enhanced by providing comprehensible input (1982, 1985), which is a key teaching technique in CBI. He suggests that a second language is most successfully acquired when the conditions are similar to those present in first language acquisition (e.g., when the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than on form), when the language input is just above the proficiency of the learner and when there is an opportunity to use the language meaningfully in a relaxed environment.

Cummins' (1981) notion of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as contrasted with Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) shows that students need to be learning content while they are developing CALP; there is no time to separate language and content learning. Postponing content instruction while students develop more advanced (academic) language is not only impractical, but it also ignores students' needs, interests and cognitive levels.

In addition, Collier (1987) states that it takes one to two years to acquire social language, but it takes five to seven years to develop the academic level of proficiency required to read social studies texts or solve mathematics word problems.

Natural language is never separated from meaning. CBI provides a context for meaningful communication (Met 1991). SLA increases with CBI because language learners learn language faster when meaningful context is emphasised rather than the language itself. In any case, both form and meaning are important and should not be separable in language learning (Lightbrown and Spada 1993; Met 1991; Wells 1994).

CBI provides opportunities for Vygotskian-based concepts to contribute to SLA – negotiation in the Zone of Proximal Development, the use of "private speech" (internally directed speech for problem-solving and rehearsal), and student appropriation of learning tasks (Lantolf 1994; Lantolf and Appel 1994).

All in all, according to Genesee (1994) (online source) in communicative CBI language learning becomes more concrete rather than abstract, whereas in traditional language instruction the focus was on the language itself.

3.1 EFFECTIVENESS AND BENEFITS OF CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Research on content-based language learning has revealed positive impacts on language acquisition if it is supported by the use of appropriate materials. Swain (2000), who mainly conducted studies on French immersion, summarises her findings as follows:

> Overall, the set of experiments conducted in French immersion classes suggest that there is value in focusing on language form through the use of pre-planned curriculum materials in the context of content-based language learning. (Swain 2000: 205)

Obviously, content in efficient CBI includes not only appropriate materials brought into the class, but also meaningful and pertinent topics carefully chosen by the teachers. Furthermore, Pica (2000) claims that CBI is most effective when it provides both meaningful communication about content and intentional language development.

Language teaching should be supported by using appropriate content not only in later stages of language acquisition but also in the early stages. Unfortunately, beginning students with cognitive maturity are taught language rather than how to do something with the language. Not surprisingly, language students in the US report difficulties in making a transition from language courses to subject-matter courses, which is not a new problem (Coleman 1929; Suozzo 1981).

In studies on the outcomes of courses in which content is taught through the target language, three specific research questions have been asked. The first is concerned with the level of improvement of students' second-/foreign-language skills in content courses. The second is about how adequately the subject matter is learned, and whether L2 students are able to master the same content compared to L1 students who are taught the same content. The third research question deals with the extent to which the content-based courses increase students' self-confidence in using the language outside the classroom, and whether the content-based courses are able to contribute to a more positive attitude towards language learning (Bingham Wesche 1993).

Research findings on content-based language courses revealed not only higher proficiency in the language, but also increased positive attitudes toward foreign-language study and interest in other cultures. Lafayette and Buscaglia (1985) compared the fourth-semester French civilisation course at Indiana University taught only in French and based on authentic texts with a skills-based course at the same level that used a French civilisation textbook. The language gains of both groups were comparable even though the experimental group was not exposed to explicit grammar or language instruction. The results also revealed that the experimental group students reported a more positive attitude towards foreign-language study.

Sternfeld (1992) studied the University of Utah's immersion/multiliteracy programme, which offers intensive language and civilisation courses for beginners. He indicated that such an approach effectively promotes second-language proficiency and the students' approach towards languages and other cultures.

A study carried out at two high schools over 1 school year sought to determine whether an innovative content-based foreign-language programme would help improve students' basic language skills (Allred 1994). The researcher also wanted to determine whether the programme would motivate the students to have a more positive attitude towards foreign-language study. The findings show that the students preferred the content-based class over the traditional class (by a nine-to-one margin) and a great majority were planning to continue their foreign-language study. In addition, they learned the content as well as their English counterparts. Computerised assessment of reading and vocabulary skills as well as grammar proved to be in favour of one comparison group in particular. During interviews, the experimental group students claimed that their listening comprehension had greatly improved. Interestingly, the speaking scores did not show significant differences between the experimental and control groups. The author proposes that this type of content-based foreign-language programme should continue to be used because students are able to see language used in context, which increases their motivation for further foreign-language study. It was also recommended that more open coordination between content-based and foreign-language teachers should be fostered.

Some authors have stressed not only the idea of carefully choosing appropriate materials in the content-based classroom, but have also pointed out that the materials and topics need to be connected with each other in order to create a coherent curriculum. For instance, Stroller and Grabe (1997) focused on designing a curriculum in post-secondary content instruction, and determined that there is a six-T approach to CBI. The six Ts (themes, texts, topics, threads, tasks and transitions) provide the basis for developing a coherent content-based curriculum: the themes become a primary source for curriculum planning, relevant and interesting texts lead to topic selection, specific tasks are designed to teach the language knowledge and content central to the texts, and transitions and threads create additional linkages throughout the curriculum.

Students that are taught language through appropriate content have achieved better results on tests and in language skills. Some researchers have focused on particular skills, and some were interested in general language proficiency. Consequently, some studies revealed a significant improvement in one or two skills, but others simply stated that students in content-based classes showed better results on proficiency tests. The focus on the acquisition of the four skills has encouraged some scholars to develop new approaches in teaching and assessing content-based teaching and learning; for example, the Integrated Skills Reinforcement (ISR) approach.

The ISR approach and its effects on improving reading, speaking, listening and writing skills were studied by Harrigan (1990). ISR is defined as a systematic programme that allows students to use their language skills to learn course content. Harrigan studied the students enrolled in a business communication course that had writing difficulties. Primarily, the sources of their writing problems and their level of deficiency were studied and, based on these results, ISR teaching strategies were developed, assuming that writing skills can be improved by integrating reading, speaking and listening activities. The focus of these activities was to provide participatory learning experience for the students that would make them responsible for their learning. Several writing samples were compared and the results of a grammar pre-test and post-test were analysed in order to assess the benefits of the ISR programme. Finally, the end assessment proved that the students demonstrated a clear improvement in both oral and writing skills.

A study carried out by Anderson (1989) also implemented ISR to reinforce reading, writing, listening and speaking while teaching the content of the course called ´marriage and the family´. The basis of ISR lies in the fact that students' communication skills are most successfully reinforced in a holistic way, which provides the opportunities for practicing these skills within different types of contents. Students' success was measured using pre- and post-tests, examinations, and oral and written assignments.

A study by Kramer (1990) focused on the senior-year baccalaureate students. The ISR method was also used, this time in teaching nursing content. The results of the implementation of ISR were also positive. Students were assessed through informal interviews, weekly logs, peer feedback, formal examinations, and ongoing self-assessment. The results showed that the students' skill levels improved. The students also reported that they felt their language skills had improved, especially their oral presentation skills, and they became more confident in themselves while learning nursing content. In addition, it was also reported that the students were increasingly able to use the skills and knowledge they had learned during the course.

Regarding the effectiveness and benefits of content-based communicative language learning, the research outcomes proved that not only are the students able to improve their content knowledge, the four skills in using the language and their overall communicative abilities in the foreign language, but they also expressed their interest in foreign cultures and further foreign-language study. This all strongly implies that meaningful content materials that are selected and designed in accordance with students' interests help learners improve their language competences faster and more easily. Namely, interesting materials and tasks applied in the communicative content-based language classroom serve as the most important motivating factors in acquiring a second/foreign language.

The discussion of the selection of appropriate materials and tasks in CBI leads to the role of language teachers, whose contribution in increasing students' participation and interest in learning a second/foreign language is by no means without value. It is evident that content-based communicative language teaching demands fully dedicated and active language teachers that are not only the owners and transmitters of knowledge, but also become facilitators, guides, and co-learners.

3.2 TEACHERS IN CONTENT-BASED PROGRAMMES AND TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS IN THE COMMUNICATIVE CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

The integration of content and language in a bilingual content-based classroom may present a great challenge to teachers. Namely, they may be content specialists or language specialists. A few schools offer training in both content and language (Met 2007) (see Chapter 14-Online Sources). Marsh (1998: 5) sums up important contributions of the content teachers and language teachers in content-based programmes: 'Subject teachers provide the bricks, language teachers provide the mortar.'

The teachers at the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 (HAK 1) Salzburg teaching the commercial school subjects bilingually are mostly content specialists that are strongly assisted by language teachers whenever they need linguistic help. They also attend additional language training in order to be more effective in teaching bilingual courses. Nevertheless, the results of the questionnaires also revealed that a few students tried to criticise the teachers of bilingual classes by stating that they felt some teachers do not know much about the topics or they do not speak English well (see Chapter 11).

It is therefore evident that bilingual content-based teaching is very demanding for teachers. Content-based approaches to language instruction involve specific strategies and skills that increase teacher effectiveness (Lorenz and Met 1988; Met 1994, 1989; Majhanovich and Fish 1988; Short 1997; Snow 1987, 1997; Srole 1997).

Teachers in content-based classrooms are expected to be flexible in adjusting to learners' needs and therefore they constantly check the appropriateness of teaching methods and materials. Hartiala (2000) points out that content-based teaching involves a transformative learning process in which content-based instructors learn to modify their schemes and/or perspectives in the form of in-service training that follows the principles of shared expertise and learner autonomy. Swaffar (1993) states that CBI challenges foreign-language teachers to do major rethinking about how and what they expect their students to learn. Above all, they need to determine whether language learning is an end in itself or a tool to apply.

Research on teacher-student relationships in the content-based classroom has revealed that not all research findings have been particularly positive. This might be because most teachers have traditional teaching backgrounds, which is why teaching in a content-based classroom presents a major challenge for them. The switch to content-based teaching, in which the teaching process demands more personal involvement from teachers (e.g., more teacher-learner negotiation) might even present a dramatic change for them.

Musumeci's (1996) research looks at teacher-student exchanges in three content-based classrooms. The data show traditional patterns of classroom interaction in which, for example, teachers speak most of the time, initiate most exchanges and modify their own speech in response to students' signals of non-understanding regardless of activity type, while students prefer to verbally request help in small groups or in one-to-one interaction with the teacher. In addition, Musumeci maintains that in content-based classrooms sustained negotiation in which teachers and their students verbally resolve incomplete or inaccurate messages occurs rarely or not at all. Musumeci's research differs from other work done on teacher-learner negotiation in that it attempts to determine why these traditional patterns of classroom interaction persist. For this reason, the data include the teachers' explanations of their own behaviour as well as students' end-of-semester evaluations of the teacher and the course in which their reactions to teacher-learner negotiation are given. The results show that there is a lack of linguistic negotiation between teachers and their learners. This research therefore tries to promote more negotiation in CBI.

Furthermore, in a small-scale case study, Konnert (2000) focuses on advanced ESL learners that find their content courses a major challenge because of high language and literacy demands. Unfortunately, their teachers are unable to respond adequately to ESL students' needs, and they therefore report a need for greater coordination between content and language.

I heard similar complaints from the students at HAK 1 Salzburg, who also reported in my research data that teachers expect a lot from them and that the bilingual courses are very demanding and challenging. Unfortunately, formal relationships between teachers and their students in content-based classrooms could hinder students' improvement. Students could benefit more from approachable teachers that are able to establish trustworthy rapport with them and constantly monitor their level of satisfaction and demand.

Students have many opportunities to learn from their teachers and peers, and therefore appropriate activities, strategies and content have to be selected in the learning cycle (Grabe and Stoller 1997). For this reason, it is necessary to establish negotiation between teachers and learners regarding the learning plan, which will then be the basis for choosing classroom activities developed by the learners themselves (Breen and Candlin 1980; Candlin and Murphy 1987). It is self-evident that such activities will greatly motivate learners and increase their classroom participation because they will not feel that classroom materials have been forced upon them.

At HAK 1 Salzburg I noticed that the teachers purposely tried to select more demanding texts to make their classes tough and more challenging for the bilingual business students, who in turn felt that the theoretical topics and difficult business expressions they learned in content-based bilingual classes might never be needed in their business careers.

All in all, bilingual content-based programmes are supposed to be reserved for more proficient and motivated students, which is the reason their teachers want to push them to the limit.

However, it should also be noted that teachers have to adapt to the particular needs of their learners, which is mostly expected from teachers that teach ESP. For instance, business English courses are designed for business professionals whose specific needs must be met during the course (see Chapter 4). Above all, it is also important to select course materials that are able to encourage the students to learn. Eskey (1997) and Genesee (1994) (online source) also strongly believe that teachers should select topics or themes of interest to the learners.

The task-based approach to language learning, which is discussed in the next section, is a learning-centred approach that favours learners' involvement. Apparently, the learners become more autonomous in the learning process.

3.3 APPROACHES TO CONTENT-BASED COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

There are varieties of strategies and techniques used in CBI (e.g., cooperative learning and other grouping strategies, such as project-based instruction): task-based or experiential learning, whole language strategies and graphic organisers. They increase attention on academic language learning, contribute to content learning, and encourage development of thinking and study skills. More on this can be found in Crandall (1992).

The two approaches (project-based and task-based) are discussed in this section. Both approaches are adopted in content-based and EBP (English for Business Purposes) courses. Furthermore, both of them favour student-centeredness and help students improve their communicative competences, and are therefore among the most essential methodological tools adopted in communicative language teaching.

3.3.1 PROJECT-BASED APPROACH

A valuable way of promoting the simultaneous acquisition of language, content and skills is "project-based instruction". In their article, Beckett and Slater (2005: 108) introduce a methodological tool called the Project Framework, which allows ESL students "to see the value of project-based instruction by making explicit the various components which work together to promote higher level academic literacy: language, thinking skills and content knowledge".

Stoller (1997: 109) (see Chapter 14-Online Sources) sees organising projects as an effective way of teaching language and content at the same time and defines project work as the "natural extension of content-based instruction". Legutke and Thomas (1991) say that the use of projects builds a connection between language learning and its application. Furthermore, project-based instruction was introduced into ESL classes in order to follow the principles of student-centred teaching (Hedge 1993).

The principles of student-centred teaching were introduced into ESL by project-based instruction, which teaches language and content at the same time. Beckett (1999) states that the implementation of projects in ESL classrooms meets various goals as reported by teachers: projects challenge students' creativity, foster their independence, enhance cooperation and learning, develop critical thinking and decision-making skills, and facilitate ESL students' socialisation into local academic and social cultures. On the other hand, research has also revealed that students are not always satisfied with project work: in a study of secondary school ESL students, Beckett (1999) reports that less than one-fifth of participants enjoyed the project work, one-quarter of the students had mixed feelings, and 57% perceived it negatively, claiming that the projects distracted them from focusing on English grammar and vocabulary. Moulton and Holmes (2000) observed that, although the students that completed the projects were satisfied with the project-based instruction and claimed they benefited from it, the completion rate was low. The authors said that the students who did not complete the activity felt that the tasks were too difficult or that they did not like to be asked to accomplish non-linguistic tasks. Similar unfavourable findings were discovered by Eyring (1989), whereas Wilhelm (1999) described an overall positive response in the project classes that she studied.

These negative student responses to project work may have resulted from their teachers' inability to adjust to students' needs and interests. Namely, different goals and beliefs on language and content in ESL classes held by teachers and students can cause conflicts, and they need to be managed before project work can be successful. Project-based instruction illustrates that, although teachers implement excellent tasks and methods to achieve their educational goals, the ideas may fail because the learners do not see the value in these methods and tasks.

3.3.2 TASK-BASED APPROACH

The task-based approach to teaching and learning a second/foreign language has been extensively studied recently because it also promotes student-centred classroom activities in communicative language teaching. Moreover, the task-based approach is an essential extension of the theory of the communicative approach to language learning (Richards and Rodgers 2001).

The tasks are methodological tools that help teachers establish and develop students' interaction in the target language (Müller-Hartmann and Schocker-von Ditfurth 2004).

Many authors have tried to define the term 'task'. Crookes (1986: 1) said that it had to be acknowledged from the start that the definition of a task is problematic in the sense that there has been total disagreement on what constitutes a task. Moreover, Littlewood (2004: 319) stresses that language teachers have been advised by curriculum leaders that the task-based approach is the current trend and that is how they should teach, but they are confused about what a task really is: "... does that mean that *everything* they do in the classroom should be a task? If so, what exactly is a task? Can teaching and learning grammar be described as a task and, if not, should teachers feel guilty when they teach grammar? What is the difference, in any case, between a task-based approach and the communicative approach that they were told they should use not so many years ago?" Littlewood (2004: 326) admits that he has never really liked the term task-based approach and not even the term communicative approach because they are very close and have caused much confusion even though it is clear that the task-based approach can be seen as a development within the communicative approach. For this reason, he suggests a simple solution: discarding these labels altogether and introducing a new term – *communication-oriented language teaching* – which would cover both communicative and task-based language teaching (TBLT). His idea may appear too simplistic. Furthermore, Nunan (2004: 10) attempts to explain the notions of communicative language teaching and TBLT because it would not make sense to use both if they were synonyms. Namely, he stresses that communicative language teaching is a "broad, philosophical approach to the language curriculum that draws on theory and research in linguistics, anthropology, psychology and sociology". On the other hand, TBLT represents "a realization of this philosophy at the levels of syllabus design and methodology". He adds that other realisations within communicative language teaching are: CBI, text-based syllabuses, problem-based learning and immersion education. Nunan is convinced that "grammar-based curricula" could also be included in the philosophy of communicative language teaching.

Below I take a closer look at some definitions of a task and the task-based approach to teaching and learning a second/foreign language.

Although most authors that tried to define a task insisted on the communicative purpose of a task as its essential criterion and at the same time restricted the use of the term to activities in which meaning is a primary focus – e.g. Nunan (1989, 2004), Ellis (2003), Long (1985), Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985), and Skehan (1996) – there were others who did not see the communicative purpose of a task as its fundamental criterion. The latter also included tasks that focus on language form: for example, Williams and Burden (1997: 168) describe a task as "any activity that learners engage in to further the process of learning a language". For Breen (1987: 23) a task also involves learning activities that range “from the simple and brief exercise type to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making”. Estaire and Zanon (1994) also include tasks that focus on grammar, but they differentiate between “enabling tasks”, in which the main focus is on language form, and “communication tasks”, in which the focus is on meaning rather than form.

As stated above, most authors emphasise that tasks should focus on meaning. Ellis (2003: 3) maintains that there should be a clear distinction between tasks and exercises in the sense that tasks are “activities that call for primarily meaning-focused language use”, whereas exercises involve “activities that call for primarily form-focused language use”. Nevertheless, in both tasks and exercises, learners will sometimes have to pay attention to meaning as well as form (Widdowson 1998). In this respect, the teachers should not direct students’ attention to form when they are focused on conveying the message that they try to communicate in class. Such an approach is counter-productive and greatly disturbing because it does not lead to fluency (Hedge 2000: 61–62). If teachers want to increase communication in class, they should therefore not expect learners to produce certain linguistic forms, but they should allow them to focus on meaningful language use, which is the essential purpose of task-based learning.

Furthermore, Nunan (2004) strongly believes that one should differentiate between the “real-world tasks” or “target tasks”, which refer to the language used outside the classroom, and the “pedagogical tasks” that are applied in the classroom. For him, a pedagogical task is “a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language” with the “intention to convey meaning rather than to manipulate the form” (Nunan 2004: 4). He is also convinced that, even though the definitions of a task vary, they all try to stress the fact that a pedagogical task involves communicative language use with the main focus on meaning rather than grammatical form.

The communicative tasks that are used in CBI successfully connect the teaching of language and content.

Swain (2001b: 44) states that the teaching of language and content can be integrated by the use of tasks “... which, using content-relevant material, encourage students to focus on language form” in addition to meaning. Furthermore, she also believes that language instruction needs to be systematically integrated into content instruction. In her article, Swain presents examples of collaborative dialogues between students that give them opportunities to reflect on their language knowledge in order to revise it and apply it.

As already stressed, task-based materials support communicative language teaching and include games, role plays, simulations and other task-based communication activities. Such materials may come in the form of cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials and practice booklets on student-interaction (Richards and Rodgers 1986). The task-based materials are used extensively in business English courses in which business case studies encourage group work and pair work. For instance, partners in a pair or in a group are given specific roles (e.g., interviewer and interviewee, or senior managers discussing business plan) designed to elicit learners' spoken production. Following their spoken communication, written records of their discussions are compiled in the form of minutes, reports, business letters or e-mails.

The purpose of the task-based approach is therefore to "push" students to "materialise" their knowledge through spoken and written production. Swain (2001b, 1993, 1995), who introduced the output hypothesis, is convinced that the role of output in SLA has been neglected. What is more, she believes that task-based teaching promotes the output hypothesis. She also maintains that there has been much theoretical discussion on the role of input in second-language learning (see the chapter "Integration of Content and Language in Bilingual Content-Based Language Instruction", the section on SLA research in support of content-based communicative language teaching), but too little attention has been given to the role of output, except that it increases fluency. More on the role of output in SLA can be found in the chapter "Assessment of Production Skills".

Some researchers and teachers have recognised the importance of eliciting students' meaning-focused samples of speech through the use of meaningful tasks.

> Teachers recognize that unless learners are given the opportunity to experience such samples they may not succeed in developing the kind of L2 proficiency needed to communicate fluently and effectively. (Ellis 2003: 1)

These may not only be speech samples. Swain (2001b) reports that some types of collaborative tasks that require students' written output are particularly useful for language acquisition. She also believes that the production of language through meaningful tasks enhances the language-learning process because learners are able to test their knowledge and try new language forms. In other words, learners take a risk by stretching their new language to accomplish communicative needs. Moreover, using collaborative tasks in class also enables students to learn from other students, and so they learn more while engaging in such tasks than when learning by themselves.

As far as language skills are concerned, most discussions on tasks used in task-based teaching make it clear that a task may involve both oral and written activities; for example, Long (1985) and Bygate et al. (2001). Even though Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) attempted to state that a task may not necessarily involve only spoken and written production, but that there are also listening and reading tasks, the research-based and teaching literature reflect the emphasis based on speaking skills (Swain 2001b, 1993; Nunan 2004; Ellis 2003). All in all, the assumption is that tasks involve the production of language with the main focus on oral production.

The emphasis on spoken production is mostly adopted in teaching business English. Tasks adopted in teaching business English are therefore meant to create a classroom environment in which “real communication can take place and can be practiced continuously” (Ellis and Johnson 1994: 37). Business English students are expected to speak in class because only speaking can develop their fluency. The specific tasks used in teaching business English are meant to establish classroom environments in relation to learners’ jobs.

Carson, Taylor and Fredella (1997: 367) attempted to sum up the interrelatedness among Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP, which belongs to the ESP approach discussed in the next chapter) in the following sentence: ‘[...] content plays a significant role in TBLT in general, and in task-based English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programs in particular.’

4 BUSINESS AS CONTENT KNOWLEDGE IN ESP BUSINESS ENGLISH COURSES

Teaching business as content knowledge in business English courses falls into the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) approach. ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP).[1] However, initially most of the research, materials, and course descriptions in ESP were dominated by the teaching of EAP, whereas EOP played an important albeit minor role. Recently, the expansion of international business has led to rapid growth in EBP (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

According to Donna (2000: 6), business English is not only "specific", but also "special" in comparison to other ESP areas: "Business English is special because of the opportunity it gives you to fulfil students' immediate needs for English". She also adds that in other approaches to teaching English "students' needs are rarely so immediate and urgent." Since the purpose of business English courses is to fulfil students' work-related needs, the content of these courses always has to be selected and designed in agreement with the students whose expectations have to be fulfilled in the business English classroom. Apparently, business English is a combination of specific content (relating to a particular industry of job) and general content (relating to an ability to communicate effectively, but in specific business situations), which, according to Ellis and Johnson (1994), is another aspect that differentiates business English from other varieties of ESP.

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP) AND CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION (CBI)

Since business can also be the content knowledge in content-based courses, it becomes evident that ESP (or, more specifically, EBP or business English) and Content Based Instruction have a lot in common. What is the relationship between ESP and CBI?

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1 Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 6) further divide EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional area: EAP (English for Academic Science and Technology, English for Academic Medical Purposes, English for Academic Legal Purposes, and English for Management, Finance and Economics), and EOP (English for Professional Purposes and English for Vocational Purposes; English for Professional Purposes is subdivided into English for Medical Purposes and English for Business Purposes, and English for Vocational Purposes is subdivided into Pre-Vocational English and Vocational English).

Although there are many similarities between ESP and CBI, there are also some differences between the two movements. Undoubtedly they are strongly connected in practice even though researchers, teachers and school curriculum designers use these expressions in different instructional settings. One of the reasons for their similarities and interrelatedness can be found in the fact that Hutchinson and Waters (1987), who are considered the founders of the ESP approach, also introduced the idea of including the content of a subject of study in a language classroom in the 1970s. However, the origin of ESP goes back to the 1960s (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998), which means that the appearance of the ESP approach was also an essential element of the beginnings of communicative language teaching.

There was an attempt to describe the relationship between ESP and CBI in one sentence by Johns (1992), even though she still believed that this relationship could not be appropriately summed up in only one sentence:

> English for specific purposes (ESP) is a super-ordinate term for all good ESL/EFL teaching, and content-based instruction (CBI) is a central force in this movement. (Johns 1992: 71)

According to Johns (1992: 71), there are more similarities than differences between ESP and CBI. Namely, in both movements, there is "practitioners' unease about the separation of language instruction from the contexts and demands of real language use". Furthermore, in ESP as well as CBI there is a great effort to engage students in meaningful language use, and therefore teachers try to ensure that classroom content reflects the real target situations. Thus, teachers also try to design authentic tasks that can help learners interact with content and discourse in cognitively demanding ways. As far as the differences between ESP and CBI are concerned, Johns maintains that there is one difference that relates to the "scope of each movement's influence" (Johns 1992: 72). Namely, whereas CBI is mainly used in English-speaking countries because it is limited to the ESL setting, ESP is an international movement that takes place in non–English-speaking countries where English is a foreign language. It is important to note that in English-speaking countries there is resistance to using the term ESP. In this respect, Johns (1992) gives an example: in Australia, for instance, instead of ESP, they use the terms "technical and further education for immigrant students (TAFE) and English in the workplace (EWP)" (Johns 1992: 73). Furthermore, ESP is also distinguished from CBI by the fact that it is often designed for adult learners whose needs are more specific and immediate than children's needs. Thus, CBI is used in the education of children in primary and secondary schools. Next, the ESP movement is older than CBI because it has a long research tradition dating from the early 1960s (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998; Swales 1985).

It is also important to note here that ESP programmes are considered to be among early versions of content-based instruction, together with a variety of L2 vocational and workplace instructional contexts (Grabe and Stoller 1997).

Finally, ESP teachers are also researchers because they need to do extensive analysis of students' needs, and complete text and genre analyses as well before they design their curricula (Johns 1992: 76). On the other hand, CBI practitioners can focus only on teaching. It is important to note that some teachers teach in ESP programmes and therefore consider themselves ESP teachers, but they are nevertheless aware that pedagogical elements of CBI are valuable in their teaching practice.

ENGLISH FOR BUSINESS PURPOSES (EBP) OR ENGLISH FOR BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS (EBE)

By and large, the most popular form of ESP today is English for Business Purposes (EBP) or English for Business and Economics (EBE). The term EBE is preferred by some authors and editors in the literature (Master and Brinton 1998), but others use only EBP or business English (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

The content-based bilingual programme adopted at the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 (HAK 1) Salzburg, where this research was conducted, was introduced in order to prepare business students for their future careers in business. The bilingual curriculum therefore encompasses various school subjects ranging from international business to marketing, finance and others. These subjects are taught in English, which is the students' first foreign language. In addition, the students also take business English courses throughout their studies, in which business skills are practiced, such as presentations, meetings, negotiations and telephoning. Even though the grammar of English is also included, it is mainly practiced with the help of authentic materials taken from business journals and other materials that are all business-oriented. The primary purpose of using business input in business English courses is to increase students' communicative competences in various business contexts. Most business students at HAK 1 expect to work in international settings in their future business careers. On the other hand, the non-bilingual students are taught English only in business English courses and not in other subject areas.

ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE OF BUSINESS

Because English has become the international language of business, business English courses have been extremely popular at business schools and at foreign-language schools. The spread of English is inseparable from globalisation (Hüppauf 2004).

For instance, in Europe, going global is closely associated with English. In his article “In Europe, Going Global Means, Alas, English”, Tagliabue (2002) lists various European companies that have adopted English as the language of management. For instance, in the 1990s Merloni, an Italian appliance manufacturer, introduced English as their official language because the chief executive officer believed that English would give Merloni an international image. Subsequently, the company’s growth strengthened the role of English, mainly after it had acquired Russian and British companies. The company’s spokesperson, Andrea Prandi, says that now many executives are not only Italian but also French, English, Danish and Russian: “We consider ourselves a European group. For Europe, the official language is English” (Tagliabue 2002: 15).

Most business contacts are in English, and “most English-medium communications in business are non-native speaker to non-native speaker”, and therefore the English they use is “international English” (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 53), not the English used by native speakers in English-speaking countries. There is also the term “offshore English” introduced by Guy and Mattock (1993), and it refers to the English spoken by Europeans that do not share first languages but have learned English for practical use rather than for academic purposes. It is important to note that “international” or “offshore English” is about effective communication because non-native speakers of English strive to communicate effectively, but not necessarily using native-like terms and expressions. “International English” is therefore not so rich in vocabulary and expression, and also it is not as connected with culture as the English used by native speakers, but it is instead based on a range of the most useful structures and basic vocabulary. That is to say, for effective communication in “international English” in various business settings, businesspeople do not always need to know “the full complexities of English grammar and idiom” (Ellis and Johnson 1994: 9), and therefore business English courses are mostly unconcerned with teaching language forms.

THE ROLE OF GRAMMAR IN TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH

Indeed, it is believed that teaching ESP, and particularly teaching EBP, is not concerned with grammar. This is especially true in teaching EOP, but less in teaching EBP in academic settings (e.g., in business schools at university levels). This also depends on students' competence level in English. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 74) therefore maintain that "how much priority is paid to grammatical weakness depends on the learners' level in English and whether priority needs to be given to grammatical accuracy or to fluency in using the language". In this respect, it is already evident how important it is for business English teachers to carry out needs analysis.

However, if grammar is included in teaching business English, the practice of language forms is fully contextualised, and it is meant to support effective business communication. In addition, some grammatical elements may require more attention in business English courses than in other more general language courses. For example, for effective negotiation, students should be encouraged to use polite requests, conditionals, or modal verbs for expressing possibility. It is easy to compile a list of grammar practiced in business English courses just by looking at language sections of business English textbooks. Indeed, in all of them, the stress is on the verb (tenses and voice), modal verbs, the difference between *make* and *do*, *have*, *have got* and polite expressions. Wilberg and Lewis (1990: 104) have even drawn up a list of 24 typical "business verbs" to practice their forms.

All in all, one needs to bear in mind that the primary concern of popular business English courses is to teach students to communicate effectively, not necessarily always accurately. Most importantly, apart from the language used in socialising, much of the language needed by businesspeople is related to getting what they want and persuading people to agree with their suggested courses of action.

RESEARCH ON TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH

Although EBP teaching has become increasingly popular, research in this field is still scant. St John (1996: 15) finds a reason for the lack of research in teaching business English in the fact that business English is "a materials-led movement rather than a research-led movement". In the past two decades numerous business English textbooks and course materials have been published based on authors' extensive experience in teaching business English, and therefore they present good teaching practice. However, there is room for concern because the current trends in doing business are reflected in business English textbooks and materials very late; for example, modern means of written business communication, e-commerce, e-banking and e-tailing are not included in some business English textbooks still in use today. This time lag between changes in practice, changes in teaching and in published materials consequently leads to outdated business English textbooks. I agree with St John (1996) that this may be also due to lack of research.

There has also been evidence that the expressions and language used in actual business meetings do not always correspond to the “meetings” expressions practiced in business English courses. Williams (1988) found little overlap between the expressions used in real meetings and the ones that are included in business English textbooks. A considerable lack of spoken research data on real language used in business meetings and negotiations has much to do with the issue of confidentiality. Many companies are reluctant to allow researchers to attend their business meetings and record their sessions. In addition, business correspondence samples presented in business English textbooks are not authentic because companies do not allow their correspondence to be copied.

In business English courses there has been an important shift from written communication, which was a primary focus in business English in the 1960s and 1970s, to the need for spoken communication. The needs analysis for Secretarial Science and Commercial Students in Malaysia revealed that even though all four skills proved to be necessary in business English courses, there was a predominant need to practice spoken communication (Malaysian Polytechnics 1994). Among all four skills, there has been “considerable consensus on the importance of spoken language for those using English in business settings” (St John 1996: 6).

Some research has been done on improving learners’ written communication. Harrigan (1990) studied business English students that wanted to improve their writing skills in a business communication course. The author assumed that writing skills can be improved by integrating all skills (reading, listening and speaking). The final results showed that students had significantly improved their oral and writing skills.

Regarding research on business communication skills, negotiations have been studied more than other skills even though there is the least material on negotiations in business English publications. Research on negotiations has examined language and discourse, and business and management strategies (Lampi 1986; Charles 1994, 1996; Firth 1995). The results showed that understanding the discourse in negotiations largely depends on understanding the business relationships between the participants in negotiations.

Cross-cultural aspects in business English are very important because effective spoken and written business communications mean not only knowing the language, but also understanding other people's behaviour, their reactions and their ways of doing business. Robinson (1991) and Cowcher (1987) agree that intercultural awareness or cross-cultural aspects of business communication have to be studied more extensively in the future because very little research has been done in this field (Garcez 1993; Nickerson 1993; Jenkins and Hinds 1987; Yamada 1990)

The use of business case studies in business English has been studied by Wenhua (2003), and the results revealed a positive attitude towards this approach. Case studies are normally aimed at business English learners with upper intermediate to advanced proficiency in the language. This approach provides language work and various activities, such as role play.

Hopefully, the amount of research in business English may be increased by a rapid growth of conferences in ESP and teaching business English, and by MA courses at some business schools that have also introduced business English.

4.1 BUSINESS ENGLISH LEARNERS

Today there are many varieties of business English that suit the needs of various groups of learners. Relating to business experience of the target learners, Ellis and Johnson (1994) suggest dividing business English learners into two broad groups:

- Pre-experience (or low-experience) learners, who have no previous business experience

- Job-experienced learners, who come from various business backgrounds

Pre-experience learners have different needs and expectations from job-experienced learners.

4.1.1 JOB-EXPERIENCED LEARNERS

Job-experienced learners are also influenced by their educational background, but in most cases they gain some practical experience of having to communicate on the job; they are more likely to have a single set of needs relating to their job. Sometimes learners may need English for a new job or a situation that they have not yet experienced (e.g., an employee that is about to be posted abroad).

One overriding characteristic of job-experienced learners of business English is their essential need to be pragmatic. Practical use of the language is more important than theoretical knowledge about the language.

An employee who has been selected for a new job or a new project will have to be able to manage in spite of his or her incomplete knowledge or inadequate skills in English, and therefore providing strategies for coping will be an essential feature of the business English course for such a person.

The courses for job-experienced learners differ in objectives, course content, and methodology – depending on the type of business the learners are involved in, their jobs and job requirements, the length of the course, and the structure of the learner group.

So, for job-experienced learners learning *business skills*, rather than *language skills*, is more important. Business skills are needed in negotiating, conducting or attending meetings, presenting products or information, writing reports, business letters or memos, socialising and understanding the people from other countries that they have to deal with. Depending on their jobs, they may need to learn and practice very specific business skills.

4.1.2 PRE-EXPERIENCE LEARNERS

Students at colleges or universities learn about business largely from books or articles in business newspapers and magazines. As a result, their knowledge is somewhat incomplete and theoretical rather than practical. They are less aware of their language needs in terms of communicating in real-life business situations. Their expectations of language learning depend on their experiences from school.

Pre-experience learners have different needs relating to their future careers:

- They will read business publications in English and follow lectures in English in order to gain qualifications they are seeking. A major component of their English training may therefore be the development of reading and listening skills, with a strong emphasis on the vocabulary of the subject

- They will attend international congresses, so they need to be taught how to write papers in English and learn presentation skills to be able to present their papers at international congresses or seminars

- They just need to pass their tests

- They need to prepare for their future careers in business. In this regard, their language courses usually include skills such as commercial correspondence, negotiations, participating in meetings, telephoning or presenting information or social interaction

Business English courses offered by colleges and universities vary widely depending on the level of qualifications the students are aiming at and the types of work they will later be engaged in. The needs of students following vocational courses in commercial practice (e.g., import-export) or secretarial training are vastly different from those following a university degree course in business administration. The differences are evident in the level of language and the kinds of language knowledge and language skills required.

The bilingual and non-bilingual students at the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 Salzburg, who are the subjects of this research, are pre-experience learners of business English.

Both the bilingual and non-bilingual students receive the same business-oriented English input through reading, listening, writing and other, mostly communicative activities in their business English classes. In addition, bilingual students study commercial school subjects in English, so their foreign-language input is much larger than that of the non-bilingual students, who study business school subjects in German, their native language.

The teachers of the bilingual classes at HAK 1 Salzburg are mostly content specialists, but some bilingual teachers are also language experts. Teaching commercial subjects in English and teaching business English demands both: teachers that have extensive knowledge of business content as well as linguistic knowledge. However, CBI of English at commercial schools is always focused on business and learning business skills that will be needed in students' future careers, rather than learning grammar. Business English teachers are therefore often referred to as "trainers" (Ellis and Johnson 1994). It is hard for teachers of English as a foreign language that change to teaching business English because they often find it dynamic and demanding, but on the other hand they get the chance to teach very ambitious, dedicated, open-minded and highly motivated adults.

4.2 BUSINESS ENGLISH TEACHERS

Business English teachers not only teach or convey their knowledge to their students, but have to assume different roles while teaching, which is fundamental to teaching language communicatively. Teaching business English is especially complex and demanding in the sense that the primary need of most business English learners is to improve their productive skills of speaking and writing.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) list four different roles of the business English teacher: practitioner, facilitator, monitor and trainer. In addition to these four roles, Cranton (1992: 67) defines the roles of teachers of adult learners that could be applied to business English teachers: expert, planner, instructor, resource person, manager, model, mentor, co-learner, reformer, reflective practitioner and researcher.

The variety of roles of the business English teacher offers different interpretations. Traditional English teachers are not able to teach within the experimental context of business English (Johns and Price-Machado 2001: 46) because, in addition to the language requirements, they are required to improvise, have business experience, educate themselves on business topics and cooperate with experts from various business fields.

4.3 IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING BUSINESS SKILLS IN BUSINESS ENGLISH COURSES

Four essential business skills are taught in business English courses: presentation skills, negotiation skills, meeting skills and telephoning skills, which are mostly speaking skills. In addition, businesspeople are trained in preparing for job interviews, writing effective application letters, writing effective CVs, doing research and writing effective business reports, complaints, enquiry letters, press releases, guidelines, action minutes, sales letters, sales proposals, e-mails and memos. They are trained in communicating successfully, communicating clearly, communicating with customers, being aware of cross-cultural differences in conducting meetings and negotiations, presenting their ideas clearly, describing and promoting products and services, functioning effectively in teams, analysing and solving case studies, meeting clients and socialising. The term “socialising” may lead one to think that interaction is social, but in fact it remains business in the sense that socialising is meant to establish and strengthen good business contacts.

In teaching essential business skills, language cannot be neglected. Students are given practical advice on what expressions are more effective in reaching their goals in business communication. In business English courses, learners are expected to speak, and only speaking can develop their fluency. In addition, the importance of using an appropriate body language is emphasised in business English too because a spoken message conveyed face-to-face also contains non-verbal messages. In personal contacts words can even play a very small role in the message (Mehrabian 1971).

Job-experienced businesspeople that attend business English courses find that they have a great need to improve their active, productive skills required at their everyday contacts with business partners abroad. Business English schools attract businesspeople to join their courses by promising to improve their speaking and writing.

> "Speaking and Writing in Business aims to provide you with what you'll need to succeed in the business world – from applying and interviewing for your first professional job to writing and presenting that most complex of business documents, the Business Plan. During this course, you'll learn how to use socio- and psycholinguistic devices to structure your writing for maximum impact and effectiveness. You'll learn how to use your voice, gestures, and body movements in interviewing and making effective presentations. And, last, you'll learn to write and make presentations collaboratively as part of a team – another aspect of communicating in the business world for which many graduates are poorly prepared" (Description of the course "Speaking and Writing in Business" offered at the University of Florida webpage – See Chapter 14-Online Sources).

