# Pedagogical Linguistics in Romance

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## Abstract

Linguists tend to underestimate their educational and societal role, but linguistics matters. Therefore, this article is a plea for linguists to act accordingly and to fulfill their important role boldly and creatively. By dealing with pedagogical aspects of Romance linguistics, an area which I call *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics (RPL)*, I highlight the crucial role of linguistics in various pedagogical contexts of Romance languages and how all involved parties benefit from a strong, confident, and open-minded linguistic component. I assume a wide definition of RPL, thus including not only foreign and heritage language learning and teaching, but also teaching of linguistics in higher education. I demonstrate how *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics* could look in practice with five examples. In order to illustrate how language pedagogy can benefit from linguistics and what the task of linguistics is in this regard, I discuss subjunctives as well as intonation in Spanish and French foreign language acquisition, and I refer to work on Spanish as a heritage language. Subsequently, I will exemplify two concrete implementations of RPL in higher education by using the method of research-led learning in advanced courses of linguistics dealing with intonation as well as by presenting the *Hourglass-Portfolio-Method*.

**Keywords:** Pedagogical Linguistics; formal linguistics; language pedagogy; higher education; Romance languages, heritage languages.

## 1. Pedagogical Linguistics and Romance languages

The relationship between (formal) linguistics and language pedagogy has a long tradition (cf. e.g., Lewis 1974; Moser 1975; Seelbach 1983; Peyer & Portman 1996; Rothstein 2010; Whong et al. 2013). However, the relationship was not always peaceful and harmonious (e.g., Peyer & Portmann 1996; Widdowson 2000, 2002, 2020; Hudson 2004). Despite various disagreements and different perspectives on the matter, there are many reasons for close cooperation between linguistics and language pedagogy (e.g., Rothstein 2010; Hudson 2020; Trotzke & Rankin 2020a; Trotzke 2020). With Rothstein (2010: 15-16) I assume that a close, unprejudiced cooperation between the two disciplines is important for learners and also profitable for the respective disciplines. He emphasizes the positive interaction between the two disciplines and lists several benefits for both of them.

A key reason why linguistics should be interested in a cooperation with language pedagogy is that linguistics needs more outreach to survive (Rothstein 2010: 15). He highlights how important it is for linguistics to become known to a broad part of the population. And the easiest way to become known and to gain a good reputation is done most easily in school – by means of teaching linguistics-based content. And for that reason, linguistics needs language pedagogy (Rothstein 2010: 15).[1] He emphasizes that the aim is not to teach hard formal linguistic theory, but general basic concepts of language. According to him, this could gradually make linguistics better known. I think he is raising a very important point that linguistics as a discipline should not overlook. Romance linguistics in Germany, for example, is struggling with a decline in students and there is a risk that some departments will have to be closed.[2] In France, the situation seems to be similar for "Sciences du Langage". And one does not necessarily hear optimistic voices from Portugal either (J. Costa, p.c.). A second benefit that linguistics has, according to Rothstein (2010: 15), is that an early linking of the two disciplines in university education could be of interest to learners. It could promote the motivation of future teachers if the benefits of language theory content for language didactic issues are conveyed to them in an exemplary manner early on in their studies (see also, e.g., Radatz 2016).

While these two points are worth exploring further, I will focus on the benefits that foreign and heritage language pedagogy can draw from linguistics in the present paper. According to Rothstein (2010: 15) these are:

a) a linguistic examination of the subject content can determine the empirical accuracy of the content taught in the classroom, and

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[1] It is also important that we as linguists seek publicity ourselves and represent our role as experts in language issues. Of interest in this context may be (a) the not-for-profit organization *Bilingualism Matters*, which is a community of experts "who share the commitment to make the latest, research-based evidence on multilingualism and language learning available and accessible to families, communities, and professionals in education, health or policy" (https://www.bilingualism-matters.org/); and (b) the newly established "LingComm" conference series, which has set itself the goal of "Communicating Linguistics to Broader Audiences", may be of interest in this context (https://lingcomm.org/).

[2] Interestingly, smaller university towns seem to be the most affected, but this is an issue outside of the interface discussed here.

b) linguistics can and should provide sufficient and manageable information on linguistic phenomena that language pedagogy needs for optimal teaching.

In order for language pedagogy to truly benefit from both points, commitment and openness are required of linguistics, which, given the advantages for linguistics discussed above, is worth it. From a more general point of view, it has to be noted, however, that a self-critical examination reveals that most linguists do not do much to help non-linguists understand their work and findings. This typically results in linguists not being perceived and recognized as language experts by large parts of the population.[3] We linguists are thus giving away an important contribution to society that we can and should make.

Now returning to the interface between language pedagogy and linguistics, one sees that there is hope, though. Based on a currently ever-increasing number of conference series, workshops, keynote talks, linguistically informed language didactic materials, publications and newly founded journals, one can say that linguistics is aware of the aforementioned requirements (commitment and openness) and is going down this path with a certain vigor.[4] The current upswing in the interface topic speaks

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[3]      For example, the current debate about gender-equitable language in Germany has been dominated by contributions from politicians, actors, comedians or natural scientists. Linguists with their expertise do not play a significant role in this (but see the recent call by linguists against gender-equitable language in public broadcasting (here) and the recent press release by the Leibniz Institute for the German Language (IDS; here)). Another example is the discussion of potential benefits and drawbacks of bilingualism, which is strongly influenced by work in cognitive psychology (e.g., Costa et al. 2008, Kaushanskaya & Marian 2009, Marian & Shook 2012, Shokrkon & Nicoladis 2021). Here, the linguistic side is typically not considered further, but work such as Sorace (2011), Wolleb et al. (2018) or Bonfieni et al. (2020) shows that aspects such as typological distance or the view that bilingualism is a continuum (and a comparison of bilinguals with monolinguals is not necessarily purposeful) must also be taken into account. Furthermore, the well-known question of how many languages one speaks when saying one is a linguist can also be attributed to ignorance about our discipline among the general population.

[4]      *Conference series and workshops*: (a) Modern Linguistics & Language Didactics (LiDi; Conference series since 2018); (b) Pedagogical Linguistics workshop: Language Analysis to inform Language Teaching (Leeds, 2019); (c) Trends in pedagogical transmission of prosody (TiPToP; workshop 2020/2021, Konstanz); (d) E-calm: Analyser de grands corpus scolaires et universitaires : des questions pour la recherche et pour la formation (workshop 2022, Bordeaux), (e) Linguistics in school-based language provision (Newcastle 2022, workshop), among others.

*Linguistically informed didactic materials*: (a) Gramática Orientada a las Competencias/GrOC – Barcelona (A. Gallego & G. Canovas); (b) Sprachförderprofis & DaZHOCHZWEI (P. Schulz and her team, Frankfurt, 2016-2022 & 2021-2023 respectively); (c) Research-related support of supplementary education in Spanish as a heritage language in Germany (C. Lleó and her team, Hamburg, 2007-2010; see section 2.3 for details), (d) Heiszenberger & Trouvain (2021), and others.

*New journal*: Pedagogical Linguistics (since 2020).

*Publications*: (a) Edited volumes/monographs: e.g., Rothstein (2010), Bürgel & Siepmann (2013, 2014, 2016), Whong et al. (2013), Krifka et al. (2014), Trotzke & Kupisch (2020), Marqueta Gracia et al. (2022); (b) Articles: e.g., Hudson (2004, 2020), Bruhn de Garavito (2013), Rothman & Slabakova (2018), Sheehan et al. (2019, 2021), Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020), Trotzke (2020), Trotzke & Rankin (2020a), Pešková (2020), Feldhausen (2021), van Maastricht (2021).

for itself: the field of (formal) linguistics has started to (re-)explore what the potential importance of formal linguistic research might be for language pedagogy. Let us call this area of research *Pedagogical Linguistics*.

The expression was not coined by me but was already used in 2019 for a workshop in Leeds and has experienced an important boost with the establishment of the journal *Pedagogical Linguistics* (Trotzke & Rankin 2020b). Trotzke & Rankin (2020a) discuss the term, the purpose of the journal, and explain to the reader what they mean by it:

> The term is not intended to denote a new subfield of linguistics. Rather, it serves as the point of contact for any and all linguistic research that is pedagogical in orientation (p.2). […] [W]e envisage *Pedagogical Linguistics* to be […] clearly focused on the nature and cognitive underpinnings of language itself. (p.3)

They continue to explain the term and at this point they already refer to the journal by *Pedagogical Linguistics* – although one does not necessarily have to draw a boundary to the technical term:

> [W]e see *Pedagogical Linguistics* as offering a point of convergence where all approaches to the nature of language and all approaches to the study of linguistics are welcome to formulate the pedagogical import of their research. (p. 5)

Based on these insights, the term *Pedagogical Linguistics* can be defined as follows: the fundamental aspect of *Pedagogical Linguistics* is the explicit formulation of the pedagogical import of a linguistically sound aspect, study, or enquiry, where the theoretical framework of the linguistic starting point does not play a relevant role.

