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A case study of a rural Lower Austrian youth organization“

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## **List of abbreviations**

ADSV Allgemeiner Deutscher Sprachverein

GfdS Gesellschaft für deutsche Sprache

RL Receiving language

SL Source language

VDS Verein deutsche Sprache, e.V.

## **In statistical testing**

N Sample size

p p-value, level of statistical significance

$\rho$  Spearman's rho, correlation coefficient for a Spearman's rank order correlation



## **1. Introduction**

English plays an important role in contemporary life and we are constantly surrounded by it through social media, games, music, etc. There is a persistent claim that youth language is especially prone to Anglicisms, which, however, could not be proved yet (Neuland 2008: 154). I have realized that, myself, I have incorporated several English words into my everyday speech. While many of my friends from university (also if they do not study anything related to languages) use Anglicisms in their speech as well, my friends from home, a very rural area in Lower Austria, often criticize me for using English words. Therefore, I wanted to investigate the use of Anglicisms in youth language in this rural area. The work at hand takes up this issue and investigates rural adolescents' and adulescents' attitudes towards the incorporation of English words into everyday language in a case study. For this purpose, a quantitative study was compiled and conducted among members of local scout groups.

The first part of the thesis is a theoretical introduction into the three basic concepts underlying this work: Anglicisms, attitudes and youth language. The main focus here lies on Anglicisms. In this context, not only will the abundance of different concepts be introduced, but also the processes a word undergoes when being taken over by another language, the most common reasons for the adoption of loanwords, and a historical overview of borrowings in German will be provided. Subsequent to the theoretical introduction of each of the three basic concepts, there will be an overview of prior research in the respective field.

The second part of the thesis is concerned with the empirical case study that was conducted for the purpose of this thesis, which deals with rural Austrian adolescents' and adulescents' attitudes towards Anglicisms. In a first step, the study's methodology and the participants will be introduced. Subsequently, the results will be presented. The questionnaire for the study was segmented into two parts. Firstly, the participants' attitudes towards Anglicisms and the perceived frequency of appearance of Anglicisms under certain circumstances will be discussed. Then, the reasons for incorporating English words that were named by the participants will be presented. After that, their evaluations of persons who frequently use Anglicisms will be analyzed. Secondly, participants' judgements of selected Anglicisms as (rather) German or (rather) English will be displayed. Finally, in the conclusion, all presented facts and figures will be summarized once again.

## 2. Anglicisms

### 2.1. What is an Anglicism?

Filipović (2000: 205) assumes a basic definition of Anglicisms denoting that “an anglicism is a word borrowed from English which in the course of the transfer is adapted to the receiving language in order to be integrated into its linguistic system.” From this definition it is already clear that Anglicisms are not only English words but are also part of the German vocabulary, even though they were partially or wholly taken from English (Eisenberg 2018: 2-3).

However, the question of what counts as an Anglicism and how they should be further classified has raised controversies and various suggestions exist. The abundance of different models is not approved tacitly. Already in the 1960s, Carstensen (1968: 32) criticized the chaos of current terminology. Nevertheless, the situation is not much different in our day. Rather, the chaos got extended through the development of new theories, and the inconsistency of the approaches and systems used poses a great problem (Muhr 2009: 124). Due to the abundance of different views, the work at hand only introduces and discusses some of the best-known and most influential theories in order to reach a satisfactory definition for this thesis.

#### 2.1.1. Classification of Anglicisms

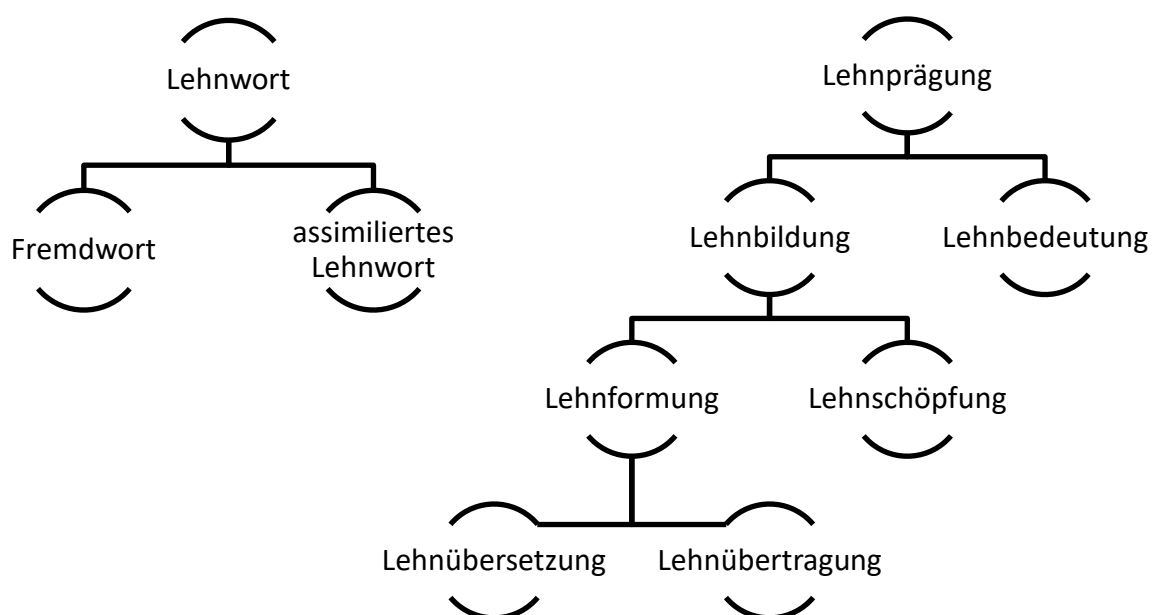
In order to describe language contact and lexical borrowing, many researchers still use the terminology that goes back to Betz’s (1936) work on the influence of Latin on Old High German vocabulary. Betz (1959: 128) began with a distinction between three options: Firstly, if a foreign word is adopted into the target language, it is a *Lehnwort*. Secondly, if a new word in the target language is modeled on a foreign word, it is a *Lehnbildung*. Thirdly, if the meaning of a foreign word gets transferred to an already existing word in the target language, it is a *Lehnbedeutung*. This can be exemplified through the old Germanic words *God*, *heaven* or *hell*, which lost their heathen connotations and attained new meanings when Christianity spread into England (Hockett 1958: 411).

Subsequently, these three options can be further differentiated (Betz 1959: 128). A *Lehnwort* that keeps its foreign pronunciation is a *Fremdwort*, whereas one that gets adapted to the new language is referred to as *assimiliertes Lehnwort*. *Lehnbildungen* can be subdivided into *Lehnformung* if the adaptation is patterned on the foreign model and into *Lehnschöpfung* if the new word is formally independent. In the case of *Lehnformung*, item-for-item translation, which is called *Lehnübersetzung* is distinguished from a more free partly

transmission, which is referred to as *Lehnübertragung*. For instance, the English term *loanword* itself is an item-for-item translation from the German term *Lehnwort*, whereas German *Wolkenkratzer* is a partly translation from English *skyscraper* (the literal translation would be *Himmelskratzer*) (Hockett 1958: 412).