Mount Royal College also offers "Public speaking, business writing and presentations" to help learners overcome their fear of speaking in public. They offer a special course in "Effective business writing" in which businesspeople learn to write "various business writing applications such as reports, proposals and letters of intent, as well as effective composition, revision and editing skills in this interactive, practical course" (Mount Royal College, Faculty of Continuing Education webpage – See Chapter 14-Online Sources).

Numerous schools offer similar courses on their websites. As a matter of fact, there are very few business English courses in Europe trying to attract businesspeople that wish to improve their listening and reading skills because businesspeople need to improve their production skills to be able to function at their workplaces while making effective everyday contacts with their business partners. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 73) stress that "although many of the short, intensive courses are for spoken interaction, writing is important".

Ryckman (1980) gives practical information for effective communication. It is intended for job-experienced business professionals that want to gain confidence in speaking and writing clearly. The book discusses the effective and persuasive public speaking, formal speeches and presentations. It gives the basis for preparing, organising and writing effective business reports without paying attention to grammar rules. Even though the primary emphasis in the book lies in writing and speaking, it also offers ways to attract and hold the attention of listeners and readers.

Whereas job-experienced learners of business English mainly need to improve their writing and speaking skills, pre-experience learners of business English at the university and secondary levels also need to practice their listening and reading skills as prerequisites for a good communication that will be needed in their future careers. As a matter of fact, they are required to practice and improve their more passive reception skills in order to be able to move to the more active production skills of speaking and writing.

I agree that listening is one way to learn how to improve leadership, marketing and negotiation skills, the ability to motivate customers and teams, and overall performance in business. It is also suggested that one can improve their listening by reading more (see the web page on improving business listening – Chapter 14-Online Sources).

Some American online business English schools offer listening and reading for less proficient learners of English. As already stated, the needs of business English learners are multi-faceted because they mainly depend on the requirements at their jobs, and also on the industry they work in and their language competences.

IMPORTANCE OF IMPROVING BUSINESS ENGLISH SOFT SKILLS

Nowadays employers strive to recruit highly communicative and adaptable candidates that will be able to establish and keep business connections. These skills are called soft skills or social skills and cannot be found in applicants' CVs. Nieragden (2000) stresses that soft skills are "fast becoming the deal breaker in many of today's hiring decisions". Traditional job interviews have lost their importance; today candidates might also be assessed in taking part in simulated situations, such as teamwork, role-playing exercises, simulated decision-making exercises and brainteasers. Furthermore, it is not uncommon to expect job candidates to use English even in non–English-speaking countries while being evaluated for a new position. Fierce competition demands that companies find the best people for the jobs because the costs of employing the wrong person are immense. "Searching and training can cost from $5000 for a lower-level manager to $250,000 for a top executive" (*New York Times* article in Tullis and Trappe 2000: 16). The most important soft skills required by candidates looking for jobs can be classified into four groups: interaction, communication, self-management and organisation (Nieragden 2000) (see Chapter 14-Online Sources).

Soft skills are especially important in handling various business situations, such as problem-solving, decision-making, troubleshooting, conflict handling, delegating, presenting, listening, teamwork, cooperating, learning tolerance, and cross-cultural awareness. After fifteen years of experience in teaching business English to students with and without business experience, I can confidently assert that neither pre-experience nor job-experienced learners master soft skills. Many people lack these skills even in their native language, so they often encounter them in business English courses for the first time.

Being communicative and convincing in contacts with business partners ensures success in the business world nowadays. It is true that the “hard” skills (subject competence, market knowledge and technical knowledge) go hand in hand with soft skills, but it is also common knowledge that these hard skills learned in schools are no longer enough because business is not done only in the boardroom. That is, business deals may be signed at the table but endless preliminary discussions take place in restaurants, on golf courses, tennis courses, or corporate trips, in corporate galleries and at various receptions. In addition, most meetings, negotiations or signed agreements in a boardroom are followed by a business lunch or dinner at a restaurant. Socialising is therefore one of the essential business performance skills, which makes it a vital part of most business English syllabuses, together with the four key skills of business English: presentation skills, meetings, negotiations and telephoning. For instance, in addition to these four skills, Ellis and Johnson (1994: 9) also add socialising and report-writing, and then point out concepts discussed and expressed within these skill areas: “describing changes and trends, quality, product, process and procedures, strategy.”

Most widely used business English textbooks contain a unit on communication, which proves how important it is to be communicative in business; for example, in Cotton, Falvey and Kent (2001) the title of Unit 1 is “Communication”, in which the following adjectives describing the qualities of a good communicator are listed (alphabetically, not in order of importance): articulate, coherent, eloquent, fluent, focussed, lucid, persuasive, responsive, sensitive and succinct.

Business English learners are competitive individuals by nature, so they would react positively to any challenge in the classroom as long as the communicative tasks fulfil their immediate work-related needs.

4.4 INPUT VERSUS OUTPUT IN BUSINESS ENGLISH

Much more time in business English courses is dedicated to output than input because, if too much time is spent on reading long texts, explaining long lists of specialised business words or dealing with language form, there will not be enough time left for speaking. Consequently, business English learners may become impatient and will not put up with useless explanations of words or grammar if they do not see the connection with their professional needs. They expect efficient time spent in business English courses because time is money.

Getting students to speak in class is therefore the objective of business English trainers. Consequently, output refers to providing students with opportunities for practice and skill development because they mainly need to develop fluency.

The balance between the amount of input and output is also emphasised by Ellis and Johnson (1994: 38): "... the amount of course time needed for input will be a small fraction of the whole. A much larger proportion of the course time will be needed for output ... the aim is to develop fluency and faster reactions ...."

All in all, this demonstrates that in teaching business English all proven positive attributes of communicative language teaching, together with the characteristics of CBI and task-based teaching and learning, come into play. There is not a single methodology that may be adopted in all business English courses because the choice of methodology greatly depends on the cultural backgrounds and learners' needs, and therefore "it is not surprising that one can find just about every kind of methodology in the field of teaching Business English" (Ellis and Johnson 1994: 218). Moreover, no matter what methodologies are used, they are appropriate as long as they consider the learner as the centre of the learning process.

5 ASSESSING SECOND-LANGUAGE COMPETENCES WITH A FOCUS ON GENERAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND PRODUCTION SKILLS

In assessing second-language competence of the business students in this study, it was essential to design communicative and authentic tests that measure the communicative competence of second-language learners in business. It should be clear that, if the communicative approach is used in teaching students, communication also has to be the focus in assessing them.

Namely, it was Hymes (1971) who developed the theory of communicative competence, which is the ability to use language appropriately or, in other words, a user's ability to use language in context. Actually, Hymes wanted to say that knowing a language is more than knowing its grammatical rules. However, there is no clear definition of the construct "communicative competence" which, according to Bachman, Davidson and Foulkes (1993: 41), is one of the most debated issues in foreign-language testing. Lantolf and Frawley (1988: 186) also maintain that in the literature on proficiency and communicative competence there is "nothing even approaching a reasonable and unified theory of proficiency." Bachman (1990: 84) uses the term *communicative language ability* (CLA), which comprises knowledge or competence, and the "capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use." According to him, communicative language ability (CLA) includes three components: language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms. Language competence refers to language knowledge that is used in communication, strategic competence is about the mental ability to use language competence in contextualised communicative language use and psychophysiological mechanisms are the neurological and psychological processes that take place in actual language use. All discussions and frameworks of communicative competence are meant to emphasise language use as a dynamic process that involves a negotiation of meaning on the part of a language user and the assessment of appropriate information used in context.

In assessing language proficiency, language tests normally measure the four skill areas of speaking, listening, reading and writing. In this study, the focus is on the productive skills of speaking and writing, and the facets of general language competence are also included.

The focus on production is considered more important in the business English context, so I left out receptive skills. Also, due to time constraints during the data-collection procedure, I had to narrow the focus to the productive skills.

The communicative tests designed to assess the communicative competences of bilingual and non-bilingual students at the business school (HAK 1 Salzburg) in this study had to fulfil the basic requirements of a useful language test: reliability and validity. These two requirements (which are critical for tests) are sometimes called “essential measurement qualities” (Bachman and Palmer 1996: 19).

A test is reliable if subjects’ performance is not affected by factors other than the communicative language ability one wants to measure. In other words, the influence of these factors has to be minimised so that the reliability is maximised (Bachman 1990). However, subjects’ performance can also be influenced by psychological factors, such as lack of interest, fatigue and bad moods, but these are very unpredictable factors even though they can affect measurement error. Nonetheless, there are more fatal factors that can influence subjects’ performance, and they are the ones over which the test developers have control. These factors are connected with the characteristics of the methods used to elicit subjects’ performance on tests, and therefore they have to be considered while designing, developing, and using language tests. For instance, some testees may find spoken interaction with an interviewer intimidating, and others may find it difficult to react to a multiple-choice test. All in all, the scores obtained in measuring language abilities have to be relatively consistent. Reliability is therefore an essential quality of test results. If the scores are not consistent, they cannot give any information about the ability that is being measured (Bachman and Palmer 1996: 20).

The reliability of the C-test scores and scores achieved on speaking and writing tests in this study was ensured by statistical tools. For instance, the reliability of the holistic writing and speaking scores was insured by intra-rater reliability or internal consistency in order to examine to what extent the raters’ scores are consistent. The statistical correlation between the two sets of scores was further established by calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient (Pearson’s *r*), which helped monitor examiner reliability. In addition, the *t*-test was used to determine whether the difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual C-test scores is statistically significant. Furthermore, the content of all communicative tests used in assessing the subjects in this study was familiar to them because the content was discussed in their business classes beforehand, which fulfils another aspect of a useful language test: content validity.

The concepts of reliability and validity are closely connected: for test scores to be valid, they must be reliable, which means that the measurements have to be accurate. However, a reliable test may not be valid (Alderson et al. 1995; Hughes 1989). For instance, the test may provide consistent results, but not exactly measure what one wants it to measure, and therefore it is not valid. On the other hand, a test may be a valid measure of subjects' speaking skills, but may be very difficult to score reliably. Alderson et al. (1995) admit that the relationship between reliability and validity is essentially easy to understand, but it may become quite complex when it comes to practice. The authors claim that there are two broad types of validity: internal and external. Internal validity is divided into face validity, content validity and response validity. There are two types of external validity: concurrent validity and predictive validity. Because a valid test is one that measures the abilities one wants it to measure, some authors discuss validity in terms of "construct validity" (e.g., Bachman and Palmer 1996). For Bachman and Palmer (1996) "construct validity" (not only "validity") is one of the four qualities a useful test must have, together with reliability, authenticity and interactiveness. Therefore interpretations of test scores need to be valid or, or in other words, these interpretations must refer to test scores as the indicators of the construct one wants to measure. However, one needs to be aware that, even if interpretations are meaningful and appropriate, they can never be considered absolutely valid (Bachman and Palmer 1996).

In this research, the speaking and writing tests were meant to elicit the subjects' spoken and written production without the influence of other skills. In assessing speaking, students' poor listening skills may hinder their responses to the interviewer's questions. In assessing subjects' speaking skills in this study, their narratives based on pictures from a commercial helped subjects focus only on their spoken production without any interference from the tester. In addition, in assessing the subjects' writing abilities, their written summaries are based on a video story in which there is a lot of action with very little spoken or written input. In other words, the students described events that were not affected by poor listening or reading comprehension.

In this study, the speaking and writing tests as well as the C-test are therefore valid measures of subjects' speaking and writing abilities and general language proficiency. The reliable test scores obtained from the subjects' performance on these tests consequently offer valid and meaningful interpretations.

5.1 ASSESSMENT OF GENERAL L2 PROFICIENCY: C-TEST

The C-test was designed to measure bilingual and non-bilingual students' general language proficiency. However, in order to achieve a high score on the C-test, not just grammatical and lexical knowledge is needed, but also world knowledge or knowledge of the text content. The subjects of this research were all familiar with the content of the text because the text was taken from marketing. However, they were familiar with marketing content in different languages because the bilingual students attend the marketing course in English whereas the non-bilinguals attend the marketing course in German. Nevertheless, both groups obtain basic knowledge and learn fundamental marketing vocabulary in their business English courses.

The C-test belongs to the family of language tests using the reduced redundancy approach towards test development, which plays an important role in language testing today (Sigott 2004). Sigott also claims that the concept of reduced redundancy came into applied linguistics through readability research. The theoretical considerations of reduced redundancy testing can be traced back to the principles of Gestalt psychology, which is based on the fact that "language is to a certain extent redundant" (Sigott 2004: 15).

Consequently, the analysis of students' efforts in trying to reconstitute the original message can be seen as a good way of assessing essential aspects of their language proficiency because as Spolsky assumed "knowing a language certainly involves the ability to understand a distorted message" (Spolsky, cited in Klein-Braley 1997: 47). Certainly any kind of linguistic communication can be disturbed by noise introduced into the channel, and natural language may occasionally be understood despite deleting part of the words in a written text. Complex knowledge, which ranges from linguistic, lexical, syntactic and content knowledge, is required to be successful in filling in the C-Test items. Bernhard Spolsky must also be acknowledged for relating the principle of reduced redundancy to both natural language and the cloze test.

The C-test principle was introduced in 1981, and since then C-tests have been used as placement tests, as anchor tests, and as research instruments in applied linguistics (Eckes and Grotjahn 2006). Raatz and Klein-Braley (1982) developed the C-test in order to improve technical defects of the cloze-test. The letter *C* in C-test was chosen specifically as an abbreviation of the word "cloze" in order to highlight the relationship between the two test procedures (Klein-Braley 1997). The C-Principle (Klein-Braley 1997: 64) is based on partial deletion at the word level. Within a text, the second half of every second word is deleted. If the word consists of an odd number of letters then one additional letter is deleted (i.e., the larger half is deleted). One-letter words in English such as “I” or “a” are ignored and not counted. The deletion procedure does not affect the first sentence in order to allow some introductory words for the following content.

The advantages of the C-test as the most economical and reliable procedure with the highest empirical validity according to some researchers in this field are briefly summarised here:

- Because every second word is mutilated, the probability of obtaining a representative sample of all word classes is very high
- C-tests can easily be constructed
- Objective and exact scoring can be guaranteed because there is almost always only one possible answer. If other solutions are possible, they are counted as correct
- The scoring can be done relatively quickly and easily

As stated above, C-tests have become increasingly accepted as reliable and valid tests of general language proficiency. Eckes and Grotjahn (2006: 291) define general language proficiency as “an underlying ability comprising both knowledge and skills and manifesting itself in all kinds of language use”. Sigott (2004: 18) strongly supports the view that the C-test principle is a reliable way to assess general language proficiency: “Reducing the redundancy in a message and observing how well speakers can still decode it, would seem to be an excellent way to determine their overall language proficiency”. However, not only grammatical and lexical knowledge, but also contextual knowledge and knowledge of the world are needed in order to successfully complete the C-test. Furthermore, Hastings (2002: 24) confidently concluded that “the value of C-testing as a measure of global proficiency in second language has been demonstrated too many times to be open to dispute”. The reliability of the C-test as a measure of general language competence was further supported by Dörnyei and Katona (1992), who claimed that by using the C-test general language abilities at different proficiency levels were measured accurately and efficiently. Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984) also found evidence that the C-test is a valid and reliable measure of general language competence. Even though many authors refer to the idea of general language proficiency, Alderson (2002: 21) claims that a “unitary competence” or general language proficiency in fact does not exist. Daller and Phelan (2006: 103) try to modify Alderson’s claim by saying that, no matter what, there definitely is “something resembling a common underlying proficiency at least in certain areas". They also point out that all aspects of language proficiency are not covered in the C-test. The primary skill that is measured in the C-test is the ability "to cope receptively with context-reduced language in cognitively demanding tasks" (Grotjahn and Stemmer 2002: 125). The C-test construct is therefore highly complex, meaning that not only grammatical and lexical knowledge is assessed with the C-test, but also discourse competence comprising the rules of cohesion and coherence.

Eckes and Grotjahn (2006) highlight that it has nevertheless been debated for years what the C-test really measures. Some authors have even argued that the C-test is a measure of reading ability (Cohen et al. 1985). This argument is questionable because, according to Grotjahn and Tönshoff (1992), test-takers may achieve a high score on a C-test because of successful processing at the lexical and grammatical levels without adequately understanding the text. Even though they found a positive correlation between C-test results and the amount of idea units the subjects remembered and translated correctly, they concluded that the C-test is not a valid measure of reading comprehension.

There have been extensive discussions on the controversy about the validity of C-tests. Most studies of the validity of C-tests tried to correlate C-test scores with the results of tests that measure other aspects of language ability (Klein-Braley 1997, 2002). However, Alderson, Clapham and Wall (1995) argued against using such investigations, claiming that they need to be treated with reserve. Their cautious approach towards correlations was grounded in their belief that all tests are designed to measure different aspects of language ability, and often there is not enough information available about the validity and reliability of other tests. Nevertheless, one needs to point out the interesting phenomenon that C-tests correlate substantially with tests of listening comprehension. The rationale for this high correlation is explained by Singleton and Singleton (2002):

> ... degraded written stimuli, like ephemeral spoken stimuli, force objects to rely heavily on contextual cues, to implement more "top-down" strategies than are necessary in order to deal with intact written signals, which for their part are more amenable to a "bottom-up" approach. (Singleton and Singleton 2002: 148)

Research has also shown that C-tests correlate substantially with vocabulary and grammar, which is in line with Carroll's (1993) statement that grammar and vocabulary play a central role in language proficiency. It should be noted here that grammar tests tend to correlate strongly with reading ability (e.g., Clapham 1996; Rea-Dickins 1997). Significant correlations were also found between C-tests and dictation tasks, which is reasoned by Klein-Braley (1997: 54) who claims that “dictation is very often the best representative of the general factor” in tests, which is just another indicator that the C-test measures general language proficiency. Because this study focuses on production skills, it should be noted that Eckes and Grotjahn (2006) determined a higher correlation between productive writing and speaking skills and the C-test than between receptive skills and the C-test. Nevertheless, they were extremely cautious not to conclude that productive skills are more important than receptive skills regarding general language proficiency measured by the C-test because the results of factor analyses used in their research also depended on attributes of the tests used, the nature of subjects included in the sample, and the instructions the examinees received. Eckes and Grotjahn (2006), and Alderson, Clapham, and Wall (1995) expressed scepticism towards grounding conclusions on the basis of correlation studies between C-test results and the results of tests that measure other language abilities, so correlations between the subjects’ C-test results and the results of writing and speaking tests are not examined in this study.

The considerably low face validity of C-tests has also been tackled by researchers (Sigott 2004; Kontra and Kormos 2006), and their findings are consistent with the findings of this research. Namely, test-takers as well as some teachers have reported test anxiety and frustration with the C-test format, which may have occurred due to their uncertainty about what the C-test actually measured. Some test-takers claim that the test is too difficult for them to solve, but on the other hand some students in this study perceived the C-test as blind guessing, therefore as a game, which is why they had a somewhat artificial and unserious approach to test-taking. There was no connection between the test-takers’ perception of the C-test and their achievement on the test. The low face validity of the C-test could be improved if testers took more time to explain the procedure and the purpose of taking the C-test to test-takers beforehand.

Researchers have also studied the strategies C-test takers use while solving the test. Klein-Braley (1994) focused on subjects’ processing behaviour, and found two major behaviour patterns: “early closure” and “narrow focus”, which occur when low achievers fail to provide the correct C-test item. Whereas “early closure” is a failure that occurs because of syntactic reasons, meaning that test-takers supply an item in a blank before they consider its appropriateness with the syntactic requirements of a clause or sentence, “narrow focus” is a more content-based strategy, occurring when examinees fail to consider the immediate context of a particular C-test item. Furthermore, Sigott (2004) discovered that the choice of strategies depends on the proficiency levels of test-takers. The main purpose of his research was to determine the relationship between item difficulty and the amount of context needed to solve these individual items. His findings showed that high-level processing was applied by less proficient examinees in the sense that they needed additional text-level processing to supply the correct C-test items. On the other hand, "subjects who succeed by means of lower-level processes are more proficient in the language" (Sigott 2004: 199).

Sigott's finding that text-level processing needed to solve C-test items changes depending on test-takers' language proficiency and on the difficulty of the C-test led him to assume that the C-test construct is fluid (Sigott 2004, 2006). In other words, the C-test construct has not been determined well even though extensive research has been carried out into what the C-test measures. Sigott believes that the interpretability issue of C-tests arising from this fluid construct phenomenon should be studied in greater depth in the future. The researchers that participated in the DESI study attempted to define C-test blanks according to linguistic, semantic and contextual criteria of task fulfilment (Harsch and Schröder 2007). The possible advantage of this attempt in DESI still needs to be investigated further. For this reason the traditional C-test procedure was not modified in this study.

In my study, the analysis of the C-test results of the bilingual and non-bilingual students at the business school also includes more detailed examination of the subjects' achievement when completing grammatical items and the more specialised business C-test items. This was inspired by the conclusion of a study carried out by Eckes and Grotjahn (2006: 316), who found that "lexis and grammar are important components of general language proficiency as measured by C-tests".

Alderson (2000) summed up that the reliability of C-tests is very high, even though the validity is questionable according to this critical test researcher. All in all, however, there are enough reasons to conclude that the C-test is a good measure of general language proficiency of second-language learners.

5.2 ASSESSMENT OF PRODUCTION SKILLS

Depending on the context of communication language production is either speaking or writing. The two competences involve language skills/subcompetences, strategic skills and both world knowledge and task-specific knowledge. The language skills include phonological or graphemic, grammatical, semantic and sociopragmatic components. Furthermore, in line with the mode of communication, production strategies are used by the learner in order to produce accurate and appropriate spoken and written language in a context of the situation. The learner has to use internalised linguistic sources from the target language as well as automatic and controlled processing.In this study, the focus is on language production rather than reception as indicated above in the chapter 7.4 on Data Collection Procedure. Initially, more tests had been designed to measure the bilingual and non-bilingual students' communicative competences extensively. However, as the focus of this study is on business English and it had to be narrowed down to the most central competences during the process of data collection, the assessment of speaking and writing was given priority over the other competences that may also have been looked at. Consequently, the focus of assessment here is on the production competences with their different skill and language components.

It is true that the speaking competence can not be successfully acquired without developing listening skills. It is also taken into account that in a test situation one cannot produce an appropriate written text without successfully comprehending the written instructions or developing reading skills. Nevertheless, the purpose of this restriction to the two most essential competences in business English is not to dismiss the usefulness of measuring learners' receptive skills of listening and reading, but to direct the attention to the core competences for learners of business English and to stress the importance of producing language which serves second language acquisition in many ways.

THE OUTPUT HYPOTHESIS

The output hypothesis was already mentioned in Chapter 3.3.2 (as well as in Chapter 4.4) in the sense that the task-based approach promotes the output hypothesis. Swain (2001b, 1993, 1995) and Swain and Lapkin (1995) started promoting the idea of the output hypothesis while claiming that for a long time too much attention had been given to the role of input in SLA while neglecting the importance of output. Even though the authors mainly focus on speaking, they consider writing to be as important as speaking in providing learners with opportunities to use, test and revise their active knowledge of a language. It is true that in language classrooms there is extensive reading, listening and writing going on, but learners do not have enough opportunities to speak. Namely, people learn to write by writing, they practice and develop listening and reading by listening and reading, and they learn to speak a second language when they are given opportunities to speak this language. Such opportunities are still too infrequent in second-language classrooms (Baker and Jones 1998). Many second-language learners are still able to master passive, receptive skills or understand the second language, but they are not able to speak it because they do not have enough chances to speak this language. In this respect one can find a strong connection with teaching business English, in which special attention is paid to developing speaking ability. As already mentioned in the chapter on teaching business English, businesspeople mainly need to develop their speaking skills to be able to function in their day-to-day business contacts, and therefore the four main business skills practiced in business English classes are largely developed around speaking.

The output hypothesis suggests that, through producing a language, which may be spoken or written, language learning may occur (Swain 1985). The idea is about fluency rather than accuracy. However, when learners produce language, there is no bluffing and all language problems come out, which helps them recognise what they do not know or do not know well. On the other hand, in listening or reading comprehension tests, insufficient language knowledge does not prevent learners from achieving good scores; they may understand the message by understanding certain words and additional non-verbal messages without any need to understand the redundant syntactic structures (Gary and Gary 1981; Krashen 1982). It is therefore evident that producing language forces learners to recognise their language problems, and consequently improve their gaps in language knowledge. One can claim here that the main outcome of the output hypothesis is that learners themselves become responsible for their own language learning. Swain (1993) maintains that learners

> ... need to be pushed to make use of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness and accuracy. (Swain 1993: 161)

In this respect, teachers need to help students by encouraging them to take responsibility for their own learning.

COHESION AND COHERENCE

Another specific aspect which has to be taken into account in producing language is the ability to produce well-connected spoken and written messages. Learners need to be aware that the choice of appropriate cohesive devices not only makes their production well-organised, but also reflects their level of proficiency. The specific difference between coherence and cohesion needs to be examined.

In order to produce a cohesive and coherent description, appropriate cohesive devices have to be selected. The effective choice of cohesive devices makes story telling more comprehensible, provided the cohesive text (written or spoken) also provides a coherent line of thought. Thus, cohesion and coherence are related concepts that refer to qualitative characteristics of text production (cf. Witte and Faigley 1981; Carrell 1982).

For a text to be coherent it must make sense. If it does not, it is incoherent by definition. One of the qualities that contributes to textual coherence is cohesion. Cohesive devices are, e.g., linking words, connectors or text markers.

Coherence and cohesion can also be found in the descriptors for assessing fluency: in Weir's test (1993), level 0 is described as: "Utterances halting, fragmentary, and incoherent". Level 2 in the same source is formulated as: "Signs of developing attempts at using cohesive devices, especially conjunctions. Utterances may still be hesitant, but are gaining in coherence, speed, and length."

According to Crystal (1991: 60), coherence refers to "the main principle of organisation postulated (in discourse analysis) to account for the underlying functional connectedness or identity of a piece of spoken or written language".

The cohesion theory was adopted by Halliday and Hasan (1976), who treated cohesion as a linguistic property contributing to coherence. They tend to regard written and spoken texts primarily as linguistic phenomena. The authors prefer using the term *texture*, which is more commonly referred to as *coherence*. According to their view,

> [...] the concept of texture is entirely appropriate to express the property of "being a text". A text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from being something that is not a text [...] it functions as a unity with respect to its environment. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 2)

However, Halliday and Hasan's main focus is cohesion. They claim that cohesion concerns semantic relations in a text, but nevertheless cohesion is not a matter of textual meaning or content: "cohesion does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice" (ibid: 26).

Halliday and Hasan designed a taxonomy of cohesive ties or relations in four main groups: (1) reference, which includes demonstrative pronouns, antecedent-anaphor relations, and the definite article *the*; (2) substitution, involving pronoun-like forms such as *one*, *do*, *so*, etc. and ellipsis; (3) conjunction, including words like *and*, *but*, *yet*, etc., and (4) lexical cohesion, which involves repeated occurrences of the same or related lexical items. Apparently, they regard such cohesive devices and texture in general as linguistic relations, claiming that coherence (or, as they call it, texture) is achieved by the linguistic resources of the language. All in all, their main point is that content or mere coherence is not enough to make a text coherent, but there have to be certain additional linguistic properties that make a text coherent, such as cohesive devices or ties.

There has been much criticism of Halliday and Hasan's cohesion view of textual coherence.

In her paper, Carrel (1982) criticises Halliday and Hasan's concept of cohesion as a measure of textual coherence. She appeals to EFL/ESL teachers and researchers to be cautious when expecting cohesion theory to be the solution to EFL/ESL reading- and writing-coherence problems at the text level. The same could be applied to EFL/ESL speaking-coherence problems. Her criticism is concerned with schema-theoretical views of text processing, an approach that developed from research in cognitive science; for example, linguistics, cognitive psychology and artificial intelligence (Bobrow and Norman 1975). Schema theory is concerned with the view that processing a text is an interactive process between the text itself and the background knowledge or memory schemata of the listener or reader. According to this theory, not only the text and its structure and content are important, but also what the reader or listener does with the text. In other words, the text here does not appear in a vacuum, but is involved with the text processors.

Furthermore, Feathers (1981) argues that cohesion theory is too artificial. She suggests that a text has to be first analysed into its underlying propositional units, and only afterwards cohesive devices between these propositions are looked for.

Further criticism comes from Morgan and Sellner (1980), who doubt Halliday and Hasan's view that mere coherence is not enough to make a text coherent. They argue that there must be an additional linguistic property (cohesion) to make a text coherent. Based on this view, they argue that text coherence is a matter of content that happens to have linguistic consequences. They believe that cohesive ties are mistakenly viewed as cause rather than effect.

Three empirical studies support Morgan and Sellner's criticism of Halliday and Hasan.

Tierney and Mosenthal (1981) studied how Halliday and Hasan's cohesion concept correlated with coherence. Twelfth-grade students' written essays were analysed focusing on the correlation between the proportional use of cohesive ties and holistic coherence, ranked by the students' rhetoric instructors. They found that topic or content affects a writer's selection of cohesive devices.

Freebody and Anderson (1981) empirically studied how different levels of cohesion affect readers' comprehension of written texts; vocabulary difficulty and its effects on reading comprehension were also examined. As a result, they found that the amount of cohesion did not significantly affect comprehension, but vocabulary difficulties, on the other hand, had a considerable effect on reading comprehension. Namely, a low amount of cohesive ties does not hurt comprehension because readers and listeners are able to find other means to overcome the problem (Hagerup-Neilsen 1977).

Steffensen's research (1981) focused on the interactive effects of cohesive ties and cultural background on readers' processing of short texts. After the testees had been asked to read comparable passages from their native culture and a foreign culture, they had to write what they recalled from these passages. The findings revealed that the subjects were able to recall causal and adversative cohesive items better from the passage of their native culture than from the passage of the foreign culture. Obviously it is important to be familiar with the content of the text in order to be able to process the cohesive elements in that text.

Furthermore, Johns (1986) focused on coherence and academic writing in her research and concluded that, in teaching academic writing, teachers need not consider coherence as only text-based or only reader-based, but they should rather include both reader- and text-based considerations.

In this research, the use of cohesive devices is examined in the subjects' spoken production because of the nature of the speaking test, which offers a great opportunity to use a wide range of devices referred to as *fluency markers*. More specifically, the words and expressions that express various degrees of possibility and vagueness are counted and compared between the bilingual and non-bilingual groups.

5.2.1 ASSESSMENT OF PRODUCTION SKILLS: WRITING

The measure of students' writing skills is included in this study. The comparison between the bilingual and non-bilingual students' writing competence is based on short texts written in English and German.

TYPE-TOKEN RATIO USED IN ANALYSING WRITING

The type-token ratio often used in analysing written production is addressed here even though it is not used in analysing the students' scripts in this research.

Most researchers decide to calculate the type-token ratio of a text when they are confronted with the task of analysing vocabulary as part of a linguistic study. The ratio between different words (types) and the total number of words (tokens) is known as the type-token ratio (TTR), which refers to the measurement of lexical diversity.

Word types refer to "the inventory of words used in a speech event or a writing" (Bowen, Madsen, Hilferty 1985: 194); they approximately match dictionary entries. The ratio between the number of types and the number of tokens in a text is, as Faerch et al. explain, "a measure of how frequently the learner makes use of one and the same word type" (Faerch, Haastrup, Phillipson 1984: 80–81). It is thus an expression of what they call "lexical variation" (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson 1984: 80), and is used as a method of analysing the richness of vocabulary in spoken and written language.

Unfortunately, this ratio varies widely with the length of the text. In the real world, researchers deal with different sizes of the language sample used for measurement, and so the conventional TTR does not help them much. Such type/token information is rather meaningless in most cases, although it is supplied in a Wordlist statistics display. The conventional TTR is informative, of course, if a researcher is dealing with a corpus consisting of many equal-sized text segments.

Some computer programs try to overcome the problem of measuring the TTR of texts of different lengths (e.g., the program WordSmith Tools 4.0 offers a variation of the TTR called STTR, for "standardised type/token ratio"); the STTR tries to solve the problem by calculating an average type/token ratio based on the first 1,000 running words, then for the next 1,000, and so on until the end of the text or corpus. As a result, a running average is computed, yielding an average type/token ratio based on consecutive 1,000-word chunks of text.

This method is similar to one of the methods devised by the mathematician David Malvern working with Brian Richards from the University of Reading (Richards and Malvern 1997). Their software also automates the process of calculating and averaging TTRs for subsamples of given token sizes, and then it produces a series of such averages for subsamples of increasing token size.

The type-token ratio of students' scripts and spoken utterances is not calculated in this study because the lengths of written and spoken production vary greatly from student to student.

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

The typology of communication strategies that refers to production and not reception was devised by Faerch and Kasper (in Ellis 1985: 184–85). There is no generally accepted typology of communication strategies because of the problems of definition. Nevertheless, various typologies have been proposed by the following authors: Corder (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1980), Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1978), Tarone et al. (1976) and Paribakht (1982). William Nemser's (1993) contribution on the treatment of strategies for learning and using the target language has also been influential among researchers.

Deviations from the ideal message caused by the lexical poverty of learners' language are referred to as reduction (topic avoidance, message abandonment). Some achievement strategies can be divided into L1 and L2 achievement strategies.

Reduction includes both extensional and intensional reduction. Nemser subdivides intensional reduction into intensional reduction of the generalisation type, when a more general term replaces the missing word, and into reduction of the approximative type, when the meaning of the actual word only partially overlaps with the ideal message (Nemser 1993: 223–224).

Eder (1998) counts message reformulation or paraphrase among reduction strategies because she believes that a reformulated message makes up for the lexical poverty of a learner. It should be noted that in this study a paraphrase is counted among L2 achievement strategies. Namely, paraphrasing a word using L2 is an acceptable communication strategy because it reveals learners ability to express themselves using a variety of different expressions in L2, which is the proof of lexical richness (See Chapter 9; Section 9.7.4).

The achievement strategies can be based on influence of either the first or second language:

- L1-based strategies include language transfer, code-switching, foreignising or importation, and literal translation
- L2-based strategies are subdivided into generalisation or approximation (replacement of the ideal word or message) and word coinage

Aitchison (1994: 9) maintains that “even when struggling to find a particular word, normal speakers have plenty of others at their disposal in order to carry on a reasonable conversation.” The same also applies to written production.

The phenomenon of parapraxes, malapropisms or “slip of the tongue” errors occurs when speakers are tired, excited, confused or distracted in some way. The use of inappropriate words that resemble the correct words can also be found in written production. These sometimes quite amusing verbal slips, malapropisms or gaffes are often referred to as Bushisms in the US and Colemanballs in England.

George W. Bush is quite famous for his verbal slips, which is why his malapropisms are often known as Bushisms in the US. Similar malapropisms or gaffes are often termed as Colemanballs in England. The name comes from David Coleman, a BBC sports commentator who is prone to such verbal slips; the name was coined by *Private Eye* magazine. Yogi Berra and Murray Walker are also famous for malapropisms.

An entry on the term “malapropism” from Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia, can be found on the Internet (see Chapter 14-Online sources):

> A malapropism (from French *mal à propos*, “ill to purpose”) is an incorrect usage of a word by substituting a similar-sounding word with different meaning, usually with comic effect. The term comes from the name of Mrs. Malaprop, a character in Richard Brinsley Sheridan’s comedy *The Rivals* (1775), whose name was in turn derived from the existing English word *malapropos*, meaning ‘inappropriately’.

A malapropism, a sound confusion error in which “a similar-sounding word has been wrongly selected” (Aitchison 1994: 135), is based on the fact that the words in the mind are stored unevenly and some parts are more prominent than others.

Humans can pay attention to starting and ending a sequence, but the middle of a sequence is relatively hard to memorise and complete. This typical error on ordering items is called the “bathtub” effect, by analogy with someone lying in the tub with only their head and feet visible.

Aitchison (1994) suggests that

> ... when people forget the difference between two words and merge them in the mind, these items usually have similar beginnings and endings. (Aitchison 1994: 136)

The “bathtub” effect also suggests that the beginnings of words have a more prominent position in the mind than the ends of words.

The lengths of words affect the “bathtub” effect. The research (in Aitchison 1994) has shown that individuals remember the ends of long words (three or more syllables) more easily than the ends of short words (1–2 syllables): 82% for long words, 70% for short words.

This study found cases of the “bathtub” effect in the students’ written production. Also in the students’ written productions or, more specifically, in their summaries written in English (see Chapter 9), the L1 and L2 achievement strategies are studied more closely because I wanted to find out if the bilingual students as more proficient learners of English really rely more on L2 communication strategies than the non-bilingual students. Furthermore, I also wanted to find out if the non-bilingual students as less proficient learners of English use L1 communication strategies to a wider extent than the bilingual students. Initially I also wanted to examine the reduction strategies as I had assumed that in case students would describe actions or words in their German summaries and leave them out in their English summaries, it would be a sign of struggling to find a word in English. For more information, see Chapter 9.

PROFICIENCY DESCRIPTORS FOR WRITING AND SPEAKING ASSESSMENT

The proficiency descriptors for the semi-creative writing and speaking tests in this study were inspired by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. In order to develop the proficiency descriptors, the basic criteria for descriptor formulation need to be considered (Council of Europe 2001: Framework, Appendix A, p. 205):

- The formulation of proficiency scales should be positive; the proficiency descriptors should describe what the learners *can* do rather than what they cannot do. I believe that this positive approach is necessary even though the levels of proficiency serve only as an instrument for assessing the subjects. It is true that it is sometimes very difficult to choose a positive approach (what the learners can do) at lower-level entries, but with effort and positive awareness in mind any negative formulation could be replaced by more appropriate additive features

- The tasks described and the skills needed to perform them should be concrete. One should avoid unclear and vague expressions in describing the proficiency levels, which could be overcome by knowing exactly *what* one wishes to describe

- The descriptions should be clear (without using any jargon) and simple (complex syntax is not recommended)
- Short formulations are acceptable. Descriptors longer than a two-clause sentence should be avoided because in practice such descriptors cannot easily be referred to
- Descriptors should serve as independent criteria statements if they are short and concrete. This way they are regarded as goals that are achieved by learners rather than only being relative to other descriptions on the proficiency scale

In developing language proficiency scales, three groups of methods can be applied:

- Intuitive methods
- Qualitative methods
- Quantitative methods

The best approach in describing the scales is using all three approaches in complementary and cumulative processes (Council of Europe 2001: 207).

The pragmatic quality of bilingual and non-bilingual students' writing texts or "scripts", as well as spoken utterances, is assessed using two scales: holistic and analytic.

HOLISTIC AND ANALYTIC GRADING SCALES IN ASSESSING WRITING AND SPEAKING

There are three main types of rating scales: primary trait scales, holistic scales, and analytic scales. Additionally, the fourth type of scale has been mentioned in the literature (Hamp-Lyons 1990), and it is referred to as a multiple trait scale, which mainly deals with the procedure of designing and using the scales.

Doubts are cast on the holistic grading scales in that a single score based on an intuitive general impression "does not provide useful diagnostic information about a person's writing ability ... another disadvantage of holistic scoring is that holistic scores are not always easy to interpret, as raters do not necessarily use the same criteria to arrive at the same scores ... holistic scores have also been shown to correlate with relatively superficial characteristics such as length and handwriting ... holistic scoring has come under criticism in recent years for its focus on achieving high inter-rater reliability at the expense of validity” (Weigle 2002: 114).

These apparent doubts about using a single score in assessing learners are overcome by providing analytic scoring as well because analytic scales provide a more detailed profile of a student’s strengths and weaknesses.

Advantages as well as disadvantages exist when using the holistic scale in assessing second-language tasks.

The reliability of holistic scores can be insured by intra-rater reliability or internal consistency (Luoma 2004), in which raters assess students’ performance over a period of time in order to check to what extent their scores are consistent.

5.2.2 ASSESSMENT OF PRODUCTION SKILLS: SPEAKING

The measure of students’ speaking skills is included in this study. The comparison between the bilingual and non-bilingual students’ spoken competence is based on their oral descriptions of pictures taken from a commercial.

ORAL TEST ELICITATION TECHNIQUES

There are various oral test elicitation techniques: discussion/conversation, oral report, learner-learner joint discussion/decision-making, learner-learner description, form-filling, role-play, interview, question-and-answer (this is different from an interview because a speaker is asked disconnected questions that require using certain grammatical structures or a more elaborate answer; for example, “How well can you speak English?”), making appropriate responses to everyday situations, reading blank dialogue, using a picture or picture story, giving instructions/description/explanation, retelling a story from aural or written stimulus, reading aloud, translating/interpreting, completing sentences from aural or written stimulus, transforming sentences, correcting sentences, and repeating sentences.

The list of elicitation techniques was inspired by Underhill (1987), even though there are sometimes very unclear distinctions between different techniques (e.g., discussion and interview, form-filling and question-and-answer).