In addition, I would like the term *Pedagogical Linguistics* to be explicitly understood more broadly than what can be understood based on the current state of knowledge. In the previous paragraphs, I have focused heavily on language pedagogy. Thus, the interpretation suggests that the "pedagogical import" is limited to language pedagogical aspects (in, e.g., L2 or heritage language contexts). This is not the case. A pedagogical import can (and should) also exist in linguistics classes in higher education. As described before, Rothstein (2010) has addressed the outreach necessary for linguistics, and school was the focus for him. I think, in turn, that we should also see our students as possible multipliers: eventually they will leave the university and spread an opinion about the discipline of linguistics, whether it be at the school where they will work in the future, or in another environment. Pedagogically-valuable linguistics lessons are a central component in ensuring that students are able to make the discipline of linguistics and its socially relevant content more widely known in society after their university degree – and thus help (us) to spread knowledge about linguistics and its benefits. Later in this article, I will provide examples of what *(Romance) Pedagogical Linguistics* in higher education could look like.

Linguists being interested in language pedagogy issues is not new (albeit still rather rare), so why do we need a new term? Trotzke & Rankin (2020a) discuss this issue in greater detail and provide the reader with good arguments as to why using the term *Pedagogical Linguistics* – instead of *Applied Linguistics* (e.g. Davies & Elder 2004) or *Educational Linguistics* (e.g. Hult 2008) – makes sense (even though there is much overlap between the terms). *Pedagogical Linguistics*, which "should serve to focus attention on the specifically pedagogical" (p.2), deliberately stands out from

applied linguistics, in which questions at the interface between language, law, politics and society are dealt with and where the emphasis is not always pedagogical. *Pedagogical Linguistics* is also distinct from educational linguistics, which is more concerned with sociology and takes into account aspects such as language policy and language planning (see Trotzke & Rankin 2020a: 2 for details).

The title of the present article is *Pedagogical Linguistics in Romance* and not simply *Pedagogical Linguistics*, thus highlighting the Romance languages. In Europe, there is a high demand for multilingual competence and high amount of language teaching due to the political and geographical situation. Romance linguistics, established for a long time, should especially be leading the charge here, given that Romance languages are very well studied from a (formal and descriptive) linguistic perspective and have been at the center of linguistic research for decades. They have had a decisive influence on various formal-theoretical developments (as for example Pollock's 1989 Split-Infl hypothesis, Rizzi's 1997 Split-CP hypothesis, or the important role of the Romance languages in current research on heritage speakers, see, e.g., Müller & Hulk 2001; Lleó et al. 2013; Kupisch et al. 2014; Flores et al. 2017; Potowski 2018). At the same time, the Romance languages represent one of the most important language families in foreign language acquisition in the school systems in Europe and America. In the European Union, the Romance languages are the most important language subjects after English. Therefore, this article is a plea for giving Romance languages their own space in *Pedagogical Linguistics*, and I propose to call this area *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics*.

Just as Trotzke & Rankin (2020a) do not want to open a new subdiscipline with the term *Pedagogical Linguistics*, I also do not want to open a new subdiscipline with the term *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics*. It is rather about giving the Romance languages an explicit place in the research on *Pedagogical Linguistics*, which I assume will grow larger and more numerous in the coming years. Proposing the term does not mean, however, that a border should be drawn with other languages and language families. The openness previously desired for linguistics also applies in this case. In addition, just like the term *Pedagogical Linguistics*, the term *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics* also addresses the link between specialist knowledge and didactic preparation in the linguistic training of future Romance-language teachers (and other students) at universities. As linguists and scholars of Romance languages, we must not give away the potential that we have at universities as educators of future teachers and members of our society (see below for more details on this aspect).

The previous introduction to the concept of *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics* is followed by examples of how the concept can be implemented in language pedagogy and higher education. In section 2, I address the relationship between (formal) linguistics and teaching in the language classroom. Based on recent investigations into the subjunctive (Feldhausen & Biedebach 2020) and intonation (Feldhausen 2021), sections 2.1 and 2.2 respectively, I demonstrate the tremendous gap between well-grounded linguistic knowledge and the implementation of the phenomenon in the foreign language classroom. By doing so, I provide examples of how the two aspects "linguistic verification" and "providing sufficient and manageable information" can be implemented in our activities as linguists. As will be clear from these examples, I see

educational value in explicit teaching of grammatical issues.[5] In section 2.1.4, I also give considerations as to where the boundary between (pedagogical) linguistics and language didactics is (guiding questions are: What does a linguist do? What does a language didactician do? Where do their activities meet and where is the discipline-specific area that represents the basis for the interface?). In section 2.3, explicit reference is made to the heritage language classroom and the role of *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics*.

In section 3, I deal with teaching linguistics in higher education. The aim of this section is to give ideas for how we as linguists can turn our current students and future ex-students (who mostly do not work in academic linguistics), into multipliers and ambassadors of an interesting and (socially) important discipline: linguistics. For this, I will present two concepts on how to design linguistic teaching with future language teachers. In section 3.1, I introduce the concept of *research-led learning*, which I would like to illustrate with the help of intonation research (Feldhausen 2021). Then, I discuss a method that can be used to teach academic skills in close relation with our subject matter: the *Hourglass-Portfolio-Method* (section 3.2).

## 2. Romance Pedagogical Linguistics and teaching languages

### 2.1. The subjunctive in Spanish

The subjunctive is an integral part of the mood system of Romance languages (cf. Rothstein & Thieroff 2010: Part II). Consequently, it plays a central role in second language acquisition (SLA) and language pedagogy of Romance languages (cf. Collentine 2010, 2014). At the same time, however, the subjunctive is one of those grammatical domains of Romance languages that is difficult for learners to acquire (cf. among others Busch 2009; Bürgel 2011; Collentine 2010, 2014; Gudmestad 2006, 2012, 2013; Howard 2008; Isabelli 2007; Terrell et al. 1987).

Against this background, Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) analyze how the subjunctive is taught in the Spanish as a foreign language classroom in Germany by asking three central questions:
1. Which learning goals are pupils expected to reach according to the core curriculum?
2. What is the connection between those goals and the teaching units in the textbooks?
3. Is textbook information based on scientific-linguistic knowledge about the Spanish subjunctive?

Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) argue that the subjunctive poses a problem for learners because it is torn apart by the learning of single and disconnected triggers instead of being presented as a relatively coherent phenomenon that can be grasped in the learning process. They eventually make a proposal of how the subjunctive can be taught based on the deep knowledge of the subjunctive accumulated in the scientific

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[5]    There are large debates about explicit knowledge and its interface with proficiency / performance (see, e.g. Krashen 1982, Han & Ellis 1998, Ellis N. 2008, Ellis R. 2008, Ellis & Roever 2021). However, since a deeper dive into the topic is beyond the scope of this paper, it is important for the reader to know that I see the educational value of explicit teaching, regardless of the broader controversies.

field of linguistics. By considering fundamental linguistic insight, they hypothesize that the subjunctive can be taught more homogeneously and be acquired more easily.

In what follows, I briefly present the phenomenon and outline where the difficulties of the subjunctive lie. After that, I will address the shortcomings detected by the authors and the way in which they propose to address them. At the end, I present reflections on the division of labor between linguists and language didacticians.

### 2.1.1 Brief description of the phenomenon

The subjunctive is a verbal mood in Spanish (e.g., Martinell Gifre 1985; Gsell & Wandruszka 1986; Bosque 1990, 2012: 374; Laca 2010; Fábregas 2014) that has a distinct morphological system (cf. (1a) vs. (1b)) and mainly occurs in complement, relative and adverbial clauses. The subjunctive has an important vitality in Spanish (see Gallego & Alonso-Marks 2014 and references therein). Broadly speaking, one can say that subjunctives consistently appear when the speaker conveys a meaning related to uncertainty or counterfactuality (Quer 2020: 6). However, it is not always so, which is why there is intense discussion about the function of the subjunctive (Schifko 1967; Gsell & Wandruszka 1986; Wandruszka 2000; De Jonge 2001; Hummel 2001; Busch 2009; Bachler 2010). The use of the subjunctive depends not only on certain triggers (e.g., certain verb classes (such as verbs of volition (1a), desire, order, doubt…; but not assertive verbs such as *saber* 'to know' (2)), interrogativity, and certain conjunctions), but also on nuances of meaning (3). Whereas the subjunctive in (3a) indicates that it is unclear for the speakers whether such a car exists, the indicative in (3b) indicates that such a car exists for the speakers, but they have to find it. The complexity of the subjunctive lies in the fact that although it is used regularly, it cannot be described with a few rules.

(1)     a. Quiero     que Ana **compre**     este libro.          Subjunctive
           want.1SG that Ana buy.3SG.SBJ that book.
           'I want that Ana buys the book.'

        b. Ana **compra**      este libro.                         Indicative
           Ana buy.3SG.IND  that book
           'Ana buys the book.'

(2)     <u>Sabe</u>            que Ana **compra**     este libro.
        know.3SG.IND that Ana  buy.3SG.IND that book
        'S/he knows that Ana buys the book.'