Betz (1959: 128) organizes the options in two tree diagrams:

**Figure 1: Betz's (1959: 128) Classification of Anglicisms**



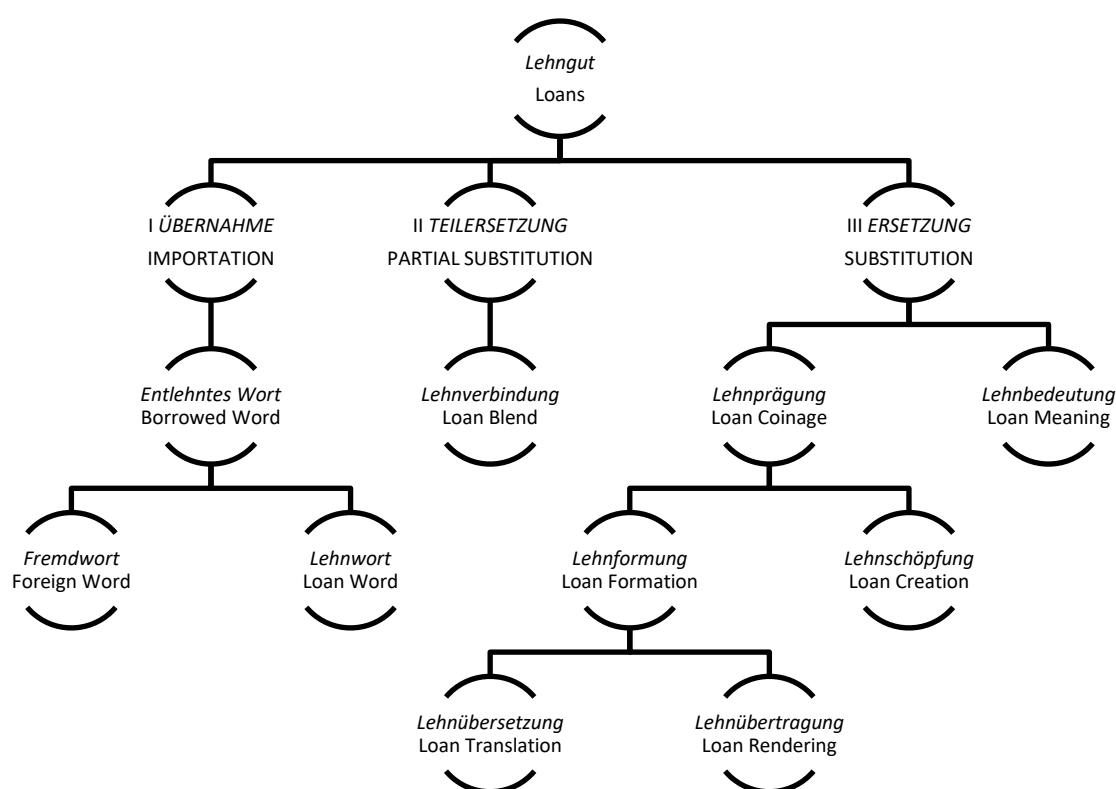
These diagrams show two clear categories: *Lehnwörter* which are constituted of at least partly recognizable foreign material and *Lehnprägungen* where no foreign material is obvious. This distinction is visible in the classification of numerous other researchers as well. For example, Carstensen (1979: 90-92) calls these two categories ‘evident’ and ‘latent’ English influences, Onysko (2007: 13) names them ‘direct’ and ‘indirect’ loan influences and Yang (1990: 10) refers to them as ‘outer’ and ‘inner’ loans. The latter is the terminology that will be used for this thesis.

Another especially well-known work is Haugen’s (1950) analysis of linguistic borrowing in Norwegian, which differentiates between the extent of substitution: none, partial or complete (1950: 214). These three categories of borrowing partially relate to Betz’s concepts (Onysko 2007: 35). Firstly, no substitution – or loanword – means that a word’s form as well as meaning is transferred from English into German. This can be related to Betz’s notion of *Lehnwort* as it shows morphemic importation without substitution and none, partial or complete phonemic substitution. Secondly, partial substitution – or loanblend – denotes the combination of English and German vocabulary that results in a new German

word, which means that it is a hybrid term, partially substituted with native elements. It is characterized by morphemic substitution as well as importation. This category is new in Haugen's classification and cannot be related to Betz. Thirdly, complete substitution – or loanshift – describes a German word that was created along the lines of an English model. It shows morphemic substitution without importation, which means it is completely replaced by native elements such as in Betz's notions of *Lehnformung* or *Lehnbedeutung*.

Duckworth (1977: 40) tried to unify the competing models of interference and introduced a consistent German as well as English nomenclature for lexical borrowings. His scheme combined Betz's two trees and Haugen's tripartite model into one diagram. The three strands of his diagram are named 'importation', 'partial substitution' and 'substitution' after Haugen (1950: 212). Moreover, he does not only take over Betz's trees as strands in his model, but also makes some modifications within them. Whereas Betz has used *Lehnwort* – which already implies some sort of nativization – as a hypernym, Duckworth equates it with 'foreign word' (*Fremdwort*) – which refers to a not nativized word – and introduces 'borrowed word' as a hypernym for both terms. Furthermore, he does not use 'loan coinage' (*Lehnprägung*) as a hypernym for 'loan meaning' (*Lehnbedeutung*) anymore, because 'loan coinage' implies that a new word is coined, but 'loan meaning' only states that an already

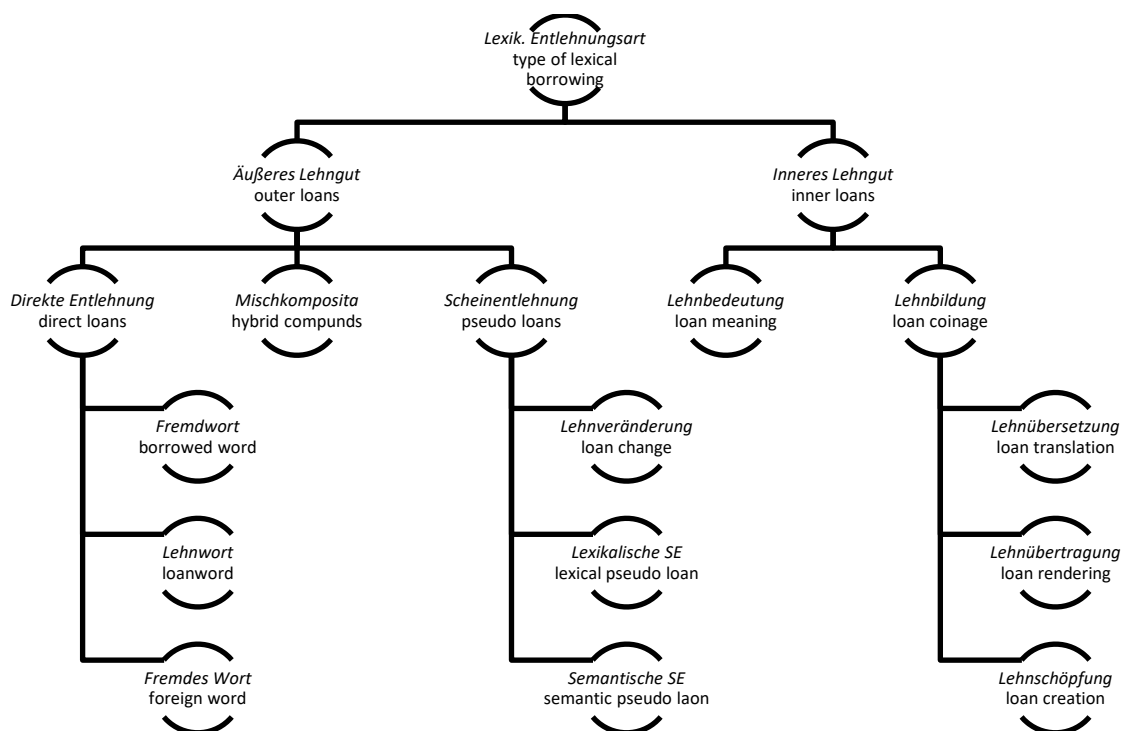
**Figure 2: Duckworth's (1977: 40) Classification of Anglicisms**



existing word acquires a new meaning and no new word is coined. Therefore, Betz's *Lehnbildung* automatically gets substituted with 'loin coinage' (Duckworth 1977: 51). This also simplifies the English nomenclature significantly, because a differentiation between *Lehnbildung* and *Lehnformung* is not necessary anymore. His model is illustrated in figure 2.