These elicitation techniques differ among themselves according to how controlled they are and how predictable a response to the task is. Sometimes a test-taker takes an equally active role during the elicitation procedure, but sometimes he or she does not utter a single word during the entire process. In some procedures, the response is fully predictable because a speaker is simply repeating or reading aloud a given text.

ADVANTAGES OF USING PICTURES IN ASSESSING SPEAKING

This study used a picture story from a commercial to assess students' speaking abilities in the foreign language.

The use of picture-story narration to assess students' speaking abilities has advantages over other types of speaking tasks such as personal narratives and direct and indirect interviews:

- Only initial instructions before a student starts with narration are needed, afterwards the interviewer is silent without offering any help to students

- Wordless pictures do not offer any verbal help, and so the students are left to their own devices

- There should be no pressure: students signal with their voices, words or gestures when they are ready for another picture

- The students' speaking performance when describing a picture story is not affected by their personal experience, which makes the use of pictures more appropriate as opposed to personal narratives (Snitzer Reilly 1992). Koike (1998) determined that if a narrative is based on the personal experience, testees have more control over vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation in their spoken production

- It is essential to motivate speakers by giving them something to talk about. Visual material in testing speaking, such as photos, pictures or films build an instant bridge between a test-taker and a speaker. As I already mentioned above, pictures are very appropriate for testing speaking because they stimulate ideas and thoughts without using words that might mislead or help the students unnecessarily

- The visual material should include a humorous and well-connected story that ensures that the speakers will forget that they are being tested. Naturally, every oral elicitation technique requires a relaxed tester that is able to get closer to the speakers so that they are able to express themselves naturally. There should be no hurry, no unnecessary urge to speak, and the speakers should be told to take their time to respond to the given material. Also, the pictures or picture story should contain an element that motivates and entertains the speakers and is appropriate for their age

- Furthermore, even though the stimuli for spoken production is set by the pictures or the picture story, the visual material does offer some freedom of expression because the learners should feel free to offer their personal interpretation within the subject area

- The speakers' narratives are directly comparable because the same pictures are given to all students, which makes it easier to judge the learners' spoken production

- The ability to speak is not affected by poor reading or listening comprehension

- Last but not least, Luoma (2004) points out that pictures save time in testing because there is no written material that has to be read before the testing begins. In other words, pictures economically and effectively offer a topic of conversation without manipulating the testees with words and phrases

ORAL DATA–COLLECTION CRITERIA

Five oral data–collection criteria should be fulfilled:

1) It is especially important when testing businesspeople or business students to make them see the importance of the task for their present or future careers in business

2) The data need to be comparable

3) According to Bamberg (1987), the data need to be "ecologically valid" regarding students' cultural and cognitive abilities

4) The data should be clear and informative, taking communicative context into account

5) The data need to be "rich" (Bamberg 1987) enough to allow for an analysis

The first criterion is unique for testing business content. The other four criteria on the list are also given by Bamberg (1987), who believes that picture narration is the best setting for fulfilling all four criteria.

THE NATURE OF SPEAKING

In order to develop reliable and useful assessment descriptors, one needs to understand the nature of speaking. The attributes of naturally spoken language need to be understood, as well as what makes someone a good speaker (Weiyun He and Young 1998).

A normal and unprepared spoken performance involves shifts of attention and interest, mistakes, distractions, memory lapses, false starts, self-corrections, repetitions, rephrasing and circumlocutions. All these are very common in native-speaker speech, so raters of non-native speech must not expect too much from the testees. The use of fillers in spontaneous speech might seem like a disadvantage, but research has shown that native speakers use these fillers almost automatically in certain situations and to a much larger extent than non-native speakers (Hasselgreen 2004, Kärkkäinen 1992). See also the discussion on fluency and pragmatic skills in the sections below.

Unprepared speech normally contains incomplete sentences and short idea units, whereas sentences in written production are usually longer and more connected. Prepared speech, on the other hand, is more formal and complex, such as presentations, and is closer to written language.

Speaking proficiency, or the overall ability to communicate well, depends not only on language knowledge but also on a speaker's general knowledge of the world. General knowledge of the world is an important attribute of successful communication.

Furthermore, students that are able to express their feelings and moods when describing a picture story are expected to produce the most vivid and persuasive narrations. Luoma (2004:16) also believes that "learners that can evoke the listener's feelings deserve to be credited for their ability".

Griessler (1998) compared narrative abilities of bilingual LISA[2]-students with non-bilingual students from other tracks. She studied the students' use of verbs of motion and the use of the present continuous to describe the action in a picture story. Using verbs of motion and the present continuous was meant to make the narrative more vivid and dynamic. The subjects of her research were asked to describe twenty-four pictures from a wordless children's picture book. The research findings revealed that the bilingual LISA students greatly outperformed all of the non-bilingual students.

FLUENCY

Fluency is an important criterion which is always involved in assessing speaking skills. Nevertheless, pinning down and assessing fluency is not an

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[2] LISA (the Linz International School Auhof) is a bilingual branch of a regular Austrian high school in Linz, Upper Austria. The school is well known for using English as the language of instruction.

easy job. Luoma (2004: 88) sums it up in one sentence: “Fluency is a thorny issue in assessing speaking.”

It is easier to assess description (or range), cohesion and accuracy because clear indicators can be found in speech (e.g., expressions of feelings and intensifiers, cohesive devices and grammar mistakes). However, the factor that decreases the difficulty and increases the reliability in assessing fluency is developing clear descriptors. Still, no matter how specific the descriptors are, the raters’ assessment of fluency is affected by their individual judgements.

Furthermore, in defining fluency one may also find formulations, such as absence of excessive pausing and annoying hesitation markers, length and connectedness of spoken utterances (Koponen 1995). These definitions of fluency are also vague and difficult to assess.

There have been attempts to make fluency “measurable” by counting and measuring the length of pauses, by measuring the speech rate, by noting and counting hesitation markers, repetitions and self-corrections, and by using fillers. A study carried out by Koike (1998) examined the use of “management strategies” in different speaking tasks, including frequency and length of pauses (less than one second, one second, or two or more seconds), the occurrence of fillers, self-corrections and false starts. Koike says that these management strategies help speakers manage and control their spoken production consciously or subconsciously. In other words, this formulation could be attributed to the definition of fluency.

FLUENCY MARKERS

Fillers might be regarded as indicators of fluency or fluency markers. Hasselgreen (2004) refers to fillers as “smallwords” that help speakers keep going. They can also be called “hedges”, which signal a “softening” of the message. She gives the following working definition of smallwords: “small words and phrases, occurring with high frequency in the spoken language, that help to keep our speech flowing, yet do not contribute essentially to the message itself” (Hasselgreen 2004: 162).

She studied the role of “smallwords” in contributing to students’ fluency in terms of how students use smallwords and to what extent they are used. The results of her research proved that more fluent Norwegian students of English tend to use smallwords like native speakers in comparison to less fluent students. Hasselgreen (1993) believes using well-known and familiar phrases makes learners feel comfortable; these comfortable expressions serve as “lexical teddy bears” [expression used in the title of Hasselgreen’s article].

A study carried out by Lennon (1990) objectively measured the variables typical for fluency. The results revealed that higher fluency was connected with reduced use of filled pauses and repetitions, and the improvement of speech rate rather than faster articulation.

As already mentioned in the last section, attempts to define fluency also overlap with coherence and cohesion. Hedge (1993: 275) maintains that fluency "is the ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriateness or undue hesitation".

Nikula's (1996) research showed that learners used a wide scope of modifiers in their native language, while relying on a narrower range of more explicit modifiers in the second language.

Due to the nature of the test of speaking in this study, the expressions of possibility and vagueness as fluency markers are studied more closely. I was interested in finding out what expressions and words the students use in order to describe the improbability of the actions in the picture story. Inspired by the research carried out by Hasselgreen (2004) I expected that the bilingual students as more proficient speakers of English would use a wider range of such expressions and words. For more information, see Chapter 10.

PRAGMATIC SKILLS

In the Common European Framework (Council of Europe 2001:124-130), pragmatic skills are composed of discourse and functional competence. In this aspect, six scales are suggested in the framework: flexibility to circumstances, turntaking, thematic development (e.g., in a narrative), coherence and cohesion, fluency and propositional precision.

Pragmatic competence was defined by Bachman (1990: 42) as the knowledge for "appropriately producing or comprehending discourse". He adds that it includes illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence, meaning that a speaker needs to be able to perform speech acts, and to understand the social conventions that are necessary for appropriate language use. Röver (2005) claims that pragmatic competence is an essential part of general communicative competence, but it has not always been included in second-language assessment. Neglecting the pragmatic aspect of language use is therefore critical because pragmatic competence is an indispensable part of overall language competence (Liu 2006).

ACCURACY

Another criterion that is almost always present among speaking criteria is grammatical accuracy. Research has shown that raters pay too much attention to learners' grammar (McNamara 1996). Besides the fact that most raters are teachers who are professionally "allergic" to grammar mistakes, I would maintain that it is also much easier to spot a grammar mistake and assign a lower score as a penalty than to pay close attention to learners' pragmatic skills. This "superiority" of assessing grammar over finer pragmatic skills might be the result of the large volume of speakers' oral production that must be assessed in schools or language institutions.

Furthermore, I believe a grammar mistake might successfully prevent a rater from noticing, for example, how well speakers have supported an idea, how successfully they have connected two propositions or developed their ideas, or how responsive and communicative they really are.

In this study, accuracy of students' spoken utterances (as well as their scripts) is assessed too, but it is a minor criterion, because grammar does not play an important role in teaching business English (see Chapter 4). Businesspeople should be able to convey their ideas and suggestions to business partners or colleagues to succeed and get what they want. Nevertheless, in contacts with business partners abroad, serious and frequent grammar mistakes are of course unwelcome not only because they may cause misunderstandings, but because they may reveal a businessperson's reluctance to improving his or her knowledge of English, which is essential for succeeding in business today.

HOLISTIC AND ANALYTIC GRADING SCALES IN ASSESSING SPEAKING

The previous chapter on the assessment of writing skills gives various advantages and disadvantages of holistic and analytic scoring. These could also apply to speaking assessment.

Apparently, a single score given to students in holistic grading is based on the overall impression of their writing and speaking competences, respectively. However, whereas the holistic assessment of written production might be affected by the script's length and handwriting, spoken production could be affected by a speaker's shyness or grammar mistakes. For these reasons, Weigle (2002) points out that holistic scoring might be misleading and unreliable. Holistic scoring was also criticised by Weir (2005), who points out that a holistic score might be influenced by only one or two aspects of the written or spoken message, which could be similar to the halo effect.

Due to the disadvantages of holistic scoring, additional analytic grading scales should be designed because raters can pay attention to individual aspects of learners' speech (e.g., description, coherence, fluency and accuracy).

Researchers must be careful in developing speaking rating scales because the criteria should not overlap with the criteria in rating scales of other tests. Underhill (1987) stresses that the marking system should reward oral proficiency and not more general skills.

As already explained in this chapter, fluency can affect the holistic score; slower and more careful speech might influence a lower holistic score whereas livelier speech might make a better overall impression on the rater.

In order to check the association between the two sets of holistic speaking scores, Pearson's *r* is calculated because it is one of the most common reliability coefficients for speaking scores (Luoma 2004).

6 STATEMENT OF PURPOSE (OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY)

This investigation is a descriptive study that focuses on bilingual education in a specific context of instruction. For the first time, the language competences of bilingual and non-bilingual classes in a business school are compared.

So the purpose of this study is to investigate, describe and compare the specific language competencies of the bilingual and non-bilingual students at the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 Salzburg. My intention is not to prove that bilingual students are better than non-bilingual students in general. Large scale studies such as DESI (Beck and Klieme 2007; DESI-Konsortium 2008) have shown that bilingual students certainly produce better results. This is because they are more ambitious, more motivated and their social and economic background variables are different. Moreover, they are in constant contact with English in several school subjects. What I am mainly interested in is determining how they differ from students that do not attend bilingual classes, and what the biggest linguistic and communicative differences are between bilingual and non-bilingual students in a concrete case. One important assumption is that in a small sample of business English students the differences between bilingual and non-bilingual students will be more varied and specific than the results in large-scale studies seem to indicate.

For these reasons, communicative language tests were developed to assess the students' speaking, writing and general language competences. This focus on productive skills is in line with the context of business English, as these competences are considered more important than receptive skills. Consequently, the focus of this research is on the students´general language proficiency that is assessed by means of the C-test, and the writing and speaking competences.

The study also includes an investigation into possible causes of different levels of achievement, such as motivational, home and social factors.

The attributes of the descriptive study, which combines quantitative and qualitative research methods, are evident in the research design of the study.

The rating system for assessing speaking and writing competences was inspired by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe 2001), which provides a practical tool for setting clear standards for evaluating students' language achievements.

EMPIRICAL PART[3]

7 INTRODUCTION TO THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

7.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the findings of previous research in bilingual education, the following research questions are central to investigating the linguistic and communicative differences between bilingual and non-bilingual students.

As there have not been any comparable studies into teaching Business, the research questions will specifically take the context of Business English into account by narrowing down the focus of this study.

SPECIFIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- Are the students enrolled in the bilingual business English programme more proficient in English than the non-bilingual students?
- Do the students in this bilingual programme use the same communication strategies and as frequently as the non-bilingual students?
- Do the bilingual students mainly use L2 communication strategies (generalisation, paraphrasing, word coinage), and the non-bilingual students mainly use L1 communication strategies (code-switching, foreignising, literal translation)?
- Do both groups use avoidance when they do not know a word in English?
- What communication strategies do the students apply in their written and spoken productions?
- Is the business vocabulary of the bilingual students more extensive, displaying a wider range in comparison to the business vocabulary used by non-bilingual students?
- Are the bilingual students more fluent in English?
- Do bilingual students produce more accurate spoken and written passages?

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[3] All materials (test handouts, transcripts, and statistical files) are available upon request from the author of this study.

- Do the bilingual students use a wider range of "smallwords" as linking expressions in their written and spoken production than the non-bilingual students?

- What facets of the students' competence show the biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students?

- What facets of the students' competence show the greatest similarities between the bilingual and non-bilingual students?

BACKGROUND

- Due to the fact that the bilingual students can join the bilingual track if there is support at home, do their parents have a higher level of education and speak more foreign languages than the parents of the non-bilinguals?

- Are the bilingual students really more interested in English than the non-bilingual students?

- Do the bilingual students come into contact with English in the same way as the non-bilingual students (e.g., travel to English-speaking countries and make contacts with native speakers)?

- What advantages and disadvantages do the bilingual students find in studying commercial subjects in English?

- What short- and long-term benefits do the bilingual students expect to have from studying business school subjects in English?

7.2 METHODOLOGY

Writing and speaking test formats are used in order to test bilingual and non-bilingual students' writing and speaking abilities. The C-test is used to assess students' general language proficiency. Detailed analyses of these tests are expected to reveal the biggest differences between bilingual and non-bilingual students.

The attributes of the quantitative as well as qualitative research designs are evident in the research. The experiment was carried out to test the hypotheses through the use of objective instruments and appropriate statistical analyses.

The qualitative methodology is included by intensely observing a small number of students. A cross-sectional approach was taken; the students' performance data were collected in single sessions.

Students were tested in class as well as in individual sessions. For individual oral interviews, twelve students from each class were selected. The random sampling procedure was not applied because a distribution of students with varying second-language skills throughout the individual classes was to be guaranteed. After consultations with the English teachers, their judgments of the students' L2 skills were followed, and consequently four of the best, four of the weakest and four average students were included in the sample. The author of this study is convinced that the sampling procedure rules out the possibility that the best students of one class are set against the weakest of another. An equal number of males and females were chosen, even though my purpose in this study was not to focus on gender differences.

Students were tested in class through writing, the C-test and questionnaires.

Background information on students' language contact, their interest in the track as well as their parents' level of education and knowledge of foreign languages was elicited by a questionnaire designed for this study.

7.3 SUBJECTS: BILINGUAL VERSUS NON-BILINGUAL STUDENTS AT HAK 1 SALZBURG

I chose to do research at the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 (HAK1) Salzburg because the school is prominent among other business schools due to its focus on foreign languages and its CLIL programmes.

During all five years of their studies, students take classes with native English speakers with the aim of improving their English speaking skills.

In the first two years, all students take business English and study commercial subjects in German, their native language, but in the third year they can choose to join the "Euro classes" or the CLIL bilingual track, in which commercial subjects are taught in English - the students' first foreign language. These bilingual students study commercial subjects in English in the third, fourth and fifth years of their studies, which means that at school they are in almost constant contact with the English language. Non-bilingual students, on the other hand, study commercial subjects in German during all five years of their studies.

In addition, throughout their studies both groups attend Business English courses where the business English input through writing, speaking, reading and listening in class is the same.

Students' decision to join the bilingual classes depends on their grades in the first 2 years, their parents' consent and, of course, their own interest. For these reasons, one may claim that the academic quality of the bilingual and non-bilingual students is not comparable because the bilingual students are highly motivated, very ambitious and self-confident, and have strong support from their parents to join the bilingual track. One can also assume that their test results will be the best and that most of them will be placed in the highest competence levels. However, this study sought to determine the biggest linguistic and communicative differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students, not just their competence levels.

In the fifth year, the last year of their studies, the students take comprehensive exams to conclude their studies. Most students, especially bilingual students, continue their studies because they have easy access to universities. The school also enables students to take various international foreign-language examinations during their studies.

The difference between the third- and fourth-year students is not the focus of this study, but it would nevertheless also deserve further analyses in the future.

7.4 DATA-COLLECTION PROCEDURE

I had initially considered designing business-oriented communicative tests to assess the third- and fourth-year bilingual and non-bilingual students in all four language skills. However, time constraints compelled me to narrow my focus only to the productive skills of writing and speaking, which are considered more important in business English. Students' general language proficiency was also assessed using the C-test procedure.

In addition, students' social backgrounds were checked using questionnaires designed for this study.

Students were tested in writing abilities and using the C-test in class during single sessions, whereas their speaking abilities were tested individually with a smaller number of students. I recorded the narratives of twelve students per class following the selection of individuals by their English teachers, who chose equal numbers of males and females. I included the four best, four average and the four weakest students per class.

7.5 BUSINESS CONTEXT OF COMMUNICATIVE TESTS USED IN THIS STUDY (C-TEST, SPEAKING, WRITING)

The content of all communicative tests was business oriented. The C-test, speaking test and writing test dealt with the following business content:

- C-test: marketing, product description, advertising

- Speaking: marketing, language of commercials, product description
- Writing: presentation skills, language of presentations

Discussions of advertising and marketing products as well as presentations were dealt with in school, so the students were familiar with the content.

8 ANALYSIS OF GENERAL L2 PROFICIENCY: THE C-TEST

8.1 CONSTRUCT DEFINITION

The purpose of designing the C-test was to assess students' general L2 competence. The students were expected to reconstitute the original business text in English by supplying the missing parts of the words.

Even though the general C-test results were expected to prove that the bilingual students were more proficient than the non-bilingual students, the detailed analysis of more specific and therefore more difficult business C-test items and the analysis of deviant responses were meant to investigate how the bilingual students are better than the non-bilingual students. In other words, the detailed analyses of grammar errors and specific vocabulary would offer better insight into where the biggest differences between the two groups of students occur.

In addition, statistical tools are used to determine whether the difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual C-test scores is statistically significant.

8.2 TEST CONTENT

The C-test for this study consisted of three paragraphs of an authentic text entitled "Coca-Cola and its advertising" taken from the *New Insights into Business Students' Book* (Tullis and Trappe 2000).

The first paragraph contains 48 items and the second paragraph contains 30 items. The third paragraph was not counted because the students were not able to complete it due to time constraints.

The test includes some specific business items, even though they were not supposed to be too difficult for the business students, who had discussed advertising in their marketing and business English classes.

8.3 SUBJECTS

The sample included 37 bilingual students and 41 non-bilingual students from HAK 1 Salzburg. All of the students were business and economics students also taking the business English course. In addition, the bilingual students attend the bilingual track, in which certain commercial subjects are taught in English, their first foreign language.

8.4 DATA-COLLECTION CRITERIA

A discussion on advertising was extensively covered in class in the third and fourth years, and so the students were familiar with the vocabulary used in advertising. In addition, the bilingual students took marketing courses in English, their first foreign language, and the non-bilingual students attended marketing classes in German, their native language.

8.5 DATA-ELICITATION PROCEDURE

The tests were piloted with students at a private language school and with five native speakers. Testing was done in class with all groups of subjects in single sessions.

The third paragraph of the text was not counted because the fourth-year students unfortunately did not have time to supply the missing words as they were greatly distracted by a circular letter brought to class. Consequently, only 78 C-test items were taken into consideration in the data analysis.

8.6 MY EXPECTATIONS

General C-test results from the bilingual and non-bilingual students were expected to show a statistically significant difference, meaning that these results would prove a higher proficiency level with the bilingual students. The difference between the highest and lowest scores were expected to be much greater with the non-bilingual students.

Furthermore, I expected the detailed analysis of errors to show that the non-bilinguals make more serious mistakes, such as selection errors of a wrong word class and inflectional errors.

In addition, the study of specific business items regarded as difficult was expected to show the biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students.

8.7 DATA ANALYSIS

8.7.1 GRADING PROCEDURE AND ENSURING RELIABILITY

Grading was done by one rater (the author of this study). Correct C-test items were counted to obtain general C-test scores. The statistical computer programme SPSS 13.0 was used to check whether the difference between the two sets of bilingual and non-bilingual C-Test scores was statistically significant.

Furthermore, the occurrences of business items in students' C-tests were counted and analysed. In addition, the errors were counted and classified in five groups.

8.7.2 GENERAL C-TEST RESULTS

The maximum score on the C-test was 78 correct items (the first two paragraphs). The first paragraph contained 48 correct items and the second paragraph contained 30 correct items.

The average group results of correct items on the C-test reflect a ratio of 52.4 : 42.2 (bilingual versus non-bilingual students).

In terms of range, the difference is similarly significant. The best bilingual student solved 70 correct items (90%). On the other hand, the highest score in the non-bilingual groups is 66 correct items (85%).

The lowest scores diverge more substantially. The bilingual students had a lowest score of 44 items (56%), whereas the lowest score in the non-bilingual group amounts to only ten items (13%) in the fourth year.

Figure 1. Highest and lowest C-test scores

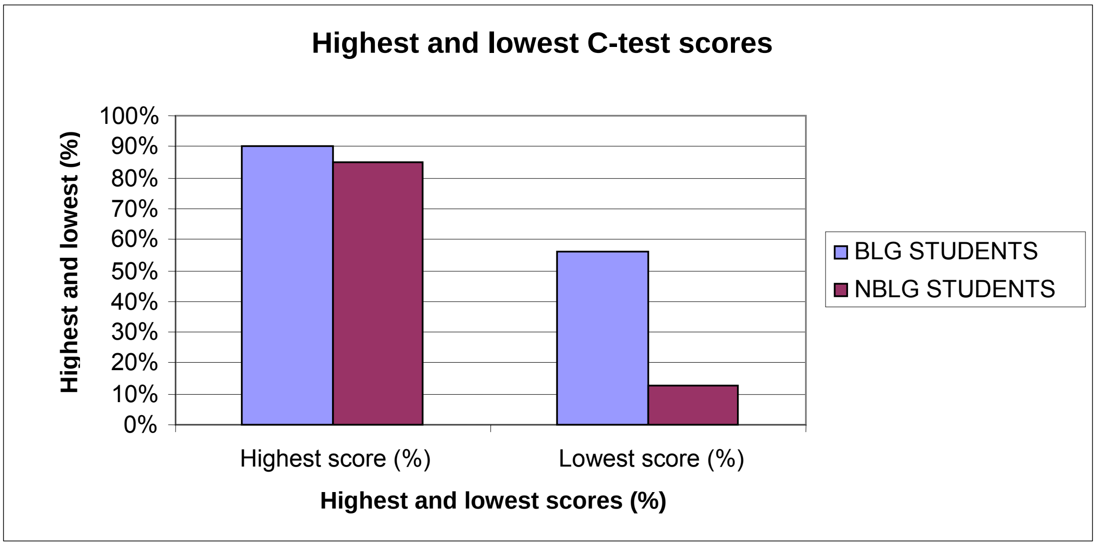


Figure 1 compares the highest and lowest scores between the bilingual and non-bilingual groups. These percentages show that within the bilingual group the difference between the best and the weakest student is not very dramatic, whereas the non-bilingual results show that there is quite a large gap. Two non-bilingual students could not or did not try to reconstitute the words in both paragraphs and therefore their scores of 33 and 62 omissions change the group results for the worse. Both even left the session, saying that they were too tired and could not understand the thread of content guiding them through the text.

The fourth-year bilingual and non-bilingual students seemed tired due to their academic load, which may be why their results are a bit disappointing. In addition, their attitude towards the C-test was somewhat superficial meaning that they initially perceived the C-test as a game. The problem of face validity of the C-test is discussed in Section 5.1.

On the other hand, both third-year classes (bilinguals as well as non-bilinguals) took the C-test very seriously. This could be because I developed a very friendly and trusting relationship with both classes. The fact that I managed to connect with the students so easily was probably because the headmaster and teachers already knew me, which is why they trusted me and left me alone with the third-year students.

8.7.2.1 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS: COMPARING AVERAGES USING THE *t*-TEST

To determine whether the difference between the sample averages of the two groups of scores was statistically significant (or, in other words, whether the two samples of mean scores were significantly different), the averages were compared using the statistical computer programme SPSS 13.0.

The goal was to test the statistical significance of the difference; that is, to establish that the difference between the C-test sample averages was too significant to have been merely a coincidence.

Thus, a two-sample test was appropriate for this purpose, which uses independent samples, or two independent samples of scores. The samples are independent if there is no basis for pairing the scores in one sample with those in the other.

In this study, there was clearly no basis for pairing the scores of the bilingual students with the scores of the non-bilingual students because the performance of the bilingual students was independent of the performance of the non-bilingual students and the two groups consisted of entirely different individuals.

For this study, the independent-samples *t*-test is appropriate because it compares the levels, or averages, of two independent samples of data in the form of measurements. This test is sometimes known as the “pooled *t*-test”.

The *t*-test is appropriate for testing the statistical significance of the difference between bilinguals and non-bilinguals. In the case of the C-test, because I do not have large samples (BLG = 37, NBLG = 40), it is appropriate to ask how small a sample should be in order to be considered a “small sample”. The distinction between large and small samples is not clear-cut, but it is generally accepted that the division is around 20 to 30 cases (Bachman 2004: 235).

In order to use the small-sample *t*-test appropriately, one needs to consider the following three assumptions about the two score distributions and the robustness of the *t*-test to violations of these assumptions: normal distribution, equal variances, and independence of observations.

A robust statistic offers a reasonably accurate estimate even when the assumptions on which it is based are violated.

NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

The populations from which the samples are taken must be normally distributed.

In determining whether the score distribution is normal, one needs to check the indices of skewness and kurtosis, which provide information about the shape of the distribution.

- Skewness is a measure of the asymmetry of a distribution. A normal distribution is symmetric and has a skewness value of zero. A distribution with a significant positive skewness has a long right tail. A distribution with a significant negative skewness has a long left tail. As a rough guide, a skewness value more than twice its standard error is taken to indicate a departure from symmetry

- Kurtosis is a measure of the extent to which observations cluster around a central point. For a normal distribution, the value of the kurtosis statistic is 0. Positive kurtosis indicates that the observations cluster more and have longer tails than those in the normal distribution and negative kurtosis indicates the observations cluster less and have shorter tails

(taken from SPSS 13 – BASE SYSTEM)

At a rough estimate, values for skewness and kurtosis between −2 and +2 indicate a reasonably normal distribution (Bachman 2004: 74).

Skewness and kurtosis were determined by the use of SPSS 13.0. The values of skewness and kurtosis for a normal distribution are both zero. After examining the kurtosis and skewness of the non-bilingual group, I noticed that there was one outstandingly low score that greatly weakened the group distribution. For this reason, this outstanding score (or outlier) was not included in the sample.

Apparently, under some circumstances a *t*-test can give misleading results. This especially occurs when the data set is small and there are some highly deviant scores or outliers, which can inflate the values of the denominators of the *t* statistics.

Another approach to check whether the distribution is normal is to divide each statistic (skewness and kurtosis) by its standard error. If the value of this ratio ranges between −2 and +2, one can be about 95% confident that the distribution is normal:

NON-BILINGUAL GROUP

- Skewness: .525 divided by its std. error .374 = 1.40
- Kurtosis: .734 divided by its std. error .733 = 1.00

BILINGUAL GROUP

- Skewness: .022 divided by its std. error 0.388 = .056
- Kurtosis: −1.093 divided by its std. error .759 = −1.44

The values of these ratios range between −2 and +2, and therefore the distributions are normal.

In addition, the skewness and kurtosis values for both groups are between −2 and +2, which indicates that the averages are normally distributed (see Tables 1 and 2, and Figures 2 and 3).

Table 1. Non-bilingual students: Frequencies (C-test averages)

N	Valid	40
	Missing	0
Mean		43.0500
Std. error of mean		1.01397
Median		42.5000
Std. deviation		6.41293
Variance		41.126
Skewness		0.525
Std. error of skewness		0.374
Kurtosis		0.734
Std. error of kurtosis		0.733
Range		31.00
Minimum		31.00
Maximum		62.00
Percentiles	25	39.0000
	50	42.5000
	75	47.0000

Figure 2. Non-bilingual students: Frequencies (C-test averages)

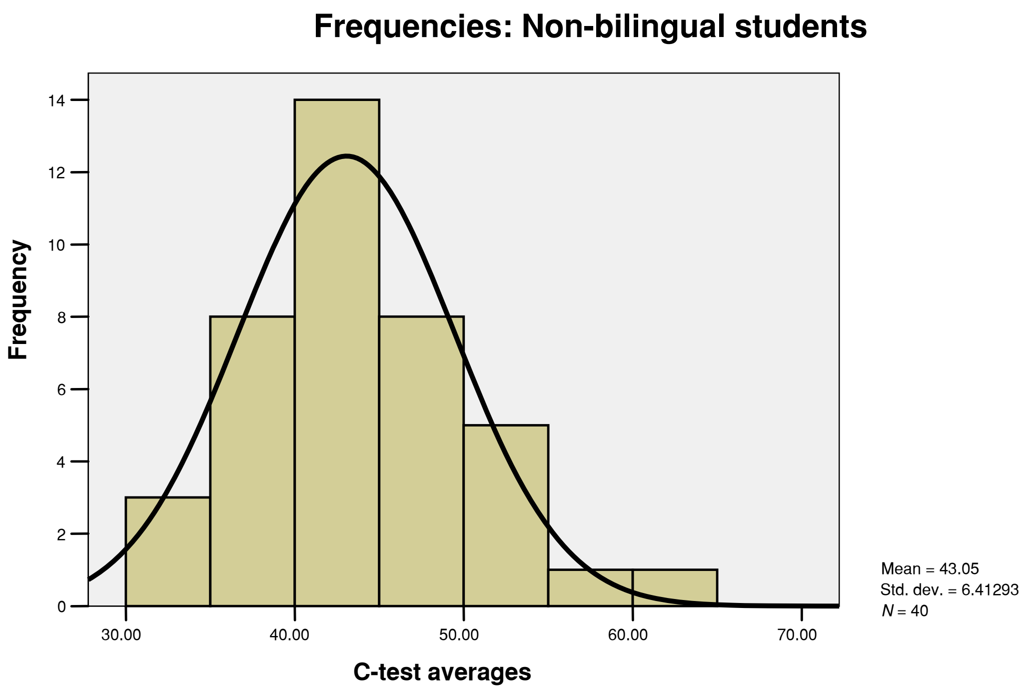


Table 2. Bilingual students: Frequencies (C-test averages)

N	Valid	37
	Missing	0
Mean		52.4054
Std. error of mean		1.16277
Median		51.0000
Mode		56.00
Std. deviation		7.07287
Variance		50.026
Skewness		0.022
Std. error of skewness		0.388
Kurtosis		−1.093
Std. error of kurtosis		0.759
Range		25.00
Minimum		40.00
Maximum		65.00
Sum		1939.00
Percentiles	25	45.5000
	50	51.0000
	75	57.5000

Figure 3. Bilingual students: Frequencies (C-test averages)

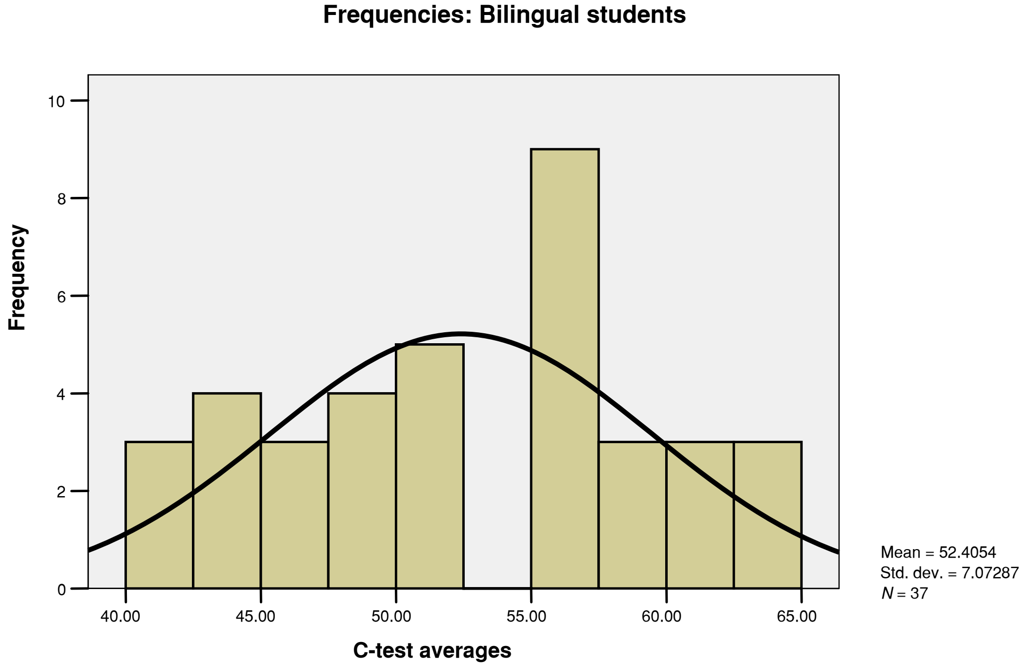


Figure 3 shows the frequencies of C-test averages for the bilingual group. There is a hole in the middle of the graph because there were no scores of 52, 53 and 54 in the sample. Such a situation can occur when there is a very small sample; my sample included only 37 bilingual students. Nevertheless, the skewness and kurtosis and other tests for a normal distribution are within acceptable values.

HOMOSCEDASTICITY – equal variances

Homoscedasticity is the second distributional assumption that determines whether two population variances are equal. The equal variance assumption can be checked by calculating an *F*-ratio. This is also referred to as the ANOVA F statistic (Kinnear and Gray 2004: 208).

Lavene's test for equality of variances assumes that there are equal variances if the value of F is greater than 0.05. Table 4 shows that the value of the F statistic equals 2.112, which indicates that the variances are equal.

INDEPENDENCE OF OBSERVATIONS

The performance of any given individual must be independent of the performance of other individuals. The performances of individuals within groups should therefore not affect each other (Bachman 2004: 237). The performances of the bilingual students on the C-test were independent of the performances of the non-bilingual students on the C-test, and therefore the third requirement that ensures the reliability of the *t*-test score was fulfilled.

Table 3. Group statistics

	BLG OR NBLG	*N*	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
C-test Score	BLG	37	52.41	7.073	1.163
	NBLG	40	43.05	6.413	1.014

Table 4. Independent samples *t*-test

		Levene's test for equality of variances		*t*-test for equality of means						
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean dif.	Std. error dif.	95% confidence interval of the dif. Lower	95% confidence interval of the dif. Upper
C-TEST SCORE	Equal variances assumed	2.112	0.150	6.087	75	0.000	9.355	1.537	6.294	12.417
	Equal variances not assumed			6.064	72.741	0.000	9.355	1.543	6.280	12.430

8.7.2.2 REPORT ON THE RESULT OF THE *t*-TEST

- This *t*-test was run on a data set with one outlier removed (one score in the non-bilingual group). There were therefore 37 scores in the bilingual group and 40 scores in the non-bilingual group

- Lavene's test for equality of variances, which is a test for homogeneity of variances, tells whether variances are homogeneous. Lavene's statistic has a *p*-value (Sig. column) for *F* greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$), which means that *F* is not significant. In other words, if Lavene's test is not significant, the variances can be assumed to be homogeneous and the equal variances line of values for the *t*-test can be used; this is the "pooled *t*-test"

- The most important result is that the value of *t* ($df = 75$) equals 6.087, with a two-tail *p*-value, SIG. (2 tailed) of .000. The difference between the two sets of mean scores is therefore significant beyond the .05 level: $t = 6.087$; $p = .000$

- The 95% confidence interval of the difference between means is 6.294 to 12.417, which does not include 0, the value under the null hypothesis. If the lower value were negative, the result of the two-tailed *t*-test would not be significant

As predicted, the bilingual students (BLG: $M = 52.41$; $SD = 7.073$) were more successful on the C-test than the non-bilingual students (NBLG: $M = 43.05$; $SD = 6.413$).

Confirming that the difference between the C-test bilingual and non-bilingual scores is statistically significant simply rules out the possibility that this difference could be due to chance.

This difference could be attributed to the effect of different treatment in school because the bilingual students are exposed to English in most of their business subjects. Their almost constant contact with English makes them more proficient than the non-bilingual students, who study commercial subjects in German.

8.7.3 CLASSIFICATION OF DEVIANT RESPONSES

Because vocabulary and grammar are important components of general language proficiency measured by the C-test (Eckes and Grotjahn 2006), it would be reasonable to check the grammar errors the subjects made and the more specific business items.

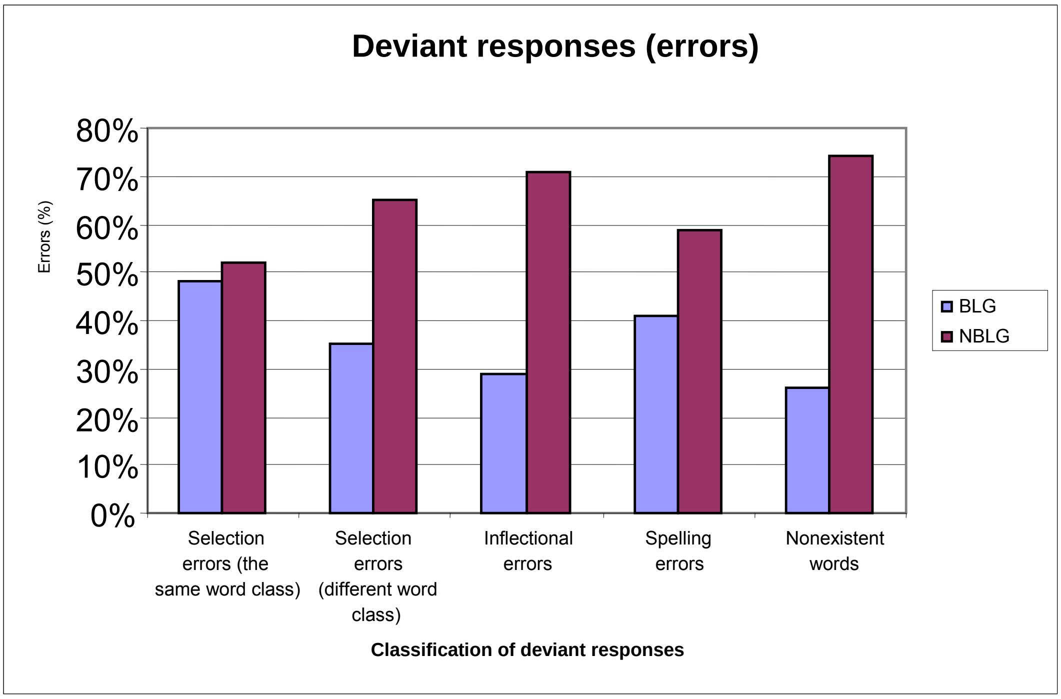
A holistic view of all errors provides a more detailed explanation of all deviant responses. The sources of errors can only be investigated with, for example, think-aloud protocols, but the types of errors can still be determined. This allows one to draw conclusions in terms of language proficiency.