(3)     (cf. Fábregas 2014: 24f.)
        a. Necesitan     un coche que **sea**           grande.
           need.3PL.IND a  car    that be.3SG.SUBJ big
           'They need a car that is big.'

        b. Necesitan     un coche que <u>es</u>           grande
           need.3PL.IND a  car    that be.3SG.IND  big
           'They need a car that is big.'

*2.1.2 Learning goals and shortcomings in teaching the Spanish subjunctive*
In Germany, the school learning goals are formulations of the general goals determined in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR). Since Germany has a federal structure, each federal state ("Land") can have its own specific learning goals based on the CEFR.[6] For illustrating purposes, Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) list the learning goals of the curriculum for the federal state of Hesse published by the Hessian Ministry of Education (HKM 2011a, 2011b, 2016).

The authors show that a general view of grammar is described and that the subjunctive is specifically mentioned (Feldhausen & Biedebach 2020: 114f.). The *subjuntivo* is introduced in the third year of learning and includes "*subjuntivo* (forms), use of *subjuntivo* with different triggers, distinction in the use of *subjuntivo e indicativo*" (HKM 2011a: 19). In the fourth year of learning, the subjunctive imperfect and conditional clauses are added, so that overall, students should be able to use the *subjuntivo* according to regularly-practiced triggers before the transition to upper secondary school (cf. HKM 2011a: 21, 24).

The core curriculum for modern foreign languages emphasizes communicative competence, transcultural competence, and language learning competence (cf. HKM 2011b: 15). The *subjuntivo* falls into the area of communicative skills, but as a grammatical category, it is part of the linguistic resources, which consist of vocabulary, grammar, orthography, pronunciation and intonation. The core curriculum emphasizes that "[t]he highest possible availability is to be strived for; however, they basically have a serving function. [...] The focus is on successful communication" (HKM 2011b: 20). So, first of all, it is important that pupils actually communicate. Since communication is one of the main cross-thematic goals of foreign language teaching, Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) include learning and developing communicative skills – listening, speaking, writing, reading – (in the area of *subjuntivo*) as a learning goal. In addition, for successful communication, it is necessary that errors do not accumulate too much and do not cause misunderstandings. For the *subjuntivo* this means that especially the contrast with the indicative has to be learned and made conscious, because a use of the respective other mode often implies a completely different meaning.

In order to examine which of the aforementioned learning goals can be achieved with the help of Spanish textbooks (approved in Hesse), Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) examined four textbook series (of the three largest textbook publishers in Germany) to see how they treat the topic of the subjunctive, that is, in what order they address forms and uses of the subjunctive, how they explain them, and how the use of the subjunctive is practiced. I will not present the methodological details of their textbook analysis here, but merely capture their main findings.

The results reveal that the textbooks embrace the learning goals reasonably and that the teaching of the subjunctive is typically characterized by (a) introducing a list of elements (such as certain conjunctions and verbs) that trigger the use of the subjunctive; and (b) an excess of written exercises presenting the subjunctive in single independent clauses rather than longer authentic text passages or those targeting

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[6]     Strictly speaking, the individual federal states must follow the official educational standards of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany ("Kultusministerkonferenz"), which in turn are based on the CEFR. However, the federal states are allowed to adapt the standards to their individual needs.

speaking and listening. Thus, the subjunctive is not taught in a context that is at least tentatively authentic; rather, it is practiced in context-free, single sentences that contain a trigger that students must recognize.

The question of whether textbook information is based on scientific-linguistic knowledge about the Spanish subjunctive must be answered by yes and no at the same time. The positive answer to the question refers to the triggers of the subjunctive, which can also be found in the linguistic literature. The negative answer refers to the general presentation of the subjunctive. The subjunctive is introduced as an incoherent phenomenon, occurring only with certain, unconnected triggers. By doing so, important linguistic insight on the subjunctive is ignored.

### 2.1.3 Addressing the shortcomings

Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) think that these trigger-based didactic reductions make the understanding and use of the subjunctive more difficult for learners because they do not see the bigger picture. For Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020), the way to go is a content-driven language education focusing on deeper linguistic background information on the function / the basic value of the subjunctive (e.g., Gsell & Wandruszka 1986, Hummel 2001, Busch 2014) which would provide pupils with a better and more comprehensive understanding of why the subjunctive is used. By doing so, pupils have the chance to see the bigger picture behind the subjunctive.

The authors' idea assumes a linguistic contribution at this point. From a linguistic perspective, however, the situation is as follows: while there is consensus about the subjunctive as an expression of modality, there is dissent about the formulation of the common denominator (= basic value). Consequently, there exists a large number of approaches and hypotheses about the basic value (e.g., Schifko 1967; Gsell & Wandruszka 1986; Wandruszka 2000; De Jonge 2001; Bachler 2010). As the authors point out, the necessity of nevertheless arriving at a goal is formulated by Gsell & Wandruszka (1986, 11) in their seminal work as follows:

> [W]enn es […] nicht gelingt, einen gemeinsamen Nenner zu finden, der zumindest annähernd alle Nebensätze mit Konjunktiv auf eine für sprachliche Kommunikation nutzbare, relevante Weise charakterisiert, bleibt die Modusregelung für den Sprachbenutzer letztlich willkürlich und unmotiviert.
> ([W]hen [...] it is not possible to find a common denominator that characterizes at least approximately all subordinate clauses with subjunctive in a relevant way that can be used for linguistic communication, the rule of mood choice remains ultimately arbitrary and unmotivated for the language user. [own translation])

Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) highlight that this idea is transferable to foreign language acquisition. For the pupils, too, the subjunctive remains arbitrary and unmotivated if they are not taught a (at least approximating) common denominator (= basic value) in foreign language classes.

Thus, the authors are aware of this ongoing discussion in linguistics and therefore argue that a didactic reduction regarding the function of the subjunctive is imperative. We linguists must provide practical and manageable information for language didacticians. The difficult task for linguists, then, is to make certain sacrifices in accuracy and not use every exception and counterexample to undermine the proposal. The hypothesis is that a didactically-simplified definition (that can capture only a part of the data (such as 80%, 70% or 60%)) can already be an enormous learning aid for the pupils.

The authors discuss various definitions of the function of the subjunctive (by Gsell & Wandruszka 1986; Hummel 2001; Busch 2009; and Bachler 2010) and ultimately fall back on Busch's. In Busch (2009: 150f), the subjunctive is defined with the feature **[+ alternative]** or as "There exists an alternative to what is said in the speaker's mind" – in contrast to the indicative, where no mental alternative exists.[7]

**Table 1.** Illustration of that practical approach to teaching the subjunctive

|     | **subjunctive** | **alternative** |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **a.** | Quiero que Ana compre este libro. 'I want Ana to buy the book.' | Ana could also buy a different book. |
| **b.** | Dudo que venga Pedro. 'I doubt that Pedro will come.' | It could nevertheless be the case that Pedro shows up. |
| **c.** | Me gusta que ella viva aquí. 'I like that she lives here.' | It could also have been that she does not live here. |
| **d.** | Estoy cansada de que te quejes. 'I am tired of your complaints.' | You could not have complained either. |
| **e.** | ¿Dijo algo que tuviera sentido? 'Did he say anything meaningful?' | It could also be that he did not just say nonsense. |
| **f.** | Necesitan un coche que sea grande. 'They need a car that is big.' | Maybe the car they want does not exist. |
| **g.** | No podemos hacer nada a menos que varíe la Ley. 'We can do nothing unless the law is changed.' | But perhaps the law does not change. |

**Source:** adapted from Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020: 112f.)

Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) agree with Busch (2009, 163-164) that understanding the basic value as a (non-)existing mental alternative provides a practical and manageable approach for teaching the subjunctive. Therefore, the authors continue to briefly demonstrate the manageability of the alternative idea by means of selected examples (table 1). For a comprehensive empirical examination of the alternative hypothesis or the hypothesis of (non)occurrence, the authors refer to the works of Hummel (2001), Bachler (2010), and Busch (2009). As shown in Table 1, the apparent contrasts (verb classes, reality/factuality of the facts expressed in the subjunctive clause, etc.) become tangible. The authors pick two sentences from Table 1 and explain them in more detail: For sentence (a) in Table 1 *Quiero que Ana compre este libro* 'I want Anna to buy this book' there is the mental alternative that she could buy another book or a pair of pants or even nothing at all. For the indicative sentence *Ana compra este libro*, on the other hand, there is no alternative: If Ana buys the book in question, she buys this book and not another one. In *Me gusta que ella viva aquí* (see sentence c. in Table 1), the subjunctive clause expresses a fact: the person lives here. The alternative refers to the speaker's mental image: S/he likes that she lives here,

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[7]     See De Jonge (2001) for a similar idea.

because she could have lived somewhere else. The indicative version of *Ella vive aquí* 'She lives here' does not evoke the concept of another world where she does not live there. In this way, the other example sentences can also be analyzed, thus showing pupils a unified concept behind the different triggers of the subjunctive (questions, matrix verb, conjunction, negation, relative clauses, adjectives...).