Another important issue that needs consideration but that was not covered in the already explained models are pseudo loans (*Scheinentlehnungen*). Pseudo loans are words that consist of English word material, but that do not exist in this way in English. A prime example for this is the German noun *Handy* (cell phone), which seems to be English but does not mean 'cell phone' in English (Rieck 2013: 10). Even though their status as borrowings is disputable (Onysko 2007: 11), they are included in several theories, for example in Yang's model (1990: 16) (English translations were added by the author of this thesis):

**Figure 3: Yang's (1990: 16) Classification of Anglicisms**



Similar to Betz, Yang primarily differentiated between outer and inner loans. His categories for inner loans largely correspond to Betz's classification. In the case of outer loans, however, Yang made some alterations. Regarding direct loans, he did not only differentiate between *Fremdwort* and *Lehnwort*, but also included *Fremde Wörter*. By this he means exoticisms that denote things which do not occur inside the German language borders and therefore keep their designation (e.g. *high school*) (Yang 1990: 12). Therefore, this category is translated as 'foreign word' and the category *Fremdwort* is assigned the term 'borrowed word'. Furthermore, he added pseudo loans next to direct loans and hybrid compounds, which were

already introduced. Pseudo loans are either loan changes (*Lehnveränderungen*), lexical pseudo loans (*lexikalische Scheinentlehnungen*) or semantic pseudo loans (*semantische Scheinentlehnungen*). This means either the borrowed word was morphologically changed in a way that English native speakers may not be able to identify the initial word anymore (e.g. *Pulli* from *pullover*), they are built from English material but do not exist in English (e.g. *Showmaster*), or they are existing English words whose semantic meaning has changed in German (e.g. *Slip*) (1990: 13-14). Yang's classification is one of the most comprehensive models.

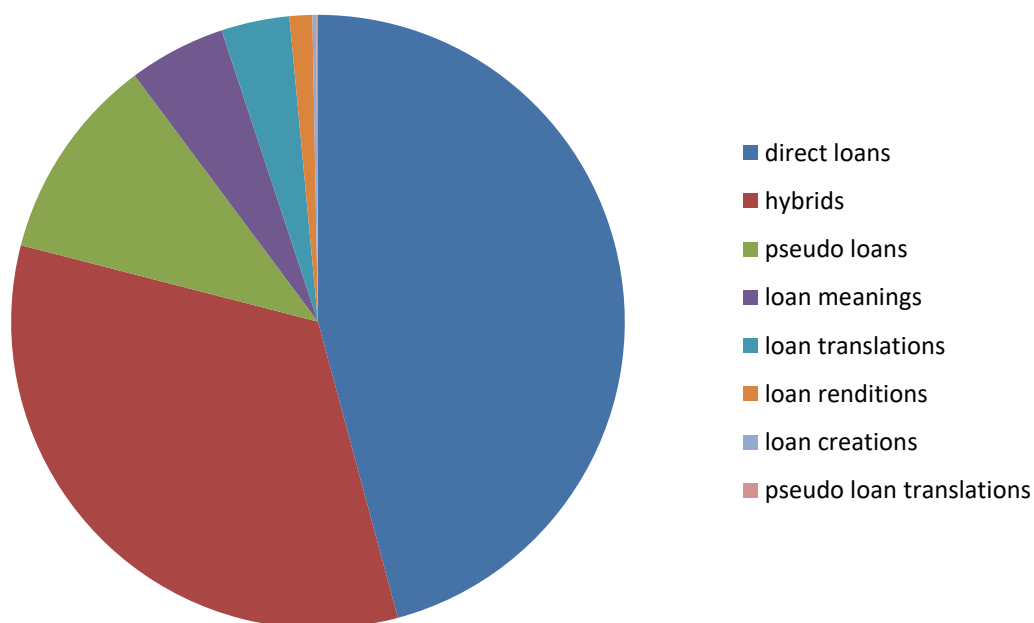
Carstensen and Busse (1993: \*59) criticized Betz's terminology since the application of his terms can lead to several overlaps, borderline cases and special categories. Therefore, they probably would not be content with the other already presented models either. Introducing their own terminology, they developed a tripartite model as well (1993: \*59). They differentiate between *aus engl. x*, *nach engl. x* and *zu engl. x*. Still, parallels between the theories can be found. Here, *aus engl. x* (1993: \*59-\*61) refers to outer loans as well as semantic and lexical pseudo loans (Burasova 2010: 46), for example *Job* (from *job*). Furthermore, *nach engl. x* (1993: \*61-\*62) denotes Anglicisms that are not recognizable as English anymore since they were emulated with German words, for instance *Außenseiter* (from *outsider*) (1993: 64). This covers all inner loans (Burasova 2010: 46). Finally, *zu engl. x* (1993: \*62) describes Anglicisms which consist of a recognizable English basis but were morphologically changed in German, for example *Twen* (from *twenty*).

As all of those different ways of categorizing Anglicisms show, the influence of a dominant donor language goes far beyond the immediately recognizable borrowings and several takeovers are not discernible as such. However, several researchers excluded inner loans from their understanding of Anglicisms (e.g. Viereck 1986; Langer 1996; Lee 1996; Görlach 2001; Muhr 2004; Rieck 2013). This is due to the fact that they are difficult to recognize as they lack indication of English material and morphologically do not differ from forms in the native language (Yang 1990: 15). Borrowing cannot be proven if the pattern fits the language-inherent structure. Structural similarity is no evidence of lexical transfer and the identification of inner loans largely depends on personal assumptions about possible influence and the direction of the influence can hardly be determined (Onysko 2007: 22-27).

Considering the frequency of inner loans, different scholars contradicted each other. Whereas Betz (1936: 2) claimed that loan meanings and loan translations are the most frequent results of language influence, Yang (1990: 15) stated that inner loans are negligible due to their small number. In accordance with Yang, the results of Glahn's (2002: 133)

analysis of Anglicisms in TV language clearly invalidated Betz's hypothesis about the dominance of inner borrowings. He showed that 89.8% constitute outer loans and only 10.2% amount to inner influences. Breaking it down into more detail, his selection of Anglicisms consisted of 45.8% direct loans, 33.2% hybrids, 10.8% pseudo loans, 5.1% loan meanings, 3.6% loan translations, 1.2% loan renditions, 0.2% loan creations, and 0.09% pseudo loan translations (Glahn 2002: 148-149). This is illustrated in the following graph:

**Figure 4: Distribution of Anglicism Types According to Glahn (2002: 149)**



However, the comparatively small number of inner loans could also be due to the fact that many of them are not recognized as such because of their non-transparency.

Onysko (2007) defined Anglicisms as “any occurrence and use of an English lexical, structural, and phonological element in German that can be formally related to English” (Onysko 2007: 93). He differentiated between core Anglicisms (borrowings, code-switches, hybrids, and pseudo anglicisms) and borderline Anglicisms (interference and unobtrusive borrowings) (Onysko 2007: 93). However, in his analysis of *Der Spiegel*, he focused on core Anglicisms and did not include inner loans. Hence, on the one hand, he restricted the concept of Anglicisms more than his predecessors did as he did not consider inner loans. On the other hand, he includes code-switches, which the other researchers did not and therefore his definition of Anglicisms is broader than his predecessors’ as he counts any occurrence of English and not just already integrated items as Anglicisms. The relevance of codeswitching will be elaborated later on in section 2.2.