The deviant responses that were analysed are of the following types (the classification was inspired by the types of errors in C-tests used by Praesent-Mößlacher 1997: 24):

- Selection errors: the deviant word was taken from the same word class, (e.g., *to reflect* / **to refer*, *product* / **promotion*, *of* / **on*)[4]
- Selection errors: the wrong word was chosen from a different word class, (e.g., *few* / **fond, attempted* / **attention*, *global* / **glory*)
- Inflectional errors: the correct word could be found but the wrong inflection was used (e.g., *was* / **were*, *agreed* / **agree*, *endorsements* / **endorsement*)
- Spelling errors (e.g., *endorsements* / **endorsments*, *developed* / **developped*, *advertisement* / **advertisment*, *transferring* / **transfering*)

[4] The sign * indicates a wrong word.

Figure 4. Deviant responses (errors) in C-tests



SELECTION ERRORS OF THE SAME WORD CLASS

Both bilingual and non-bilingual students frequently used a different word of the same word class to fill in the blanks. The difference between them in making such errors is the smallest compared to other deviant responses (see Figure 4 above).

SELECTION ERRORS OF A DIFFERENT (WRONG) WORD CLASS

The difference between the bilinguals and the non-bilinguals in making selection errors of a wrong word class reveals the third-largest difference between the two groups of subjects compared to other errors. Because this large difference is considered important and such errors are considered very serious, one could conclude that the non-bilinguals are less proficient in English than the bilinguals. Namely, 65% of selection errors of a different word class were made by the non-bilingual students.

Sigott (cited in Praesent-Moesslacher 1997: 25) takes the view that “the higher the proficiency level is, the lower the amount of errors in a different word class should be”.

INFLECTIONAL ERRORS

Within the group of inflectional errors, most of the errors are due to the use of the present tense instead of the past tense. This phenomenon shows that many students did not pay sufficient attention to the first line of each paragraph as an introduction, but immediately filled in the blanks. There were also many inflectional errors in which the students failed to use the gerund (e.g., *transfer instead of *transferring*, **create* instead of *creating*).

There is no doubt that such errors are among the serious ones. The difference between the two groups of students is the second largest and very significant. To be specific, 71% of all inflectional errors were made by non-bilinguals.

SPELLING ERRORS

The incorrect spelling of words resulted in deviant responses because the exact scoring method was used for the C-test.

The difference between the bilinguals and non-bilinguals in making spelling errors was the fourth largest, but even so 59% of all spelling mistakes were made by the non-bilingual students.

NONEXISTENT WORDS

I also included the use of nonexistent words as the fifth type of deviant responses because the students frequently supplied words that are not used in English (e.g., **contemed*, **tronde*, **contemption*, **feated*, etc.). Such serious errors could not be classified as selection errors, inflectional errors or spelling errors.

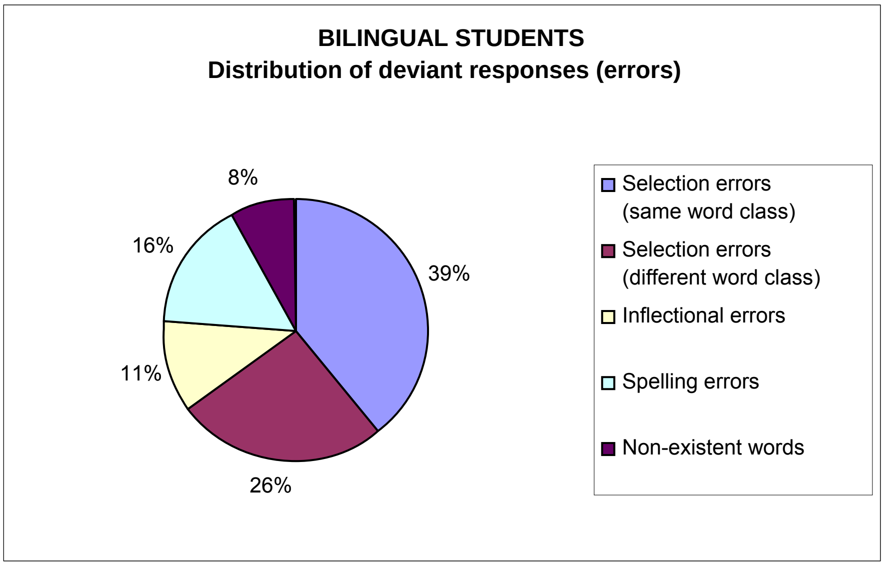
The decision to include the use of words that do not exist in English among deviant responses proved correct because it shows the biggest and the most important discrepancy between the bilinguals and non-bilinguals compared to all other errors.

A full 74% of nonexistent words were supplied on the C-test by the non-bilingual students. The difference is evidently very significant.

DISTRIBUTION OF DEVIANT RESPONSES (ERRORS): BILINGUAL STUDENTS

The distribution of deviant responses on the C-test by the bilingual students shows that the most frequent errors were selection errors of the same word class.

Figure 5. Bilingual students: Distribution of deviant responses (errors)

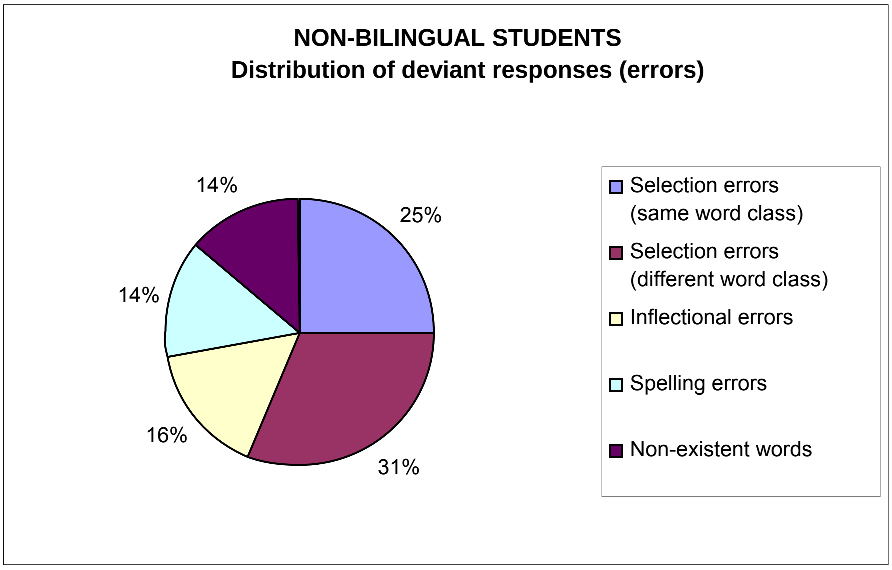


Among all deviant responses or errors by bilinguals, selection errors of the same word class were made in 39% of cases. These errors were the most frequent of all errors by bilingual students (see Figure 5 above).

The selection errors of a different (wrong) word class were less frequent (26% of all errors by the bilinguals).

The distribution shows that bilinguals supplied nonexistent words in only 8% of all their errors in the C-test.

Figure 6. Non-bilingual students: Distribution of deviant responses (errors)



Selection errors of the same word class were not as frequent as with the bilingual students. These errors occurred in 25% of all deviant responses by non-bilinguals.

Selection errors of the “wrong word class” type can be frequently found with non-bilingual students. Such errors were the most frequent of all errors by non-bilingual students (see Figure 6 above). If a student repeatedly makes such errors, this is a sign of a lower language proficiency.

The non-bilingual students made inflectional errors in 16% of all their errors. Nevertheless, the students at least found the correct word as far as meaning was concerned, but they did not arrive at the correct form within the context.

8.7.4 SPECIFIC C-TEST ITEMS

Because vocabulary is also a vital component of general language proficiency, the students’ use of specific C-test items was examined. Here, I wanted to find out what specific C-test items presented the greatest challenge for the non-bilingual students as compared to the bilingual students with a focus on the more specific business items as well.

8.7.4.1 ITEM DIFFICULTY

The C-test items fell into five item difficulty groups according to how many students (in percentages) were able to supply each particular item:

- Very difficult item (0% to 20% of students answered correctly)
- Difficult item (21% to 40% of students answered correctly)
- Item of average difficulty (41% to 60% of students answered correctly)
- Easy item (61% to 80% of students answered correctly)
- Very easy item (81% to 100% of students answered correctly)

Item difficulty differs significantly between bilingual and non-bilingual groups, but nevertheless some items could be considered very difficult, difficult, average, easy and very easy for both groups of subjects.

To illustrate my point, Table 5 lists very difficult items for both groups of students. It is interesting that in supplying the item *transforming* the non-bilingual students excelled because there were no bilinguals that supplied this item, even though the item is still among very difficult items for both groups of subjects.

Table 5. Very difficult items for both groups (between 0% and 20%)

Very difficult items for both groups		
	BLG	NBLG
Truly	0%	0%
reflect	3%	0%
contemporary	19%	0%
transforming	0% BLG	20%
attempted	2%	8%
Big	19%	5%
calendars	8%	7%

Table 6 lists very difficult items only for non-bilingual students. The second column with the bilingual students is given by means of comparison. The third column presents the item difficulty for the bilingual students. Two items were considered easy for the bilinguals (*testing/tests* and *campaign*).

Table 6. Very difficult items only for non-bilingual students

Very difficult items only for non-bilingual students			
		(Comparison with BLG sts)	
endorsements	0% NBLG	(41% BLG)	↑ BLG average (+41%)
professionals	7% NBLG	(51% BLG)	↑ BLG average (+44%)
commercials	7% NBLG	(41% BLG)	↑ BLG average (+34%)
partner	10% NBLG	(27% BLG)	↑ BLG difficult (+17%)
and/as	10% NBLG	(35% BLG)	↑ BLG difficult (+25%)
testing/tests	12% NBLG	(62% BLG)	↑ BLG easy (+50%)
campaign	17% NBLG	(65% BLG)	↑ BLG easy (+48%)
Very	17% NBLG	(38% BLG)	↑ BLG difficult (+21%)

There were business C-test items (*endorsements*, *commercials*, *partner*, *campaign*) among very difficult ones for the non-bilinguals that did not present a major challenge for the bilinguals. This phenomenon led me to examine the subjects' use of specific business C-test items.

8.7.4.2 BUSINESS C-TEST ITEMS

Table 7 shows the distribution of 14 C-test items between the bilingual and non-bilingual groups. These items are considered specific business items.

The business words or specific business C-test items are ranked from the easiest to the most difficult item (the percentages of students that supplied these words correctly are given in brackets) for the bilingual students. The ranking for the non-bilinguals is given on the right for comparison.

Table 7. Business C-test items and their difficulty for bilingual and non-bilingual students

	Bilingual students	Non-bilingual students
global	Very easy item (100%)	Very easy item (88%)
business	Very easy item (97%)	Very easy item (100%)
company	Very easy item (92%)	Easy item (70%)
advertisement	Very easy item (81%)	Easy item (80%)
president	Easy item (78%)	Difficult item (38%)
campaign	Easy item (65%)	Very difficult item (18%)
advertisement/s	Easy item (62%)	Easy item (63%)
product (item 14)	Average difficulty (57%)	Difficult item (38%)
advertising	Average difficulty (43%)	Difficult item (35%)
exported	Average difficulty (41%)	Difficult item (33%)
commercials	Average difficulty (41%)	Very difficult item (8%)
endorsements	Average difficulty (41%)	Very difficult item (0%)
product (item 31)	Difficult item (38%)	Difficult item (38%)
partner	Difficult item (27%)	Very difficult item (10%)

The bilingual students were better at supplying all specific business C-test items; exceptions are the items *business* and *advertisement/s*, but the scores of non-bilinguals are only insignificantly better.

Figure 7 presents the business item difficulty or the occurrences of these items in percentages for the bilingual students in comparison to the occurrences of these items for the non-bilingual students.

Figure 7. Business C-test items: comparison

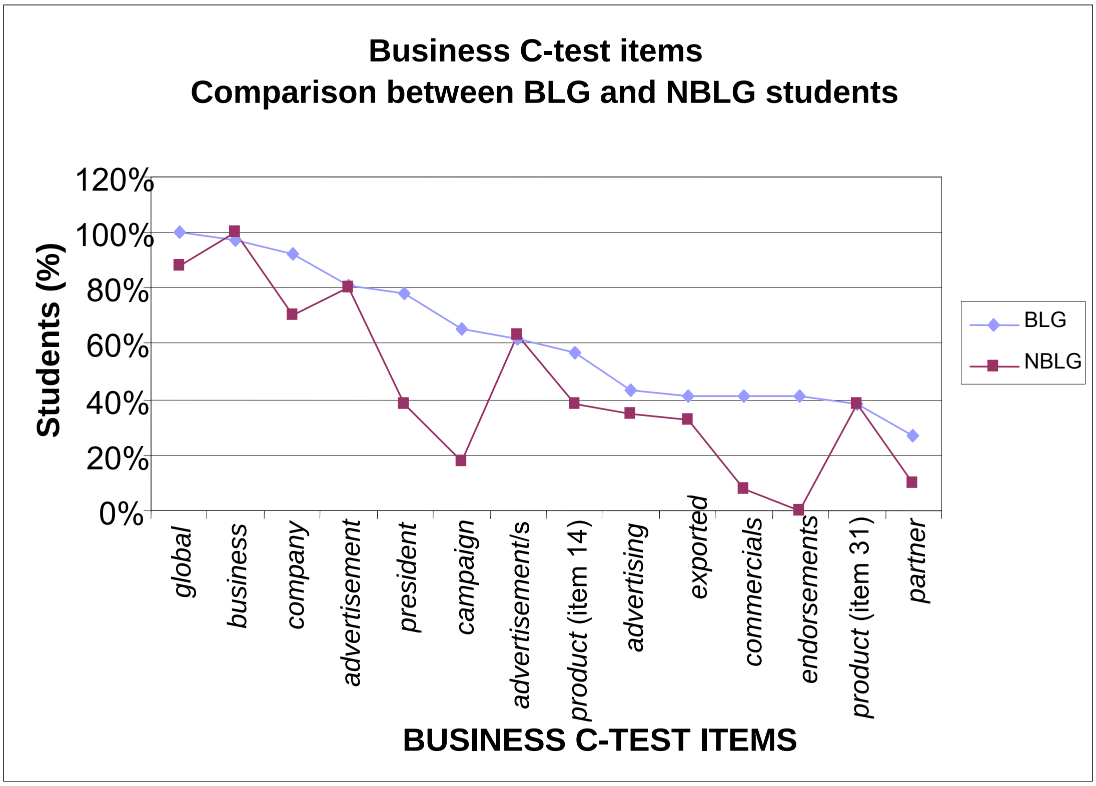


Figure 7 shows that non-bilingual students' achievements are lower than the achievements of bilingual students. The biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students can be seen among the C-test items *campaign, endorsements* (none of the non-bilingual students knew the word compared to 41% of the bilinguals, who supplied it correctly*), president, commercials,* and *company*.

Items for which the two groups of students scored similarly are easier business items, such as *business, advertisement/s* (2×) and *product* (this item appears twice in the text, but the range of difficulty of the same item used twice in the C-test cannot be compared as it depends on its position in the sentences and the words that precede and follow these two items).

8.8 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND FINAL OBSERVATIONS

Even though I expected the bilingual students to score better on the C-test, I was interested in a more detailed analysis of specific test items.

During the testing procedure, I was surprised that bilingual students seemed slightly disinterested in the test. In other words, the test in which every second word was cut in half looked like a game to them. Nevertheless, in other tests they displayed a more serious approach to testing.

Apparently, I was able to prove my hypothesis that bilingual students are more proficient in English than non-bilingual students. One of the reasons why they are more proficient in English is certainly the result of the selection process that is involved in forming bilingual classes (see Introduction to the Empirical Study, Chapter 7). The second reason is the influence of studying commercial subjects in English.

Using statistical tools I proved that the difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students is statistically significant.

Moreover, the difference between the highest and lowest scores is more significant with the non-bilingual students.

When analysing deviant responses or errors, the biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students was found in supplying nonexistent words in English, and in making inflectional errors and selection errors of wrong word class.

Considering Sigott's view that the higher number of selection errors of a different word class, the lower the proficiency level is, I proved my expectation that the bilinguals as the more proficient students would come up with a lower number of such errors.

The number of nonexistent words further underlined the same phenomenon.

In addition, the analysis of 14 business items showed that the bilingual students also surpassed the non-bilinguals because they more successfully supplied all 14 business items.

All in all, the C-test in this study was not used only to define the general language proficiency, but it was used more specifically. In line with more recent uses of the C-test (DESI) (Beck and Klieme 2007; DESI-Konsortium 2008; Sigott 2004) there is an additional focus on more specific facets of the students' language proficiency, which proved to be very relevant to describe more specific aspects of the language competence.

9 ANALYSIS OF PRODUCTION SKILLS: SEMI-CREATIVE WRITING

9.1 CONSTRUCT DEFINITION

The purpose of designing the writing assessment task was to assess the students' selection of vocabulary and specific aspects of students' writing abilities. The students were expected to produce well-organised written summaries in English, their first foreign language, and in German, their native language, based on a video story using appropriate vocabulary.

Furthermore, students' use of appropriate L2 communication strategies could show how proficient they are in substituting for a possible lack of lexical knowledge. The students' written summaries in German, which are not meant to be translations from the English summaries, are regarded as ideal messages, and they are compared to the summaries in English as the intended messages (see Section 9.7.4 in this chapter). The avoidance and achievement strategies are checked focusing on particular vocabulary needed to write appropriate summaries.

The writing assessment task involved a video story on presentations.

The students' summaries were also supposed to be relevant to the content in the video story as well as grammatically and mechanically accurate. Even though here grammar and spelling are not the most important assessment criteria, they are included in the analytic scoring.

In addition, errors such as occurrences of the "bathtub" effect or malapropisms are also meant to focus on students' use of vocabulary.

9.2 TEST CONTENT

In story-writing activity, language production is based on the video *Fortune Telling* (taken from the Creating Opportunities Oxford English Video series), which has to be retold in the target language and in the students' native language. The students are asked to produce well-organised texts using appropriate cohesive devices. In the video story, the presenter Mr. Fortune proves that he is prepared for incidents before they actually happen. The content of his talk is meant to help managers to plan ahead and to be prepared for unexpected events. His talk and his way of being prepared for little surprises during the presentation are beautifully connected. His eight predictions add up to Mr. Fortune's unbelievable "supernatural" abilities, which greatly entertained the students and helped them to follow the video (see the section 9.7.4.1.1 in this chapter).

The decision to use this video story as the basis for assessing students' writing abilities was appropriate for the following reasons:

- The story is perfect for assessment purposes because it connects serious content (presentation skills) and the unusual character of the presenter in the video. The entertaining content of the test helps the students forget that they are actually supposed to be tested after watching the video

- Students clearly see the appropriateness of being tested in the use of English presentation vocabulary because they know that the ability to speak in front of a large audience ensures success in today's business world

- Furthermore, the video story *Fortune Telling* is appropriate because the vocabulary that is tested in this study does not appear in actual speech in the video

9.3 SUBJECTS

The sample included 32 bilingual and 36 non-bilingual students from HAK 1 Salzburg.

9.4 DATA-COLLECTION CRITERIA

The students were very familiar with the language of presentations because they had discussed presentation skills in class beforehand. They also had experience in giving presentations themselves.

Presentation skills are among the four important skills in business English. One can hardly find a business English course that does not offer discussion and practice in using appropriate presentation skills. Moreover, even though the four skills needed in business are all speaking skills, business writing in English is also an important skill. Business writing mainly includes reports, business letters, memos, faxes, e-mails, press releases, agendas and guidelines. Business writing follows strict rules and has to be well organised using appropriate vocabulary.

9.5 DATA-ELICITATION PROCEDURE

The story-writing task was set up as a written summary of the seven-minute video *Fortune Telling*. The data were elicited in a single session with all the students in class.

The students watched the video twice. The first time, they were asked to pay attention to the presenter's predictions. The second time, they were allowed to take notes in whatever language they chose. They did not know what was to follow after watching the video.

After they had watched the video twice, students were asked to write a well-organised text in English including Mr. Fortune's predictions. They were allowed to make use of the notes they took during the second viewing.

When they finished writing their English summaries, their written work was collected in order to prevent translations into German. Then they were given additional paper to write summaries in German.

For assessing the German scripts, the two native speakers of German (both teachers of German as a foreign language) also proofread my tables with sections from the German summaries and corrected the German scripts.

In order to compare the active vocabulary of the bilingual and non-bilingual students, I initially intended to determine the type-token ratio by using one of many existing linguistic computer programmes that can be downloaded from the Internet. After I had carried out extensive research on the appropriateness of using type-token ratios in linguistic research, I abandoned the idea of calculating the type-token ratios of my subjects' written and oral tasks (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1).

I believe that the software for calculating the type-token ratios is quite helpful when researchers study long texts of more than 2,000 tokens, but the texts produced by the subjects in my research are much shorter (the average number of tokens per text is 159), and so I decided not to calculate the type-token ratios for the written and oral production of bilingual and non-bilingual students.

9.6 MY EXPECTATIONS

I expected bilingual students to prove more proficient in writing than non-bilingual students. They were expected to achieve better holistic and analytic scores than the non-bilinguals.

Specifically, bilingual students were expected to write better-organised summaries using mainly appropriate L2 communications strategies, whereas the non-bilingual students were expected to mainly rely on L1 communication strategies. I also expected that the avoidance strategy would be rare in the passages written by the bilinguals.

In addition, I did not expect to find malapropisms in the writing of bilinguals. These were expected mainly from the non-bilinguals.

9.7 DATA ANALYSIS

9.7.1 GRADING PROCEDURE AND ENSURING RELIABILITY

The students' scripts were assessed using holistic and analytic grading. The holistic scores were given in two sessions over two weeks by one rater. The reliability of the two sets of holistic scores was checked by calculating Pearson's *r*.

The pragmatic quality of the bilingual and non-bilingual students' written texts or "scripts" was assessed using two scales: holistic and analytic.

The rating scales designed to assess students' writing and speaking competencies were based on my own expert rating, but partially inspired by The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe (2001).

When developing the holistic scale, the TOEFL Writing Test (formerly called the Test of Written English, or TWE) (ETS 1989, 2000) was of great help. In designing the analytic scale, a good source was the Test in English for Educational Purposes (TEEP) by Weir (1990). I adapted these two scales in order to assess the writing as well as speaking performance of the bilingual and non-bilingual subjects.

The primary trait scale was not used in this study, because it is meant to assess specific writing assignments. In my view, the holistic and analytic scales are appropriate tools for assessing the written texts of my subjects.

Initially, I had planned to design only the analytic scale to assess the students' written summaries but, due to some apparent disadvantages of analytic scales over the holistic scales, I decided to use the holistic scale as well.

Because both rating scales have advantages and disadvantages, yet, I believed that using both scales in assessing the bilingual and non-bilingual students' writing and speaking competences ensures detailed insight into their writing and speaking achievements.

While developing the scale for this study, all three approaches were used: intuitive methods, qualitative methods and quantitative methods.

9.7.2 HOLISTIC RATING SCALE: WRITING TASK

In holistic scoring, a single score is given to a script based on an intuitive general impression of the script.

Score 1

- The summary may reveal some weaknesses:
- The summary is incoherent and undeveloped (no conclusion)
- There is little or no detail
- Very frequent inappropriate choice of words or word forms
- Frequent errors in sentence structure and usage (more than 5 errors)

Score 2

- The summary reveals partly inadequate organisation and development
- It addresses some parts of the writing task more effectively than others
- Some evidence of inappropriate choice of words and word forms
- There are some errors in sentence structure and usage (1 to 5)

Score 3

- The summary is well-organised and well-developed
- It effectively addresses the writing task
- It shows appropriate syntactic variety and word choice although there might be occasional errors
- Appropriate and consistent facility in language use

Table 8. Holistic scores (writing): Bilingual and non-bilingual students

	BLG students	1st grading (26 Jan 06)	2nd grading (14 Feb 06)	NBLG students	1st grading (26 Jan 06)	2nd grading (14 Feb 06)
1	Kast 3BF	3	2	Klei 3NF	2	2
2	Eisl 3BF	2	2	Dez 3NF	1	2
3	Arne 3BF	2	1	Mac 3NF	1	2
4	Hain 3BF	1	2	Wir 3NF	1	1
5	Kap 3BF	3	2	Ell 3NF	1	2
6	Koll 3BF	3	3	Tot 3NF	1	1
7	Höll 3BF	2	2	Eki 3NF	1	1
8	Reh 3BF	2	2	Bra 3NM	1	2
9	Thal 3BF	2	2	Wiz 3NM	1	1
10	Ren 3BF	2	2	Pöll 3NM	1	1
11	Prim 3BF	2	2	Frei 3NM	1	1
12	EdS 3BF	3	3	Las 3NM	1	1
13	Wah 3BM	2	2	Kiss 3NM	1	1
14	Mai 3BM	2	2	Gall 3NM	1	1
15	Sejk 3BM	3	3	Wol 3NM	1	1
16	ScT 3BM	1	1	Mar 3NM	2	2
17	Satt 3BM	1	1	Her 3NM	1	1
18	Prill 4BF	2	2	Har 3NM	2	2
19	Reit 4BF	2	2	Prol 3NM	1	1
20	Nag 4BF	2	2	Fra 3NM	1	1
21	Putz 4BF	3	3	Ber 4NF	1	1
22	Shof 4BF	2	2	Mau 4NF	2	3
23	Nop 4BF	3	2	Wim 4NF	1	2
24	Ber 4BF	2	2	Hal 4NF	1	1
25	Pikl 4BF	3	3	EdK 4NF	2	2
26	Elli 4BF	2	2	Küh 4NF	2	2
27	Pös	3	3	Kam	1	1

	BLG students	1st grading (26 Jan 06)	2nd grading (14 Feb 06)	NBLG students	1st grading (26 Jan 06)	2nd grading (14 Feb 06)
	4BM			4NF		
28	Mra 4BM	2	2	Bay 4NF	2	2
29	Stie 4BM	2	2	Aus 4NF	1	1
30	EdJ 4BM	2	2	Olli 4NF	1	1
31	Kreu 4BM	1	1	Jöb 4NF	2	2
32	ScF 4BM	2	2	Feld 4NF	1	2
33	Ziet 4BM	2	2	Pols 4NM	1	1
34	**Average**	**2.2**	**2.06**	ScD 4NM	1	1
35				Hec 4NM	1	1
36				Pirk 4NM	1	1
				Average	**1.2**	**1.4**

Many non-bilingual students' scripts show evidence of organisation and development, but there are many grammar mistakes. I decided to score these scripts with a score of 1.

There were no major discrepancies between the two sets of scores.

The reliability of the holistic writing scores was insured by intra-rater reliability or internal consistency in order to check to what extent the rater's scores were consistent.

I scored the students' scripts twice over a period of two weeks. The holistic rating scale descriptors given above set the criteria that were followed during the assessment process. Afterwards, reliability was expressed through Pearson's *r*, which is "the most familiar correlation coefficient" (Kinnear and Gray 2004: 298). The values of a correlation coefficient vary from −1 to +1. When the value is close to −1 it shows a relationship between the two variables but this relationship is negative; when the value is close to +1 it indicates a positive association. There is no correlation if the value equals zero or if it is close to zero. Values between .8 and .9 are good and represent a large effect, whereas values in the .5 and .6 range are considered not significant or weak (Luoma 2004). In some research fields (e.g., economics) researchers would still claim that values of .5 and .6 indicate a good correlation, whereas a value of 0.3 is truly considered weak.

The statistical association or correlation between the two sets of holistic scores in writing assigned twice in 2 weeks by one rater is considered strong (r = 0.81), which represents a large effect (see Table 9).

Table 9. Descriptive statistics for the two sets of holistic scores in writing

	Mean	Std. deviation	***N***
Writing: first grading	1.67	.700	69
Writing: second grading	1.72	.639	69

Table 10. Correlation between the two sets of holistic scores (writing) using Pearson's *r*

		Writing-first grading	Writing-second grading
Writing: first grading	*r*	1	.811(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	69	69
Writing: second grading	*r*	.811(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	69	69

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

In the book *SPSS Made Simple*, Kinnear and Gray (2004) advise that in addition to calculating Pearson's *r,* researchers should always construct a scatterplot because the *r* value might be misleading.

The estimate of effect size or *R* was calculated and a scatterplot was constructed. However, the result showed that the scatterplot was not linear but elliptical. The scatterplot was not linear because the range of scores was only between 1 and 3, therefore the scatterplot cannot be trusted.

I conclude that Pearson's *r* is sufficient to check the association of the two sets of holistic scores in this study.

9.7.3 ANALYTIC RATING SCALE: WRITING TASK

Because the holistic rating scale does not provide more specific aspects of subjects' achievement, the analytic rating scale was developed. The analytic scale consists of five specific criteria typical for this writing task. These five criteria are: content, organisation, vocabulary, grammar and mechanical accuracy (spelling). There are two levels for each criterion, which means that the lowest score equals five points and the highest score amounts to ten points.

- Content

  1 = Inadequate treatment of the topic, short, incomplete, irrelevant

  2 = Relevant and adequate treatment of the topic

- Organisation

  1 = Lacks logical sequencing and development, cohesion almost totally absent

  2 = Well organised, cohesive, introduction/main body/conclusion

- Vocabulary

  1 = Many inadequacies in vocabulary

  2 = Almost no inadequacies in vocabulary

- Grammar

  1 = Many grammatical inaccuracies (wrong tense, incorrect past tense form)

  2 = Almost no grammatical inaccuracies

- Mechanical accuracy (spelling)

  1 = Many inaccuracies in spelling

  2 = Almost no inaccuracies in spelling

Table 11. Analytic scores (writing): Bilingual students

	Content	Organisation	Vocabulary	Grammar	Spelling	Final score
Kast 3BF	2	2	2	2	2	10
Eisl 3BF	2	1	2	1	2	8
Arne 3BF	1	1	1	1	2	6
Hain 3BF	1	1	2	1	2	7
Kap 3BF	2	2	2	2	2	10
Koll 3BF	2	2	2	2	2	10
Höll 3BF	2	2	1	2	2	9
Reh 3BF	2	2	1	1	2	8
Thal 3BF	1	2	1	1	2	7
Ren 3BF	2	2	1	1	2	8
Prim 3BF	2	2	2	1	1	8
EdS 3BF	2	2	2	2	2	10
Wah 3BM	1	1	2	2	2	8
Mai 3BM	2	1	1	2	2	8
Sejk 3BM	2	2	2	2	2	10
ScT 3BM	1	1	2	2	2	8
Satt 3BM	1	1	2	2	1	7
Prill 4BF	2	2	2	1	1	8
Reit 4BF	2	2	1	1	1	7
Nag 4BF	2	2	2	1	1	8
Putz 4BF	2	2	2	2	2	10
Shof 4BF	2	1	2	1	2	8
Nop 4BF	2	2	2	2	2	10
Ber 4BF	1	1	2	1	2	7
Pikl 4BF	2	2	2	2	2	10
Elli 4BF	1	1	2	2	2	8
Pos 4BM	2	2	2	2	2	10

	Content	Organisation	Vocabulary	Grammar	Spelling	Final score
Mra 4BM	2	1	2	1	2	8
Stie 4BM	2	1	2	1	2	8
EdJ 4BM	1	1	2	2	2	8
Kreu 4BM	1	1	2	1	2	7
ScF 4BM	1	2	2	1	1	7
Ziet 4BM	1	1	2	1	2	7
Average score	**1.63**	**1.54**	**1.78**	**1.48**	**1.81**	**8.27**

It is difficult to score very short scripts because the vocabulary might be appropriate, and there might not be many grammar and spelling mistakes. However, in such cases a student receives a low content and organisation score.

My descriptors still include the "can't do" phrases because it is very difficult to maintain only "can do" expressions at lower proficiency levels.

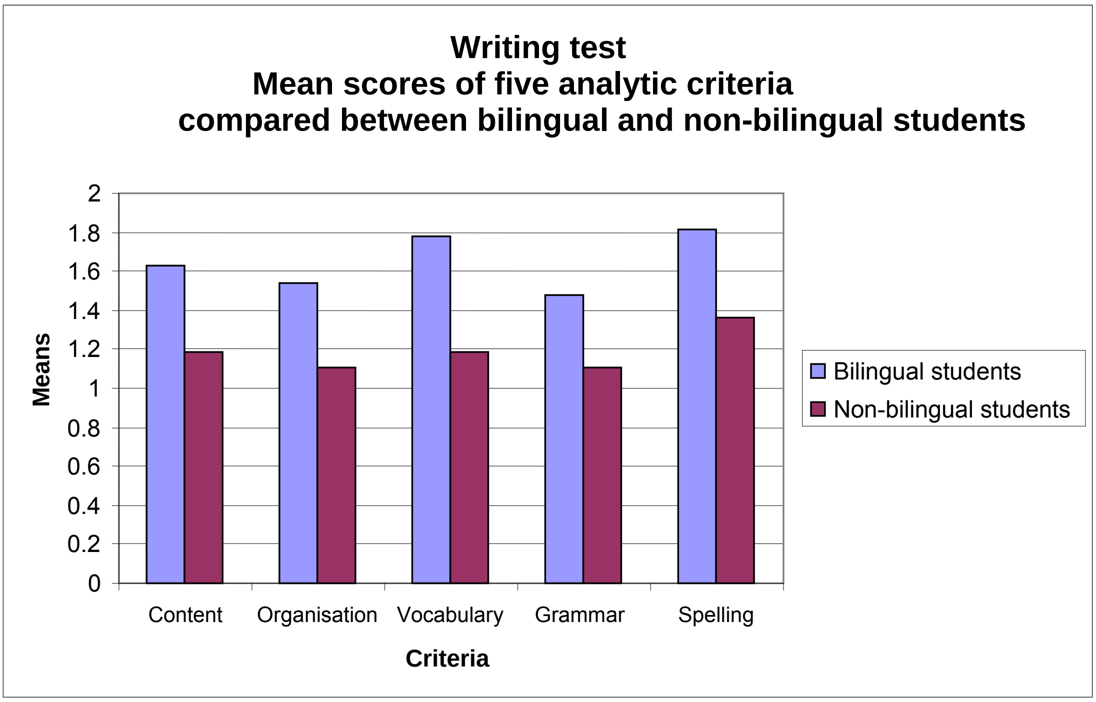
Table 12. Analytic scores (writing): Non-bilingual students

	Content	Organisation	Vocabulary	Grammar	Spelling	Final score
Klei 3NF	2	1	1	1	2	7
Dez 3NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Mac 3NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Wir 3NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Ell 3NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Tot 3NF	1	1	1	1	2	6
Eki 3NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Bra 3NM	1	1	1	1	1	5
Wiz 3NM	1	1	1	1	1	5
Pöll 3NM	1	1	1	1	1	5
Frei 3NM	1	1	1	1	1	5
Las 3NM	1	1	1	1	2	6
Kiss 3NM	1	1	2	2	1	7
Gall 3NM	1	1	1	1	1	5
Wol 3NM	1	1	1	1	2	6
Mar 3NM	2	2	1	2	1	8
Her 3NM	1	1	1	1	1	5
Har 3NM	2	2	1	1	1	7
Prol 3NM	1	1	1	1	1	5
Fra 3NM	1	1	1	1	2	6
Ber 4NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Mau 4NF	2	1	2	1	2	8
Wim 4NF	1	1	2	1	2	7
Hal 4NF	1	1	2	1	1	6
EdK 4NF	2	2	1	1	1	7
Küh 4NF	1	2	2	1	2	8
Kam 4NF	1	1	1	1	1	5

	Content	Organisation	Vocabulary	Grammar	Spelling	Final score
Bay 4NF	2	1	2	1	2	8
Aus 4NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Olli 4NF	1	1	1	1	2	6
Jöb 4NF	2	1	2	2	1	8
Feld 4NF	1	1	1	1	1	5
Pols 4NM	1	1	1	2	1	6
ScD 4NM	1	1	1	1	2	6
Hec 4NM	1	1	1	1	2	6
Pirk 4NM	1	1	1	1	2	6
Average score	**1.19**	**1.11**	**1.19**	**1.11**	**1.36**	**6 (5.97)**

The comparison between the bilingual and non-bilingual groups in all five analytic criteria is presented in Figure 8.

Figure 8. Writing test: Mean scores of five analytic criteria compared between bilingual and non-bilingual students



Bilingual students achieved the best scores in spelling and vocabulary, which are very close in the results, whereas their grammatical accuracy was given the lowest score, almost as low as the organisation score. The non-bilinguals' scores showed a similar trend for highest and lowest scores; the only difference was found in a much lower vocabulary score compared to the spelling score.

The differences between the two groups of students are significant in all analytic criteria. However, the graph shows that the biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students is in vocabulary use. Interestingly, the smallest difference can be seen in grammar.

In order to further support the results of holistic and analytic scoring, the students' vocabulary use is analysed in greater depth.

9.7.4 COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

This section focuses on the use of specific vocabulary in the students' scripts. I was interested in analysing those strategies applied by students when they could not find an appropriate word or expression.

The students' vocabulary was also analysed according to a set of communication strategies inspired by the communication strategy typology by Faerch and Kasper (in Ellis 1985: 184–185) and William Nemser's (1993) treatment of strategies for learning and using the target language.

The German version is considered the perfect, ideal message (i.e., what the students wanted to express), and the English version is regarded as the intended message. Of course it was much easier for the Austrian ESL students to express themselves in their native language. These ideal German versions serve as the basis for the comparison with the intended English versions, in which the failure to find proper expressions in the foreign language was expected to be overcome by the use of various communication strategies. Deviations from the ideal message caused by lexical poverty of the learners' language are analysed as:

- Reduction (topic avoidance, message abandonment)
- Achievement strategies (L1 and L2 achievement strategies)

The reduction strategy is checked by focusing on the possible proof of missing events and appropriate expressions in describing the presenter's predictions in the students' English summaries.

The occurrences of achievement strategies are calculated.

Among L1 strategies, language transfer, code-switching, foreignising or importation, and literal translation are checked.

L2-based strategies are also calculated: paraphrasing, generalisation or approximation (replacement of the ideal word or message), and word coinage.

Eder (1998: 48) refers to a paraphrase as “message reformulation” and counts it among reduction strategies because, in her view, learners use message reformulation to compensate for their lexical poverty. I strongly disagree with this view because paraphrasing is an acceptable L2 achievement communication strategy that applies appropriate vocabulary.

9.7.4.1 SUBJECTS’ USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN DESCRIBING THREE EVENTS IN THE VIDEO STORY

The content of the video story offers an opportunity to check how successfully the subjects described the eight predictions made by the protagonist in the video.

9.7.4.1.1 REDUCTION STRATEGIES

The occurrences of reduction strategies are checked focusing on the presenter’s predictions in the video story. Michael Fortune’s predictions and, consequently, his preparation for the incidents are collected in the following list (see also Section 9.2):

- *Traffic jam ► skateboard*
- *A woman sneezes ► handkerchief*
- *Telephone rings ► He hands a woman a telephone*
- *Question from a man from the first row ► He turns to this man*
- *Overhead projector stops working ► flashlight, light-bulb*
- *Coffee-machine explodes ► coffee bottle in his briefcase*
- *He coughs ► mouth spray*
- *Bad weather (storm, rain) ► umbrella*

Initially, the missing predictions are meant to elicit cases of reduction or avoidance strategy. If the students described a prediction in the ideal German version, but left it out in the intended English version, I assumed that they found it difficult to express themselves due to their lexical poverty.

I differentiated between extensional and intensional reduction.

Extensional reduction means that the words that are present in the ideal message are omitted in the intended version, which results in a rather fragmentary or incomplete “actual” sentence or clause (e.g., Daniela 4NF: “He took a bottle with coffee out of his _______?”)

Intensional reduction stands for substituted words that only approximate the ideal message in meaning.

Three conditions have to be fulfilled in order to elicit cases of avoidance strategy:

1) First English then German: Because the students wrote the summary in English first, and then in German, I assume that, if a description was missing in the intended English text but was described or mentioned in the ideal German text, an avoidance strategy had occurred

2) Presenter’s predictions: Before watching the video for the first time, the students were asked to pay attention to Mr. Fortune’s predictions because they would include them in the written task after watching the video twice

3) Note-taking: While watching the video for the first time, the students were allowed to take notes and asked to include all of the presenter’s predictions

The tables below present possible occurrences of avoidance strategy, focusing on three specific predictions.

9.7.4.1.2 ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES

I decided to examine the occurrence of three specific predictions in German and English texts because these specific words have to be used in order to describe these predictions, yet, these words are not pronounced or uttered by the people in the video:

Prediction A: *a sneeze*

The managing director was given a handkerchief before she sneezed.

Prediction B: *an overhead projector*

An overhead projector stopped working during the presentation, but Mr. Fortune had brought a pocket light with him.

Prediction C: *a coffee machine*

The coffee machine exploded at the end of his presentation, but Mr. Fortune already had a thermos of coffee in his briefcase.