In conclusion, together with the findings from applied linguistics that the L2 acquisition of the subjunctive is only partially successful (Terrel et al. 1987; Collentine 2010, 2014), Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) therefore consider it necessary to approach the teaching of the subjunctive (in textbooks) from a linguistically-informed perspective. They argue that by considering the idea of a basic value for the subjunctive (which is didactically reducible to the feature [+alternative]), the subjunctive can be taught more homogeneously and acquired more easily. They thus argue against a pure concentration on the (semantic) triggers of the subjunctive – but they do not argue against a use of triggers. Their approach is supported by various prior work and findings. For example, Seelbach (1983), Busch (2009), and Huber et al. (2014) already emphasize the necessary consideration of different (syntactic, semantic, and other) approaches when teaching a complex linguistic phenomenon in language didactics.

### 2.1.4 On the division of labor between linguists and language didacticians

Feldhausen & Biedebach (2020) make a specific suggestion for how to better acquire the subjunctive, but they do not prove their proposal empirically. At this point, we come to the question of what the task of linguists is, on the one hand, and of language didacticians, on the other.

I think that it is up to linguists to carry out the linguistic verification of the information in textbooks and to provide the linguistic knowledge in an understandable and didactically-reduced way. Language didacticians, in turn, should be responsible for implementing the provided knowledge in language teaching – and, insofar as the didacticians have influence on textbook design, for incorporating the knowledge into future textbooks in a timely manner.

On the other hand, hypotheses on how to better teach a phenomenon can come from both sides. Linguists are typically very knowledgeable about linguistic phenomena and have a structured understanding of language. They are thus able to present practical and manageable reductions (as in the present case with respect to the function of the subjunctive). Language didacticians, on the other hand, are experts in the mediation process, i.e., how to bring content closer to pupils. In addition, they typically have contact with schools and teachers and thus access to pupils.

The combined knowledge of the two groups thus has the potential to produce the best results for language teaching. This can be done by creating didactic materials that have been experimentally tested beforehand. Also feasible are training courses for teachers, which are oriented towards the needs of the teachers and which are led by (didactically trained) linguists and/or language didacticians. However, it does not necessarily always have to be such large-scale and sophisticated procedures. Alternatively, didactically reduced implementation proposals can, for example, be

published in professional journals for teachers.[8] Overall, it is important that the contents are adequately adapted to the target group.

The testing of Feldhausen & Biedebach's (2020) hypothesis can thus be implemented by linguists, by language didacticians, or in the best case by both expert groups together.

### 2.2. Intonation in the language classroom

Feldhausen (2021) analyzes how intonation is taught in the French and Spanish as a foreign language classroom in Germany.[9] He argues that the teaching might benefit from the deep knowledge of intonation accumulated in the scientific field of linguistics. More concretely, the teaching might benefit from interactive atlases of intonation, which have been available for more than a decade now (cf. Prieto & Cabré 2007-2012; Prieto & Roseano 2009-2013; Prieto et al. 2010-2014). For that aim, he closely scrutinized some of the most important school textbooks and compared the given explanations and exercises on intonation with the learning goals listed in the core curriculum of different (German) states. After that, he showed how the intonation atlas can address the different shortcomings. The following questions were central to his study:

1. What goals should be achieved in L2 acquisition of intonation according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) and the (German) school curricula and how are the goals implemented in textbooks?
2. Is textbook information based on the scientific-linguistic knowledge that exists on intonation?
3. What potential do language atlases of intonation have for foreign language teaching?

Results revealed several weak points in the teaching of intonation that have to be addressed: (a) while the requirements on the knowledge and application of intonation increase step by step in the CEFR and in the different curricula, the consideration of the topic in textbooks decreases, (b) the intonation contours in the textbooks are displayed only as horizontal lines that rise or fall at the end, which leads to an inability of indicating important differences in the intonation of distinct sentence types, (c) the textbooks concentrate only on a small number of sentence types and their contours, and (d) dialectal variation is completely ignored.

According to him, the freely-accessible interactive atlases of intonation can easily address these shortcomings in the classroom. They provide authentic F0 contours for a wide range of sentence types, and dialectal variation is a founding property of language atlases (see below). Furthermore, they can be used when starting to learn the language and can also be integrated for different topics in higher classes when the textbooks stop providing information on intonation. The use of intonation atlases is promising because previous studies have shown that even a short intonation training results in better production and understanding among second language learners (e.g., Missaglia 2007; Smorenburg et al. 2015; Saito & Saito 2017).

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[8]     Such as MarcoELE, Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht Spanisch, französisch heute, Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht Französisch, or Bollettino Itals.

[9]     For a general overview of prosody in second language (teaching) see Chun & Levis (2020) and Trouvain & Braun (2020).

In the following, I provide some background information on the intonation atlas(es), and I will go into more detail about the possibilities of how the linguistically-sound intonation atlas can counteract the shortcomings.

### 2.2.1 The intonation atlas

Language atlases (or dialect atlases) are collections of maps that represent linguistic phenomena with regard to their geographical distribution (cf. Kabatek & Pusch 2008: 231). Most language atlases focus on segmental phonological-phonetic, morphological, syntactic and lexical issues (cf. Kabatek & Pusch 2008: 230-235). Since the mid-2000s, however, there have also been language atlases for intonation that were created by Pilar Prieto and colleagues, first for Catalan (Prieto & Cabré 2007-2012), then for Spanish (Prieto & Roseano 2009-2013, 2010) and subsequently for a large number of Romance languages such as French, Italian, Portuguese, etc. (cf. Prieto et al. 2010-2014; Frota & Prieto 2015).

Intonation atlases chart the geographic distribution of certain intonation contours. The atlases are characterized by the fact that the (typical) intonation contours of different types of sentences or speech acts are listed, e.g., such as declarative sentences (with and without a narrow focus), interrogative sentences (yes-no and partial questions), commands, requests and vocatives. Typically, two to three native speakers were interviewed per exploration point and three different methods for data collection were applied (map task, free interviews and discourse completion task (DCT); cf. Prieto 2001; Vanrell et al. 2018).

The atlases listed here are all free of charge and accessible online. Thus, for example, if one goes to the homepage of the *Interactive Atlas of Romance Intonation* (Prieto et al. 2010-2014), one will immediately see a map on which the Romance-speaking countries are marked. In addition, the exploration points are marked for the individual countries. By clicking on an exploration point, a new page opens, and one has access to the data collected for this location (map task, free interviews, and DCT). As for the data on the different sentence types (i.e., the data stemming from the DCT), the visitor will find the figures with the corresponding F0 contour, including the phonetic and orthographic transcription, and additional information on the experimental context for eliciting the sentence type. There is also an option to listen to the utterance as well as download the utterance (by right-clicking and selecting the appropriate option). As for the free interviews, there is a video of the conversation as well as an orthographic transcription of the interviews with information about the speakers. As for the map tasks, there is the audio recording (which is downloadable), the maps used for the method, and an orthographic transcription of the conversation with information about the speakers. The atlas, thus, provides the visitor with a wide range of optimally prepared data that is easily and immediately accessible. Furthermore, the atlas allows for comparative analyses: In order to compare the data of different regions, one has to click on the different exploration points. So, for example, if one wants to compare the contours for the imperative sentence type for different cities in France, one has to click on the individual exploration points and go to the specific sentence type. In what follows, I will speak of intonation atlas (singular) and just refer to the *Interactive Atlas of Romance Intonation* (Prieto et al. 2010-2014; Frota & Prieto 2015) because it includes most of the Romance languages.

*2.2.2 Weak points in the teaching of intonation and the benefits of using the intonation atlas*

Figure 1 illustrates the first weak point, the contrary course between the increasing requirements on the knowledge and application of intonation in the CEFR and different curricula, on the one hand, and the decreasing consideration of the topic in textbooks, on the other.

**Figure 1.** Contrary course between increasing requirements in CEFR and the curricula and increasing consideration of intonation in textbooks for teaching French and Spanish in the German classroom
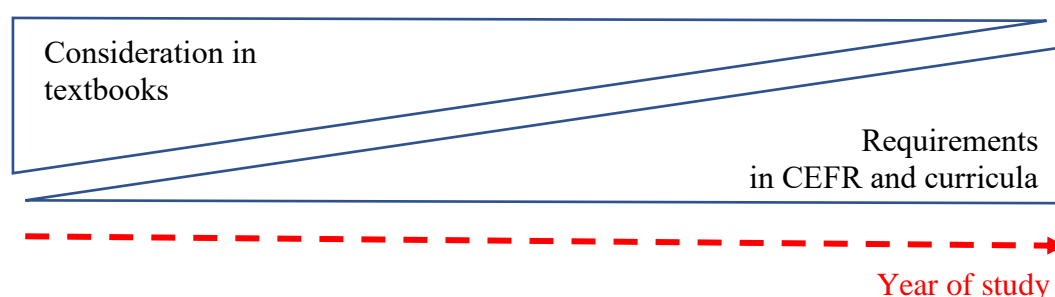


Feldhausen (2021) analyzes various textbooks for teaching French and Spanish over the past 13 years with an emphasis on current works. He can show that the textbooks provide different amounts of attention which are paid to intonation. His overall results show that (a) there is a rather marginal treatment of intonation and if so, mainly with respect to question intonation and perhaps to statements (whereas other sentence types are most often ignored); (b) while intonation is most often addressed in the first year of learning, it is completely absent in higher years of learning (it may be mentioned again when repeating old content, but no new information is added); (c) dialectal variation is consistently not mentioned.