Rather than classifying different kinds of Anglicisms, Muhr (2004: 35) stated that Anglicisms need to be differentiated according to their degree of foreignness or degree of integration. Therefore, he introduced the terms ‘integrated’, ‘partly integrated’, and ‘non-integrated’ (Muhr 2004: 36). External non-integration does not necessarily mean that the words are perceived as foreign. Several linguistic borrowings are so conventional and became so important in daily usage that they are no longer considered foreign words. Evidently, there are Anglicisms that seem to be at least partly foreign, but whose meaning is no longer unintelligible as they are commonly known and frequently indispensable. Therefore, they do not pose communication problems or problems in understanding for average German speakers anymore and can thus, according to Muhr (2004: 36), be put on a level with German words. Phonological, orthographic and morphological similarity to the German language system is decisive for whether a word is perceived as integrated. Additionally, the words’ communicative relevance, which means how frequently they are used and therefore how ‘important’ they are, is significant. Also, it has to be considered that knowledge of loanwords differs between social groups and age groups.

Similar to Muhr, Yang (1990: 9) named already integrated words which are commonly known and frequently used ‘conventionalized Anglicisms’. Furthermore, he added ‘Anglicisms in the conventionalizing process’, which still appear foreign to many German speakers but may eventually become conventionalized. Moreover, he mentioned quotations and proper names, which are only used in specific contexts, for example *High School* or *US-Army* (Yang 1990: 9).

What is more, some researchers such as Galinsky (1957: 66) or Carstensen (1965: 30) differentiated between influences from American and British English, and therefore between Americanisms and Britishisms. However, contemporary linguistic research does not distinguish between influences from the United States, Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, South Africa, or any other Anglophone countries. There is no clear-cut separation between American and British English influence and any such distinctions are considered impracticable and unsuitable for the work with Anglicisms (e.g. Yang 1990: 7; Busse 1993: 15; Langer 1996: 8; Görlach 2002: 3; Busse & Görlach 2002: 14, Brandt 2017: 36).

The debate about loan terminology is an old issue. Almost every work on the influence of different languages on each other dealt with it. However, most researchers only discussed the familiar terms or tried to replace them with their own concepts. Unfortunately, although some issues could be resolved, no new universal and generally accepted system of terminology has been reached thus far.



### **2.1.2. The borrowing process**

Borrowing is the adaptation and imitation of foreign-language material, which takes place between a source language (SL) and a receiving language (RL) (Coetsem 2000: 49). Thereby, the process of transmission is characterized by two factors: the agent and the stability gradient (Coetsem 2000: 49-50). Firstly, the agent is the speaker who is either more proficient in the SL or the RL and therefore is linguistically dominant in one or the other (Coetsem 2000: 49). Subsequently, two types of agentivity are differentiated: on the one hand, RL agentivity or borrowing if the speaker is dominant in the RL and, on the other hand, SL agentivity or imposition if the speaker is dominant in the SL. This results in the following premises:

In RL agentivity (borrowing) the agent speaker performs a pull transfer that affects his own, linguistically dominant language. [...]

In SL agentivity (imposition) the agent speaker performs a push transfer that affects a language other than his own, linguistically dominant language. (Coetsem 2000: 53-54)

Secondly, the stability gradient describes the differences in stability between the fundamental components of language (Coetsem 2000: 60). It serves as a measuring unit for the general effects of the transfer types on the respective language (Coetsem 2000: 59). The differences in stability are on the one hand inherent, based on the language's structuredness, which is called inherent stability. On the other hand, they can be determined by other factors such as affinity between RL and SL and the speaker's attitude towards the other language, which is called subsidiary stability (Coetsem 2000: 58).

Depending on the direction of the transfer, different structural levels of the language system are affected: in the case of RL agentivity, predominantly lexis is concerned, whereas in the case of SL agentivity, phonology, syntax and semantics are impacted first (Riehl 2014: 37). With regard to Anglicisms in Austria, German has to be considered the dominant RL while English is the subdominant SL. Thus, Anglicisms in German are the result of RL agentivity and therefore lexical transfer from subdominant English to dominant German. The lexicon of a language is generally more unstable and therefore more open for influences from other languages than the grammar of a language. Content words are the least stable word class, followed by function words, agglutinating affixes and fusional affixes (Field 2002: 38). This means that nouns, verbs and adjectives are much more likely to be borrowed than function words. A comprehensive hierarchy of borrowability based on Haugen's work (1950) can be found in Muysken (2000: 74):

nouns – adjectives – verbs – prepositions – coordinating conjunctions – quantifiers – determiners – free pronouns – clitic pronouns – subordinating conjunctions

A large proportion of lexical borrowings in monolingual societies is the result of only marginal contact between SL and RL. This could occur through actual social contact, for example via travel, expeditions and conquests (Winford 2003: 30). Typical factors are military invasions, colonization, migration or living in border areas or linguistic enclaves (Myers-Scotton 2002: 31). Also, tourism is a common reason for direct communication between speakers of different languages (Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 13-14). However, contact is not necessarily required. Lexical transfer can also take place through the spread of written documents, such as travelogues. Nowadays, the presence of a SL in mass media and the imparting of a language via education play a decisive role (Winford 2003: 30-31; Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 14). Moreover, the spread of international languages is an important factor (Myers-Scotton 2002: 32).

Teaching English as a foreign language in classrooms all over the world is one of the main reasons for the spread of many Anglicisms (Görlach 2002: 5). In the Austrian curriculum, foreign language teaching got introduced into lower secondary education in 1985 and into upper secondary education in 1989 (Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum 2001: 5). In 1995, a school piloting project concerned with foreign language teaching was introduced into primary education, which became mainstream in 1998 and compulsory in 2003 (Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum 2001: 5). Although it is not specified which foreign language is to be taught and therefore it does not necessarily have to be English, in the vast majority of cases it is (BMUKK & BMWF 2008: 41). Consequently, Austrian students have enjoyed at least nine years of English instruction when leaving school.

However, nowadays school is not the only place where learners are in contact with English. In fact, some learners might receive such large amounts of English input in their freetime, that English lessons in school play a comparatively minor role. In addition to the importance of English in areas such as business, education, politics and science, the language has also gained importance in the private sphere. Due to the media and globalization, English has become more and more prominent in Europe ever since the 1950s (Berns & de Bot 2005: 193). American popular culture is distributed across the globe “through film, television, and music with English as a medium” (Berns 2007: 3). Therefore, teenagers nowadays have “more varied and unique contact with their target language than past generations” (Grau 2009: 160). Furthermore, English is unquestionably the dominating language on the internet (Sundqvist 2009).

As the intensity of contact between two languages increases, borrowing increases and not only lexical changes but also more profound contact phenomena on other structural levels

of the language system appear. Ranked after their frequency of occurrence, these are semantic, syntactic, phonological and finally morphological alterations (Riehl 2014: 96). Thomason and Kaufman (1998: 74) have compiled different stages of language contact and introduced a borrowing scale by which the intensity of contact can be described. Eventually, all of a language's aspects are susceptible to change. In the case of very strong cultural pressure, the RL can change according to the pattern of the SL (Riehl 2014: 120).

Several researchers were interested in the extent of English influence on the German language. To name only one example, Onysko's (2009a: 71) investigations revealed that English influence on German remains small since Anglicisms converge to German morpho-syntactic conventions. There is a prevalence of lexical borrowings, which indicates that the language contact situation between German and English is of low intensity. According to Thomason and Kaufman's scale (1988: 74), this would qualify as a first level "casual contact" scenario, which means that lexically, only content words are borrowed and there is no structural borrowing. Thereby, claims of language endangerment are defied.