I assume that the correct choice of words needed to describe these events in English and German are:

- *to sneeze / niesen*
- *a handkerchief, a tissue / das Taschentuch*
- *an overhead projector, a projector / der Overhead Projektor, der Overhead, der Projektor*
- *a torch (Br.), a torch light, a pocket light, a pocket lamp, a flashlight (Am.) / die Taschenlampe, der Reserveteil*
- *a light bulb, a lamp / die Glühbirne, die Birne, die Lampe*
- *coffee machine / die Kaffeemaschine*
- *thermos flask, thermos bottle, thermos / die Thermoskanne, die Thermoskanne Kaffee, die Kanne Kaffee*

These words are not necessarily required to write coherent, concise and well-structured summaries. Although these are ideal solutions, there are other ways to describe these predictions in a short summary. Native speakers as well as the speakers of a foreign language can be easily annoyed when they are searching for a particular word but cannot find it even though they are sure they know it.

I was particularly interested in examining what expressions or communication strategies were used by students to make up for a possible lack of knowledge of these particular expressions.

As already stated, I wanted to examine how the students described these particular words in English, and if there were cases of avoidance strategy (e.g., the word or prediction described in the German text but missing in the English text, or a clear evidence of a missing word).

In addition to avoidance strategy, I wanted to determine which other communication strategies were used by the students to make up for lexical poverty. I expected that the bilingual students would mainly use L2 communication strategies (e.g., paraphrase) whereas the non-bilingual students would also use L1 communication strategies (e.g., code-switching). The most interesting errors were also examined.

BILINGUAL STUDENTS

There were 33 bilingual students in the sample.

The tables include predictions A, B and C:

- Prediction A: *a sneeze*
- Prediction B: *an overhead projector*
- Prediction C: *a coffee machine*

Table 13. Bilingual students: Prediction A: *sneeze*[5]

St.	German	English
Kast 3BF	... reicht er einer Frau ein Taschentuch, bevor sie niest ...	... he gave the woman who introduced him a handkerchief before she sneezed ...
Eisl 3BF	... dass die Sekräterin ein Taschentuch brauchte und es gab ihr eins. Kurze Zeit später **musste sie niesen**	... the secretary would need a handkerchief and so Michael gave her one. In fact a minute later **she needed it**
Arne 3BF	General summary – describing the presenter's ability to be prepared for the unexpected events which is in line with the content of his narrative (e.g., how businesses have to be prepared for the changes on the market)	General summary – describing the presenter's ability to be prepared for the unexpected events which is in line with the content of his narrative (e.g., how businesses have to be prepared for the changes on the market)
Hain 3BF	General summary	General summary
Kap 3BF	als er ihr ein Taschentuch überreicht. Sie versteht nicht warum, **muss** aber kurze Zeit darauf **niesen**.	Michael gives her a *handkerchive, she doesn't know why, but few seconds later **she** suddenly **needs it.**

[5] Explanation of abbreviations in Tables 13, 14 and 15: 3BF (3rd-year bilingual student: female), 3BM (3rd-year bilingual student: male), 4BF (4th-year bilingual student: female), 4BM (4th-year bilingual student: male)

St.	German	English
Koll 3BF	... plötzlich reicht Michael ihr ein Taschentuch; tatsächlich muss die Frau kurz darauf niesen.	Michael gives her a handkerchief and a few seconds later she has to sneeze.
Höll 3BF	Er reicht einer Dame ein Taschentuch bevor sie niest	he offers the lady a handkerchief before she even knows that she is going to sneeze.
Reh 3BF	reicht er einer Frau ein Taschentuch, wohlwissend, dass sie gleich eins brauchen wird	he knew beforehand that a woman employed in the company would need a handkerchief
Thal 3BF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Ren 3BF	... dass die Sekretärin nießen wird und gibt ihr ein Taschentuch	to whom he gave a handkerchief before she had to sneeze
Prim 3BF Wo Co	... reicht er der Frau ein Taschentuch. Sekunden später **muss sie nießen**.	... he gives her a handkerchief. Seconds later the women **has to sneef**.
EdS 3BF	... erhält von ihm ein Taschentuch, das sie auch kurz darauf wirklich benötigt.	... a woman is introducing him, he gives her a handkerchief and seconds later she needs it actually.
Wah 3BM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Mai 3BM	... dass einer seiner Zuhörer ein Taschentuch braucht	... he knows that someone in the audience needs a handkerchief
Sejk 3BM	... reicht er ihr ein Taschentuch. Sie weiß zuerst nicht recht, was sie damit anfangen soll, als sie plötzlich niest.	M. Fortune passes her a handkerchief. At first she doesn't know what to do with it but after some seconds she sneezes.
ScT 3BM	/DID NOT MENTION	the hanky
Satt 3BM	... gab er einer Frau ein Taschentuch bevor sie nieste	The woman who introduced him had to sneeze so he gave her a handkerchief,
Prill 4BF	... er gab ihr ohne vorhersehbaren Grund ein Taschentuch in die Hand. Kurz darauf musste sie fürchterlich niesen.	... she was interrupted by Mr. Fortune who gave her a handkerchief. 5 seconds after that she had to sneeze.
Reit 4BF Wo Co	... reichte ihr Michael F. ein Taschentuch ... doch wenige Sekunden später begann sie **zu niesen**	..., he gave her handkerchief ... after a few seconds **she sniefed**.

St.	German	English
Nag 4BF	Aus heiterem Himmel reicht er einer Frau ein Taschentuch und kurze Zeit später niest sie.	Before holding the presentation he gives a tissue to a woman. Seconds afterwards she sneezes.
Putz 4BF	... und ihr ein Taschentuch reichte ... eine Minute danach begann sie zu niesen.	... he interrupted her to give her a handkerchief ... after one minute she had to sneeze
Shof 4BF	... ein Taschentuch, kurz darauf muss sie niesen.	... he gave her a handkerchief and one moment later she sneezed.
Nop 4BF	... und er reicht ihr ein Taschentuch. Sekunden später muss sie niesen.	... he hands her a handkerchief. Just a few seconds later she sneezes.
Ber 4BF	... gibt er ihr ein Taschentuch, Minuten später muss sie niesen.	... he gives her a hankerchief and then she sneezes.
Pikl 4BF	... reicht er einer Frau ein Taschentuch, Sekunden später niest sie.	... Michael gives a handkerchief to a woman – a few seconds later she sneezes.
Elli 4BF	Als die Dame, die eine kurze Ansprache hielt, plötzlich niest hält er ihr bereits ein Taschentuch hin.	... when a woman sneezed he gave her a handkerchief.
Pos 4BM	... als er ihr ein Taschentuch reicht, den wozu – fragt sie sich. Doch man Staune: eine Minute später muss sie tatsächlich niesen.	... Michael F. hands her a handkerchief without any reason and – a minute later she sneezes.
Mra 4BM	... er gibt jener Frau, die die Einleitung zu seiner Präsentation spricht, ein Taschentuch, bevor diese niest.	... he knew that she would have to sneeze and so he gave her a tissue beforehand.
Stie 4BM	Bevor **eine Dame niesen muss**, gibt er ihr ein Taschentuch um sich zu schneuzen.	... while someone is introducing him, he foresees that **she will need a tissue.**
EdJ 4BM	General summary – No predictions	General summary – No predictions
Kreu 4BM	General summary – No predictions	Mr. Fortune knows when people are about to sneeze and gives 'em a tissue
ScF 4BM	/	/
Ziet 4BM	/	/

Table 14. Bilingual students: Prediction B: *overhead projector*

St.	German	English
Kast 3BF	... hat eine Taschenlampe mit weil der Overhead kaputtgeht	... having a torch with him, because the overhead projector didn't work
Eisl 3BF	Dann schaltete er den Overhead-Projektor, doch die Lampe war kaputt. Michael hatte eine Taschenlampe mit	... the light in the projector was out of work but he had a torch with him and used it instead.
Arne 3BF	General summary – describing the presenter's ability to be prepared for the unexpected events which is in line with the content of his narrative (e.g., how businesses have to be prepared for the changes on the market)	General summary – describing the presenter's ability to be prepared for the unexpected events which is in line with the content of his narrative (e.g., how businesses have to be prepared for the changes on the market)
Hain 3BF	General summary	General summary
Kap 3BF	Dann fällt der Overhead Projector aus, aber Michael kann ihn mit einer **mitgebrachten Taschenlampe** reparieren	Michael switches on the projector, but then the pulb doesn't work. However, Michael is prepared and takes **a flash** instead of that.
Koll 3BF	Als der Overhead kaputtgeht, hat er eine Taschenlampe dabei	When he wants to use the projector it doesn't work – no problem for Michael Fortune; he uses a torch
Höll 3BF	kann **die kaputte Lampe des Overheads** durch seine Taschenlampe ersetzen	has a flashlight in his suitcase as **the protector doesn't work**
Reh 3BF	als eine Glühbirne ausbrennt, holt er eine neue aus seinem Rucksack	the bulb burns out, he just takes a new one out of his backpack
Thal 3BF	Den Overheadprojektor, der nicht funktioniert, kann er reparieren ...	he is able to repair the overhead projector which has broken down
Ren 3BF	Dann Overheadprojektor wird kaputt, er kann ihn richten.	the projector breaks down but he's also prepared for this because he's a pocket lamp with him.

St.	German	English
Prim 3BF	... doch der Overheadprojektor ist kaputt. Doch Michael Fortune ist vorbereitet und nimmt eine Taschenlampe aus der Tasche.	The projector doesn't work but Michael Fortune is prepared. He takes a torch out of his briefcase in order to make the projector work again.
EdS 3BF	/DID NOT MENTION	as the projector broke down he could easily handle it
Wah 3BM	... der Overhead-Projektor nicht mehr funktioniert, benützt er die mitgebrachte Taschenlampe	He uses a torch instead of the projector which has broken down
Mai 3BM	... dass der Overhead kaputt gehen wird ... wie man **den Overhead** repariert	that the overhead **protector** won't work ... how to repare **the overhead**
Sejk 3BM	... wird auch noch der Overhead Projektor kaputt. Ihm wird zwar Hilfe angeboten, doch er hat bereits eine neue Birne dabei.	... the overhead projector breaks down but M. doesn't need any help because he has got a new lamp on him.
ScT 3BM	/DID NOT MENTION	the flash-light
Satt 3BM	hatte eine Lampe dabei um den Projektor wieder in Gang zu setzen	the projector **refused working**
Prill 4BF	. Doch anstatt das Angebot eines funktonierenden Gerätes anzunehmen, holte er eine Taschenlampe aus seiner Tasche und legte diese in **den Projektor**.	**The overhead** broke down and the secretary wanted to replace it, but he was prepared also for this interruption. He replaced the damaged light by a light he took out of his pocket.
Reit 4BF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Nag 4BF	/DID NOT MENTION	the overhead projector gets damaged ... but Michael is prepared; he has a second light with him.
Putz 4BF	... fiel der Overheadprojektor aus. Doch Michael wußte es vorher, und so konnte er ihn schnell reparieren.	... the overhead projector broke down, but Michael was prepared and repaired it immediately.

St.	German	English
Shof 4BF	... und will eine Folie am Projektor zeigen, doch als er ihm einschaltet **fällt das Licht aus**. Als Ersatz nimmt er dafür einfach eine Taschenlampe.	... he put the transparency on the projector **it was out of order.** To get things done he took a torch to get some light for the projector.
Nop 4BF	... auf einer Overheadfolie. Plötzlich fällt das Licht aus. Doch Herr F ist auch dieser Situation gewachsen, nimmt **eine Taschenlampe** aus seinem Koffer und beleuchtet damit die Folie.	..., but the light goes off. However, Mr. F. seems to be prepared for everything, he's got **a little lamp** with him to repair it instantly.
Ber 4BF	Der Projector geht plötzlich nicht mehr, doch Mr. Fortune hat **ein Ersatzteil** mit,...	... the projector breaks down, but Mr. Fortune has **a remittance** for the thing has to be repaired.
Pikl 4BF	Als **der Overhead-Projektor ausfällt** öffnet Michael seinen Koffer und holt eine Taschenlampe heraus, welche es ihm ermöglicht seine Folien auf der Wand zu projezieren.	As **the projector has a problem and doesn't work**, he takes a torch out of his suitcase which makes it possible to project the transparencies on the wall.
Elli 4BF	... er den Overhead P. benützen möchte, **fällt natürlich die Lampe aus** – doch auch das ist für M.F. kein Problem: er hat ja schließlich seine Taschenlampe dabei!	... **something with the overhead projector went wrong** – but no problem for M.Fortune: he just took a torch of his case.
Pos 4BM LIT. TR.	... schaltet **der Overhead Projektor** ein – doch – oh weh, dieser **funktioniert nicht**. Natürlich hat Mr. Superman Fortune seine Taschenlampe eingepackt und im Handumdrehen den Apparat repariert.	... **the overhead projector goes damaged**, but, being prepared to everything, Mr. F. has brought along a torch in order to repare it.
Mra 4BM	... repariert den defekten Overhead-Projektor mit seiner mitgebrachten Taschen-lampe ...	... he repaired the overhead projector with a pocket lamp ...
Stie 4BM	Da der Overhead-Projektor nicht funktioniert, verwendet er seine Taschenlampe.	As the overheadprojector doesn't work he's prepared and uses his torch.

St.	German	English
EdJ 4BM	General summary – No predictions	General summary – No predictions
Kreu 4BM	General summary – No predictions	He's prepared in case the overhead project strikes ...
ScF 4BM Good texts	... wie z. B. das Ausbrennen der Overheadlampe sofort löst.	/DID NOT MENTION
Ziet 4BM	/DID NOT MENTION	... the projector blows up when he switches it on. Again he is prepared and fixes the projector by plugging in some kind of gadget (?)

Table 15. Bilingual students: Prediction C: *coffee machine*

St.	German	English
Kast 3BF	... er hat <u>**eine Thermoskanne Kaffee**</u> mit, weil während seinem Vortrag <u>die Kaffeemaschine</u> explodiert	All the guests were very astonished as <u>the coffee machine</u> exploded, but <u>**he brought some coffee with him**</u>
Eisl 3BF	M. nahm auch <u>**eine Kanne Kaffee**</u> mit, da er voraussah, dass <u>die Kaffeemaschine</u> explodieren will.	... that the <u>coffee-machine</u> would explode and so he took <u>**a bottle of coffee**</u> with him
Arne 3BF	General summary – describing the presenter's ability to be prepared for the unexpected events which is in line with the content of his narrative (e.g., how businesses have to be prepared for the changes on the market	General summary – describing the presenter's ability to be prepared for the unexpected events which is in line with the content of his narrative (e.g., how businesses have to be prepared for the changes on the market
Hain 3BF	General summary	General summary
Kap 3BF	... explodiert noch <u>die Kaffeemaschine</u>, aber Michael **hat eine mitgebracht.**	... presentation <u>the coffee machine</u> explodes, but, Michael has one with him.
Koll 3BF	Außerdem hat er Kaffee in **einer Thermoskanne** dabei, als <u>die Kaffeemaschine</u> explodiert.	... <u>the coffee-machine</u> suddenly explodes – luckily Michael **has taken some coffee with him.**

St.	German	English
Höll 3BF	hat er **eine Kanne Kaffee** bei sich da er darauf vorbereitet ist, dass die Kaffeemaschine explodiert	brings **a can of coffee** with him because the coffee machine explodes
Reh 3BF	... explodiert die Kaffeemaschine und er holt eine neue hervor.	... the coffee machine explodes – of course, there's a solution for this problem. Mr. Fortune takes a new one out of his backpack.
Thal 3BF	... für die explodierte Kaffeemaschine hat er Ersatz	... he has got substitute for the exploided coffee machine
Ren 3BF	er hat gewusst, dass die Kaffeemaschine kaputt geht.	the coffee machine explodes, the same time he takes out a bottle of coffee.
Prim 3BF	Plötzlich explodiert die Kaffeemaschine, doch Michael Fortune hat **seinen eigenen Kaffee mit**	... speech the coffe machine breaks down. However Michael Fortune has brought **his own bottle with coffee** with him.
EdS 3BF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Wah 3BM	wie er versorglich **eine Kaffeekanne** mitgenommen hat	he has got **some coffee**
Mai 3BM	dass die Kaffeemaschine explodieren wird ... er hat **eine Kaffeekanne** mit	that the coffee machine will explode ... he brought **a coffee can** with him
Sejk 3BM	explodiert die Kaffeemaschine und M. holt eine neue aus seiner Tasche.	the coffee machine explodes and M. takes a new one out of his bag.
ScT 3BM	das Explodieren der Kaffee-Maschine	the coffee-machine
Satt 3BM	/DID NOT MENTION	that the coffeemachine exploded
Prill 4BF	die Kaffeemaschine explodierte mit einem lauten Knall. Aber natürlich hatte Herr Fortune auch für dieses Problem eine Lösung. Er hatte seine eigene Thermoskanne mitgebracht.	/DID NOT MENTION
Reit 4BF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Nag 4BF	/DID NOT MENTION	He even has his own coffee with him. He knew that the coffee machine could explode.

St.	German	English
Putz 4BF	passierte mit der Kaffeemaschine. Es gab einen Kurzschluß, aber Michael hatte **seine eigene Thermoskanne mit Kaffee** dabei.	the coffee machine broke down, and again, Michael was prepared and had **his own coffee** with him.
Shof 4BF	... explodiert die Kaffeemaschine. Er nimmt nur ruhig **eine Kaffeekanne** aus seinem Koffer ...	... the coffee machine explodes but he took out **a coffee can** ...
Nop 4BF	Plötzlich explodiert etwas. Eine Frau aus dem erschrockenen Publikum möchte daraufhin **eine Tasse Kaffee**, die Herr F. natürlich sofort bereit hat.	... something explodes and a woman says that she would need a cup of coffee. Mr.F. has **a can of coffee** that he gives to her.
Ber 4BF	... die Kaffeemaschine kaputt wird hat Mr. Fortune natürlich auch eine Lösung dieses Problems parat – er hat selbst Kaffee mitgebracht.	... the coffee machine breaks down, but this is no problem, because Mr. Fortune was prepared and has taken coffee with him.
Pikl 4BF	Plötzlich explodiert die Kaffee-Maschine, zum Erstaunen aller Beteiligten holt Michael **seine eigene Thermoskanne** hervor.	... when the coffee-machine suddenly explodes, Michael puts **his own coffee**, which he had already prepared, on the table.
Elli 4BF	Als am Ende auch noch die Kaffeemaschine explodiert, sind die Zuhörer nicht minder überrascht, dass Herr Fortune **eine Thermoskanne mit Kaffee** aus seinem Koffer zaubert.	Finally the coffee-machine exploded but he has already prepared **some coffee** ...
Pos 4BM	... es war die Kaffeemaschine die explodiert ist. Wie könnte es anders sein – Michael F. hat an das gedacht und sogar **eine Thermoskanne voll Kaffee** mitgenommen.	... the coffee machine suddenly explodes. However, Mr. F. has taken **a coffee can** with him.

St.	German	English
Mra 4BM	... dass <u>die Kaffeemaschine</u> explodieren würde und brachte **seine eigene Thermoskanne Kaffee** mit.	... he had brought **a bottle of coffee**, knewing that <u>the local coffee-machine</u> would explode.
Stie 4BM	Plötzlich explodiert <u>die Kaffee-maschine</u>, doch er holt aus seinem Koffer **eine Flasche mit Kaffee** heraus.	At this moment <u>the coffee-machine</u> explodes. But he's prepared again and shows the audience **his own bottle of coffee.**
EdJ 4BM	General summary – No predictions	General summary – No predictions
Kreu 4BM	General summary – No predictions	He's prepared in case the coffee machine strikes.
ScF 4BM	... dass **er Kaffee in einer Thermoskanne mitbringt**, da er vorhersah wie die dortige <u>Kaffemaschine</u> ausbrannte.	... when <u>the coffee mashine</u> blows up he already got out **his previously prepared coffee.**
Ziet 4BM	/	... during them the coffee machine blows up with a loud noise. Again he is prepared, he takes out a bottle of coffee.

NON-BILINGUAL STUDENTS

There were 36 non-bilingual students in the sample.

The tables include predictions A, B and C:

- Prediction A: *sneeze*
- Prediction B: *overhead projector*
- Prediction C: coffee machine

Table 16. Non-bilingual students: Prediction A: *sneeze*[6]

St.	German	English
Klei 3NF	Er hielt der Sekretärin ein Taschentuch ein und sie wusste aber nicht recht, was das soll und auf einmal **musste sie niesen**.	... he gave the secretary a handcerchief and she didn't know what to do with and suddenly **her nose ran**.
Dez 3NF	Er gab einer anderen Dame **ein Taschentuch** noch bevor **sie niesen musste.**	He gave the secretary **a light** before **her nose began to run.**
Mac 3NF	... er reicht ihr ein Taschentuch. Plötzlich **muss die Frau niesen.**	Michael gives her a handcerchief and some seconds later **she needs it.**
Wir 3NF	Z.B. während dem Vortrag weiß er schon, dass das Telefon läuten wird und noch andere verrückte Dinge. (Leider keine Zeit alle aufzuzählen.)	It's crazy because he gave a woman a handship before she needed it.
Ell 3NF	Während der Präsentation hätte eine Person **ein Taschentuch gebraucht**, doch bevor sie es wußte hielt sie ein Taschentuch in ihren Händen.	The person, who made the intuduction was given a hankerchief **before sniezing.**
Tot 3NF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION

[6] Explanation of abbreviations in Table 6, 17 and 18: 3NF (3rd-year non-bilingual student: female), 3NM (3rd-year non-bilingual student: male), 4NF (4th-year non-bilingual student: female), 4NM (4th-year non-bilingual student: male)

St.	German	English
Eki 3NF	Michael überreicht ihr **eine Serviette**. Sie weiß nicht was sie damit tun soll, aber in wenigen **Minuten muss sie nießen.**	After if his secretary begin to talk he give her a handcechef and **his nose run** in the next seconds.
Bra 3NM	Dann später holt er der Sekretärin, die ihn gerade vorstellt, **ein Taschentuch** hin. Ein paar Sekunden später **fängt sie zu nießen an.**	... he gives her **a peace of paper** which she needs a few seconds later because **her nose ist starting to run.**
Wiz 3NM	... aber zuerst gab er noch ein Taschentuch der Sekretärin, weil **sie niesen musste.**	The second prediction was that he **takes a handcarechief** to the secretary.
Pöll 3NM	Dann gab er seiner Sekretärin ein Taschentuch, weil **sie** 2 Sekunden später **genießt hat.**	Then he gave his secretary a handkerchief.
Frei 3NM	... reichte er ihr plötzlich ein Taschentuch, welches sie Sekunden später benötigte.	He suddenly gave her a hankerchief which was necessary seconds later.
Las 3NM	Er gab ihr ein Taschentuch und kurz darauf **musste sie nießen.**	M.F. gave her a handkerchief and after that **she plessed (?)**
Kiss 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Gall 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Wol 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Mar 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Her 3NM Cd-Sw	Plötzlich gab Mich.F. der Frau ein Taschentuch, sie war zuerst sehr verwundert, doch plötzlich **musste sie nießen.**	... and few minutes later he gave a woman a Taschentuch but **he hadn't geniest.**
Har 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Prol 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	During the presentation he predicted that the woman will need a snofrach,...
Fra 3NM Gram. mist.	Als die Dame ihn vorstellen wollte reichte ihr Micheal ein Taschentuch. Wenige Sekunden später **musste die** Dame **nießen.**	... he was giving her a handkerchief. Seconds later, **she need that handkerchief**.

St.	German	English
Ber 4NF Wo Co	... da er seiner Assistentin ein Taschentuch reichte, obwohl sie nicht genießt hat, doch kurz darauf geschah das unwahrscheinliche **sie nießte** und benutzte sein Taschentuch.	... he gave her a tissue before **she had nosen**.
Mau 4NF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Wim 4NF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Hal 4NF	Er gibt zum Beispiel einer Frau ein Taschentuch und eine Minute später **muss sie nießen**.	At the beginning of his presentation he gives a woman a hankerchief and after one minute **she needs it.**
EdK 4NF	Plötzlich gibt ihr Herr Fortune ein Taschentuch und kurz darauf **muss sie** wirklich **niesen.**	... and suddenly Mr. Fortune gives her a hankerchief. In the next moment **she needs it.**
Küh 4NF Cd-Sw	... während dessen gibt er ihr ein Taschentuch und ein paar Sekunden später **muss sie nießen.**	... he gave her an handkerchief and a minute later **she began to nees (niesen).**
Kam 4NF	... und der Manager reicht ihr ein Taschentuch. Zuerst wundert sie sich doch dann **muß sie** tatsächlich **nießen**.	... and sudenly he gives her a handkerchief, she is a little bit worried but than **she has to use it.**
Bay 4NF	Er reicht der Frau ein Taschentuch und **diese muss** wirklich kurze Zeit später **nießen**,...	Suddenly he gives a handkerchief to the woman and a few seconds later **she needed it.**
Aus 4NF	Er gibt ihr ohne Grund ein Taschentuch, doch kurz darauf muss die Frau nießen.	He predicted that she sneezed and gave her a hancerchief.
Olli 4NF	... um ihr ein Taschentuch zu reichen. Erstaunt nimmt sie es an und schon kurz darauf **muss sie nießen.**	She had a cold and M.F. gave her a handkerchif.
Jöb 4NF	Firmenmanagerin gibt er ihr ganz plötzlich ein Taschentücher. **Sie** blickt ihn verwundert an, **muss** aber kurz darauf tatsächlich **niesen.**	Fortune gives her a handkerchieve. Suddenly **she needs it.**

St.	German	English
Feld 4NF	Er reicht ihr ein Taschentuch. Verwundert nimmt sie es und kurz darauf muss sie nießen.	During a lady was intructing him he gave her a handgerchief and seconds later she sneezed.
Pols 4NM	Weiters erkennt er einen Nieser,...	He knew that a woman would sneeze in order to help her he gave her a handkerchief.
ScD 4NM Not Com-plete	Die anderen fünf Sachen waren: ... und ein Taschentuch.	The 5 other were: ..., handkerchief,...
Hec 4NM Not Com-Plete	Zuerst benötigt er ..., dann ein 4-lagiges Papiertaschentuch,...	The 6 accidents were ...,... the handkerchiefs,...
Pirk 4NM	Bis der Firma angekommen, gibt er einer Frau ein Taschentuch, **die** kurz darauf **niesen muß.**	The next thing was that he gave the woman a handcarechief.

Table 17. Non-bilingual students: Prediction B: *overhead projector*

St.	German	English
Klei 3NF	Dann wollte er eine Folie auflegen und der overhead projektor ging nicht mehr, er packte **eine Taschenlampe** aus und ...	Then he used the overhead projector and the light went off. Then he took out **a light** from his bag,...
Dez 3NF	Als der Overheadprojektor nicht mehr ging, packte er **eine Taschenlampe** aus und benutzte diese anstatt der Glühbirne.	... but the lamp in the overhead projector didn't work, so he used **a hand-lamp**.
Mac 3NF	doch der Overhead war kaputt, aber er war vorbereitet un hatte eine Lampe mit sich.	... but the projector doesn't work, and he has a lamp for it.
Wir 3NF	Z.B. während dem Vortrag weiß er schon, dass das Telefon läuten wird und noch andere verrückte Dinge. (Leider keine Zeit alle aufzuzählen.)	/DID NOT MENTION

St.	German	English
Ell 3NF	Als er **den Overhead** einschaltete, funktionierte er nicht doch Mr.F. wußte genau wie er es zu reparieren hatte.	Minutes later the **prodector** didn't work, but he know exactly how to repaire it.
Tot 3NF	Er hat auch noch andere Dinge vorhergesehen,..., dass der Projektor seinen Geist aufgibt.	/DID NOT MENTION
Eki 3NF	Dann geht **der Overhead** kaputt, Michael nimmt **die Taschenlampe** aus seiner Tasche und	If M.F. talk about the future **the overhead** is damaged. So he take **a forge** from his bag and the overhead will run.
Bra 3NM	Als dann **der Overhead** ausfällt, nimmt er **eine Taschenlampe** zur Hand,...	The next prediction he gives is that **the overhead protector** breaks down. No matter for M.Fortune, because he takes **a forge** out of his bag.
Wiz 3NM	Dann ging **der Overhead** nicht, doch das war kein Problem weil er eine Taschenlampe dabei hatte.	Then **the protector** doesn't work but he has a lamp and so it works.
Pöll 3NM	Beim **Overhead** wird die Lampe kaputt und er tauscht sie sofort aus und legt seine Taschenlampe hinein.	The third predict was that the lamp of **the overhead** doesn't work any more and Micheal put a new lamp in it.
Frei 3NM	Während er seine Folien präsentierte, setzte der Projektor aus. So nahm er eine Taschenlampe und projezierte die Folien.	Later the ________ didn't work so he put a light to present the facts.
Las 3NM	... plötzlich **fiel** die Glühbirne des Overheadprojektors **aus**. Kein Problem für ihn, er holte eine Taschenlampe aus seinem Koffer und benutzte diese als Ersatz.	... the projector **went down**. No problem because he had a pocket light with him.
Kiss 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Gall 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION

St.	German	English
Wol 3NM	Danach geht **der Overhead-Projektor** kaputt und er hat die Ersatzteile um ihn zu reparieren.	Then **the overhead** explode and he repaired it.
Mar 3NM	Als er die erste Folie auflegten wollte, ging auf einmal **der Over-Head-Projektor** nicht mehr aber er reparierte ihn mit **einem eigenartigen Gerät** selbst.	... **the protector** broke down but he repaired it himself **with a strange thing.**
Her 3NM	... er wusste dass <u>der Overhead</u> kaputt gehen würde so hatte er <u>eine Taschenlampe,...</u>	... that <u>the lamp</u> in <u>the projector</u> didn't work so he had a new one.
Har 3NM	Das Licht **des Overhead-Projektors** <u>ging aus</u> und er legte <u>eine Taschenlampe</u> hinein.	As the lights of **the prodector** <u>went out</u> he put <u>a pocket lamp</u> into the prodector and ...
Prol 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	He had the tools and things with him to repare the projector which suddenly explods.
Fra 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Ber 4NF	Als er **der Overheadprojektor** benutzen wollte, funktionierte dieser nicht, doch er verblüffte das Publikum, als er ein Reserveteil aus seinem Aktenkoffer holte und so dieser damit repariert war.	He wanted to use **the ourhead projector** but it didn't function. It seemed that Michael Fortune had known that there were problems with it, because he could repaire it.
Mau 4NF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Wim 4NF	Am Anfang seiner Präsentation geht <u>der Overhead-Projektor</u> kaputt. Doch auch das hat er eingeplant.	After that he started <u>the projector</u>, but the lamp in it exploded. He put a pocket lamp under the glass ...
Hal 4NF	/DID NOT MENTION	During the presentation he wants to use the overhead projector ... but the projector is out of order. Michael Fortune keeps cool and takes a light out of his bag.

St.	German	English
EdK 4NF	Dann möchte er Folien auf <u>der Overhead</u> legen, doch dieser funktioniert nicht. Auch daran hat er gedacht und legt **eine Taschenlampe**, die er mit hat, hinein.	He wants to take <u>the overhead projector</u> but he doesn't work. Also that he knows and he takes **a little light** from his bag.
Küh 4NF	Als er **den Overhead** benutzen will, fällt dieser aus. Doch er hat die Lösung, er nimmt <u>eine Taschenlampe</u> aus seinem Koffer und legt sie in den Overhead.	Afterwards he needed **the overhead** which doesn't function, but he had a solution. He **caught** <u>a lamp</u> out of his suitcase and put it in the overhead.
Kam 4NF	Kurz darauf legt er eine Folie auf und will **den Overhead-Projektor** benützen doch dieser fällt aus. Doch er weiß sich zu helfen und installiert <u>eine Taschenlampe</u> und fährt fort.	... he turns on **the procetetor** to show four words, but it doesn't work. So he puts <u>a poket light</u> into the projector and continues.
Bay 4NF	Dann geht plötzlich <u>der Overhead-Projektor</u> kaputt, doch er hat wie immer eine Lösung parat.	Also <u>the overhead projector</u> **is destroyed** and he has a solution for this problem.
Aus 4NF	... plötzlich fällt <u>der Overhead</u> aus. Doch auch das hat er vorausgesehen. Er holt <u>eine Ersatzlampe</u> heraus und gibt sie in den Overhead.	Then <u>the projector</u> **get destroyed**, but also this thing did he predict and so he put in <u>a lamp</u>.
Olli 4NF	Kurz darauf brennt das Licht **des Overheads** durch doch M.F. ist gut ausgerüstet und packt <u>seine Taschenlampe</u> aus, die er dann in den Overhead einbaut.	**The overhead** also got broken but he had <u>a pocket light</u> with him.
Jöb 4NF	Plötzlich explodiert **die Lampe** <u>im Overhead Projektor</u>. Herr Fortune hat natürlich <u>eine Taschenlampe</u> als Ersatz mit.	All of a sudden **the light** of <u>the overhead projector</u> explodes. But Fortune has <u>a pocket light.</u>
Feld 4NF	Kurz darauf **<u>gibt</u> der Overhead projektor <u>seinen Geist auf</u>**, doch Michael Fortune zieht **eine Taschenlampe** aus seiner Tasche und setzt ihn so wieder in Gang.	... while **the overhead protector <u>gave up life</u>**. He took **a small light** from his bag and repaired the protector.

St.	German	English
Pols 4NM	Weiters erkennt er ..., einen kapputten Projektor und ...	He also predicted ... **the destruction** of a projector ...
ScD 4NM 4NM	Die anderen fünf Sachen waren: ..., **der Overhead,....**	The 5 other were: ..., **the overhead** and ...
Hec 4NM	... dann brennt **der Overhead** durch,...	The 6 accidents were ...,.... and **the overhead.**
Pirk 4NM	Als Nächstes bricht **der Overhead** zusammen, doch er hat eine Taschenlampe mit und ...	Then **the overhead** break down, he asked the man.

Table 18. Non-bilingual students: Prediction C: *coffee machine*

St.	German	English
Klei 3NF	Nächstes machte es einen lauten Knall und die Kaffeemaschine war kaputt. Er hatte es natürlich gewusst und packte seine **Thermoskanne** aus.	... that the coffee machine exploded and he put out **a bottle with coffee** from his bag,
Dez 3NF	Plötzlich explodierte die Kaffeemaschine, aber Michael hatte **seine eigene Thermoskanne mit Kaffee mit**.	Suddenly the coffemachine explored, he had brought in **his own coffe.**
Mac 3NF	Zum Ende der Präsentation explodierte die Kaffeemaschine und er packte **eine Kanne** aus.	Then suddenly the coffee-maker explodes but he has **a can** for it.

St.	German	English
Wir 3NF	Z.B. während dem Vortrag weiß er schon, dass das Telefon läuten wird und noch andere verrückte Dinge. (Leider keine Zeit alle aufzuzählen.)	the cafemashine exploded and so they couldn't drink café, but Mr. Forger had some café with him.
Ell 3NF	Danach wollte jemand eine Tasse Kaffee, er hatte natürlich schon einen fertigen Kaffee in seinem Gepäck.	When somebody wants a cup of coffee he has **some coffee** with him.
Tot 3NF	Er hat auch noch andere Dinge vorhergesehen,..., dass die Kaffeemaschine kaputt gehe und auch,...	/DID NOT MENTION
Eki 3NF	Während er weiter redet, geht die Kaffeemaschine kaputt, er holt aus seiner Tasche **die Thermoskanne.**	After the coffeemachine is also damaged, so he take **his own coffee** from his bag.
Bra 3NM	Das Selbe passiert auch wenn die Kaffeemaschine explodiert,...	Then the coffee machine explodes and Mr.F. takes out **a bottle of coffee.**
Wiz 3NM	Dann explodierte die Kaffeemaschine, doch kein Problem, er hatte welchen mit.	Then the coffee machine explodes but M.F. **has one.**
Pöll 3NM	Die Kaffeemaschine explodiert plötzlich und Michael packt aus seiner Aktentasche eine **volle Kaffeekanne** aus.	The sixth prediction was that the coffee machine explodes and Micheal had had **a new coffee** with him.
Frei 3NM	Minuten später explodierte die Kaffeemachine. Natürlich kein Problem, denn er hatte eine Kaffekanne dabei.	/DID NOT MENTION
Las 3NM	Plötzlich explodierte die Kaffeemaschine. Er packte **eine Kaffeekanne** aus.	Suddenly it made "Bang". The coffee machine exploded. But no problem for Michael Fortune as he took **a cup of coffee** out of his suitcase.
Kiss 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Gall 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION

St.	German	English
Wol 3NM	Später explodiert die Kaffeemaschine und er hat **eine Kanne voll Kaffee** mit.	After that the coffee-machine explode. A woman told him that she would like a cup of coffee. And he had **some coffee** with him.
Mar 3NM	Als die Kaffeemaschine explodierte, holte er seinen eigenen Kaffee heraus,...	After that the coffee mashine broke down, but he took his own coffee with him.
Her 3NM	... er wusste dass die Kaffeemaschine explodiert, so hatte er **eine Termoskanne mit Kaffee.**	... that the coffee machine exploed (so he had **his own coffee)...**
Har 3NM	Als die Kaffeemaschine explodierte, packte er **eine Kaffeekanne** aus,...	... as the coffe-machine exploded he put **a coffe-can** on the table which ... he had taken with him.
Prol 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	And it didn't matter that the coffeemachine went wrong, because he had some coffee in his bag.
Fra 3NM	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Ber 4NF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
Mau 4NF	Während seiner Präsentation explodierte die Kaffeemaschine. Alle wollten nach der Präsentation einen Kaffee trinken und glücklicherweise hatte M.Fortune **eine Kaffeekanne** dabei.	Then the coffee machine exploided and they wanted to drink coffee after the presentation. M. Fortune **had coffee with him.**
Wim 4NF	Plötzlilch explodiert die Kaffeemaschine, aber auch darauf ist er vorbereitet. Er hat eine Thermoskanne mit Kaffee in seinem Koffer.	Then the coffee mashine exploded.
Hal 4NF	/DID NOT MENTION	/DID NOT MENTION
EdK 4NF	In diesem Moment explodiert der Kaffeeautomat und er hat **eine Thermoskanne** in seinem Koffer.	Suddenly the coffee machine explose. But that's no problem for him, because he has **a coffee** with him.
Küh 4NF	Eine Weile später explodiert die Kaffeemaschine.	... the coffee machine exploded, but he had **some coffee** with him.

St.	German	English
Kam 4NF	Es passiert noch einige solche Vorfälle und alle sind erstaunt.	/DID NOT MENTION
Bay 4NF	/DID NOT MENTION	Suddenly the coffee machine exploded and what did ________ ? He took a bottle with coffee out of his ________?.
Aus 4NF	Danach explodiert <u>die Kaffeemaschine.</u> Doch er hat **Kaffee in einer Thermoskanne** mitgebracht.	Some minutes later <u>the coffemachine</u> explode but he had known that before and brought **a bottle of coffe** with him.
Olli 4NF	Zuletzt explodiert noch der Kaffeeautomat. Daraufhin packt M.F. seine Kaffeekanne aus,...	A last the coffee burnt and Mr. Fortune took his bootle out.
Jöb 4NF	... und <u>die Kaffeemaschine</u> ist kaputt. Herr Fortune hat natürlich **seine eigene Kaffeekanne** mit.	... <u>the coffee machine</u> gets damaged. For sure Fortune has **his own coffee.**
Feld 4NF	... die Kaffemaschine, welche zuvor eingeschaltet wurde, explodiert mehr oder weniger. Auch hier weiß Mr. Fortune Abhilfe. Er zieht eine Thermoskanne mit Kaffee aus seiner Tasche.	Before the presentation someone turned on the coffe machine and suddenly it "exploded". No problem for Michael Fortune. He had his own coffe can in **his bab**.
Pols 4NM	Weiters erkennt er ... und eine Kaffeemaschine.	He also predicted ... a coffeemaker ...
ScD 4NM 4NM	Die anderen fünf Sachen waren: ..., die Kaffeemaschine,...	The 5 other were: ... and the coffee machine.
Hec 4NM	... es zerreisst die Maschine für Kaffee und ...	The 6 accidents were ......, coffee machine,...
Pirk 4NM	Dann bricht die Kaffeemaschine zusammen, doch er hat seine eigenen Kaffee mit.	The coffee-machine broke down and ...

Most males in the sample did not like the presenter and his predictions. His predictions were meant to show businesspeople in the audience that it is essential for companies to be prepared for unexpected changes on the market. Furthermore, the presenter's unusual solutions were also meant to entertain the viewers because humour is very important for motivating students to follow the story and then write the summaries. Nevertheless, Mr. Fortune's predictions really are a bit exaggerated.