His analysis of the curricula for teaching Spanish and French shows, in turn, that the requirements are gradually increasing, and that dialectal variation is often a central component. As an example for the increasing requirements, (some aspects of Feldhausen's 2021 analysis of) the Bavarian curricula for the subject French is presented in Table 1.[10]

**Table 1.** Progression of requirements in Bavaria (for French; see Feldhausen 2021: 98 for references and further details)

| Initial requirements | „Learn pronunciation and intonation mainly in an imitative and playful way" |
|---|---|
| Intermediate requirements | „Continue developing" or "further consolidation of correct pronunciation and intonation on sentence and text level" |
| Final requirements | „Bring pronunciation and intonation closer to the authentic norm of the *français standard*" |

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[10]     For details on the integration of dialectal variation, the differences between the subjects Spanish and French and between the individual federal states, see Feldhausen (2021: 96ff.).

By integrating the intonation atlas into the language lessons, one can easily and instantly avoid these shortcomings: The intonation atlas – which is a dialect atlas – meets the requirements of dialectal variation immediately. Even if intonation does not play a role in the textbooks of higher learning years, the intonation atlas can still be integrated into the lessons. It provides a large number of contours, in case schematic representations of other sentence types are missing in textbooks (such as wh-questions, imperatives, or vocatives). It can thus be used every time sentence types are newly introduced or repeated. Likewise, the class can work with the maps of the atlas when talking about new geographical regions, and it offers the opportunity to listen to brief and immediate authentic language examples of that region. And thus, the pupils see some intonation contours again.

Figure 2 illustrates typical intonation contours to be found in the textbooks and thus addresses the other weak points. As shown, the contours are displayed only as horizontal lines that rise or fall at the end. This, of course, leads to an inability of indicating important differences in the intonation of distinct sentence types and to a mix-up of sentence types (such as statements vs questions or question types among each other). With the help of the intonation atlas, one can quickly find out that yes-no questions in Spanish, for example, by no means always have a rising melody at the end of the sentence, as the contrast between Argentine and Mexican Spanish in Figure 3 shows.

**Figure 2.** Adapted illustration of the intonational difference between partial and yes-no questions in Spanish in the 2011 textbook *Vía Rápida* (p. 259, Ainciburu 2011; Translation of the German sentence: 'Now listen to how these questions are pronounced.')
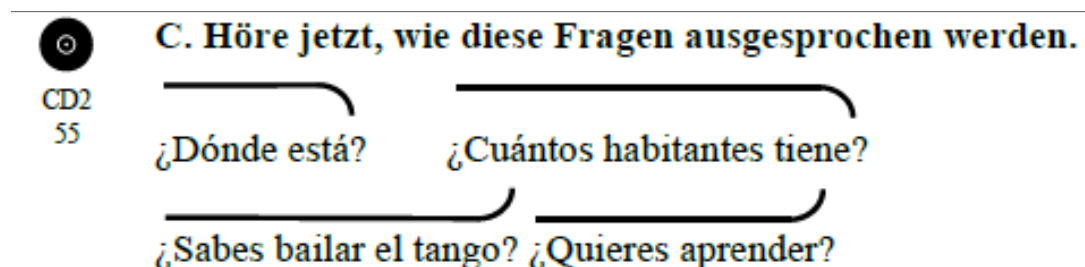


**Source:** Feldhausen (2021: 106)


**Figure 3.** Examples of Spanish yes-no questions with a falling contour (left, Buenos Aires Spanish) and a rising contour (right, México DF Spanish)
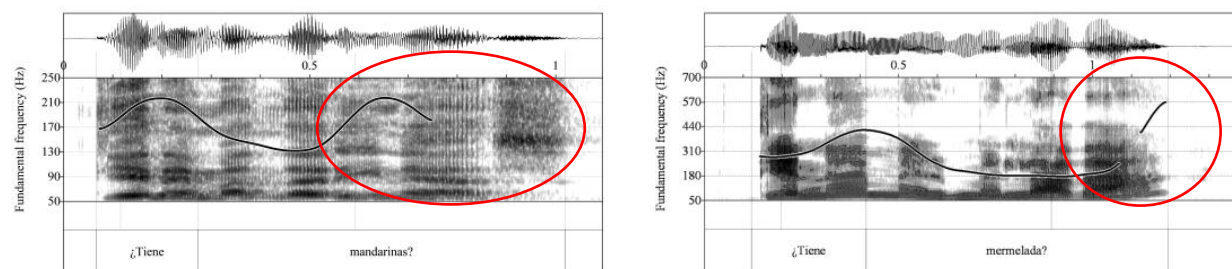


**Source**: *Interactive Atlas of Romance Intonation* (Prieto et al. 2010-2014)

Figure 3 also shows that intonation contours are not simple horizontal lines before the end (i.e., the nuclear area). Using a horizontal line is problematic especially for higher learning objective requirements (e.g., "bring […] intonation closer to the authentic norm") because it fades out any nuances and relevant oppositions that occur in the nuclear and prenuclear area. The intonation atlas is also useful at this point because it provides authentic examples of speech, and pupils can see authentic contours. Furthermore, the integration of the atlas offers additional advantages: The atlas has an interdisciplinary component, since it works with different media as well as with linguistic and geographical aspects. Next, it is possible to contrast languages, and aspects of multilingualism can thus be integrated into the lessons.

In conclusion, the integration of the intonation atlas into language teaching has great potential and it is based on high quality and linguistically-secured data, which is freely accessible.

## 2.3. A note on heritage languages

*(Romance) Pedagogical Linguistics*, as mentioned earlier, is by no means limited to the foreign language classroom but is equally valid for the heritage language classroom.[11,12] There are special language classes for heritage speakers of, for example, Spanish in the USA (e.g. Potowski 2002, Potowski & Lynch 2014, Fairclough & Beaudrie 2016, Kargan et al. 2017) or in Germany (e.g. Reich 2014, Ferre-Pérez et al. 2022).[13] Compared to the USA, the range of courses offered in Germany is relatively small and thus, it does not come as a surprise that there are relatively few approaches that make a synthesis of linguistic research on multilingualism and the usability of the results for the language learning process in a heritage language context in Germany (Fernández Ammann et al. 2015: 11, Rinke et al. 2019, Feldhausen & García Sánchez, accepted), but also in Europe in general (García García, in preparation) so far. Consequently, there is a high demand among teachers of Spanish as a heritage language for detailed expertise in language areas from the perspective of multilingualism (Lleó et al. 2013, 107; Reich 2014, 12f.; García Sánchez & Feldhausen 2016; Ferre-Pérez et al. 2022). One of the pioneers in this field is Conxita Lleó. Lleó and her team have applied the idea of *Romance Pedagogical*

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[11]    With Rothmann (2009: 156) it is assumed that a language is considered a heritage language (HL) if it is spoken at home or available to young children, and mainly if it is not a dominant language of the majority (national) society. Consequently, a person is considered a heritage speaker if and only if they has some command of the naturally acquired heritage language. At the same time, such proficiency is equally expected to differ from that of monolingual native speakers of similar age. Polinsky (2018: 4), agreeing with this definition, adds that it is essential to define heritage speakers as unbalanced bilinguals whose (weaker) heritage language is their first language. In the strict sense of the word, the definition of heritage speakers includes those who had exposure to the minority language from birth. Polinsky (2018: 4) emphasizes the linguistic dimension in order to distinguish the term from a broader cultural approach that would encompass speakers who had no exposure to the language during childhood, but who have some familial, ethnic, or emotional connection to that language.

[12]    See, e.g., Bayram et al. (2016) for more details on the relevance of linking formal linguistic approaches in the area of heritage language acquisition to heritage language pedagogies.

[13]    For information on French, Italian, and Portuguese as a heritage language in Germany, see Stahnke et al. (2021), Kupisch (2020), and Rinke & Flores (2021) respectively.

*Linguistics* already 15 years ago (of course, without using this term) and have shown how the results of linguistic research on heritage multilingualism can be made useful for the heritage language learning process.[14] Thanks to a combination of (a) linguistically collected empirical data, (b) an exchange with heritage language teachers, and (c) insights from the official training sessions with these teachers which Lleó and her colleagues offered (and which were funded by the Spanish Ministry of Education), the team has created linguistically-based didactic materials for the heritage language classroom according to the special needs of the teachers (see Saceda Ulloa 2012a,b; Lleó et al. 2013; García Sánchez 2015; García Sánchez & Feldhausen 2016). Lleó and her team have dealt with classic topics in Spanish language teaching such as noun+adjective or subject+verb+object word order and phonetic-phonological aspects on a (mainly) segmental level. Their experimental-linguistic monitoring of the didactic materials has shown that the materials are very effective – especially when accompanied by beneficial sociolinguistic factors such as use of Spanish in the family, positive role of the heritage language in the family, contact with other native speakers of Spanish.