### **2.1.3. Reasons for taking over loanwords**

There are several motives for the adoption of loan words that are shared by nearly all languages (Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 12). All of them are associated with some advantage, at least for the speakers using them but possibly also for the RL (Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 12). Their effects, however, vary from language to language as they depend on a variety of social and political factors (Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 12). The two most prominent motivations are need and prestige, which will be explained in more detail in the following.

Most borrowing processes are associated with a need to designate previously unknown things, concepts, persons or places. As Filipović (2000: 205) put it, "[a] word is borrowed from English when there is a need to fill empty spaces in the vocabulary of the receiving language". Therefore, one reason for taking over English words into German is that they fill gaps as they denote things or concepts for which German did not have an expression before (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 17). Assuming that the speakers of the RL choose what to borrow according to their needs, the reasons for the adoption of a loanword broadly correspond to the function it fulfils in the SL (Heller 2002: 187). Certain language-cultural areas develop words for certain entities and through cultural pressure or linguistic need those ideas get spread to other areas (Onysko 2007: 15). This often resonates with economic development and modernization (Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 14-15). Oftentimes, terms for

technological innovations, administrative units, foodstuffs, everyday objects or geographical designations are adopted (Riehl 2014: 97).

Next to this pragmatic motif, the second major reason for adopting foreign wordage is considerations of prestige and fashion. The extent of borrowing highly depends on social values associated with a certain language. Usually, borrowing occurs from a more prestigious language into an in this regard subordinate language (Winford 2003: 28-29). Kowner and Rosenhouse (2008: 15) point out that there is a tendency among human groups to imitate and emulate dominant groups, which also encompasses language elements. Lexical borrowings from a group that enjoys greater prestige bring along some of the concomitant prestige (Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 15). Through the use of foreign words, a speaker can define his place in society, for example signify his higher education or his affiliation with a certain social group. Also, knowledge of foreign languages can be used as a status symbol as well as for conveying professional character (Otto 2009: 30).

Other motifs for giving preference to a loanword include that the word resonates with modernization and progress, it needs to be used internationally, or it deals with a taboo issue (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 135). Moreover, borrowings create a special jargon for closed professional or social groups (Kowner & Rosenhouse 2008: 13). This is not only the case for professional jargons in medicine, engineering or law, but it is also an important factor for youth language, which is the interest of this diploma thesis.

In individual cases, however, the reason for the borrowing is not to be found in the function the word fulfils today. Oftentimes, shifts in meaning have occurred, which make it impossible to extrapolate the reason for the word being taken over into current language use (Heller 2002: 188). Nevertheless, the loanwords a language adopts draw a fairly accurate picture of the cultural development through which the concerned language community has passed.

Still, just because a loanword is being taken over does not mean it remains a part of the RL forever. Several words that were introduced into the German vocabulary have also vanished again (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 58). According to Sagmeister-Brandner (2008: 193), their survival depends on five factors: they are permanently incorporated into German when they close a gap, when they are shorter than the German equivalents, when they have high suggestive power, when they are an acronym of an internationally important organization or when they easily form blends with German words.

#### 2.1.4. Integration of lexical borrowings

In order to explain how lexical borrowings are integrated into the system of the RL, Coetsem's concept of RL agentivity needs to be further specified. According to him, there are two operations in RL agentivity (Coetsem 2000: 69). The primary operation takes place between adaptation and imitation. Imitation is seen as an initiating process, which mirrors "the need to copy, acquire or incorporate SL material into the RL" (Coetsem 2000: 69). Adaptation, on the other hand, is the "natural reaction to imitation" (Coetsem 2000: 69), in the course of which the RL speaker needs to adapt the foreign-language element to the nearest indigenous element or to other already integrated elements (Coetsem 2000: 63). This could occur for example through replacement of SL elements by RL elements (Coetsem 2000: 66). Both processes interact with each other (Coetsem 2000: 69). The secondary operation consists of the consecutive processes of inclusion and integration, which is the actual borrowing procedure (Coetsem 2000: 69-70). Eventually, loanwords are essentially indistinguishable from indigenous items (Winford 2003: 47).

The assimilation of loanwords starts at the moment the foreign word is first used in a RL context. Syntactically, adaptation does not pose a big problem as they simply behave like their RL counterparts (Winford 2003: 48). Morphologically, they are adapted into the inflectional system of the RL, which means they receive German endings. Nouns are easily integrated into the German language system with the aid of the article. If the SL does not mark gender, various factors such as biological sex, phonological shape, homophony, shape of suffix, meaning or analogy come into play (Winford 2003: 49). Oftentimes, the loanword assumes the gender of a synonymous or similar RL word (Riehl 2014: 100), such as in *der Stress* after semantically similar *der Kampf* (Winford 2003: 49). Also pluralization does not pose a problem, especially if in the SL the lexemes use a flectional ending that exists in the RL as well, such as the *s*-plural in the case of English and German (Riehl 2014: 100). Verbs in German-English language contact obtain the German infinitive verb ending *-en* (e.g. *checken, testen, biken*) (Riehl 2014: 101) and German personal endings. Also adjectives can easily be adapted to the German language system through adding respective endings. However, some items are restricted to certain syntactic functions (Riehl 2014: 101).

Furthermore, loanwords are phonetically and phonologically adapted into the respective sound system, which means that their pronunciation conforms to German articulation (Riehl 2014: 99-100). Therefore, phonemes that do not exist in the German phoneme system are replaced by familiar ones from the beginning, even though speakers might think they adhere to English pronunciation conventions. This substitution is oriented either on which phoneme

sounds closest to the original or on a word's spelling. To name only a few examples, [θ] and [ð] are typically replaced by [s] or [z], [ʌ] is assimilated to [a], [v] is substituted by [ɔ] and [ʒ:] is integrated as [oe] or [oe:] (Eisenberg 2018: 179-182). Generally, phoneme substitution is considered natural and unobtrusive, whereas it is perceived to be pretentious when a speaker uses the original foreign pronunciation of a loanword in a German context (Heller 2002: 192-193).

Considering spelling, nouns are capitalized. Otherwise, spelling is adjusted if a word is borrowed from a language that does not use Latin script, if the word contains graphemes that are absent in the German inventory such as *ç* or *ñ*, or if there is a discrepancy between spelling and articulation (Heller 2002: 193). If words are assimilated in spelling, they are generally used particularly frequently in everyday language, while words which are used more rarely resist assimilation, especially if they are stylistically marked or belong to specialist vocabulary. In contrast to pronunciation, changes in spelling cannot occur naturally and gradually. Rather, they need conscious fixing. Therefore, considerations on a reorganization of the German spelling rules always pay attention to the spelling of loanwords. As those words are often central to orthographic insecurity, the depletion of foreign phoneme-grapheme-relations means orthographic simplification (Heller 2002: 194). However, it has to be pointed out that although assimilation in spelling helps to avoid foreign graphemes and oftentimes alleviates the deviation from pronunciation, complete formal-structural naturalization cannot be reached (Heller 2002: 193).

#### **2.1.5. Borrowing or code-switching?**

As was explained above, Anglicisms are words of English origin that have been integrated into the German language system. However, it is important to note that the influence of English on the German language goes beyond English loanwords that have been adapted to the language system. Rather, the number of English words and phrases which are not integrated is growing rapidly, as Busse and Görlach (2002: 18) explain:

Recent years have seen a drastic increase in non-integrated English words, many of which are apparently not intended as loanwords but are to be interpreted as instances of code switching used by the individual writer (or speaker) to draw attention to the form of text. Wordplay involving English elements has also become quite common.