For example, most summaries written by males have a slightly cynical and ironic tone (e.g., Schofner DanielSch 4NM: "Ich glaube, dass die Leute in der Firma dachten, das Michael Fortune ein Prophet bzw. ein Sohn Gottes war").

In comparison to the males, the females were obviously fascinated by the video story and showed a more "serious" approach. As a result, they produced longer and more elaborate summaries. Also, ironic tone in the summaries was not used in the texts written by females.

After the students watched the video twice and wrote the English summary, they probably lost their initial interest, when they were also asked to write the German summary at the end. Specifically, in many German summaries certain predictions were not repeated:

- Rennert (bilingual student) wrote *a bottle of coffee* in English, but did not use the German word *Kaffeekanne* in the German text. Also *mouth spray* is mentioned only in the English text, but not in the German text

- EderS included *overhead projector* only in the English text but left it out in a very short German text

Other reasons for avoiding predictions in their second writing task could be attributed to the fact that the German text was written at the end of class, and thus the students were in a hurry. It is also possible that they were tired of watching the video twice and then writing two summaries.

Table 19 shows the number of students that wrote a correct description of *a sneeze* by using the correct word in English without using any communication strategies, and the number of students that used specific communication strategies.

Table 19. Solutions for *a sneeze*

		No. of BLG sts	%		No. of NBLG sts	%	
	Well described prediction - Correct, acceptable vocab., no spelling mistakes, no communication strategies	19	57%		0	0%	
	Well described prediction - Acceptable vocabulary but spelling mistakes	0	0%		16	44%	
	General summary - None of the predictions mentioned	1			0		
	The prediction about sneezing not mentioned - In both texts	6			8		
	The prediction missing in the English text - Only in German text	0			0		
	Avoidance - *A sneeze* missing in the English text (incomplete description) - *A sneeze* only in the German text	0			4		
	A sneeze missing in the German text - Only English text (to avoid repeating it again in German?)	2			2		
L1	Literal translation	0	0% L1		4	11% L1	
L1	Code-switching	0			4		
L2	Paraphrase	3	9% L2		7	19% L2	
	Paraphrase (grammar mistake)	0			1		
L2	Word coinage	0			1		
	Bathtub effect (only beginnings of words)	2			1		
	Bathtub effect (beginnings + ends of words)	0			0		
	Nonexistent words (like bathtub effect: the beginning of words)	0			3		
	No. of cases	**33**			**36**		

A total of 67% bilingual students (19 bilingual students used perfect descriptions + 3 paraphrased the word correctly = 22 students) successfully described this event or prediction. I considered a well-paraphrased description an acceptable solution even though a particular lexical item was not applied.

All non-bilingual students that used appropriate vocabulary made spelling mistakes (e.g., *handkerchief*, *sneeze*). Even among the seven students that used paraphrases there were grammar mistakes.

Table 20 shows the number of students that wrote a correct description of *an overhead projector* by using the correct word in English without using any communication strategies, and the number of students that used specific communication strategies.

Table 20. Solutions for *an overhead projector*

		No. of BLG sts	%		No. of NBLG sts	%	
	Well described prediction - Correct, acceptable vocab., no spelling mistakes, no communication strategies	12	36%		3	8%	
	Well described prediction - Acceptable vocabulary but spelling mistakes	0	0%		6	17%	
	General summary - None of the predictions mentioned	1			0		
	An OHP not mentioned - In both texts	3			5		
	The prediction missing in the English text - Only in the German text	1			1		
	Avoidance - *A flashlight* and/or *lamp* missing in the English text - How he repaired the OHP described only in the German text	0			2		
	An OHP missing in the German text - Only English text (to avoid repeating it again in German?)	5	15%		2	5%	
L1	Literal translation	1	3% L1		2	5%	
L1	Code-switching/language transfer	2	6%		8	22%	
	Positive transfer	0			1		
L2	Paraphrase	3	9% L2		0		
L2	Word coinage	0			1		
L2	Generalisation or approximation	1			5		
	L2 interference	1			0		
	Bathtub effect (only beginnings of words)	0			0		
	Real bathtub effect (beginnings + ends of words)	2			4		
	Bathtub effect (beginnings + ends of words) **But nonexistent words**	0			3		
	Nonexistent words	1			0		
	Inappropriate L2 word	1			4		
	No. of cases	**33**			**36**		

Even though there were some clear occurrences of avoidance strategy (e.g., space missing and a question mark), these examples are not analysed and cannot be trusted, because in many English scripts subjects used an appropriate expression or paraphrase, but left it out completely in the German version.

Table 21 shows the number of students that wrote a correct description of *a coffee machine* by using the correct word in English without using any communication strategies, and the number of students that used specific communication strategies.

Table 21. Solutions for *a coffee machine*

		No. of BLG sts.	%		No. of NBLG sts.	%	
	Well described prediction - Correct, acceptable vocab., no spelling mistakes, no communication strategies	5	15%		1	3%	
	Well described prediction - Acceptable vocabulary but spelling mistakes	4	12%		12	33%	
	General summary - None of the predictions mentioned	1			0		
	The prediction about the coffee machine not mentioned - In both texts	4			5		
	The prediction missing in the English text - Only in German text	1			1		
	Avoidance - *Coffee machine* missing in the English text - *Coffee machine* only in the German text - Empty spaces left (clear avoidance strategy)	0			4		
	Coffee machine missing in the German text - Only English text (to avoid repeating it again in German?)	4			2		
L1	Literal translation	0			0		
L1	Code-switching	0			0		
L1	Foreignising	5	15% L1		2	5% L1	
L2	Paraphrase	0			0		
L2	Word coinage	0			0		
L2	Generalisation or approximation	11	33% L2		14	39% L2	
	Bathtub effect (only beginnings of words)	0			0		
	Bathtub effect (beginnings + ends of words)	0			0		

		No. of BLG sts.	%		No. of NBLG sts.	%	
	Like bathtub effect (beginning of words), nonexistent words	0			2		
	Very short (e.g., only *coffee machine* mentioned)	0			6		
	No. of cases	**33**			**36**		

My expectation that there are occurrences of avoidance strategy cannot be proved because in describing all three events, there were students who did not mention these events in their ideal German versions. I strongly believe they did not want to mention them again after they already described them in the English text.

In the following chapter, the students' use of achievement strategies will be analysed.

9.7.4.2 THE USE OF L1 AND L2 ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES

The use of achievement strategies is already evident in the last three tables, but in this section they are examined more closely and are therefore divided into L1 communication strategies and L2 communication strategies used in describing all three words.

Table 22 shows the subjects' use of L1 communication strategies in describing all three words.

Table 22. Occurrences of L1 communication strategies

	BLG students	%	NBLG students	%
Literal translation	1	3%	6	17%
Language transfer/code-switching	2	6%	12	33%
Positive transfer	0	0%	1	3%
Foreignising	5	15%	2	5%
Total	8	24%	21	58%

On the other hand, Table 23 presents the subjects' use of L2 communication strategies in describing all three words.

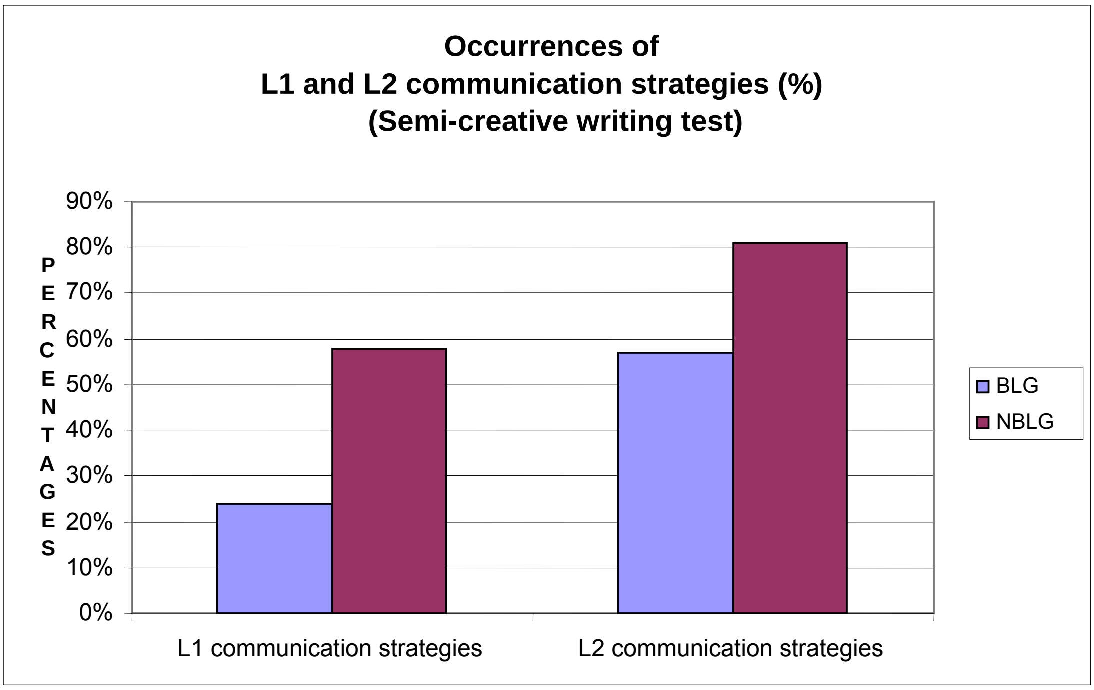
Table 23. Occurrences of L2 communication strategies

	BLG students	%	NBLG students	%
Paraphrase	6	18%	8	22%
Word coinage	0	0%	2	5%
Generalisation/approximation	12	36%	19	53%
L2 interference	1	3%	0	0%
Total	19	57%	29	81%

Large differences between the bilinguals and non-bilinguals were found in the use of L1 communication strategies; more specifically, in the use of codeswitching and literal translations. A total of 33% non-bilingual students applied codeswitching compared to only 6% of bilingual students that used this strategy. Literal translations were found in 17% of non-bilingual and only 3% of bilingual. A total of 15% bilinguals used foreignising compared to only 5% of such cases among non-bilinguals. All in all, L1 communication strategies were applied by 24% of bilingual students, and by a full 58% of non-bilingual students. This result was expected and it supports the results of C-tests in favour of the bilingual students. Namely, research has proved that less-proficient second-language learners tend to use significantly more L1 strategies than more proficient second-language learners.

Among L2 communication strategies, the difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students is not that significant. Nevertheless, the bilinguals were again better, with 57% of occurrences, and the non-bilinguals with 81% of occurrences. Figure 9 presents the occurrences of L1 and L2 communication strategies.

Figure 9. Occurrences of L1 and L2 communication strategies



The use of L2 language communication strategies is also appropriate and quite common among more proficient second-language learners. It cannot be evaluated as a sign of learners' lexical poverty. As a matter of fact, it might even show that there is a wide range of linguistic resources learners are capable of applying. The non-bilingual students were a positive surprise because they were also able to use L2 strategies instead of merely applying words from their native language.

9.7.4.3 OCCURRENCES OF THE "BATHTUB" EFFECT OR MALAPROPISMS IN STUDENTS' WRITTEN SUMMARIES

There is a more detailed discussion on malapropisms in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.

While analysing the written data of the bilingual and non-bilingual students, I also came across unusual mistakes. For instance, I really did not expect the students to have problems with the word *projector* in their descriptions, because the word happens to be the same in their native language. To my surprise, there were students that failed to remember the word *projector*, and so they used the following words: *protector*, **prodector* and **procetetor*. The first word at least exists in English even though it is inappropriate in this case, whereas the second and the third words do not exist. Initially, I did not pay much attention to these errors, but soon I became aware that these are perfect examples of the “bathtub” effect, which is explained in greater details in Chapter 5.

Table 24 shows the occurrences of all “bathtub” effect errors.

Table 24. “Bathtub” effect occurrences

	Bilingual students			Non-bilingual students		
The bathtub effect (beginnings + ends)	►*protector* (2×)	2		►*protector* (4×) ►***prodector* (2×) (from *protector*) ►***procetetor* (from *protector*)	7	
The bathtub effect (only beginnings)	►*to *sneef* (*to sneeze*) ►*She *sniefed* (*she sneezed*)	2		►*He gave her a *light* (from *litter* – it was crossed out) ►***handship* (from *handkerchief*) ►***explose* (from *explode*) ►***his bab* (from *his bag*) ►***snofrach* (from *sneeze*)	5	
The bathtub effect (only the ends)	►***a pulb* (*a bulb*)	1		►*She **plessed* (from *bless you*)	1	
		5	15%		13	36%
	1 nonexistent word		3%	8 nonexistent words		22%
	2 spelling mistakes			1 spelling mistake		

*Spelling mistake
**Nonexistent words

The analysis of occurrences of unusual and interesting errors or malapropisms showed that there were cases in which the beginnings and ends resembled the correct word, cases in which only the beginnings matched the correct expression, and few cases in which the ends seemed like the correct word.

The bilingual students again surpassed the non-bilinguals because the “bathtub” effect was displayed by 15% of them, whereas 36% of non-bilinguals made such errors. Among the students with such errors, only one bilingual student used a nonexistent word (3%); however, eight non-bilingual students (22%) wrote words that could be counted among “bathtub”-effect mistakes, but these are the words that do not exist in English (see Table 24).

9.8 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND FINAL OBSERVATIONS

The analysis of the bilingual students’ written production proved that they are more proficient in writing than the non-bilinguals. They achieved better holistic and analytic scores than the non-bilinguals.

The correlation between the two sets of holistic writing scores showed a high correlation, which makes the scores reliable.

The analysis of analytic scores showed the highest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students in vocabulary use. Furthermore, both groups achieved the best scores in spelling. The analytic score vocabulary is also as high as spelling with the bilinguals, but the non-bilinguals achieved a much lower vocabulary score compared to spelling.

Further analysis of vocabulary use or, more specifically, the use of communication strategies and errors, revealed difficult areas for the non-bilinguals.

The omission of three predictions was supposed to focus on the avoidance communication strategy. However, when analysing the students’ summaries, I found that a missing description of the presenter’s predictions did not necessarily mean that students did not know how to express themselves in English. Surprisingly, there are quite a few cases in which a prediction is described in English but is left out in the German version. In addition, it makes sense to assume that the students did not feel like repeating the same event twice because they had to write English versions first and afterwards the German version.

The use of L1 and L2 achievement strategies proved my expectations because bilingual students relied on L1 and L2 achievement strategies to lesser extent than non-bilingual students. Also, bilingual students did not rely on L1 strategies as much as non-bilingual students (See figure 9). The analysis of the use of L1 strategies revealed the biggest difference between the two groups of subjects mainly in code-switching and literal translations.

The analysis of specific vocabulary errors known as the “bathtub” effect was also in favour of the bilinguals.

All in all, the more detailed analysis of the students’ vocabulary use supports the analytic scores achieved in vocabulary use, for which the greatest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students is detected.

10 ANALYSIS OF PRODUCTION SKILLS: SPEAKING

10.1 CONSTRUCT DEFINITION

The purpose of designing the speaking assessment task was to assess certain facets of the students' speaking competence or, more specifically, their narrative abilities. The students were expected to produce a persuasive, cohesive and coherent narrative in English, their first foreign language.

Persuasiveness in contacts with foreign businesspeople and an ability to demonstrate a high level of soft or social skills in speaking English are two essential pre-requisites for success in business today. The students' abilities in producing persuasive narratives show how convincing they are in using the language of description, which can be involved in narration.

Moreover, both, the quality of cohesion and coherence in the students' narratives, and the students' use of expressions of possibility and vagueness in oral communication, are meant to reveal the subjects' level of pragmatic knowledge.

This construct of a speaking assessment task was implemented by using a picture story task from a TV commercial. Thus, no special business vocabulary was needed to produce a detailed and appropriate narration.

The students were expected to make their oral descriptions vivid, persuasive, fluent, well connected and accurate. They therefore should have been able to use techniques to make their narratives more vivid and persuasive (e.g., describing the feelings of the people in the pictures, adding remarks on the event behind the picture story), fluent and cohesive (e.g., using a wide variety of connectors including expressions of vagueness and possibility as fluency markers), and ultimately also accurate (producing linguistically more or less correct English). However, accuracy is not one of the most important assessment criteria.

The subjects' oral production was assessed by one rater with holistic and analytic scoring. Their narratives were assessed holistically in two sessions over 2 weeks. In order to ensure the reliability of the holistic scoring, the association between the two sets of scores was checked by calculating Pearson's *r*.

The more detailed analysis of oral production in analytic scoring mainly focuses on three criteria: description, cohesion, and fluency. A fourth and minor criterion also includes accuracy. Even though grammatical correctness of the students' spoken production was not my main focus in analysing the narrations, it was included in the analytical grading. Nevertheless, serious grammar mistakes may also have affected the holistic scoring.

10.2 TEST CONTENT

The narrative task designed for this research is meant to check the business students' speaking competences that will help them to function in the business world. Being able to produce a fluent, convincing and well-connected description of the picture story from the Gillette commercial is meant to illustrate how convincing individuals might be in contacts with their business partners to obtain what they want in the business world. Being convincing in selling your products and services in the highly competitive global business market is essential for making a profit and staying competitive.

The students were asked to describe ten pictures taken from the Gillette antiperspirant TV commercial; the eleventh picture shows the Gillette products – here, the students were asked to think of a slogan connected with the whole story. Both the bilingual and non-bilingual students came up with very interesting and unique slogans, but I nevertheless decided that the students' slogans would not be studied in detail because an effective slogan does not reveal only students' speaking skills, but also their inventiveness and creativity which are difficult to assess objectively. For instance, one of the most proficient bilingual students simply could not think of an appropriate slogan for the Gillette products that would be connected with the story because she was too concerned by what she had learned about appropriate slogans in her marketing classes: "... now I am thinking about my marketing lessons ..." (Christina; 4b).

The ten pictures show a story in which a cowboy is riding a horse through a desert, then he is thrown into a canyon by his horse. However, he is able to seize a branch growing from the canyon wall; there he meets a good-looking lady hanging on another branch. The last picture makes it an open-ended story so the students could think of their own ending.

The eleven pictures from the Gillette commercial are reproduced in the appendix because I do not want to be criticised by authors such as Bornens (1990), who claim that many researchers that use pictures in their research choose only to describe the pictures without reproducing the pictures.

10.3 SUBJECTS

There were 48 students in the sample: 24 bilingual and 24 non-bilingual third- and fourth-year students at HAK 1 Salzburg (Bundeshandelsakademie 1 Salzburg).

Due to time constraints, I was allowed to record twelve students per class, which I believed was sufficient. I determined that a sample of twelve students per class, which corresponds to 57% in the non-bilingual class (21 students), and 75% in the bilingual class (16 students), can easily be regarded as reliable. I did not use a random sampling procedure because my intention was to guarantee a distribution of students with varying second-language skills across the individual classes. After consultations with the English teachers, I basically followed instructors' judgments of the students' English skills, and included four of the best, four of the weakest and four average students in my sample.

In a few cases I noticed a discrepancy between a teacher's assessment and a student's oral second-language performance, from which I concluded that some teachers base their judgments primarily on writing skills.

Nonetheless I am convinced that my sampling procedure rules out the possibility that the best students of one class are set against the weaker students of the other class.

As far as possible, an equal number of males and females were chosen. However, in this study I do not attempt to analyse differences between males' and females' speaking performance, although it may be very interesting to focus on gender differences in a future paper.

10.4 DATA-COLLECTION CRITERIA

I believe that using the picture story to assess the students' narrative speaking abilities was a good choice because five data-collection criteria were fulfilled:

- The students at the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 Salzburg receive considerable input in marketing knowledge in their business courses, so they do know how difficult and important it is for companies to come up with an effective and attractive advertising message such as an eye-catching commercial. In addition, the HAK 1 students as future businesspeople are very well aware that today one needs to be persuasive, fluent and assertive in formal as well as informal contacts with business partners at home and abroad

- The data are comparable. This criterion is fulfilled because all the students whose narratives were recorded take marketing courses in school: bilingual students in English and non-bilingual students in German

- The data relate to the students' cultural and cognitive abilities

- The data are clear and informative, taking communicative context into account

- The data can be analysed

The first criterion is unique for my study and the business background of the HAK 1 students.

10.5 DATA-ELICITATION PROCEDURE

I recorded the students at HAK 1 Salzburg during individual sessions. I am grateful to the director of the school for letting me talk to the individual students in a quiet room.

Prior to the picture-story narration, the students were sufficiently warmed up in a preliminary interview about their hobbies, interests, future plans and views on business topics discussed in the business classes. This initial conversation was meant to establish a relaxed atmosphere between the interviewer and the subjects. Even though the students already knew me because I had already been testing their language performance in class, most of them came to the room where testing took place a bit tense and nervous. For this reason I let them talk about their hobbies and goals for the future as long as they wanted and then I slowly proceeded to the picture story task.

The use of the pictures as non-verbal stimuli in eliciting students' spoken production proved to be a great idea for various reasons:

- Wordless pictures that compile a story offer no verbal help, which allowed the students freedom of expression. They could include their personal interpretations as well

- Their speaking performance was not influenced by their personal experience because the events in the picture story are unlikely to happen in everyday life. Because here no personal experience was possible, the students had no control over their choice of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, which makes their performances comparable

- The entertaining picture story with a romantic component, a man and woman meeting in strange circumstances, entertained even the most bored and disinterested business students. The romantic and, also in some parts, humorous events were suitable for the students' age, and they made them forget that their narratives were being recorded. In addition, the entertaining picture story helped the tester build an instant connection with the testees

- Describing pictures gave students no pressure, they could also take as much time as they needed to talk about individual pictures

- Because very simple and short instructions were needed from me before the students started the narration, I remained silent while handing them pictures. The students signalled with their voices, words, or non-verbal gestures when they were ready for another picture without any pressure from me. Nevertheless, I did need to stimulate some weaker and shy students by nodding my head, smiling, and asking very simple additional questions to keep them going after lengthy pauses. There were cases when the students asked for my assistance because they felt comfortable with me. There were cases when I tried to compliment them when they included a unique comment on the story behind the pictures

- The students' ability to speak was not hindered by poor listening or reading comprehension because the pictures were very explicit

- The picture story proved economical because it saved testing time, which was adjusted to individual students' needs

The students' spoken production was recorded and detailed transcripts were made, noting all short and long pauses, fillers and hesitations that are typical for spontaneous and unprepared speech.

10.6 MY EXPECTATIONS

I expected that, due to the constant English input in school, the bilingual students would produce more fluent, coherent, accurate, detailed and elaborated narratives supported by a wider range of expressions of feelings and additional remarks on the story behind the pictures.

I further expected that the bilingual students would receive better holistic and analytic scores. In addition, I was particularly interested in finding out what analytic criteria would reveal the biggest discrepancy between the bilingual and non-bilingual students' mean scores.

Concerning the non-bilingual students, I expected their narratives to be more hesitant, less accurate, incoherent, and interrupted by longer pauses, which would make their oral production less fluent and less convincing.

As far as expressions of possibility and vagueness are concerned, I believed that the non-bilingual students would be more inclined to use the fillers *I think, I don't know* and *I mean* than the bilingual students. On the other hand, I expected that the bilingual students would use a wider scope of more sophisticated expressions of possibility and vagueness, such as modal adverbs and modal verbs.

10.7 DATA ANALYSIS

10.7.1 GRADING PROCEDURE AND ENSURING RELIABILITY

First, the students' narratives were scored by one rater (the author of this study) holistically in two sessions over approximately two weeks (see the holistic grading scale below). Thus, the reliability of holistic scores was achieved by intra-rater reliability or self-consistency. During the second grading, the speakers' names were written on a separate piece of paper to ensure that the rater did not look at the table where the first scores had been filled in two weeks earlier.

In order to ensure reliability, Pearson's *r* was calculated to check the association between the two sets of holistic scores. Additionally, analytic grading scales were designed because the rater was able to focus on individual aspects of students' narratives: description, cohesion and coherence, fluency and accuracy. To further support the holistic and analytic scores, I concentrated on two different aspects of learner speech: description and pragmatic skills (fluency and cohesion/coherence), which are typical for my narrative task. In order to assess the students' oral performance, two rating scales were developed: the holistic scale and the analytic scale.

10.7.2 HOLISTIC RATING SCALE: NARRATIVE TASK

The descriptors in the holistic and analytic rating scales are based on my expert rating even though the holistic or global impression band scale is partially inspired by the holistic scales in the book *Assessing Speaking* by Luoma (2004).

The holistic scale shows an overall impression of a student's speaking ability in one score. The rater must note the particular aspects of the students' performance, but above all attention must be paid to the general impression.

Score = 1. The description is hesitant, ineffective and unconvincing

- The speaker's narrative is slow, with long pauses and very frequent interruptions when looking for an appropriate expression
- The narration is dry and unpersuasive with very few comments on the feelings and mood
- The narrative is incoherent, using a limited number of very simple connectors
- Frequent inconsistencies in language use

Score = 2. The narrative is quite convincing

- The narrative is sometimes interrupted by lengthy pauses and hesitations
- The narrative is somewhat persuasive with some comments on the background, feelings and the mood of the story
- The narrative is well-connected, although the use of cohesive devices is limited
- Occasional serious grammar mistakes

Score = 3. The narrative is convincing, lively and very effective

- The speaker' narrative is fluent and natural with only occasional interruptions when looking for an appropriate expression
- The narrative is vivid and persuasive due to many detailed comments on the feelings and the background of the picture story
- The speaker produces a coherent description using a variety of appropriate native-like connectors and fillers
- Consistent language use, although there may be a few slips

Table 25. Holistic scores (speaking): Bilingual and non-bilingual students

	Bilingual students	1st grading (5 Mar 06)	2nd grading (17 Mar 06)	Non-bilingual	1st grading (5 Mar 06)	2nd grading (17 Mar 06)
1	AlexandraP 3BF	3	3	ChristianeH 3NF	3	3
2	SigridA 3BF	2	3	SandraT 3NF	2	2
3	EvaT 3BF	2	3	SarahZ 3NF	1	1
4	NinaR 3BF	3	3	ClaudiaZ 3NF	2	2
5	RebeccaK 3BF	2	2	Eva-MariaE 3NF	1	1
6	StephanieE 3BF	2	3	MichaelaM 3NF	2	2
7	MatthiasW 3BM	2	3	ChristianF 3NM	1	1
8	MartinS 3BF	2	2	JohannesL 3NM	2	2
9	ManuelS 3BM	1	1	BernhardB 3NM	3	2
10	ThomasS 3BM	1	2	StefanW 3NM	1	1
11	ReinhardF 3BM	1	2	MatthiasL 3NM	1	2
12	BernhardB 3BM	1	2	RomanP 3NM	1	1
13	ChristinaP 4BF	3	3	MarissaJ 4NF	2	2
14	KatrinPu 4BF	2	2	Eva-MariaF 4NF	2	1
15	MartinaN 4BF	1	2	DanielaB 4NF	2	2
16	BarbaraN 4BF	2	3	KarinE 4NF	1	1
17	SabrinaR 4BF	2	3	AnitaM 4NF	1	1
18	KathrinPr 4BF	2	3	BettinaB 4NF	2	2
19	FabianSch 4BM	3	3	GuntherM 4NM	2	2
20	ManfredSch 4BM	1	1	RobertO 4NM	2	1
21	FlorianSt 4BM	1	2	ThomasH 4NM	2	2
22	AndreasZ 4BM	2	2	RafaelP 4NM	2	2
23	MatthiasR 4BM	3	3	ThomasE 4NM	1	1
24	FlorianM 4BM	3	3	MarkusS 4NM	1	1
	Average	**1.9**	**2.5**	**Average**	**1.7**	**1.6**

Interestingly, in the case of the non-bilingual students the mean scores of the first and second rating did not show large discrepancies. However, the mean scores of the bilingual students improved greatly in the second grading. The low average holistic score of the bilinguals during the first grading session may have been influenced by some bilingual students' shyness and hesitations during speaking.

In order to check the association between the two sets of holistic scores, Pearson's *r* was calculated and equals 0.72. See Table 26.

Table 26. Descriptive statistics for the two sets of holistic scores in speaking

	Mean	Std. deviation	*N*
Speaking: first grading	1.81	.704	48
Speaking: second grading	2.02	.758	48

Table 27. Correlation between the two sets of holistic scores (speaking) using Pearson's *r*

		Speaking: first grading	Speaking: second grading
Speaking: first grading	*r*	1	.725(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	48	48
Speaking: second grading	*r*	.725(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	48	48

****Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

Pearson's *r* of 0.72 is not considered high or very strong, but it is also not considered weak. Here it is appropriate to repeat that Luoma (2004: 182) considers values of 0.5 or 0.6 "worryingly weak", whereas values of 0.8 or 0.9 are taken as good values. In some research fields, values of 0.5 or 0.6 are still considered good values.

Taking into account that it is very difficult to assess learners' spoken production, because fluency cannot be well defined (see the discussion on fluency in Chapter 5), personally, I consider the correlation of 0.72 a good value for a speaking test.

10.7.3 ANALYTIC RATING SCALE: NARRATIVE TASK

Four analytic criteria typical for my narrative task were developed and assessed: 1. description, 2. cohesion and coherence, 3. fluency and 4. accuracy. The assessment of these four criteria will help in closely focusing on more specific aspects of subjects' achievement on the speaking test. The first three criteria described in my analytic grading scale fall under the definition of pragmatic skills.

There are two levels for each criterion, which means that scores ranged from 4 to 8 points.

- Description

1 = The speaker describes only what is seen in the pictures; there may be a few additional comments on the story behind the pictures without trying to evoke the feelings of the listener

2 = In addition to describing what is seen in the pictures, the speaker makes numerous comments on what the story behind the images might be, and comments on the feelings and moods of the atmosphere and the people in the pictures, which evokes the listener's feelings and makes the description vivid and persuasive

- Cohesion and coherence

1 = The speaker uses only very simple connectors like *and*, *but* and *because*

2 = The speaker uses a wide range of cohesive devices to create a coherent and cohesive narrative

- Fluency

1 = The speaker's flow of language is frequently interrupted by lengthy pauses, false starts or reformulations; utterances are often incomplete except for a few stock remarks and simple responses to the picture story; the speaker is slow and hesitant

2 = The speaker is able to express himself or herself fluently, spontaneously, almost without effort; only occasional difficult concepts or a word might hinder the natural flow of language

- Accuracy

1 = There are frequent grammar mistakes that may cause occasional misunderstanding (more than three)

2 = A high degree of grammatical accuracy; the narrative shows consistency in language use; there are no major grammar mistakes

Table 28. Analytic scores (speaking). Bilingual students

	Description	Cohesion and coherence	Fluency	Accuracy	Final score
AlexandraP 3BF	2	2	2	2	8
SigridA 3BF	2	2	2	2	8
EvaT 3BF	1	2	1	2	6
NinaR 3BF	2	2	2	2	8
RebeccaK 3BF	1	1	1	2	5
StephanieE 3BF	1	1	2	2	6
MatthiasW 3BM	2	2	2	2	8
MartinS 3BF	1	1	2	2	6
ManuelS 3BM	1	1	1	2	5
ThomasS 3BM	1	1	1	2	5
ReinhardF 3BM	1	1	1	2	5
BernhardB 3BM	1	1	1	2	5
ChristinaP 4BF	2	2	2	2	8
KatrinPu 4BF	1	1	1	2	5
MartinaN 4BF	1	1	1	2	5
BarbaraN 4BF	2	1	2	2	7
SabrinaR 4BF	2	1	1	2	6
KathrinPr 4BF	2	2	2	2	8
FabianSch 4BM	2	2	2	2	8
ManfredSch 4BM	1	1	1	2	5
FlorianSt 4BM	1	1	1	2	5
AndreasZ 4BM	1	1	1	1	4
MatthiasR 4BM	2	2	2	2	8
FlorianM 4BM	2	2	2	2	8
Average score	**1.45**	**1.41**	**1.5**	**1.95**	**6.33**

Table 29. Analytic scores (speaking): Non-bilingual students

	Description	Cohesion and coherence	Fluency	Accuracy	Final score
ChristianeH 3NF	2	2	2	2	8
SandraT 3NF	2	1	1	1	5
SarahZ 3NF	1	1	1	1	4
ClaudiaZ 3NF	2	1	2	2	7
Eva-MariaE 3NF	1	1	1	1	4
MichaelaM 3NF	2	1	2	1	6
ChristianF 3NM	1	1	1	1	4
JohannesL 3NM	1	1	2	1	5
BernhardB 3NM	1	1	1	1	4
StefanW 3NM	1	1	1	2	5
MatthiasL 3NM	1	1	1	1	4
RomanP 3NM	1	1	1	1	4
MarissaJ 4NF	2	1	2	1	6
Eva-MariaF 4NF	1	1	2	2	6
DanielaB 4NF	2	1	1	2	6
KarinE 4NF	1	1	1	1	4
AnitaM 4NF	1	1	1	1	4
BettinaB 4NF	1	1	2	2	6
GuntherM 4NM	1	1	2	2	6
RobertO 4NM	1	1	2	2	6
ThomasH 4NM	1	1	1	2	5
RafaelP 4NM	1	1	2	2	6
ThomasE 4NM	1	1	1	2	5
MarkusS 4NM	1	1	1	2	5
Average score	**1.25**	**1.04**	**1.41**	**1.5**	**5.2**

The bilingual students' average description, cohesion and coherence, and fluency scores did not reveal significant differences (1.45 for description, 1.41 for coherence and 1.5 for fluency). The bilinguals had an outstanding average score in accuracy, even as high as 1.95 (highest score = 2.0).

The non-bilinguals had the lowest average score in cohesion and coherence (1.04) whereas the average description score amounted to 1.25.

The biggest discrepancy between the bilingual and non-bilingual students in the speaking test is evident in accuracy. In the criterion "accuracy", the bilingual students had an average score of 1.95 (highest score = 2), whereas the non-bilingual students' average score in accuracy reached only 1.5 (highest score = 2).

Figure 10. Speaking test: Mean scores of four analytic criteria compared between bilingual and non-bilingual students

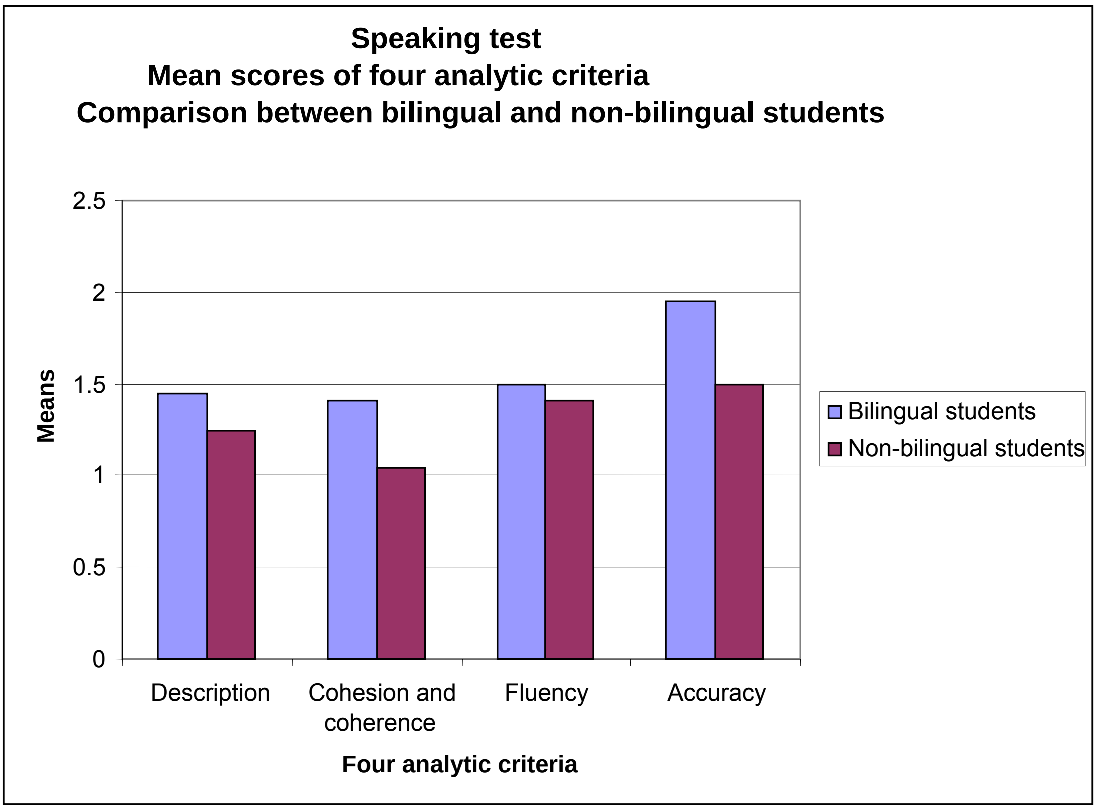


Figure 10 compares the analytic criteria designed to assess the subjects' spoken production. The biggest discrepancy between the bilingual and non-bilingual students can be found in accuracy, the second biggest difference is in cohesion and coherence, description is third and, interestingly, the smallest difference is in fluency. This may be explained by the fact that, while there were some very impressively fluent speakers among the bilingual students who also attained the highest scores, most of them were quite afraid of making mistakes, choosing a wrong word and making a bad impression, which made them less spontaneous. Among the non-bilingual students there was one student that stood out among the others in all analytic assessment criteria.

Nonetheless, my expectation that the bilingual students would excel in all criteria in comparison to the non-bilingual students proved correct. Furthermore, a large difference between the two groups of students in accuracy also fits the trend observed in other research. Grammatical awareness played an important part in grading learners' speaking proficiency.

10.7.4 FLUENCY MARKERS: DEGREES OF POSSIBILITY AND EXPRESSING VAGUENESS IN ORAL COMMUNICATION

In order to further support the results of holistic and analytic scoring, I analysed students' use of fillers or fluency markers, which seem to characterise fluent speech.

As an addition to and as further support for the grading scales, expressions of possibility and vagueness as fluency markers were studied. These words and expressions not only make a narration more fluent, but also more cohesive and coherent.

I attempted to observe what particular fluency markers or cohesive devices the bilingual and non-bilingual students used in their narrations. I expected that the bilingual students would use a wider range of such connectors, whereas the non-bilingual students would use more simple connectors, mainly *but, and, so,* and *I think*. Referring to research on second-language speakers' use of fluency markers (see Chapter 5), I expected that the non-bilinguals would not use modal verbs (e.g., *may*, *might*) in expressing vagueness in their narrations.

Because fluency is difficult to measure, as already maintained in the theoretical consideration of assessing speaking, I tried to observe how smoothly the subjects narrated their stories and linked ideas. In addition, fluency markers with which students expressed vagueness about the event in the picture story were counted. These markers clearly helped them get going by connecting the sentences.

The pictures that were the basis for the students' narratives tell a story that would be impossible in real life, but is nevertheless entertaining because it centres on the commercial message of the Gillette product: antiperspirant deodorant.

The improbability of the story made the students come up with many expressions of uncertainty. Different degrees of possibility and vagueness were expressed by various linguistic means that make the narratives not only more fluent but also more cohesive and coherent.

The “smallwords” expressing vagueness and degrees of possibility that I focus on in this section are also referred to as “hedges”, which signal a “softening” of the message (see the discussion on fluency in Chapter 5).

BILINGUAL STUDENTS[7]

The bilingual students’ use of various expressions of possibility and vagueness in their oral descriptions is presented in Table 30.