Thanks to this short illustration from a heritage language context, it becomes apparent once again how the collaboration of linguistic experts and language pedagogy experts can produce promising and efficient results on many different levels and thus perfectly embodies the idea of *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics*.

## 3. Romance Pedagogical Linguistics and teaching linguistics

The previous section has shown what *Pedagogical Linguistics* with a focus on Romance languages could look like and what contribution linguistics can make to language pedagogy. Here, the emphasis is on pedagogy in university linguistics classes. This section is thus concerned with the second area contained in the term *(Romance) Pedagogical Linguistics*. As I pointed out in the introduction, I think that we as linguists in the academic system must not give away the potential we have at universities as educators of future teachers, as role models for all students of linguistics / languages, and as representatives of the field of linguistics. I think that we should be the go-to people for language issues in (the non-academic) world. But often we are not seen this way and not asked for advice. However, this is important for the discipline of linguistics (as described in the introduction). In our classes, there are future teachers, future people in the business world and elsewhere with backgrounds in grammar and linguistics. We just have to use this. However, studies show that graduate students' knowledge about language is often no better than before they studied linguistics (e.g., Bremerich-Vos & Dämmer 2013; Schäfer & Sayatz 2017; Müller & Geyer 2020). The question we have to ask ourselves is what this means for our discipline. Fortunately, there is growing interest in reflecting on how to teach our subject matter, which includes workshops, keynote talks at international conferences, online groups, publications, special sections in journals, and statements from important linguistic societies.[15]

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[14]     For more recent studies see, e.g., the volumes by Trifonas & Aravossitas (2016), Potowski (2018), Gabriel et al. (2019), and García García et al. (2020).

[15]     Here are some examples of the growing interest:

This section is dedicated to the presentation of two ideas on what we can do and on how we can engage students, and hopefully turn them into ambassadors of an interesting and (socially) important discipline.

### 3.1. Research-led learning and teaching in linguistics[16]

Based on his reflections on the integration of the intonation atlas into foreign language teaching, Feldhausen (2021) also considers how prospective teachers can already be optimally prepared for the topic of intonation within the framework of university education. Even though future teachers were the focus, the method he presented is interesting for all students and can also be used outside of Romance Studies.

Using the research-led learning method, Feldhausen (2021: Ch. 4.1) shows how the use of the intonation atlases (see section 2.2.1) is also beneficial for linguistic university teaching and the discipline itself. He follows Huber (2009, 11) in assuming that research-led learning means that students (help) shape, experience and reflect on the process of a research project in its essential phases. Feldhausen (2021) reports how he implemented the idea of research-led learning in his advanced seminars, where he went through the process of a research study with the students in a practical way. Figure 4 provides an illustration of the implementation of the research-led learning and teaching method in his seminars on intonation. In the remainder of this section, his implementation is described, and the advantages of the method are highlighted.

Based on the method and the investigations of the intonation atlas for French, Italian, and Spanish (cf. Prieto & Roseano 2009-2013; Prieto et al. 2010-2014; Vanrell et al. 2018), the students in the advanced seminars were responsible for (a) choosing a sentence type (e.g., declarative sentence, yes-no-question, partial question, vocative or imperative), (b) choosing a Spanish, French or Italian-speaking region of their choice, and (c) carrying out an independent experimental study. The aim here was to introduce the students to the elaboration of real, still-open research questions (cf. Schlicht 2013: 166; Schneider & Wildt 2009). To do this, the students had to formulate a research question or a hypothesis, create stimuli, look for test subjects, and to collect, evaluate, discuss, and communicate the data. Consequently, the students go through a research cycle and experience it cognitively, emotionally, and socially (cf. Huber 2009: 11; Schneider & Wildt 2009; Schlicht 2013).

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*Workshops*: Pedagogical Approaches to Laboratory Phonology (Satellite workshop @ LabPhon 2020), Scholarly Teaching in the Age of Covid-19 and Beyond (Symposium @ 2021 LSA meeting)

*Keynote talks at formal linguistics conferences*: Mary Beckman (LabPhon 2020), Christina Bjorndahl (LSA 2021 symposium)

*Online groups*: The Facebook group "Online Linguistics Teaching: Questions, Tips & Tricks" (> 6.500 members), Admins: David Pesetsky, Rebecca Starr, and Claire Bowern

*Publications and special sections in journals*: Petray (2004), Temelli & Visser (2020), Hiramatsu & Temkin Martinez (2021) and the "Teaching Linguistics" section in the journal *Language* (LSA), and Bjorndahl & Gibson (2022).

*Statements from important linguistic societies*: LSA Statement on the Scholarly Merit of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) from August 8th, 2022.

[16]     I presented the content of this section at the online edition of the "Pedagogical Approaches to Laboratory Phonology" satellite workshop of the 2020 LabPhon conference. The links to the video and the slides can be found under Feldhausen (2020) in the bibliography.

Feldhausen (2021) describes that he introduced the topic and the idea of research-led learning within the first three seminar sessions. After that, the students got together in small teams of two to four people and dedicated themselves to the task. The remaining seminar sessions were primarily characterized by working in teams and the lecturer provided the groups with specific feedback if needed. In case the same questions arose in several teams, input units were provided by the lecturer.

**Figure 4.** Illustration of the research-led teaching method in intonation
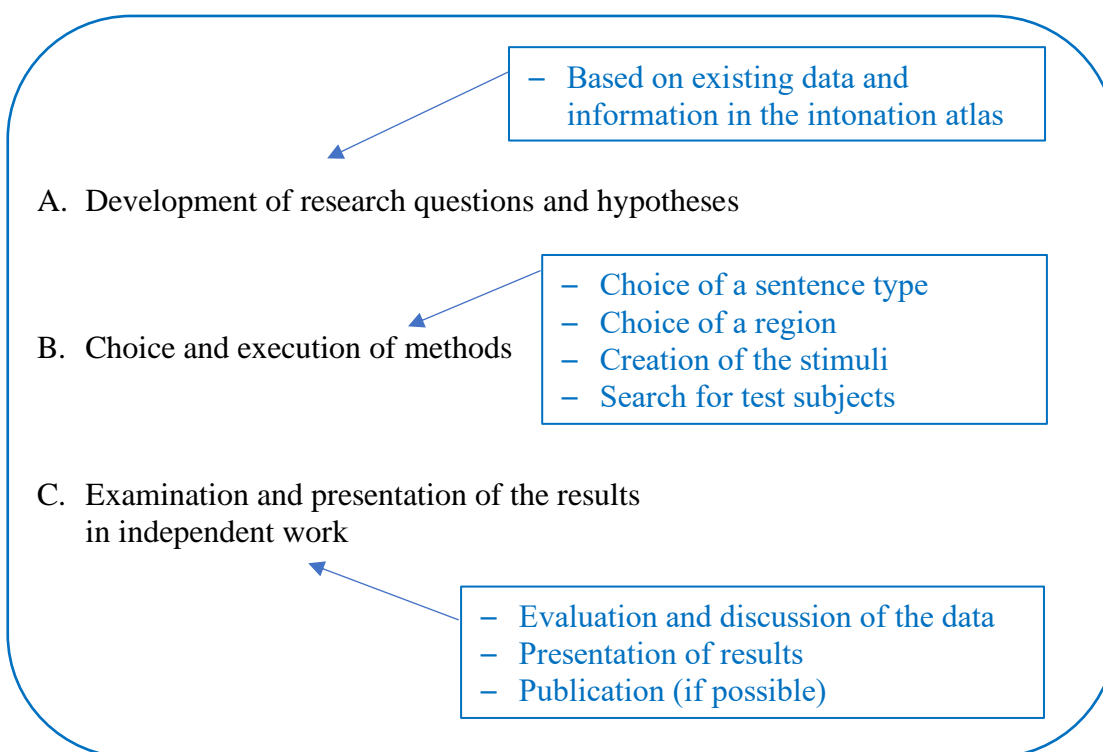


However, the aim was not only to let students carry out a small research project of their own, but also to gain knowledge that would be of interest to third parties (cf. Huber 2009: 11; Schneider & Wildt 2009). Consequently, at the end of the semester, the focus was on presenting the results. For this purpose, a seminar session was converted into a workshop, in which the individual teams presented their work in poster form. Colleagues from the department received an invitation to the student workshop beforehand, which provided an opportunity for students to report on their study to people outside the seminar. Also, the students were able to get an insight into the results of the other teams.

When looking at definitions of research-led learning, one will quickly see that there are differing ideas as to what exactly is meant by "third parties" in "findings of interest to third parties". In his seminars, the author has therefore addressed various groups of "third parties". As just described, this included fellow students and colleagues from the department. However, one aim was also to make some of the results accessible to the national and international scientific community, so that the students' results would have a chance to be integrated into the current scientific discourse. Based on this idea, excellent research projects were revised with help from the lecturer, and they were submitted, presented and published at national and

international conferences with peer review procedures and several papers were published.[17] As Feldhausen (2021) points out, the revision and publication of the work took place independently of the seminar and thus required motivation on the part of the students and the lecturer to get involved extracurricularly. To the delight of the authors, the work was well received by the community.[18] The publication of the results and their reception in current research directly illustrate the benefit of the research-led learning and teaching method for linguistics: The research questions examined in the student work are real and arouse the interest of colleagues. Indirectly, the gain for linguistics also lies in potential candidates for doctorates who are familiar with research processes.