Some theorists do not always differentiate between lexical transfer and code-switching. However, this distinction is important. In the case of borrowing, something from the one language is taken over by the other. This means that one language integrates a part of another language into its own system and thereby changes its shape (Riehl 2014: 22). In the case of

code-switching, on the other hand, there is a transition from one language to the other and the languages' shapes do not change (Riehl 2014: 22). As Poplack (1993: 255-256) explains:

*Code-switching* is the *juxtaposition* of sentences or sentence fragments, each of which is internally consistent with the morphological and syntactic (and optionally, phonological) rules of the language of its provenance. [...]

*Borrowing* is the *adaptation* of lexical material to the morphological and syntactic (and usually, phonological) patterns of the recipient language. [original emphasis]

In many environments, the notions of borrowing and codeswitching are overlapping. Researchers are divided over the question whether only intersentential switches, which means switching at a sentence boundary, can be referred to as code-switching, or whether this is also the case for single words in intrasentential positions (Riehl 2014: 22). Many also count single lexical items as instances of code-switching, provided that they occur only spontaneously in single utterances and are not regular features of the lexicon yet (Myers-Scotton 2002: 253). Others refer to this as nonce-borrowings (MacSwan 2005: 7; Poplack 2012). They justify this position with the fact that these borrowings structurally do not differ from codified loanwords (Poplack 2012: 648).

The chief criteria of distinction seem to be the degree with which SL items are used by monolinguals and the degree of their integration into the RL (Winford 2003: 107). Borrowings are commonly used, whereas code-switches are transitory phenomena (Winford 2003: 107). However, it is hard to predict whether a borrowed word will recur. Its status is only undisputed if it is already listed in the RL dictionary, although it can take a long time until some words receive a dictionary entry (Myers-Scotton 2002: 41). Furthermore, borrowings are morphologically and syntactically integrated into the RL, which means they assume RL endings and syntactic functions, whereas code-switches do not (Riehl 2014: 23). Besides this, code-switching can only occur in multilingual societies, whereas there are borrowings in both monolingual and multilingual communities (Clyne 2003: 71). Yet, multilingualism in this context does not mean that speakers need equal proficiency in both languages (Myers-Scotton 2002: 25) as imperfect learning is not a significant factor (Thomason 2001: 129).

However, it is not always possible to distinguish between lexical borrowings and code-switching. There are also uninflected forms which cannot be matched to a certain language (Riehl 2014: 24). Furthermore, Myers-Scotton argues that code-switches can eventually become borrowings through increased use and adoption by monolinguals (1993: 182). Therefore, several linguists seem to have agreed that there is no clear-cut boundary between

code-switching and borrowing, but that they rather form a continuum (e.g. Myers-Scotton 1993: 206; Clyne 2003: 71; Riehl 2014: 24).

## **2.2. The definition used for this study**

As this thesis does not attempt to classify Anglicisms into different types of borrowing, this is not the place to choose one model over another. Nevertheless, it was considered important to introduce the most influential models in order to clarify that Anglicisms are more than what one might perceive as such *prima facie*.

In the empirical study, participants were asked for their attitudes towards “English words in German”. Therefore, it can be assumed that inner loans do not play a decisive role in the empirical study as their English background is not obvious. Also, they probably did not differentiate whether a word was taken over from American or British English. What may be of importance, however, are the different kinds of outer loans that were discussed above. Furthermore, the degree of integration that was mentioned above may be a significant factor, as the participants may not even recognize that some words they regularly use originally stem from English. Moreover, code-switching might play a role, since the participants probably do not distinguish between borrowings and code-switches. Hence, the following study will apply an understanding of Anglicisms similar to the concept of ‘core borrowings’ used by Onysko (2007), which was introduced above. Among these he counts borrowings, code-switches, hybrids and pseudo Anglicisms (Onysko 2007: 93).

In the following, ‘Anglicism’ will be used as an inclusive notion for all English elements used within German and the terms ‘Anglicism’, ‘borrowing’, ‘loan’, ‘loanword’, etc. will be used synonymously.

## **2.3. Historical overview of English-German language contact**

From a linguistic perspective, the occurrence of Anglicisms and other loanwords is a contact phenomenon which results from linguistic and cultural contact. The more isolated a language is the more independently it can develop. However, languages of that kind hardly exist nowadays and much less in industrialized countries (Muhr 2004: 11). Takeovers and integrations are a natural component of languages and carry immense weight for its advancement (Otto 2009: 21). The German language was constantly susceptible to influences from neighboring languages, not least because of its exposed area of settlement in Central Europe (Otto 2009: 21). Furthermore, as was already discussed above, language contact does not only occur through direct contact of speakers, but also by means of products and their linguistic denotations that hail from a specific country and bring the local language along.



The cultural and linguistic exchange between English and German goes back far into the past. Unless pointed out otherwise, the following facts and figures are adopted from Busse (2011: 18-21). On the English side, contact began with the settlement of Anglo-Saxon tribes in the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D. On the German side, it started with the Evangelization of Germanic peoples through Boniface in the 8<sup>th</sup> century. Considering the number of borrowings, the relation of give and take between the two languages has been unbalanced from the beginning. Even though the English language has borrowed umpteen words from other languages throughout the course of history, the number of Germanisms has remained relatively small. Conversely, the amount of Anglicisms in German increased slowly at first, but significantly in recent times. Substantial phases and batches of borrowing can be summarized as follows:

During the Middle Ages, English influence on German was minor. Loan translations were to be found in the language of the church because of the English-Irish mission. In the late Middle Ages, terminology for seafaring was documented. After the mid-17<sup>th</sup> century, especially after the execution of Charles the First in 1649, England suddenly was the center of attention. Political expressions were evidence of this. Yet, until the 18<sup>th</sup> century Latin and French influences were predominant and the influence of the English language remained marginal.

In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the spiritual-cultural contacts between Germany and England tightened. This was primarily due to the translation of British literature. On the continent, England and the British lifestyle grew in popularity through travel accounts. Additionally, the two countries were politically linked together more closely through the succession of the Hanoverians to the English throne. Moreover, it has to be considered that since circa 1800 English was taught as an erudite language in most of Germany. Altogether, this led to a first climax of lexical impact, even though it was still small in number. Direct takeovers were unusual at that time. Rather, German incorporated several loan translations (Brandt 2017: 42).

In contrast to the prior predominance of culture, the linguistic and cultural contact of the 19<sup>th</sup> century was characterized by the Industrial Revolution and the focus was now on the domains of technology and commerce. Several borrowings document England's leading role in this field, especially in regard of railroading, shipbuilding, steel production and the textile industry. Besides this, 19<sup>th</sup> century England was a model considering the press and in the second half of the century it also served as an example for politics in the replacement of the estate-based society by representative democracy. At the same time, Anglicisms grew fashionable in society in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century. This is especially clear in the vocabulary of popular sports such as soccer, golf, equestrian sports, and tennis. In regard to spelling and

pronunciation, words taken over in that time were frequently integrated into German to a point where they do not appear foreign to the average present-day language user anymore. Nevertheless, the older borrowings are few and far between in relation to present-day conditions.