Table 30. Occurrences of various expressions of possibility and vagueness (bilingual students’ spoken production)

		I think	*I don’t know*	*Modal adverbs*	*Modal verbs*	*I suppose/I guess/I’m not quite sure*	*It seems to be ...*	*Or something/or something like this/that/or so*	
1	AlexandraP 3BF	*I think* 1×	/	►*maybe*	/	►*I guess*	►*He seems to be very fast* ►*He seems to be free and lucky* ►*It seems all very quiet* ►*He seems lucky*	/	7
2	SigridA 3BF	*I think* 2×	►*I don’t know* 4×	►*maybe* 2×	/	/	►*he seems to *trying to jump*	►*or something* 4×	13
3	EvaT 3BF (very short)	*I think* 5×	►*I don’t know*	/	►*It could be a tree*	/	/	/	7
4	NinaR 3BF	*I think* 6×	►*I don’t know his idea exactly*	►*maybe* 2×	/	/	/	►*or something* ►*or something like that*	11
5	RebeccaK 3BF	/	►*I don’t know* 4×	►*perhaps* 6× ►*maybe* 1×	/	►*I guess*	►*It seems to be quite hot* ►*It seems to stop after the ride* ►*He seems to be quite happy* ►*I seems to be that the same thing happened to her*	/	16
6	StephanieE 3BF (a bit short)	*I think* 2×	►*I don’t know* 2×	►*probably* 1× ►*maybe* 2×	/	/	/	/	7
7	MatthiasW 3BM	*I think* 4× *I would think* 1×	►*I don’t know* 2×	/	/	/	/	/	7
8	MartinS 3BM	*I think* 1×	►*I don’t know* 1×	►*probably* 1× (*actually*)	►*it could also be a woman*	/	/	►*or something*	5
9	ManuelS 3BM (a bit short)	*I think* 4×	/	►maybe	/	/	/	/	5
10	ThomasS 3BM	*I think* 7×	►*I don’t know* ►*I don’t know really*	/	►*there might be an obstacle* ►*... could be flowers*	/	/	/	11

[7] Explanation of abbreviations in Table 22: 3BF (3rd-year bilingual student: female), 3BM (3rd-year bilingual student: male), 4BF (4th-year bilingual student: female), 4BM (4th-year bilingual student: male)

		I think	I don't know	Modal adverbs	Modal verbs	I suppose/I guess/I'm not quite sure	It seems to be ...	Or something/or something like this/that/or so	
11	ReinhardF 3BM	I think 2×	►I don't know 1×	/	/	►I suppose she will fall down ►I guess	/	/	5
12	BernhardB 3BM	I think 1×	/	►maybe 2×	/	/	/	/	3
13	ChristinaP 4BF	I think 2×	►I don't know 8×	►perhaps 1× (actually)	►... could be 2× ►it could be that he wants to kiss her ►he could also seem ... very scary	►I'm not quite sure 2× ►It surely was because of the cliffs ►I suppose	►the man seems to ride very *fastly ►he seems to be very young and attractive ►it seems to be very hot ►he seems to have fun ►... woman who seems to have the same problem ►she seems to be a very nice person ►she seems to be friendly	►or something like that	27
14	KatrinPu 4BF (interruption during her narrative)	/	/	►maybe 1×	/	/	►it seems to be very hot	/	2
15	MartinaN 4BF (not that good, shy)	I think 2×	►I don't know why	/	/	/	►she seems to be good-looking	/	4
16	BarbaraN 4BF	I think 4×	►I don't know ►I don't know exactly	►maybe 2×	/	/	►he seems to be really concentrated ►he seems to be pretty relaxed	/	10
17	SabrinaR 4BF	I think 3×	/	►maybe 5×	►there might be ... a desert ►there might be the cliffs? ►there might be the cliff ►it might be ... at 5 o'clock ►he might fall down ►it might be quite high ►she might be good-looking MODAL PERFECT ►something might have shocked the horse ►the horse might have stopped ►she might have fallen in love with him ►the branch might have broken *down	/	/	►something like this ►or something like this 3×	23
18	KathrinPr 4BF	I think 5×	/	►maybe 4×	►a man could be a cowboy	/	/	►or something	11
19	FabianSch 4BM (very fluent, almost native-like narrative)	/	/	►probably 2× (actually)	/	►I guess	/	►or something 2×	5
20	ManfredS 4BM	I think 4×	/	►probably	/	/	/	/	5
21	FlorianSt 4BM	I think 3×	►I don't know ►I don't know why	►maybe ►perhaps 2×	►... could be ...	/	/	►or something	10
22	AndreasZ 4BM	I think 3×	►I don't know	►maybe 2×	/	/	►it seems that he's riding very fast ►this area seems to be very hot and dry	►or something	9
23	MatthiasR 4BM	I think 2×	►I don't know	►maybe 1× ►perhaps 1× (actually)	►it might be quite hot	►I guess	/	/	7
24	FlorianM 4BM	/	/	►maybe 2×	/	►I guess	►it seems to be very hot	/	4

		I think	I don't know	Modal adverbs	Modal verbs	I suppose/I guess/I'm not quite sure	It seems to be ...	Or something/or something like this/that/or so	
		64	28 (I don't know) 5 (I don't know exactly) = 33	29 maybe 10 perhaps 5 probably	9 (could be) 9 (might) = 18 4 MODAL PERFECT (might) = 22	6 I guess 2 I suppose 3 Sure (I'm not quite sure/it surely was ...)	23	11 or something 5 or something like this/that 1 Something like this = 17	214
				4 actually					

NON-BILINGUAL STUDENTS[8]

Table 31 shows the use of various expressions of possibility and vagueness in non-bilingual students' spoken production.

Table 31. Occurrences of various expressions of possibility and vagueness (non-bilingual students' spoken production)

		I think	I don't know	Modal adverbs	Modal verbs	I suppose	It seems to be ...	Or something/or something like this/or so	
1	ChristianeH 3NBF	/	►I don't know	►perhaps 1× ►maybe 6×	►There might be the ocean	/	►It seems to be very hot	/	10
2	SandraT 3NBF	I think 2×	/	►maybe 5×		/		►or something	8
3	SarahZ 3NBF (all lowest scores for speaking)	/	/	/	/	/	/	►or so	1
4	ClaudiaZ 3NBF	I think 4×	►I don't know 4×	►maybe 2×	►It could be the same ►It could be the Sahara	/	/	►or something like this	13
5	Eva-MariaE 3NBF	I think 2×	►I don't know	►maybe 4×	/	/	/	/	7
6	MichaelaM 3NBF	I think 12×		/	►he may stop	/	/	/	13
7	ChristianF 3NBM (all lowest scores in speaking) low fluency	I think 2×	►I don't know	/	/	/	/	/	3
8	JohannesL 3NBM	I think	►I don't know	►perhaps 5×	/	/	/	/	7
9	BernhardB 3NBM	I think 6×		/	/	/	/	/	6
10	StefanW 3NBM	I think 2× I think so 2×	►I don't know ►I don't know why	/	/	/	►the girl seems to be "erfreut"	/	7
11	MatthiasL 3NBM	I think 7×		/	►he must be very fast	/	/	/	8
12	RomanP 3NBM	I think	►I don't know	►maybe	/	/	/	►or something	4
13	MarissaJ 4NBF	I think 12×	►I don't know ►I don't know why ►I don't know exactly 2×	/	►it could be that he's afraid of smth	►I suppose it	►a hat which seems like a cowboy hat	/	19
14	Eva-MariaF 4NBF	I think 5×	►I don't know	►maybe	/	/	/	/	7

[8] Explanation of abbreviations in Table 23: 3NBF (3rd-year non-bilingual student: female), 3NBM (3rd-year non-bilingual student: male), 4NBF (4th-year non-bilingual student: female), 4NBM (4th-year non-bilingual student: male)

		I think	I don't know	Modal adverbs	Modal verbs	I suppose	It seems to be …	Or something/or something like this/or so	
15	DanielaB 4NBF	I think 2×	►I don't know	►probably 2×	/	/	/	/	5
16	KarinE 4NBF	I think 2×	/	/	/	/	/	/	2
17	AnitaM 4NBF	I think 12× I think so 3×	/	/	/	/	/	/	15
18	BettinaB 4NBF	I think 2×	/	/	/	/	/	/	2
19	GuntherM 4NBM	I think 2×	►I don't know why 3×	►maybe 4×	/	/	/	/	9
20	RobertO 4NBM	/	►I don't know why 1×	/	/	/	/	/	1
21	ThomasH 4NBM	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	0
22	RafaelP 4NBM	**glaub' ich	►I don't know 1× ►I don't know why 1×	/	/	/	/	/	2
23	ThomasE 4NBM	I think 1×	►I don't know 5×	/	/	/	/	/	6
24	MarkusS 4NBM	I think 2× I think so 1×	►I don't know 2×	/	►It could be that he fell down	/	/	/	6
		85 1 (in German)	21 (I don't know) 9 (I don't know exactly/really/why) = 30	23 maybe 6 perhaps 2 probably	4 could 1 might 1 may 1 must = 7 No modal perfect	1 I suppose it	3	2 or something 1 or something like this 1 or so = 4	161
				0 actually					

First of all, the students' utterances "I don't know what that's in English" (RobertO 4NB) or "I don't know what to say" (MarkusS 4NB) or "I don't know the word" are not counted among *I don't know* expressions. I presupposed that the *I don't know* expressions counted in this analysis are expressions of vagueness because they express the subjects' reflections on the event in the picture story rather than their search for the correct word.

In total, the bilingual students' narratives contain 214 different expressions of possibility, and the non-bilingual students' stories include 161 expressions of possibility. This leads to the conclusion that, on average, a bilingual student used nine words or phrases to express vagueness and various degrees of probability, whereas an average non-bilingual student used seven different expressions of vagueness and probability.

One of the bilingual students (ChristinaP 4BF), who achieved the highest holistic and analytic scores, and is considered highly fluent in English, used 27 different expressions of vagueness and possibility. It is interesting that her narrative included all expressions that could be found on the list. Among the modal adverbs, she used the word *perhaps*; in her narrative, there are seven occurrences of the expression "it seems .../he seems .../she seems." On the use of modal adverbs, see Kärkkäinen 1992, and Luoma 2004:92. Among the non-bilingual students, the highest number of expressions of possibility and vagueness used in one narrative was nineteen, but the range of these expressions was not as wide as with the bilingual student mentioned above. Thus, the more proficient a student is, the wider is the scope of expressions of possibility and vagueness. Hasselgreen (2004) came up with similar findings; in her research she compared the use of “smallwords” in three different speaking tasks between native speakers and Norwegian learners of English. She maintains that the “repertoire of smallwords used by Norwegians is narrower than that of native speakers” (Hasselgreen 2004: 228). This leads to the conclusion that the more native-like their speech is, the wider the range of different expressions of possibility that students use in narrating a story.

Among the non-bilinguals, one student did not use a single expression of possibility and vagueness, and he also received low description, coherence and fluency scores. He scored better in accuracy, but his story was also very short and simple. The only connectors and fillers he used were *because, and, but.*

All bilingual students applied at least two expressions of possibility. Two bilingual students used only two and three different expressions (KatrinPu 4BF and BernhardB 3BM), which is a rather disappointing result for a bilingual student. The first student (KatrinPu 4BF) started her description very promisingly, but after describing two pictures she was interrupted by somebody coming into the room and looking for her, which made her lose her concentration, and thus she continued with a lack of interest. In addition, both expressions of possibility she used during her narration (*maybe* and *it seems to be*) were used to describe the first two pictures before the interruption. To my disappointment, after this disruption, she did not use a single expression of possibility and vagueness.

The second student (BernhardB) used three expressions of possibility and vagueness (*I think* 2× and *maybe*), which is also a poor result, but at least he used the modal adverb *maybe*.

In comparison, seven non-bilingual students used three or less than three expressions of possibility and vagueness, but they used only *I think, I don’t know* and *or so).*

Table 32 shows the distribution of various expressions of possibility and vagueness in the two groups of students in percentages.

Table 32. The use of expressions of possibility and vagueness by bilinguals and non-bilinguals in percentages (speaking)

	BLG	NBLG		BLG	NBLG
I think	64	85		30%	53%
I don't know/I don't know exactly/really/why	33	30		15%	19%
Maybe	29	23		14%	14%
Perhaps	10	6		5%	4%
Probably	5	2		2%	1%
Modal verbs (modal inf. + modal perfect)	22	7		10%	4%
I guess	6	0		3%	0%
I suppose	2	1		1%	0.6%
Sure (*I'm not quite sure*/*it surely was* ...)	3	0		1%	0%
It seems .../she/he seems ...	23	3		11%	2%
Or something/or something like that/this/or so	17	4		8%	2.4%
Total no. of all expressions of possibility and vagueness	**214**	**161**		**100%**	**100%**

The results reveal over-reliance on an explicit *I think* among the non-bilinguals (see Figures 11 and 12). More than half of the expressions of possibility and vagueness used by the non-bilingual students (53%) were *I think* cases. In the bilingual group, *I think* is also the most frequently used expression, but it was used to a lesser extent: 30% of all expressions included *I think*.

Interestingly, Hasselgreen's research (2004) also proved the dominance of *I think* among Norwegian learners of English. The native speakers in her sample used *I think* rarely, whereas the Norwegians were inclined to use *I think* very frequently.

This may be because L2 learners normally use more explicit 'smallwords' like *I think* and tend to avoid more implicit ones like *you know* or *well.* It seems as if the reliance on *I think* decreases with higher proficiency in a language.

Figure 11. Distribution of expressions of possibility and vagueness (bilingual students' spoken production)

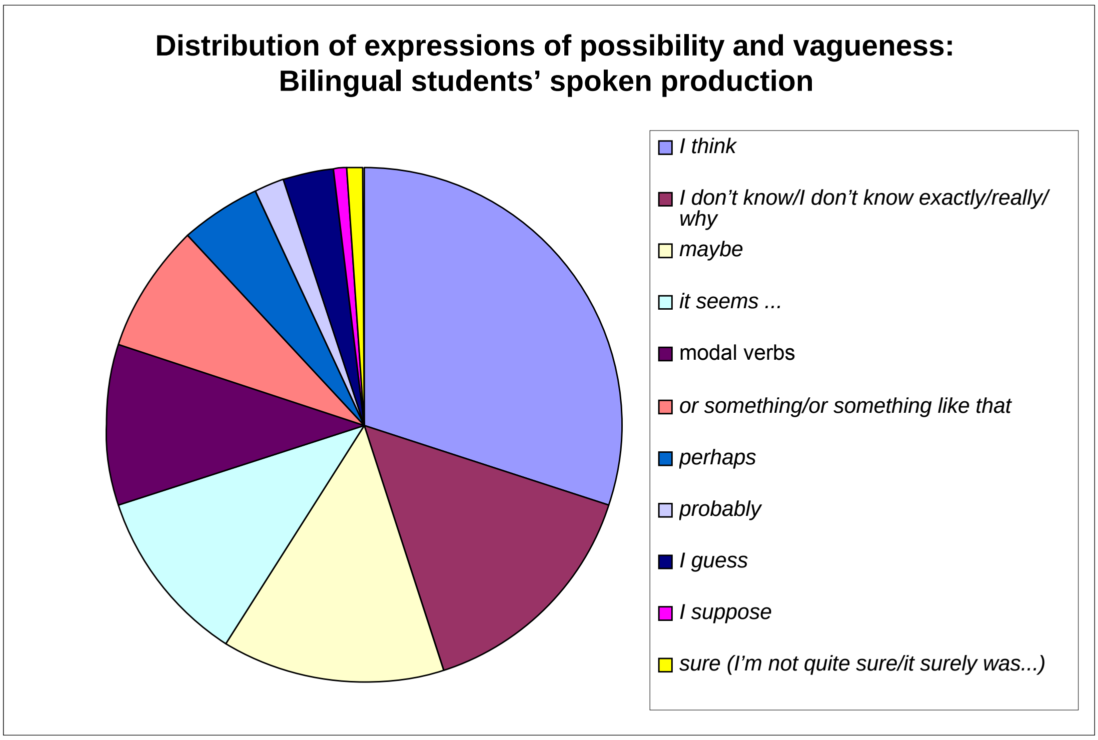
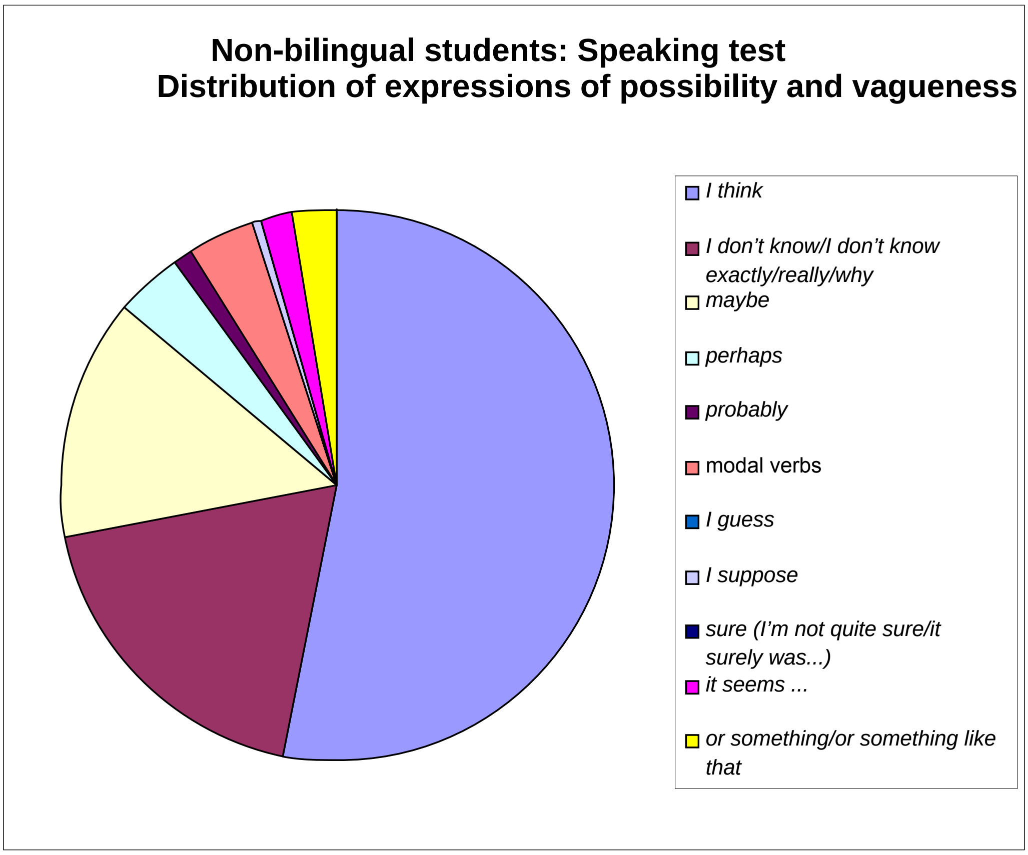


Figure 12. Distribution of expressions of possibility and vagueness (Non-bilingual students' spoken production)



Kärkkäinen (1992) maintains that phrases like *I think* and *I know* are easier to learn than modal adverbs and verbs, but the truth is that native speakers very frequently use these expressions in everyday conversations.

Greater discrepancies between the bilingual and non-bilingual students in the use of words and expressions of possibility and vagueness can be seen in expressions such as *it seems / he/she seems* ..., *or something / or something like that/this*, *I guess* and modal verbs. It is obvious that it takes a more proficient learner of English to be able to use expressions such as *it seems / he/she seems* in narrating a story. In the case of the bilingual students in this study, such expressions were used in 11% of all expressions of possibility, and in the case of the non-bilingual students in only 2%. Fillers such as *or something / or something like that/this* were used in 8% of all expressions and modal verbs in 10% of all possibility expressions among the bilinguals.

Furthermore, *I guess* was not used among the non-bilingual students.

The use of modal adverbs, such as *maybe*, *perhaps* and *probably* did not reveal larger differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students.

A larger difference is seen in the use of modal verbs: 10% of all expressions of possibility and vagueness used by the bilingual group were modal verbs, whereas only 4% of such expressions were modal verbs in the non-bilingual group. Furthermore, there were 13 occurrences of *may* and *might* in the bilingual group (6%), and only 2 cases of these two modal verbs in the non-bilingual group (1%).

Kärkkäinen's (1992) research also showed that less-proficient students use expressions like *I think* and *I know* in order to express possibility whereas more-advanced speakers use modal adverbs or modal verbs (*perhaps, might be*); native speakers use modal adverbs and verbs even more frequently. Apparently, the level of pragmatic knowledge in English could be expressed by the ability to use modal verbs as "softeners": the more "softeners" used in speech, the higher the level of pragmatic knowledge (See Chapter 5).

10.7.5 USE OF EXPRESSIONS OF FEELINGS AND MOOD, AND ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON THE PICTURE STORY

In addition, I was interested in examining what else made the students successful in describing the event in the picture story. I believed that a dynamic story and romantic content would stimulate the students to use a wide range of expressions to describe the feelings and moods of the people in the story. I further assumed that they would include various additional remarks on the background of the story, which is not directly evident from the pictures.

This analysis is connected to one of the analytic criteria; namely, “description.” I expected to find evidence for bilingual and non-bilingual students’ different scores in the “description” criterion. I also anticipated that the bilingual students would make more comments on the background of the story, and that they would try to include more expressions of feelings and moods.

My main intention here was to assess how vivid and persuasive the students’ narrations are. For this purpose I listed and counted the following:

- The occurrences of “feeling” and “mood” expressions, which make the narration more vivid and persuasive because they add a bit of flavour to a story and appeal to the feelings of the listeners. The feelings and moods could be guessed from the picture

- Additional fictitious remarks on the background events that cannot be inferred from the picture. These remarks also make the narration more convincing

BILINGUAL STUDENTS[9]

Table 33 presents the bilingual subjects’ choice of vocabulary used to comment on the background of the story

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[9] Explanation of abbreviations in Table 33: 3BF (3rd-year bilingual student: female), 3BM (3rd-year bilingual student: male), 4BF (4th-year bilingual student: female), 4BM (4th-year bilingual student: male)

Table 33. Additional remarks on the event in the picture story, and the expressions of feelings and moods used by bilingual students in the oral test

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total
1	AlexandraP 3BF	►he seems to be free and lucky ►a feeling of freedom and loneliness ►it seems all very quiet ►some feeling of power and action ►the man wasn't very lucky ►he seems lucky ►he is surprised	7	►I guess he is thinking about how he can get out of this situation ►they are talking ►the woman is thanking him for his present ►they like each other ►the woman couldn't hold *her any *long and she fell down	5	12
2	SigridA 3BF	►he looks self-assured ►the horse feels danger or something ►it's quite dangerous ►he looks quite happy or something but disturbed ►he now looks really cheerful and happy ►she also looks quite happy ►she is fond of him, she likes him a lot	7	►he is having a problem or something ►maybe he gets chased ►he is determined to catch something ►he seems to try to jump over a canyon or something. I don't know what he *could like. ►he is in North America ►it's quite hot ►he's screaming ►... a woman who has maybe the same destiny as him ►she is very keen on the flowers ►she has taken the flowers with both hands and she is falling	10	17
3	EvaT 3BF	►I think it's very hot. ►he is quite happy ►they are smiling, they are quite happy. ►the woman is quite happy and she is surprised.	4	►he couldn't hold any more so he *fall down	1	5
4	NinaR 3BF	►he is quite excited ►I think he's quite afraid of the situation ► he's a bit afraid and a bit scared about ... all ... of these new impressions on his mind ►she is really really happy	4	►it's really hot ► he's screaming quite loud ► and he's thinking of his life ► but now he's got a great idea ► I think he is falling down	5	9
5	RebeccaK 3BF	►he seems to be quite happy because he ... about the happening, ... ►He looks scared, a bit surprised ...	2	►He seems to be quite young, between 20 and 30 years old ►it seems to be quite hot ►it seems to be that the same thing happened to her before ►maybe she says thank you ... ► perhaps the ... part of the tree is ... breaking ... perhaps it was hers because the flowers were too heavy ...	5	7

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total
6	StephanieE 3BF	► he looks a little bit ... strange or stressful, mad ►she is ... amused about it that ... she found such a good and handsome man in such a ... bad situation	2	►it's very hot -he ... maybe ... is at his goal - I think he is too heavy for the tree ... and he falls down	3	5
7	MatthiasW 3BM	►and the man is very ... um ... embarrassed	1	-I think he is quite ... um ... sporty - the first thing I would think of is ... in Arizona ... anywhere in the United States - I think it's very hot there - He just makes like hooh! ... I don't know .... I can't think of anything ... **he couldn't think of the ending	4	5
8	MartinS 3BM	► he's very lucky ► he is very ... happy ... because he was very lucky ... ► she's very pleased of ... of the flowers ► he is looking very ... quite ... quite excited	4	-bit dressed ... like a cowboy - he is holding himself tight - ... a man or it could also be a woman - desert which looks ... a bit like ... I don't know ... Nevada or something ... **the end (only that he is excited)	4	8
9	ManuelS 3BM	►somehow he had luck ► he looks ... um ... he looks somehow happy ... ► she looks happy ... ► he looks very surprised	4	- it looks very hot - I think the horse has real difficulties to ... to ... to stop ... - I think they are going to be ... a couple ... and ... I think the woman accepts the ... flowers ... - maybe the tree ... broke or ... his ... or hers ... or her ...	4	8
10	ThomasS 3BM	► he is going to die ► he was lucky ► she is very happy about this ... about this gift ... and I think they are both ... lucky ... happy ...	3	- I think it's a cowboy - he looks very ... very serious ... - it's ... very hot - there might be a ... an obstacle ... in front of him ... of it ... - think he is rescued ... if the would *won't break down - I think here he ... he thinks about ... how he can get out of this ... *misery ... situation ...... I think he looks like ... he doesn't know ... what he should do ... - he starts to flirt ... with her - the piece of wood is ... is breaking and ... he's fell down ... he's falling down ... ah, she stays there ... till the next one comes ...	8	11

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total
11	ReinhardF 3BM	► he was lucky ► I think he is happy that he is alive ... ► both are happy ► he doesn't look happy any more	4	-something is happening ... I suppose she will ... fall down ...	1	5
12	BernhardB 3BM	► He is quite happy about this ► then they fall in love and she is quite happy about this present ... ► he is ... surprised ... he is quite astonished ...	3	- this is a ... cowboy - and hot ... the dawn is beginning - the ... rider is about to die - the wooden stick is about to break	4	7
13	ChristinaP 4BF	► there's the dynamic of this picture ► he is safe ... for a moment ... ► he seems to have fun ... and he is happy that ... he is not dead ... ► she seems to be very ... very nice ... a very nice person ... ► she seems to be ... friendly ... glad to to ... have a partner ► could be that he wants to kiss her ► he could also seem ... very scary	7	- a young man ... very dynamic, very sexy - it seems to be very hot - perhaps he stops of the the cliffs ... - he cries - ... who ... seems to ... have the same problem - man is actually a gentleman - either the ... he falls down ... or she falls down	7	14
14	KatrinPu 4BF (interrupted during her narrative)	► he is very lucky ► he feels very lucky ► they fall in love and ... they are married for ... ever	3	- it seems to be very hot - she is telling him that she is already married	2	5
15	MartinaN 4BF (afraid of saying smth inappropriate)	► he looks kind of .... kind of ... satisfied ► they are happy	2	-she's thanking him ... for his present ..... - the branch broke	2	4
16	BarbaraN 4BF	► I think he is shocked ... ► seems to be ... pretty relaxed for the situation ► she is ... glad that ... she found the man of her life	3	- he seems to be really concentrated - it is ... sunset because ... there's ... red ... in the sky ... - maybe there is an obstacle coming in - he is ... yelling and ... crying - doesn't know how long the ... branch is gonna hold him ... - I think the ... man just ... has heard ... the crack ... a kind of crack or another noise ... and the branch is going to fall off ... and break ...	6	9

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total
17	SabrinaR 4BF	► he is ... very angry about the thing ► he rider's very ... very afraid ... ►the man ... fell in love with the woman ► she might have fallen in love with him ► they are happy	5	- he is trying ... to catch ... somebody who is ... in front of him ... because he's ... done something bad ... maybe ... he's stolen something - in ... a ... desert ... maybe somewhere ... in Australia - it might be ... at 5 0'clock because it's ... a bit dark - he is trying to catch something ... - something ... might have ... shocked the horse ... or the ... rider ... - he's hoping ... that someone ... will come ... and help him ... to get up ... - I think ... there's someone ... who ... can help him ... he's trying to get up ... - the branch might have broken down ... and now he ... falls down the cliff ...	8	13
18	KathrinPr 4BF	► a wild man ... a free man ► he is very .... maybe a little bit angry ... and he concentrates on ... a specific thing ... ► this man doesn't look like ... he ... would be ... in a very difficult situation ... he doesn't look very ...... in fear or something ... he looks ... funny ► the woman ... looks very ... happy ► maybe he looks a bit surprised	5	- could be a cowboy ... - I think it's ... anywhere in America ... it looks like ... a wild-west story ... - yes ... like in a true story - they are ... hanging there ... in a ... very difficult situation ... where you don't know what to do ... and you don't know when the trees ... will break down and you fall down - maybe he's falling down from this ... tree ...	5	10
19	FabianSch 4BM	► he is glad ... that he managed the situation ... ► The woman is very happy that she got a present from him ► He's shocked ... amazed ... wasn't prepared ...	3	- it's a more ... a wide screen shot ... and ... it's pretty hot - I guess they start to talk - Probably the branch broke and he is falling down	3	6
20	ManfredS 4BM	► think this a very ... lucky person ► he looks very ... lucky ... and very happy ... ► the lucky ... and ... very happy ... cowboy ► the cowgirl ... appreciated it ... and ... she ... looks very happy too ... like the cowboy - he ... looks very ... looks very ... um ... unlucky	5	- he looks very strong - if he rides ... another ... hundred meters ... then he will ... fall off the cliffs - looks that ... that ... in the last ... last second ... he stops -she looks like a ... a real cowgirl - the small ... tree ... is too small ... and ... because - he looks as he don't know ... as he doesn't know ... what ... what will happen to him ...	6	11

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total
21	FlorianSt 4BM	- he had good luck ... and didn't die ... - and is quite lucky ... - he is a bit ... surprised	3	- he should stop to ... not to ... to die ... - maybe he hasn't seen her face ... before ... no ... or ... perhaps he has seen her before	2	5
22	AndreasZ 4BM	-the man smiling ... very friendly - the man ... surprised somehow ... maybe he's ... very surprised ... because ... she ... she accepts the flowers	2	- this man looks very ... strong - this area seems to be very ... hot and dry - she tries to get ... to get the flowers ... because she is only ... hanging with on hand	3	5
23	MatthiasR 4BM	- he was so lucky that he could ... grab a tree - this guy is very lucky now ... but has to wait for help ... - the girl is ... fascinated of this incredible man ... - he is again very lucky but ... still has to wait for help	4	- I think he doesn't even notice that he loses ... the hat ... and ... I think ... he's a very ... professional rider - this is the ... zoom angle and this is the bird angle ... that just looks different - it might be quite hot .... - because the rider ... pulls ... the straps ... - perhaps the same happened to her	5	9
24	FlorianM 4BM	- it's romantic and ... they are ... forgetting their situation ... - he has no time to ... fear anything ... is only surprised ... and ... maybe a little angry that the situation ... breaks up here ... so suddenly ...	2	- the Grand Canyon ... the Grand Canyon ... and ... he rides ... to this canyon - it seems to be very hot ... - he hangs there and ... thinks about his situation ... - has an idea ... because he laughs and ... looks very ... intelligent ... - the man ... doesn't have anything better to do than ...... - But now the tree breaks ...	6	8
			89		**109**	**198**

NON-BILINGUAL STUDENTS[10]

Table 34 presents additional remarks on the story in the pictures and a range of expressions of feelings and moods used by the non-bilingual subjects.

Table 34. Additional remarks on the event in the picture story, and the expressions of feelings and moods used by non-bilingual students in the oral test

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total	
1	ChristianeH 3NBF	- he is lucky that he's not fallen down ... to the ground ... - he's seen ... something interesting because he is smiling ... or he's just ... looking because he's frightened ... and thinks positive ... - he likes her ... and he wants to ... to go out with her - but they will not survive so they can't go out ... and this is their last evening together (sad voice)	4	- this is a cowboy - it seems to be very hot - down ... the cliff ... there might be ... the ocean - the cowboy is falling down the cliff ... into the water - maybe ... the ground is right ... under them - maybe ... she is a cow *women ... a woman ... and ... maybe they talk together ... and have fun ... - she's ... she's fallen down ... because she ... could not ... hold tight ... the ... wood anymore ...	7	11	1
2	SandraT 3NBF	- the man is ... shocked ... angry ... very surprised ...	1	- he's ... already ... late for something ... and ... wants to go there - it's in the ... Sahara ... maybe - the horse ... didn't ... wanted ... didn't want to ... to ride anymore ... because ... he has no water to drink or something - there's also ... no ground - something happened ... maybe the woman ... falls *downstairs ...	5	6	1

[10] Explanation of abbreviations in Table 34: 3NBF (3rd-year non-bilingual student: female), 3NBM (3rd-year non-bilingual student: male), 4NBF (4th-year non-bilingual student: female), 4NBM (4th-year non-bilingual student: male)

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total	
3	SarahZ 3NBF	-he *look very angry *if he is in a ... in a hurry - the man *look like ... very happy ... because he save his life - the woman ... *smile and *fall in love ...	3	- it's ... in the middle ... of the day ... - he could save ... his life - the man ... *forget to take his Gillette ... and ... so he ... *smell ... smell? ... no, not smell	3	6 Serious grammar mistakes -maybe I'll delete these sentences	4
4	ClaudiaZ 3NBF	- don't worry ... be happy - I think they're ... merry ...	2	- very masculine ... - it could be the Sahara - the cowboy told the horse to stop - I think he ... hurts ... his leg or something like this ... I think he won't ... live anymore - maybe she is crashed ... *crashing down ... or ...	5	7	
5	Eva-MariaE 3NBF	- he looks ... happy ... because he ... *don't ... um ... *fell ... on the ground ... and didn't hurt *him ... - he likes her - he looks ... frightened because ... maybe ... she ... wanted to kiss him ...	3	- he looks very concentrated - he is in a hurry ... I think it's very hot ... - there is a nice girl ... maybe they hope they can help ... each other ... he speaks to her ... - he wants to give her ... his hand ... and ... give her ... some flowers ... to get in contact with her ... - she thanks him? ...	5	8 Serious grammar mistakes - Maybe I should not take them into account delete the sentences	1
6	MichaelaM 3NBF	- he doesn't look very happy ... I think he is stressed ... - he has really luck ... he can be ... very lucky - and I think she is very happy - she is happy .... I think she likes him ... he is a good-looking guy ...	4	- I think he may stop here - I hope he won't fall down ... - I think it won't be a good end for him ... I hope there is *a sea ... - I think he is grateful ... hanging there in the fresh air ... - there is a second horse ... standing up there ... I think they are going to flirt - one of these women who are always in *advertisement ... - she *maybe could fall down ... that wouldn't be so fine ... if she is going to hold them ... it would be a problem -he ... can't ... hold anymore ... so ... it would be the end ... of a flirt ...	8	12 Serious grammar mistakes + remarks in fragments, unfinished thoughts	1
7	ChristianF 3NBM	- Now the girl is very happy about the flowers	1	- it's a cowboy - he's shouting ... out something ... **no ending whatsoever	3	4	

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total	
8	JohannesL 3NBM	- he ... is very *stressful - he has ... very ... has a big luck - he looks ... very happy .... perhaps ... he is in a delirium ... - he is so happy ... he likes the girl so much - she likes the guy	5	- perhaps a cowboy - he is in a hurry - perhaps ... there is a big stone in front of him ... - it is too late ... he has no power any more ... he fell down ... on the ground ... of the canyon ...	4	9	1
9	BernhardB 3NBM	- The man now has ... very good luck - because he has so much luck	2	- he's ... middle-aged ... - now the tree ... will break	2	4	
10	StefanW 3NBM	-the girl seems to be very ... erfreut ...	0	- the tree ... is ... broken and he falls down ...	1	1 1 expression of feeling and this one in German.	
11	MatthiasL 3NBM	- he has luck - he doesn't die - He looks happy because ... he didn't die ... - because it's a ... funny situation - They want to come together and he ... looks ... a little bit silly ... - She is very happy ... I think they both like them ...	6	-... had to stop ...'cause otherwise it would fall down ... - ... another woman ... also riding on a horse ... and also *felt from the horse - she ... *felt down ... the rock ...	3	9	2
12	RomanP 3NBM	- The man looks ... very strange	1	- the cowboy falls from the ... horse into a ... maybe a river ... -... *because the tree ... *where he hangs ... cut ... he falls ...	2	3	
13	MarissaJ 4NBF	- he's a bit angry - I think he will die ... unfortunately ... - I think it's a very dangerous situation for him ... - they are both happy ... - he's a bit afraid	5	- he is a cowboy - he is a very strong man - it could be that he is afraid of something ... and ... avoids to ... to ... to go forward - I think he is ... waiting for help	4	9	
14	Eva-MariaF 4NBF	- she's ..... very happy ... maybe they are falling in love	1	- he tries the ... horse to stop - he is crying - he looks glad ... because he won't fall anymore ...	3	4	

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total	
15	DanielaB 4NBF	- he looks very angry ... and ... ambitious - he looks a bit afraid of something ... or delighted	2	- man ... about ... 30 years - he *want to achieve something or someone ... to catch someone - he probably ... will be injured ... - they ... speak -the man ... *want to learn more about the woman ... - she ... says ... that she wants to go with him ... in a restaurant ... and to eat together - the woman ... or he ... is falling down ... or the tree ... is breaking ...	7	9	2
16	KarinE 4NBF	- he looks ... very ... angry ... - he looks ... very happy - both ... are smiling ... I think they are happy - he looks very friendly ... and happy ... - the wife ... is happy - he is ... shocked	6	- the part of the tree *break	1	7	1
17	AnitaM 4NBF	- he cries NO!... - he's shocked	2	- he is a cowboy - he is really busy - it's in America ... Texas - he thinks "oh ... what can I do? it's not a good situation for me ..." - ... because he has a solution for his problem ... maybe somebody helps him ... or will help him - situation is ... is ... has really changed - she also thinks ... ah ... that's a nice guy - he falls in the *deep	8	10	
18	BettinaB 4NBF	- he's ... very angry - she is happy ... and ... she loves him	2	- there is a cowboy - he ... *search somebody - it's really like Western ... like these Western films - it's very hot - he cries ... he shouts ... - smiles ... because he isn't dead - I think she has blue eyes - because he's ... a gentleman - he is falling down the canyon	9	11	1

		Feeling and mood expressions (only guessed from pictures)		Fictitious additional remarks on the background story		Total	
19	GuntherM 4NBM	- he's very lucky - a very difficult situation - he's lucky ... he is in a very dangerous situation ... I don't know why he is laughing ... - she is very ... happy about it - he is scared	5	- they're talking - he's talking to her - the branch ... is broken and he will fall down the canyon	3	8	
20	RobertO 4NBM	- she is lucky ... that she is not alone ... - he is also lucky - I *could not describe his face ... he's "erstaunen"	3	- the man looks strong **no ending	1	4	
21	ThomasH 4NBM	- he is happy ... that ... he is not dead ... - he looked ... a little bit fascinated ... because he ... didn't think ... that the girl would so react ...	2	- the girl liked it	1	3	
22	RafaelP 4NBM	- he is very happy ... and glad ... because he saved his life ... - the lady is very happy about that ... but I don't know why she is happy ... they are hanging in a canyon!... - the man is impressed because ... he is surprised ... he looks surprised ...'cause he is a fool ...	3	- it's very hot	1	4	
23	ThomasE 4NBM	- he is very happy - they are both ... happy - he is afraid	3	- he talks with her - he *fall down	2	5	1
24	MarkusS 4NBM	- he is lucky - both are lucky - scary ...	3	- he cries - that it could be that he ... fell down or the root *break ...	2	5	1
			69		**90**	**159**	**17**

The results show that counting the students' different propositions in which they express the feelings of the people in the story and give additional remarks on the background does not reveal significant differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students.

In addition, it is very difficult to establish what idea is a "feeling idea", and what comment is only an additional remark on the background of the story. I therefore summed up the two sets of ideas (feelings and additional remarks), deducted the ideas with serious grammar errors (e.g., no -*s* suffix for the third person singular or a verb in an infinitive instead of another form) and came to the conclusion that, on average, bilingual students included eight additional remarks in their narratives, whereas the non-bilingual students used six additional remarks.

The analytic scores on “description” revealed similar results: the smallest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students can be found in the “description” criterion.

10.8 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND FINAL OBSERVATIONS

In the course of testing and recording the narratives of bilingual students, I noticed that, in general, the bilingual students were very careful to select appropriate words and grammatical structures. Sometimes they asked me if their performance would affect their grade in school, or if their English teacher was going to have a look at their scores. Even though I tried to reassure them that their English teachers were not going to see their performance results, they did not seem to believe me.

While obtaining spoken data from the bilingual students, I also noticed two extremes: on one hand, there were some very self-confident individuals that were highly fluent in English, and whose narrative was almost native-like but on the other hand there were students that somehow felt they were not supposed to make mistakes because they belong to the bilingual “elite” of the school, which made their narratives a bit inhibited. Their fear of making mistakes made their performances less fluent and slightly unnatural, which might have influenced the rater’s lower holistic scores during the first rating session. Also, a personal contact with the rater may have contributed to their uneasiness during testing.

Almost all non-bilingual students seemed to be afraid and to lack self-confidence in expressing themselves in English. They also needed more help and stimulation from the interviewer. I am pleased that I managed to establish a friendly atmosphere by laughing with them a lot, stimulating them with positive feedback (e.g., *well done*, *great*), asking additional questions during preliminary interviews, to make them feel that they were not being tested at all, which I strongly believe are the most important prerequisites for a successful spoken data collection. In the case of the non-bilingual students, their oral performances do not differ greatly. There were only two students whose narratives differed from their peers; the rest of the non-bilingual students’ oral performances were inhibited by shyness, and lack of attention, interest and self-confidence in speaking English, which resulted in long pauses, serious grammar mistakes, many hesitations and even reluctance to complete the task. As far as appeal for assistance was concerned, the students (both bilingual and non-bilingual) felt comfortable to ask me for any help although I was not allowed to help them.