Regardless of the publication process just described, it must be stated that the students (and thus many future teachers) in this seminar have dealt with the subject of intonation both theoretically and practically.[19] This is a work that enables them to better evaluate information on intonation in textbooks. Thus, in conclusion, it can be said that working with intonation atlases in academic linguistic teaching can not only serve the academic discipline, but also future teachers. Going beyond intonation, the following can be stated from a more general perspective: The integration of the link between specialist knowledge and didactic preparation in linguistic teacher training at the university is possible and recommended. It offers us a possibility to use the potential we have as lecturers.

## 3.2. The Hourglass-Portfolio-Method

Writing, reading, and understanding scientific texts belong to the basic techniques in humanities/academia. However, students often have considerable difficulties with these techniques. My experience has shown that a lack of writing competence goes hand in hand with a lack of reading competence of scientific texts. These weak points mostly exist because the techniques are too rarely explicitly taught by the lecturers.

The Hourglass-Portfolio is a method that I developed in order to impart scientific reading and writing skills as a central component of teaching in linguistics classes (and the method should be readily transferable to other disciplines).[20] The aim

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[17]    To date, this approach has resulted in several conference contributions and four publications (cf. Brehm et al. 2014, Lausecker et al. 2014, Huttenlauch et al. 2016, Feldhausen & Lausecker 2018).

[18]    The publications mentioned in the previous fn. are cited in Martín Butragueño (2014), Robles-Puente (2017, 2019), Terán & Ortega-Llebaria (2017), Skopeteas et al. (2018), Torreira & Grice (2018), Silva et al. (2020), Leonetti & Escandell-Vidal (2021) and others.

[19]    The seminar organization presented here includes an intensive examination of intonation. Of course, the topic cannot and does not necessarily have to play such a role in the academic training of students (that will become teachers in the future). Even a lesser consideration of the intonation atlases in general seminars on phonetics and phonology can give future teachers the basic knowledge and the opportunity to better classify exercises and statements in the textbooks and to recognize possible weak points and in the classroom to work against them. Likewise, the academically-imparted knowledge of intonation can make it easier to evaluate the performance of the pupils in the future because the subject is familiar.

[20]    I was able to develop, implement, and improve the method thanks to the third-party-funded, large-scale pedagogical program called "Starker Start ins Studium" (engl.: A strong study start), of which I was a member. The program was acquired by Goethe University Frankfurt and financed by the *German Federal Ministry of Education and Research* (BMBF) in the scope of their nationwide program for improving teaching in higher education

of the method is to explicitly teach and convey the techniques to the students using selected empirical research papers. A portfolio is a folder that consists of various works or components. The collection of work is goal-oriented and shows "the individual efforts, progress and achievements of the learner in one or more areas" (Paulson et al. 1991: 60, quoted from Häcker 2006a: 36).

Teaching that focuses on pure knowledge transfer (i.e., scientific content) gives away a large part of its effectiveness. I therefore advocate that it is worth reading less scientific literature in the seminar (i.e., not every session a new text) but to explicitly teach the competence of how to read and write scientifically (based on the reduced scientific literature). The students will then be able to read further research papers themselves and to understand them better and faster. The role as a teacher is changing so that, in addition to imparting specialist knowledge, they also enable the conscious acquisition of academic skills and competencies.

In the following section, I will first briefly present the comparison of an empirical research article to an hourglass (Bem 2003), which is the basis of the method (section 3.2.1). Then, I will explain the structure of the portfolio and thus the structure of the seminar (the two components are closely linked; section 3.2.2). Finally, I will provide eclectic feedback on the method from students (section 3.2.3).[21]

*3.2.1. The hourglass*
According to Bem (2003), the scheme of an empirical research paper corresponds to an hourglass. The idea is illustrated in Figure 5. Since the readership of this article are academics, I will only briefly address the structure of an empirical article. The knowledge can be assumed to be known.

A typical empirical research article begins by introducing the reader to the topic and motivating the question or hypothesis based on previous research. This area of the hourglass is broader and more general. In the middle, narrower part of the hourglass, the own study is then presented with the description of the methodology and the presentation of the results. The hourglass then becomes wider again when the results are interpreted and discussed with the previous literature.
Based on the hourglass analogy, the following questions can be asked of an empirical research article – let us call these questions the *hourglass questions*:
1. What is the research question or hypothesis of the study?
2. How is the question/hypothesis motivated? (i.e., why is it relevant to investigate this question/hypothesis?)
3. What methodology is used to answer the question / to investigate the hypothesis?
4. What are the results?
5. In the opinion of the authors, what relevance do the results have for the research?

As we shall see below, these hourglass questions are central to the acquisition of academic skills.

[21]     An empirical study of the effectiveness of the method has already been carried out and will be published separately.

**Figure 5.** The hourglass shape of an empirical research paper (based on Bem 2003)
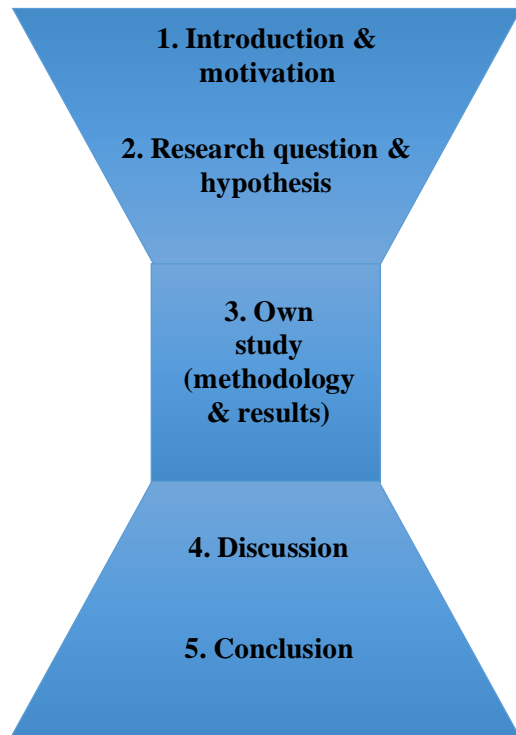


### 3.2.2. The structure of the Hourglass-Portfolio and the seminar

The aim of the portfolio method is to teach writing and reading skills through controlled, successive writing and reading processes. For this purpose, the portfolio consists of 3 types of works (summaries, feedbacks, and a reflection) with seven components in total (see Figure 6). The individual components of the portfolio are created by the students during the seminar and are submitted together as a coherent document at the end.

The first type of work comprises three summaries. These are short summaries of the content of scientific texts (one text per summary), and they do not represent lesson logs. The next type of work includes three feedbacks (or peer reviews). Here, student A writes feedback on student B's summary and vice versa. As can be seen in Figure 6, for each summary, there is corresponding feedback. The third type of work is a reflection on one's own learning and understanding process. The reflection is written up chronologically after the summaries and the feedbacks (see Figure 6).[22] There are binding deadlines during the semester for the six written components (3 summaries and 3 feedbacks). It is recommended to leave a gap of at least two weeks between the deadlines.

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[22]     As for the length of each document, it depends on the university system. In Germany, I proceeded as follows: the summaries had a minimum of 3 and a maximum of 4 pages, the feedback should be between 1 and 2 pages long, and the reflection consisted of 5 to 6 pages of text. The total size of a portfolio was thus between 17 and 24 pages – and it basically corresponded to the size of a classic term paper in an advanced course in Germany. In addition to the texts of the three components, a cover sheet, a table of contents, and a legally binding declaration was asked for. In addition, if applicable, an introduction and conclusion.