In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, four periods of linguistic influence through English can be differentiated. Firstly, the number of Anglicisms continued to increase until the First World War, still predominantly from British English. Secondly, the influence from American English was first recognizable in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. After the First World War, there was a numerical decline in borrowings. However, the number increased again during the interwar period. Thirdly, after the Second World War the 'American way of life' left imprints on many Western European languages as is documented in Görlach (2002). Considering German, particularly since the 1960s, an uninhibited and consistently rising inflow of Anglicisms in West Germany was reported whereas East Germany was affected considerably less (Muhr 2004: 23). In West Germany, most Anglicisms came via the media, such as films, magazines, newspapers, and popular music (Busse 2005: 58-59). After the fall of the Iron Curtain, Eastern Europe was affected quickly as well, although the extents of influence of the steadily growing influx of English words on East and West Germany remained different until the German reunification in 1989 (Busse 2005: 58). Fourthly, since the 1990s the influence intensified once again and became more widespread. It is now not only a European issue, but a global matter. The obvious reason for this is the economic, technological, military and cultural dominance of the USA and the Anglophone areas altogether.

The developments since the Second World War have also caused English to become the undisputed lingua franca all over the world and have extended its influence via the prestige it is awarded. At the latest since the developments of globalization and the rapid spread of technological innovations such as the internet all around the world, the Anglo-American model ranks as a global core culture and has thereby strengthened the status of English as the global lingua franca (Otto 2009: 22). The dominance of English has increased enormously over the past 50 years, in regard to number of speakers and worldwide spread of English as well as in respect to the cultural influence and the standing as an international language in relation to other languages.

Considering the origin of Anglicisms, the influence of British English has consistently decreased since the First World War to the benefit of American English. Thus, German contact with English after 1945 should primarily be considered in the light of contact with

American English, especially as also within the English language American English is to be seen as the dominant power that affects other varieties through the media.

Not all domains of the German language are equally affected by this development. The US dominance is especially strong within the scope of the media, technology and the film industry (Muhr 2004: 9). Therefore, Anglicisms particularly occur in areas that introduce or have introduced technical innovations to everyday life: information technology, telecommunications, service industry, leisure industry, and youth culture. Other fields with frequent borrowings are economy, hygiene, clothing, science, politics, and the military (Muhr 2004: 9-10).

### **2.3.1. The status of German**

English has not always been the most important lingua franca and language of prestige all over the world. Not long ago, also French (until the 1970s) and German (until the end of the 1920s) were prestigious languages, particularly in academia and culture (Muhr 2004: 11). Back then, German was a donor language, whereas it is a receiver language now. It has forfeited its role as a global language and needs to be considered an important European regional language now. The evident reasons for this are not the small number of speakers or the speakers' concentration in Central Europe, but pre-eminently the loss of prestige after the Nazi regime and the triggering of two world wars. Comparably grave is the loss of the former leading position in the field of technology and science (Muhr 2004: 11).

Also the attitude by L1 speakers towards their own language has changed. According to Muhr (2004: 11), German chauvinism and exaggerated linguistic pride in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century are replaced by a readiness to use English expressions in the media and the public sphere. In many fields such as the advertising industry or the music business, the number of Anglicisms is abundant. In the long term, it is feared that a diglossic situation in important domains of written and oral communication will develop with English as the high variety (Otto 2009: 23). Reactions to this are, on the one hand, an intense public discussion and, on the other hand, the resurgence of language societies (Muhr 2004: 11). This will be elaborated in the following.

### **2.3.2. Anti-Anglicism movements**

Considering attitudes towards English influences, there frequently is a discrepancy between linguists and wide sections of the population (Onysko 2009b). Linguists usually try to take an objective stance. They consider language an open system and think of language change through language contact as a natural process (Onysko 2009b: 26). They establish their

conceptualizations from language contact theories as formulated by Myers-Scotton (1993, 2002), Coetsem (2000), Muysken (2000), Thomason (2001), Field (2002), Clyne (2003) or Onysko (2007).

In contrast, public discourse occasionally perceives the influence of the English language as a threat to the mother tongue and is inspired by purist attitudes. The takeover of loanwords closely correlates with social developments, in accordance with which it rises and then abates. Following upon times of social upheaval and intensified influences from other languages and cultures, there were always movements of resistance against the foreign influences and fear for the maintenance of the speakers' identity (Muhr 2004: 20). German history shows that complaints about the adoption of foreign words are no recent phenomenon. Rather, language cultivation and language purification in Germany have a long tradition (Otto 2009: 23). Every time has its loanwords, and languages do not perish because of this. Nevertheless, some speakers and language cultivators have problems with it.

Generally, the following arguments are alleged against the use of Anglicisms: Firstly, they impede interpersonal communication as their meaning is not known. Secondly, they promote the supremacy of privileged walks of life since only they understand what is meant due to their education. Thirdly, they flatten the variety of the German language by superseding trenchant German words. Fourthly, German is submerged by Anglicisms, which is why it is on the point of becoming extinct. Fifthly, Anglicisms threaten the identity of the German language and of German-speaking cultures. Sixthly, the American language imperialism becomes rampant and needs to be opposed (Muhr 2004: 38).

Nowadays, language societies direct their actions solely against Anglicisms, but over the course of the last centuries, several language purification movements occurred. The above-mentioned phases of borrowing can be correlated with the prevailing attitudes of German speakers towards these phenomena (Busse 2005: 59). The era of German language cultivation started with the 17<sup>th</sup> century (Plümer 2000: 71). Efforts of language cultivation reached a first climax in the language patriotism of the Baroque age. Influential writers and linguists attempted to counteract the cultural supremacy of Latin and French and to develop an autonomous German-language literature. Therefore, in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, language purists fought against Gallicisms, loanwords of French origin (Muhr 2004: 21).

Following the Italian example, several language societies developed in Germany. In 1617, the Weimar *Fruchtbringende Gesellschaft* was founded, emulating the model of the *Accademia della crusca* in Florence. Its aim was the support of the German language as well as the maintenance of old virtues (Plümer 2000: 72). Other considerable language societies of

the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries are the *Teutsch gesinnte Genossenschaft* and the *Poetische Gesellschaft*, which was later renamed *Deutsche Gesellschaft* (Otto 2009: 24).

At that time, however, language purism did not encompass total rejection of foreign wordage (Brandt 2017: 55). Rather, language purification primarily aimed at promoting German literary language and introducing a standardized form of German, and only secondarily at the elimination of unwanted foreign, obsolete or vernacular expressions (Plümer 2000: 71). The reason for this was the need to improve national education. Since the vast majority of the population at this time was unable to read and write, such a course of action should facilitate the access to education and generally improve linguistic comprehensibility (Otto 2009: 24). Therefore, language purification movements contributed greatly to overcoming the Latin and French hegemony, to cleansing and enriching German vocabulary and to standardizing and capturing standard language.

At the beginning of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the struggle for German as academic language and stage language and the Germanization of Latin terms was added to the fight against Gallicisms (Muhr 2004: 21). In 1700, the *Societät der Wissenschaften* was founded, which however cared little for the cultivation of the German language although this was incorporated in its bylaws (Plümer 2000: 72). The end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century was characterized by a new wave of Germanizing efforts, which were again primarily directed against French words (Muhr 2004: 21). Only towards the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century were first attempts to purify German standard language registered.

The *Deutsche Gesellschaften*, that developed at several German universities and aimed at cultivating the German language, poetry and rhetoric, proved to be more effective. The *Deutschübende Poetische Gesellschaft*, which was founded in 1697 in Leipzig, reorganized by Johann Christoph Gottsched and renamed *Deutsche Gesellschaft*, took a prominent position. In combination with Gottsched's language authority, a consultative language cultivation was created (Plümer 2000: 72). Retrospectively, it can be noted that language cultivation in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries is practically confined to the language of literature and science and it was predominantly focused on establishing a universally valid standard norm of German.