Pearson’s *r* equals 0.72 and proves a satisfactory association between the two sets of holistic speaking scores, which ensures that the test is reliable.

I noticed that I was influenced by grammar mistakes, which means that during the first holistic grading, I assessed the students who made grammar mistakes with a lower score even though their narratives were relatively smooth.

Analytic scores in accuracy show the biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students, whereas the lowest difference is found in fluency. Other comparable research, such as DESI (Beck and Klieme 2007, DESI–Konsortium (2008) also proved that bilingual and non-bilingual students differ mainly in the accuracy of their spoken production. As far as fluency (which shows the lowest difference between the two groups of students) is concerned, the bilingual students paid substantial attention to choosing the right words and producing an accurate narrative, which made them less spontaneous and consequently lowered their fluency scores.

My expectations that the bilingual students would achieve better holistic scores and produce more coherent, fluent, accurate, and detailed descriptions therefore proved correct. On the other hand, the non-bilingual students produced more fluent narratives than I had expected. Namely, they did not pay as much attention to being grammatically accurate as the bilingual students. This made their narratives smoother, more natural, and more spontaneous.

Further analyses are meant to support the holistic and analytic scoring.

The results of the additional focus on the expressions of possibility and vagueness show a higher level of pragmatic knowledge of the bilingual students. As I had expected, on average the bilingual students used more expressions of vagueness and possibility than the non-bilingual students. An over-reliance on *I think* among the non-bilinguals also answered my expectations.

The bilingual students used a wider range of possibility and vagueness “fillers” compared to the non-bilinguals. Thus the more proficient a student, the wider the scope of expressions of possibility and vagueness he or she would use in narrating a story.

The final focus on the students’ descriptions, using additional remarks and expressions of feelings inferred from the people in the picture story, did not reveal an important difference between the bilingual and the non-bilingual students. This finding is supported by the fact that the description criterion in analytic scoring did not show significant differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students.

11 ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' SOCIAL BACKGROUND: QUESTIONNAIRES

11.1 PURPOSE OF USING QUESTIONNAIRES IN THIS STUDY

The students' social background was elicited from the questionnaires submitted to the students. Different social variables are considered, further explaining the differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students. The data are analysed and explained in the descriptive study. It is well known from other studies (DESI) (Beck and Klieme 2007; DESI-Konsortium 2008) that the social background is an important variable which has an impact on the competence levels of bilingual and non-bilingual students. In order to be able to judge how far background variables were involved in this study, it was considered to be necessary to also find out to what extent the two groups of students were comparable.

Using the information obtained from the students' answers on questionnaires, I wanted to see where the biggest differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students would be detected with respect to their social background, such as their parents' education level, their parents' knowledge of foreign languages, the students' level of interest in English and bilingually taught classes, their contact with English and other issues evident in this chapter.

The purpose of including additional questions for the bilingual students was to determine how satisfied they are with the bilingual track and what they like and miss in their bilingual classes. I also wanted to determine why they chose to study business subjects in English.

I elicited the following information from all students:

- The highest level of education reached by at least one parent
- The number of foreign languages spoken by their parents
- Students' final grade in English in the previous school year
- Students' final grade in economics, marketing and international business courses in the previous school year
- Students' average final grade in the previous school year
- Students' contacts with native speakers of English
- Students' visits to English-speaking countries and the length of these visits

- Students’ contacts with English
- Students’ interest in English
- What they especially like in their English classes (open question)
- What they do not like in their English classes (open question)
- Where people need English nowadays (open question)
- Why they chose to attend business school

The bilingual students revealed the following information in part of the questionnaire that was designed only for them:

- Whether they like studying business subjects in English
- What they especially like about learning business subjects in English (open question)
- What they do not like about learning business subjects in English (open question)
- How much English they speak in their bilingual classes
- What or who played a major role in their decision to join the bilingual class
- What short- and long-term benefits they expect to have from studying commercial subjects in English (open question)

11.2 DATA-ELICITATION PROCEDURE

The sample included 36 bilingual students and 46 non-bilingual students.

I designed the questions after discussions with teachers in the bilingual track at HAK 1 Salzburg. There were two pages with questions for all students. In addition, there were questions that were submitted only to the bilingual students.

The questionnaires for all students and the bilingual students mainly consisted of multiple-choice questions, but there were also a few open questions that enabled students to write more elaborate answers.

11.3 MY EXPECTATIONS

I expected that the parents of bilingual students would hold higher degrees and speak more foreign languages than the parents of non-bilingual students.

I also expected that bilingual students would travel more to English-speaking countries. They were also expected to be more in contact with the English language outside school than the non-bilingual students. I also believed to receive highly positive feedback from all students regarding the importance of learning English nowadays. The bilingual students were expected to express their satisfaction with the bilingual track, stating that studying commercial subjects in English would help them in their future careers. As far as the disadvantages of learning commercial subjects in English are concerned, I only thought they would complain about high demand they are exposed to in the bilingual track.

11.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis of the students' responses to the questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part compares the responses of the bilingual and non-bilingual students, and the second part analyses the responses that were elicited only from the bilingual students.

11.4.1 COMPARISON BETWEEN BILINGUAL AND NON-BILINGUAL STUDENTS

This section compares the responses of the bilingual and non-bilingual students, focusing on:

- Their parents' education level and their knowledge of foreign languages
- Students' success in school
- Students' interest in English, and ways of getting in contact with English
- Students' satisfaction/dissatisfaction with English classes, and the reasons for attending business school

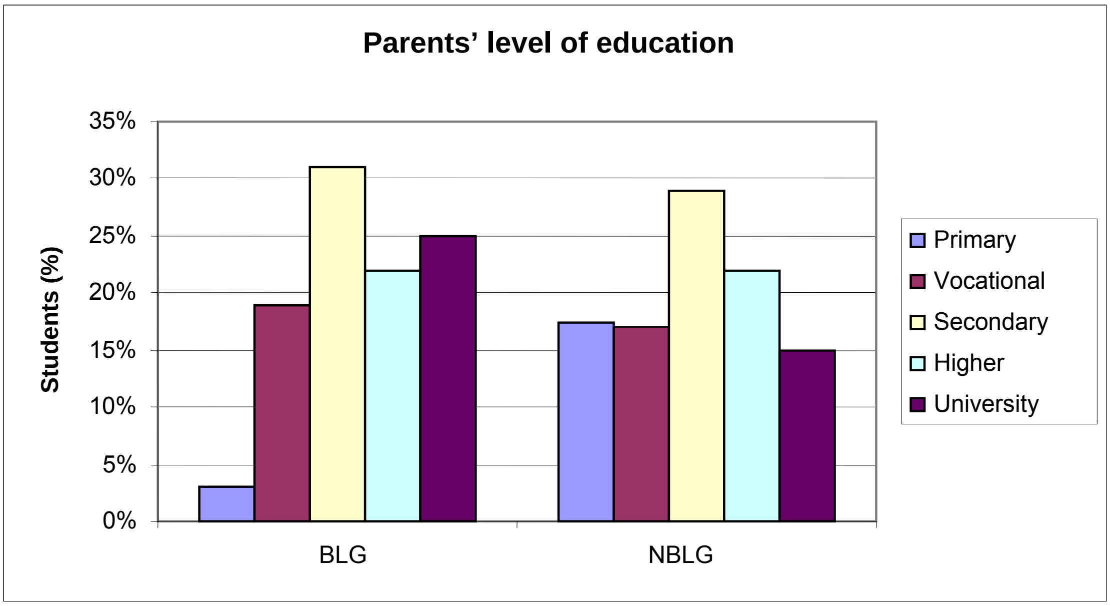
11.4.1.1 PARENTS' EDUCATION LEVEL AND KNOWLEDGE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

PARENTS' EDUCATION LEVEL

The highest education level reached by at least one parent among the bilingual and non-bilingual students was a university degree. The difference between the parents of bilingual and non-bilingual students regarding the highest education level is significant. However, there was an even more significant difference between the parents of bilingual and non-bilingual students with respect to the lowest level of education. Namely, only 3% of the bilingual students stated that the highest education reached by their parents was primary school, whereas 17% of the non-bilingual students had parents that had only completed primary school.

The results revealed the biggest difference between the two groups of students in the highest and especially lowest education level of their parents (see Figure 13).

Figure 13. Parents' level of education

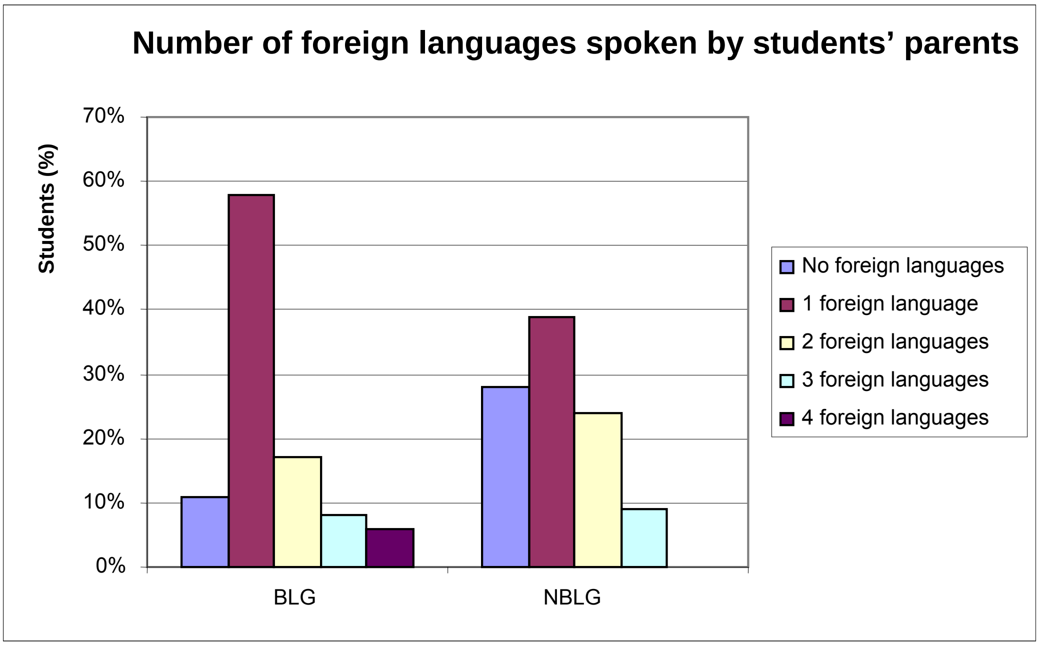


In addition, there is an almost equal percentage of non-bilingual students whose parents attained a primary or vocational level of education as their highest education levels.

NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES SPOKEN BY STUDENTS' PARENTS

Compared to 11% of the bilingual students, 28% of the non-bilingual students had parents that did not speak any foreign language. Furthermore, 58% of the bilingual students said that their parents speak at least one foreign language, whereas 39% of the non-bilingual students claimed the same (see Figure 14).

Figure 14. Number of foreign languages spoken by students' parents



6% of the bilingual students had parents that speak four foreign languages, whereas nobody in the non-bilingual group stated this.

11.4.1.2 SUCCESS IN SCHOOL

The bilingual and non-bilingual students' success in school was compared considering their final grades achieved in the last school year, and their grades obtained in business English classes and business courses.

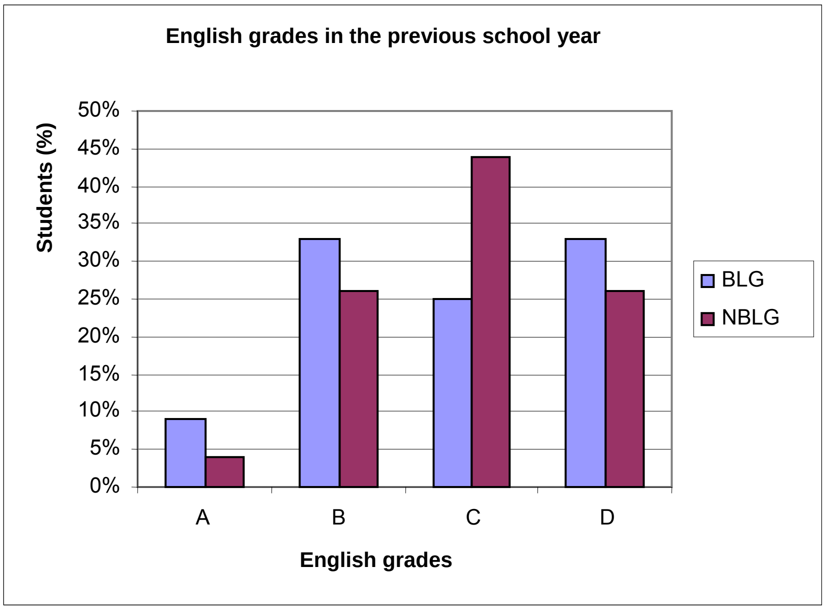
FINAL GRADES IN THE PREVIOUS SCHOOL YEAR

Figure 15 indicates that the bilingual students had better final grades in the previous school year than the non-bilingual students. The highest grade A shows a large difference between the two groups. Additionally, none of the bilingual students had the lowest grade D.

ENGLISH AND BUSINESS CLASS GRADES IN THE PREVIOUS SCHOOL YEAR

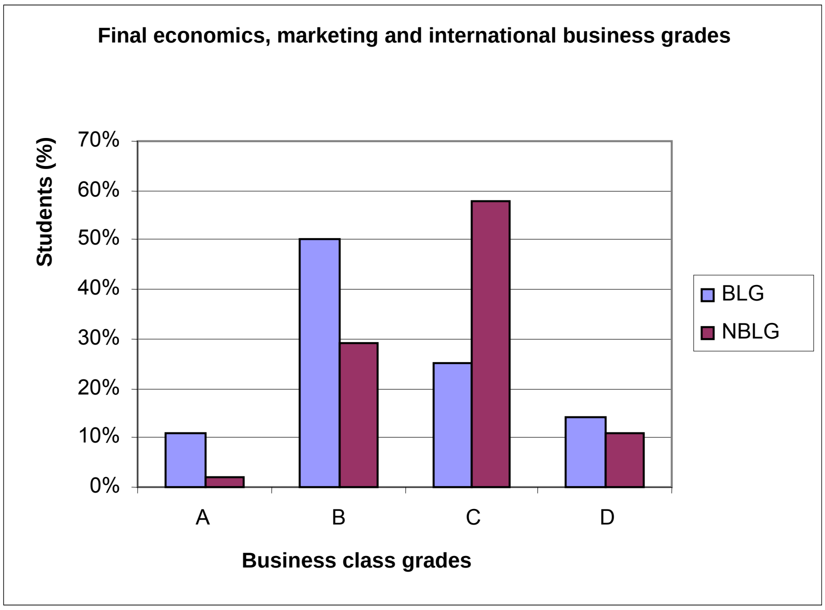
Although the grades in English classes and business classes can hardly bear comparison between the bilingual and non-bilingual students because of different treatment in school, they do reveal that the bilingual students attain more successfully the highest grades (A and B). The same can be seen when analysing the final grades above.

Figure 15. Final English grades in the previous school year



To my surprise, there is a large discrepancy between the bilinguals and non-bilinguals when looking at the grade C as the non-bilinguals were significantly better than the bilinguals. In addition, a large percentage of the bilingual students achieved the lowest grade (D), which was also surprising to me. These grades are very difficult to compare, because the bilingual students attend the bilingual track, where the focus is on languages, and thus the grading criteria are different. Consequently the grades do not bear sufficient comparison.

Figure 16. Final economics, marketing and international business grades



Also to my great surprise, there was no important difference between the students in attaining the lowest grade (D). However, the results turn out to be less surprising when considering the fact that the requirements in bilingual classes are higher than in the non-bilingual classes. The bilingual students said that their teachers are very demanding and strict and the school load is considerable. The school pays considerable attention to studying foreign languages, which is evident in the bilingual students' responses in the next sections.

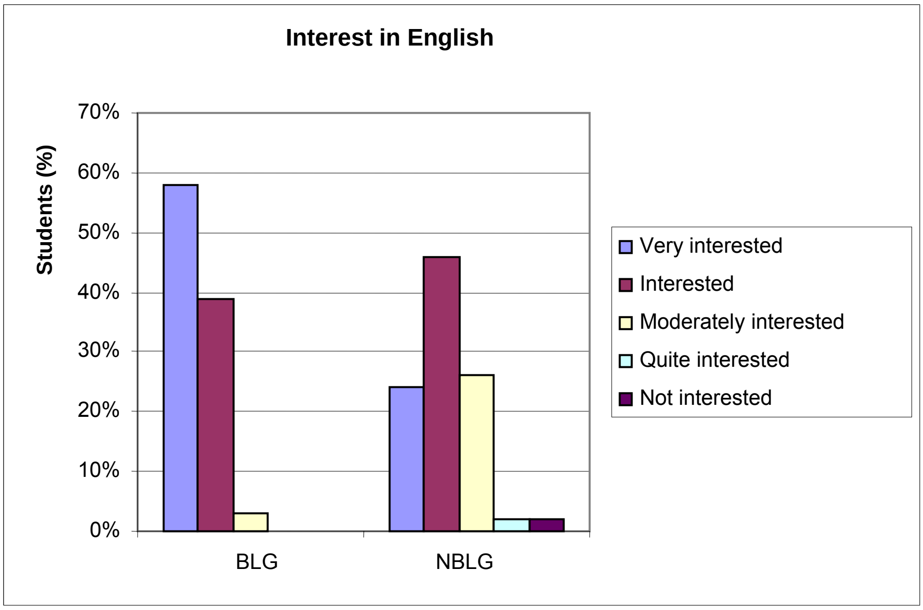
11.4.1.3 INTEREST IN ENGLISH AND WAYS OF GETTING IN CONTACT WITH ENGLISH

Because I expected the bilingual students to be more interested in English than the non-bilingual students, I also assumed that they had travelled more extensively to English-speaking countries than the non-bilinguals. Furthermore, I believed that both groups of students come into contact with English through listening to music and watching TV and movies, and hence I examined where the differences between these two groups become evident.

INTEREST IN ENGLISH

The results show that the bilingual students are considerably more interested in English, which was already expected as they joined the bilingual track because of their interest in foreign languages, especially English, which will give them supposedly better career opportunities (see Figure 17).

Figure 17. Interest in English

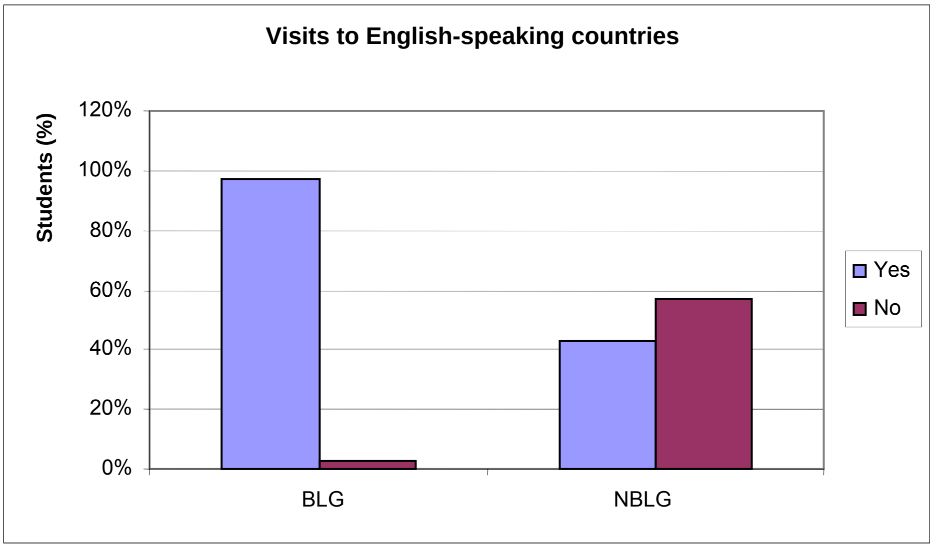


There is an important difference between the two groups in the *very interested* response, which was expected. In addition, no bilingual students chose *quite interested* or *not interested* from the list.

VISITS TO ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

The biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students can be seen in their visits to English-speaking countries. A very large percentage of the bilingual students (97%) had visited an English-speaking country, whereas more than half of the non-bilingual students stated that they had never visited an English-speaking country (57%).

Figure 18. Visits to English-speaking countries



This big difference might be explained by comparing these results with the higher education level attained by the bilingual students' parents. I believe that the bilingual students' parents can afford to finance their children's visits abroad because of better-paid jobs.

WAYS OF COMING INTO CONTACT WITH ENGLISH OUTSIDE SCHOOL

All students claim that they mainly come into contact with English by listening to music, watching TV and movies, and listening to radio programmes in English.

The only difference was revealed in playing computer games, since more non-bilingual than bilingual students say that they play computer games as a way of coming into contact with English.

11.4.1.4 VIEW OF ENGLISH CLASSES AND REASONS FOR ATTENDING BUSINESS SCHOOL

The students' responses that considered their view on English as a school subject, and their reasons for attending business school were meant to reveal where the biggest differences and similarities between the two groups can be found.

VIEW OF ENGLISH CLASSES

As far as their satisfaction with English classes is concerned, most bilingual students responded by saying that they like English classes because there is the focus on speaking English. They state that this has helped them to greatly improve their speaking skills. The second most significant response from them was that they like English classes because they improve their business vocabulary.

On the other hand, they criticised being exposed to so many difficult business expressions in English which might never be needed in their future business careers. Their second greatest complaint was about difficult tests and demanding lessons.

However, most non-bilingual students claimed that there is nothing in particular that they like about their English classes. The second biggest response concerned speaking English in class a lot and the element of fun and the lack of demand.

The non-bilingual students' criticism about English classes was the impression that they do not speak enough English, and that they have to do far too much grammar practice and homework.

All in all, none of the bilingual students said that English lessons were fun and interesting. In addition, a full 33% of non-bilinguals said that there was nothing in particular they liked about their English classes, compared to only 8% of bilinguals that claimed the same.

CHOICE TO ATTEND BUSINESS SCHOOL

Most bilingual as well as non-bilingual students stated that they chose to attend business school because of their own interest. However, more bilingual than non-bilingual students admitted that they were attending this school because of their parents' wish (33%), compared to 17% of the non-bilingual students that decided to follow their parents' advice.

5% of the bilinguals chose this school because of the focus on languages and 3% of them felt that this school seemed like the best choice, whereas nobody among the non-bilinguals claimed the same.

Furthermore, 13% of the non-bilinguals were influenced by their brothers or sisters' advice to pursue business school. Nobody among the bilinguals chose this option.

11.4.2 BILINGUAL STUDENTS

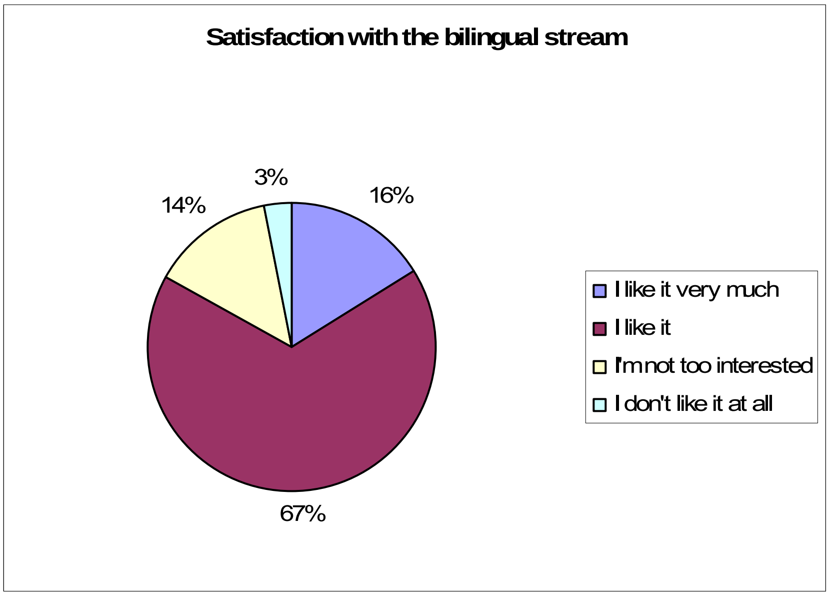
In addition, the bilingual students were given a special set of questions that are analysed in this section. The students were asked to respond to the following questions:

- Do you like studying business school subjects in English?
- What do you especially like about studying business school subjects in English?
- What do you dislike about studying business school subjects in English?
- What short and long-term benefits will you have from studying business school subjects in English?

11.4.2.1 SATISFACTION WITH THE BILINGUAL TRACK

A great majority of the bilingual students (81%) stated that they like (options: *I like it very much* and *I like it)* studying business subjects in English (see Figure 19), although 19% of students were not very interested or not interested at all.

Figure 19. Satisfaction with the bilingual track



In the preliminary interviews with the bilingual students that preceded the oral tests, some students admitted that their initial excitement with the bilingual track diminished because their teachers were too demanding and had too great expectations. During the course of their studies, a few students realised that they did not like studying business, but they nevertheless chose the bilingual track because they were very interested in English.

ADVANTAGES OF STUDYING BUSINESS SCHOOL SUBJECTS IN ENGLISH

Because this was an open question in the questionnaire, the bilingual students could list any advantages of studying commercial subjects bilingually. Their answers were then summed up in eight categories.

An absolute winner among bilingual students' responses was the opportunity to speak English more because a full 81% of students included this advantage among their answers. The second most frequently chosen benefit of studying business subjects in English was connected with increased career opportunities in business (36%). The students expected to have better career prospects for the future. The opportunity to substantially improve business vocabulary in English was selected by 19% of all bilingual students. Other less frequently selected options were the opportunity to discuss business issues in English and the opportunity to improve English skills. One student mentioned that studying business subjects in English can help you read business journals in English. One response was about being able to watch business channels on TV. One of the most proficient students admitted that it is definitely useful to attend the bilingual track although she did not like it very much.

The responses were more or less expected, especially the opportunity to speak English a lot in school. What surprises me is the low percentage of students that believe that taking commercial subjects in English helps improve business vocabulary in English.

11.4.2.2 DISSATISFACTION WITH THE BILINGUAL TRACK

The question concerned with disadvantages of attending the bilingual track was also an open question. One of the most common complaints about bilingual classes (31% of students listed this option) is the lack of translations or no translations at all of business vocabulary into German. In class, students feel that difficult business expressions would need to be translated into German because they are discussing topics and words that are not familiar to them even in their native language.

The same amount of criticism (31% of students) concerns having to remember so many difficult business expressions. 36% of students complained that the classes are very demanding and boring, and that overly theoretical topics that are even hard to understand in German are discussed in class. Interestingly, there were only few students that dared to criticise bilingual teachers who either have insufficient knowledge of the business topics or poor pronunciation in English.

Additionally, one student pointed out that not enough practical work is included in the bilingual courses. This criticism was also expected because during oral interviews the students especially complained about the heavy school load they are exposed to in the bilingual classes.

11.4.2.3 BENEFITS FROM STUDYING COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS IN ENGLISH

Last but not least, the bilingual students were asked in an open question about the short- and long-term benefits of studying commercial subjects in English. Most of them expect that they will have increased career opportunities working for international companies (97% of bilingual students chose this idea) or even working abroad. 24% of the students strongly feel they will improve their English speaking skills.

Lower percentages were found when it comes to the question whether it is easier to travel internationally if you are able to speak English well. Similarly low percentages could be found in improving their business vocabulary, having better grades in English and receiving better education.

My expectation was met that the bilingual students who study commercial subjects in English are aware that improving especially their spoken English and business English skills will increase their future career prospects.

11.5 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The analysis of the students' responses in the questionnaires met most of my expectations.

The parents of the bilingual students are better educated than the parents of the non-bilingual students. A higher percentage of them hold university degrees and a significantly lower percentage of them completed only primary school in comparison to the parents of the non-bilingual students. The parents of the bilingual students also speak more foreign languages than their counterparts, which indicates that parents significantly influence their children's level of interest in learning English, studying business subjects in English, having higher aspirations for the future and achieving success in school. This is supported by results that show a considerably higher level of interest in studying English and other foreign languages by the bilingual students than the non-bilingual students. Their parents probably serve as role models for the bilingual students because their knowledge of foreign languages, high level of education and successful careers offer them a great model for the future. What surprises me a bit is the bilingual students' claim (33% of them admitted this) that they attend business school because of their parents' wish. Fortunately, most of them say that the sole reason for attending business school is their own interest.

The biggest difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students was found in the visit to English-speaking countries. Probably due to economic reasons, significantly more bilingual students have visited such countries (97%), which made them more proficient and fluent in the language. This may be connected with their parents' higher education level, and consequently their well-paid jobs and higher status in society. In comparison, 57% of the non-bilingual students never had the chance to visit English-speaking countries.

Both groups of students are connected with English outside school through music, movies, TV, radio and computers.

The bilingual and non-bilingual students' overall grades in English and business courses could not be compared because the expectations and grading criteria differ tremendously. Their different treatment in school also affects their grades because the bilingual students have to work very hard to prove themselves in school.

The satisfaction with the English classes seems to be greater with the non-bilingual students, who claim that their lessons are fun and interesting. They are also satisfied with the lower level of expectations in their classes, but still complain about too much grammar and too much homework. None of the bilingual students find an element of fun in the English classes. On the contrary, they report that the English classes are boring and uninteresting, even though they do admit that they like them because they have the chance to speak a lot of English in class, discuss business issues in English and improve their business vocabulary. However, the bilingual students also feel that the business expressions they learn in business English and bilingual classes are too difficult, and they suspect that they might be irrelevant for their future careers because they probably will never need them again. According to that, the business topics discussed in these classes are too theoretical and difficult to understand even in their native language.

I was a bit surprised with the bilingual students' complaints about how difficult and demanding their bilingual classes are. They also complained about the lack of translations into their native language. Nevertheless, a great percentage of the bilingual students expect to have better career opportunities in the future and even work in English-speaking countries. In addition, they are aware that a heavy school load makes them proficient speakers of English and they even expect further improvement in their language skills, especially speaking skills.

These findings are in line with another research that compares the social backgrounds of bilingual and non-bilingual students (the DESI research). It is evident from the DESI research that the social and educational background of the students' parents has to be taken into account when comparing bilingual and non-bilingual students because these students tend to be a select group. At the same time, the impact of the bilingual programme on the students' competences is still very striking (Beck and Klieme 2007; DESI-Konsortium 2008: 454).

Finally, it has to be noted that the purpose of using a questionnaire in this study of business English is descriptive. It reveals differences and similarities between the bilingual and non-bilingual groups. It is not used to investigate the extent to which the higher level of English achieved by the bilingual group results from background variables.

12 FINAL OBSERVATIONS AND FUTURE CHALLENGES

The analyses of test results obtained from the bilingual and non-bilingual students of the Bundeshandelsakademie 1 Salzburg revealed that the bilingual students achieved better results in all three tests overall. More detailed analyses however proved that there are areas in which the differences between them are more or less significant.

The correlation between the two sets of holistic scores for speaking and writing checked with Pearson's *r* is higher and more significant in the writing test, but a bit lower in the speaking test. This may be because speaking abilities are more difficult to assess than writing abilities. For instance, fluency is difficult to assess because it can be influenced by students' hesitations during the testing performance. In addition, the face-to-face contact with the rater adds to the psychological element of fear during testing.

The comparison of the analytic assessment of spoken and written productions indicates that the bilingual students are significantly more proficient in writing than speaking. There are important differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students in all five criteria, especially in their vocabulary use.

The slightest difference between them can be seen in the 'fluency' analytic criterion of the speaking test. This is not surprising because during the spoken performance, the bilingual students paid too much attention to the correct choice of vocabulary and to grammatical accuracy, which considerably hindered their spontaneity and thus their fluency. The non-bilingual students, on the other hand, were not bothered by accuracy of expressions and seemed to enjoy narrating the story, which enhanced their fluency score. The 'description' analytic criterion in the speaking test does not reveal major differences between bilinguals and non-bilinguals (see Figure 10), which is additionally proved in a more detailed analysis of the students' use of expressions of feelings and additional remarks on the background in the picture story. The biggest difference between the two groups of students in analytic spoken assessment is seen in 'accuracy'. A similar phenomenon is in line with other research results (DESI) (Beck and Klieme 2007; DESI-Konsortium 2008). In addition, the C-test analysis of the occurrence of inflectional errors and selection errors of the wrong word class proves that the non-bilingual students are much weaker in grammar than the bilingual students.

As far as the subjects' vocabulary use is concerned, "bathtub" effect errors are found only in the analysis of written production, but they are not evident in the students' spoken production. This additional analysis of errors in the students' scripts supports the biggest difference between the bilinguals and non-bilinguals found in their written performance concerning vocabulary use. In the students' scripts, their use of L1 and L2 communication strategies has revealed that non-bilinguals rely considerably more on L1 communication strategies (mainly code-switching and literal translations) than bilinguals. As far as L2 communication strategies are concerned, both groups have applied these acceptable strategies. Here, non-bilinguals are a positive surprise because they rely a lot more on L2 strategies than it was expected. Furthermore, in the speaking test, the bilingual students show a higher level of pragmatic knowledge as they use a wider range of fluency markers or expressions of possibility and vagueness than the non-bilingual students. An excessive use of *I think* by non-bilinguals further reveals their lower level of pragmatic knowledge.

Furthermore, one can also draw a comparison with the C-test analysis of the vocabulary-use errors, which reveals the biggest difference between the bilinguals and non-bilinguals in this test. Namely, considerably more non-bilingual students supplied words that do not exist in English. The analysis of 14 specific business C-test items shows that the bilingual students are more successful in supplying all business items.

The comparison of C-test averages revealed that the difference between the bilingual and non-bilingual students is statistically significant.

The results obtained from the questionnaires support the findings in the three tests in which the bilingual students claimed that they were exposed to demanding lessons and were expected not to make mistakes because they belonged to the school's elite. During my testing at the school, the bilingual students often asked me if their teachers would see my test results and if this would hurt their grades in school. Even though they were reassured that nobody at their school would see the scores, they still did not fully believe me. The social background showed that the bilingual students' parents have a higher education level (the biggest difference is evident in comparing the highest and lowest education level), and also speak more foreign languages (the biggest discrepancy is again evident in speaking no languages and speaking four languages). The bilingual students are obviously greatly influenced by their parents, who strongly encourage them to learn foreign languages and to continue their studies at university level. The bilinguals have greater interest in English, more contact with English and better grades, even though some grades cannot be compared, especially the grades received in business courses taught in English. As for the bilingual students' satisfaction with the bilingual track, they claim that they speak a lot in bilingual classes, which helps them improve their speaking skills, and consequently it will give them better career opportunities abroad. Yet, they complain that the programme itself and the teachers are very demanding and boring. In addition, they believe that the range of vocabulary they learn is too broad and certain commercial expressions need to be translated into German.

All in all, it is evident that the areas in which the bilingual students mostly surpassed the non-bilingual students were grammar and vocabulary use, which makes them more proficient learners of English. The same findings were elicited from the C-test analysis.

One future research challenge that could be extended from my research data is the study of the gender differences, which was not addressed in this study.

I also see a future challenge in carrying out a large-scale study at a different business school that would involve more than 100 students in the sample as I believe it would further underline my findings.

There are also future research opportunities to carry out a study including the receptive skills of listening and reading. In addition, I would also include C-test analysis of specific business items, but I see a further challenge in studying the underlying strategies that are applied by bilingual and non-bilingual students when solving the more specialised business C-test items. It would be interesting to determine whether the amount of text-level processing in solving specific business items also depends on the subjects' language proficiency, and if they would be in line with Sigott's findings (Sigott 2004).

My results are in line with other research findings (e.g., DESI). Some of the differences between the bilingual and non-bilingual students may be due to their social backgrounds, but not all of them, as can be seen in the DESI research.

To conclude, I am glad that with this research I ambitiously pioneered in the field of teaching business English by comparing bilingual and non-bilingual business students, a content area that has been neglected by other researchers. At the same time, I hope my investigations will provide the groundwork for future studies as I would like to have the chance to compare my research results with other research findings obtained in this specific area of study.

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Web pages:

Mount Royal College, Faculty of Continuing Education webpage: http://conted.mtroyal.ca/communications/pubspeak.shtml

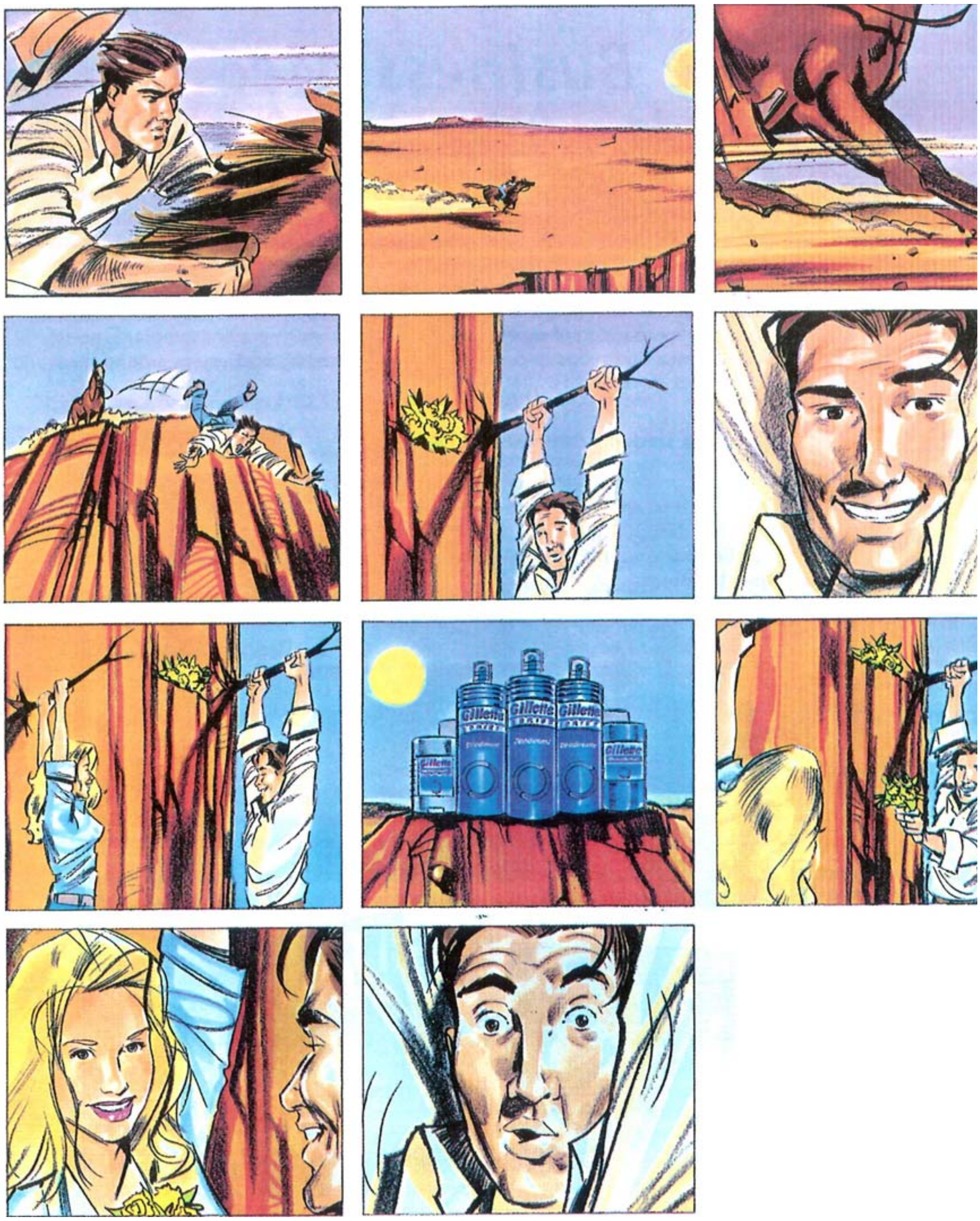
University of Florida webpage – course on speaking and writing in business: http://www.nwe.ufl.edu/~jdouglas/4750.html

Web page on improving listening skills in business: http://www.businesslistening.com/

Wikipedia – explanation of malapropisms: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Special:Search?search=malapropism&fulltext=Search; retrieved on 7 July 2006

15 APPENDIX

SPEAKING TASK: PICTURE STORY



Ich versichere, daß ich die vorliegende Doktorarbeit selbständig verfaßt und keine anderen als die angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel verwendet habe.

Dortmund, den 7. Juli 2009

(Unterschrift)