**Figure 6.** The seven components of the Hourglass-Portfolio
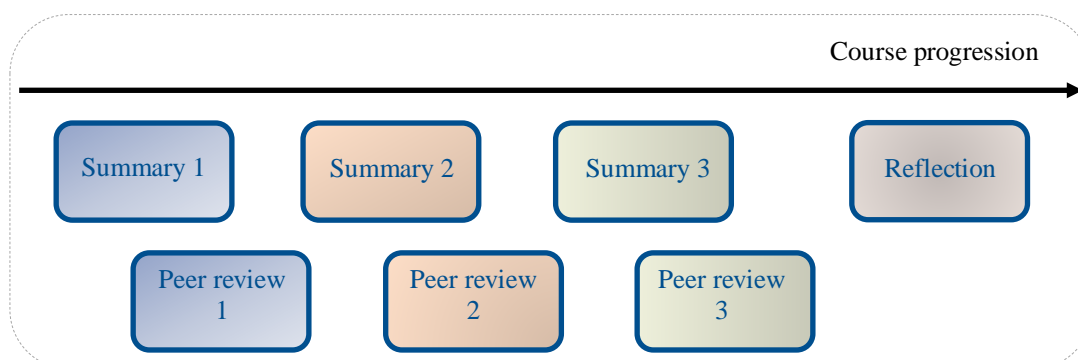


The *Hourglass-Portfolio-Method* does not only include the work on the portfolio, but the entire seminar structure is adapted to the portfolio structure. The seminar is divided into three thematic blocks, which are preceded by an introductory unit. A summary and feedback are written for each topic block (see Figure 7). As a result, the seminar and the portfolio are closely linked, and a harmonious interaction between teaching and written work is created. The topics of the individual blocks are subtopics of the seminar topic. For example, in a Romance linguistics seminar, the seminar topic could be *multilingualism*. Subtopics for this could be *types of bilingualism*, *heritage languages*, *pronunciation*, *the subjunctive*, *information structure*, *didactic materials for language acquisition*, etc. In the first thematic block, introductory texts are typically read (here, for example, a fundamental examination of the different types of bilingualism would be appropriate). In the second block, research articles on a specific topic are read (here, one could, for example, address the question of whether there are differences in the acquisition of the subjunctive between different types of bilingualism). All the texts are provided by the lecturer. For the third thematic block, there are two variants. The first variant is parallel to the second thematic block: Here, the lecturer provides the students with selected research articles (for example: do you lose your language skills if you live abroad for a long time and no longer speak your mother tongue?). The second variant requires more initiative on the part of the students: the course participants do not receive any predefined texts by the lecturer. Instead, the students must look for a research article themselves, which they then summarize. The advantage of the second variant is obvious: the students can devote themselves to a topic that is of interest to them and practice the research of scientific articles. In contrast to the first two thematic blocks (and to the first variant just mentioned), the texts are not discussed in the seminar.

In the summaries, students must answer the hourglass questions for a given article. In the peer reviews, the students must evaluate whether the student partner took the hourglass questions into account and, in their opinion, answered them adequately. The hourglass analogy thus plays a central role in the individual components of the portfolio. Through this repetition, dealing with the hourglass questions is consistently practiced, and it can be assumed that the students will be able to understand and apply the schema of empirical research articles better and better, be it in reading or writing scientific texts.

**Figure 7.** The three thematic blocks of the seminar and their relation to the portfolio components
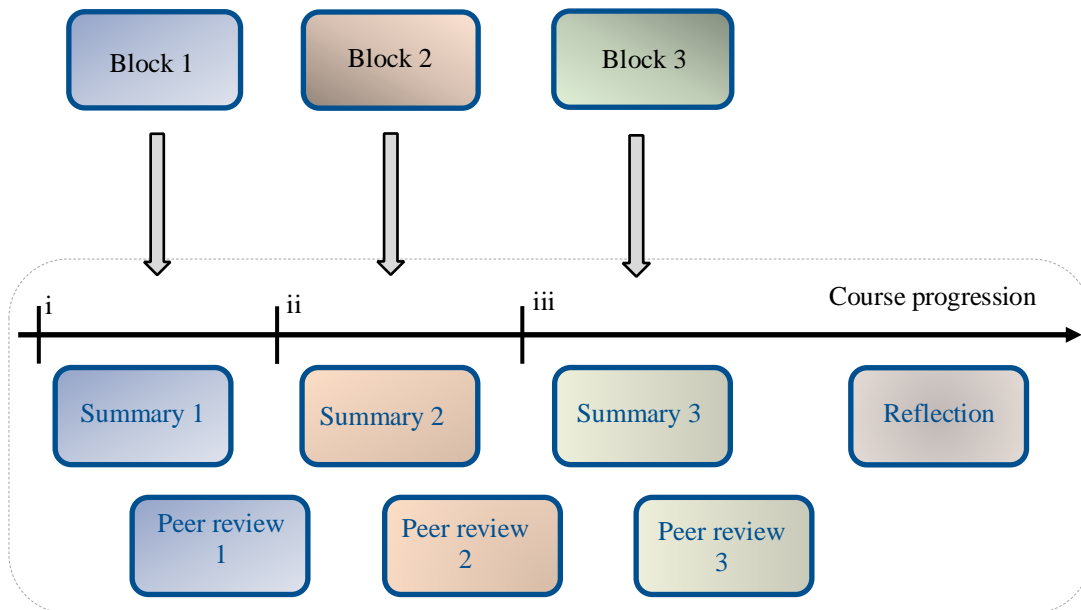


In the third type of work, the students reflect on their own process of learning and understanding during the portfolio work. Through this reflection, the students should become aware of what they have learned during the seminar, whether they have made progress, what makes learning easier for them or what makes it difficult for them to learn. Self-reflection is seen as a central component of portfolios (in university teaching) (Häcker 2006b; Bräuer 2014: 73; Sennewald 2021:19). For example, Häcker (2006b: 145) writes that "[t]he portfolio [...] is an instrument that promotes increasing personal responsibility in learning processes and is intended to train (self-)reflection on one's own learning processes" (my translation).

During the semester there are individual, explicit sessions on academic skills (see i, ii, iii in Figure 7). At the beginning of the course, the portfolio method must be introduced to the students (i). There is also a session on academic reading and a session on academic writing. It is advisable to carry out the reading session after the first block (ii) and the writing session after the second block (iii). This consequently creates a progression in knowledge of academic skills that students can immediately apply to the upcoming components and can compare to their previous literacy work. This progression provides the basis for the final pending reflection.

In the sessions of the thematic blocks, the scientific texts are discussed. Various didactic methods can be used for this, which I cannot present here. It is important that the students get the feeling in the content-related sessions that they are allowed to ask content-related questions and receive content-related feedback. The teacher must support the students in their process of understanding the content.

*3.2.3. Student feedback*

The students' feedback on the portfolio method, which they conveyed as part of the reflection, can be summarized as follows: at first, many students had great respect for the work that awaited them due to the deadlines during the semester. At the same time, they were happy that they didn't have to work as much at the end of the semester because most of the portfolio had already been completed. They also commented positively that they studied more intensively due to the various components and the deadlines and were therefore able to retain the content better. In addition, they emphasized that they acquired techniques that were also useful for other seminars. Many also stated that they were explicitly shown how to work scientifically for the first time during their studies. They saw it as a great advantage that academic skills were consciously practiced with them. In particular, the point just mentioned makes it clear how important it is that the techniques of academic skills are given more space in the seminars: even advanced students who were about to graduate reported that they had never or rarely been explicitly taught academic skills before.[23] Students need to be aware of how much they gain by understanding how to work scientifically. The teachers, in turn, must be aware of what they implicitly expect from the students. In the end, if nobody explains to the students how to work properly, one cannot expect stringent term papers with a clear research question.


## 4. Conclusions

In this article, I argue that linguists should make their work more understandable to neighboring disciplines (here: language pedagogy) and to non-linguists in general in order to be perceived and recognized as experts in language and to make a stronger and more confident contribution to social discussions and developments.

By concentrating on pedagogical aspects of linguistics, I have shown ways that this contribution can be realized. I first outlined conceptual foundations and, based on, i.a., the central role of Romance languages in Europe's school system, proposed to reserve a separate area within *Pedagogical Linguistics* for Romance languages, for which I have introduced the term *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics*. At the same time, I have argued for applying the concept of *Pedagogical Linguistics* not only to the context of foreign and heritage language learning and teaching, but also to the teaching of linguistics in higher education.

I have then demonstrated how *Romance Pedagogical Linguistics* could look in practice with five concrete examples. With the first three examples (namely subjunctives, intonation, and heritage languages), I have shown how language pedagogy can benefit from linguistics and what the task of linguistics is in this regard. Subsequently, by using the method of research-led learning in linguistics seminars on intonation as well as by presenting the *Hourglass-Portfolio-Method*, I have illustrated concrete implementations of *(Romance) Pedagogical Linguistics* in higher education.

Given the ideas and examples presented here, the future steps are obvious: In addition to elaborating further concrete implementations (that are based on the structured understanding of language that professional linguists have), the goal of linguistics must be to make our knowledge better known in the larger society and to

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[23]    Students who had previous training in academic skills benefited less from the method.

support and value the work of researchers at that interface. We need institutional structures that support linguists, e.g., in the development of didactic materials or in the development of new teaching and learning formats.[24]

      With this paper, I hope to have shown the important role of linguistics in various pedagogical contexts and how linguistics as well as its surroundings can directly benefit from a strong, confident, and open-minded linguistic component. As linguists, we shouldn't underestimate our educational and societal role. Linguistics matter![25] Let's act accordingly.


## Acknowledgments

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[24]    One way to value the work of researchers at this interface must occur in the context of application processes, since the development of didactic materials and implementations is time-consuming and demanding. The Scandinavian countries set a good example at this point, because pedagogical suitability of the scholar accounts for 50% of the evaluation there.

[25]    At the Going Romance 2019 conference, João Costa ended his keynote talk, titled "Can linguists help educators?" with the appeal "We matter!" In a slight variation, I allow myself to adopt his appeal here.

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