Language cultivation and language purification seem to be perceived synonymously in the 19<sup>th</sup> and at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and the institutional spheres were firmly controlled by language purists. The fight against foreign words was in the center of attention and was explained by nationalist motifs. Many of the purists at the time did not consider the cleansing of the language from foreign components a linguistic task, but rather they largely

justified their fight against foreign words with extralinguistic arguments and ultimately had extralinguistic objectives. The purists' chauvinistic attempts closely correspond to political developments. Language purism proved to be a vital component of a patriotic, cultural policy fight for national independence, also called national purism (Plümer 2000: 73).

Another wave of purist activities started in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, particularly intense after the establishment of the German Empire in 1871. The main aims were again influences from French (Muhr 2004: 21-22). For the first time, the authorities engaged in the fight against foreign words (Plümer 2000: 73). The national unity required a standardization of official language use. The battle against loanwords was defining for this era. In the 1880s, broad levels of the population started to take an interest in the cultivation of the German language. For the first time, language purification became a widespread and popular movement.

In the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, the fight against French was broadened to include loanwords from all languages. In the years before and after the First World War, English first became so prestigious that it caused an Anglomania in big cities (Muhr 2004: 21-22). Purists started again to strive against the adoption of English words and were supported by German National fractions. Language purification was not only about the retrieval of the mother tongue and the accessibility of science anymore. Rather, nationalistic and xenophobic lines of thought that considered loanwords as undermining the German culture gained strength. They considered the hunt for loanwords an allegiance to the nation (Stark 1993: 180).

Organizational center of this struggle was the *Allgemeiner Deutscher Sprachverein* (ADSV), which was founded in Germany in 1885 and also had branches on the territory of the former Austro-Hungarian monarchy (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 30). The society quickly gained members and even some German philologists supported it (Muhr 2004: 22). This rapid success indicates the brisk interest with which many Germans met language purification (Plümer 2000: 74). The society was dedicated to removing all loanwords from German, especially those of English and French origin. The general tendency that they do not need to be eradicated due to their unintelligibility, but rather out of a national-patriotic interest became apparent (Plümer 2000: 74). Dunger was one of the first researchers who dealt with the influence the English language had on German and who represented a massively purist position, which is already visible in the title of his manifesto *Wider die Engländerei in der deutschen Sprache* (1909).

However, soon criticism on the ADSV arose, from the outside as well as from the inside, because the work of the society was reduced to the oftentimes arbitrary eradication of

foreign words. The great flaw of this fight against loanwords was the lack of generally binding guidelines that stipulated which group of foreign words would have to be Germanized. In the course of the increasing interest in language purity, voices were being raised for the foundation of a government institution of language cultivation. However, it never progressed beyond the stage of discussion (Plümer 2000: 74-75).

At the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, wide sections perceived the German language to be in decline and thought that this development had to be met with intense language cultivation. Major aims of the ADSV were language purification and amelioration of the language, which they wanted to achieve through a spelling reform and legislative texts (Plümer 2000: 75). In the 1920s, the hounding against loanwords slightly weakened. However, it reached a new climax in the 1930s at the time of the Nazi takeover (Muhr 2004: 22). The ADSV elevated itself to “SA der Muttersprache” and was leading different Germanization crusades. Fascist tendencies started to gain acceptance, which eventually were racist and anti-Semitic and geared to the racial laws. In 1935, the wish for a government institution of language cultivation was accounted for and the *Deutsches Sprachpflegeamt* was founded (Plümer 2000: 75-76). It was a governing body for all organizations dealing with language purist questions in a broader sense.

However, the purists’ aims interestingly did not correspond to the intentions of the Nazi leadership and the ADSV quickly became unpopular through repeatedly airing criticism on the new rulers’ indifferent attitude towards foreign words. Rather, the Nazis strengthened the position of English as they introduced English as a foreign language in secondary schools (Busse 2005: 60). In 1940, Hitler virtually put an end to the ADSV after it criticized the use of loanwords of leading Nazis. It remained banned ever since.

Instead of the ADSV, the *Gesellschaft für deutsche Sprache (GfdS)* was founded in Germany in 1947 (<https://gfds.de/>). However, the terrible experiences of the Nazi period made any explicitly chauvinistic and extreme form of fighting against loanwords after 1945 completely impossible. Therefore, this society’s attitude cannot be compared with its predecessor’s. It does not have puristic views but rather feels obliged to cultivate language in a scientifically sound way and concentrates primarily on giving language advice concerning meaning, origin and morphology of words as well as refinement of texts by ministries and other authorities, societies, companies and private persons. Nevertheless, the ideology of language purity has remained fundamentally unabated. Contributions to the society’s journals “Sprachdienst” and “Muttersprache” disparagingly avowed loanwords a certain right of residence, although the generally xenophobic attitude clearly shines through (Jung 1995: 249).

However, the student riots of 1968 led to a downright subversion of the editorial team of “Muttersprache”, which caused a complete realignment (Muhr 2004: 23). Through the emergence of pop music, English was regarded as a modern language through which one could signal the opposition to the politically and culturally conservative circumstances in Germany (Muhr 2004: 23). Therefore, efforts of language purification remained at the far-right edge of the political array. This only changed towards the end of the 1980s and particularly after the German reunification that coincided with globalization and the massive use of Anglicisms.

Especially since the 1990s, voices have been raised again that lamented over educational decay and the inadequate way of talking of adolescents (Spitzmüller 2005: 109). From then on, the discourse saw a new boost. Spitzmüller divides this into four phases (2005: 112). In the first phase, 1990-1993, the discourse of the 1980s was continued. The borrowing processes were related to the Second World War, but there was also direct criticism, for example on the language of the *Spiegel* (Spitzmüller 2005: 112-115).

The second phase, 1994-1996, was strongly influenced by the French linguistic policies, where the *Loi Toubon*, a prohibition of Anglicisms in advertisements and the media, occurred. This prompted a similar reconsideration of the approach to Anglicisms in Germany. Also the GfdS took action and concocted translations for Anglicisms (Spitzmüller 2005: 115-121).

In the third phase, 1997-1999, the situation increasingly heated up and obtained publicity (Spitzmüller 2005: 122-128). Several language associations have formed, whose purism is aimed only against one single language: English. As a reason for the increase in neo-purist tendencies at this time, Pfalzgraf (2006: 311) emphasizes the role of the USA as the sole superpower. The most important of the then formed language societies is the *Verein zur Wahrung der deutschen Sprache*, which came into being in 1997 and was later renamed *Verein deutsche Sprache e.V. (VDS)* (<http://vds-ev.de/>). Several high-profile German philologists are members of the society's academic advisory council (Muhr 2004: 47-48) and according to their webpage the society counts more than 36,000 members by now. Their objectives are clearly purist. Every year, they choose the “Sprachpanscher des Jahres” and invoke the public to elect the worst ‘language sinner’.

However, in its guidelines the VDS does not demand to principally keep German clear from English loanwords or ‘protect’ it. Rather, it acknowledges that just like plenty other languages German is a mixed language and its vocabulary can occasionally be enriched through expressions from other languages. Among other things, the VDS wishes for functional multilingualism (4-6 working languages) in EU bodies, active and passive



multilingualism as a positive career incentive for all European civil servants and politicians, and the offer of at least two obligatory foreign languages in all European secondary schools. These moderate and reasonable receivables positively set the VDS apart from other societies. (Muhr 2004: 23).

Nevertheless, the VDS's homepage provides readers with an *Anglizismenindex*, which counts 7,500 Anglicisms and divides them into three stages of linguistic integration into German: 3% 'complement' the German vocabulary, 18% are at least 'differentiating', and 79% 'oust' or 'threaten to oust' existing German words. However, the list oftentimes classifies words that should be considered internationalisms on a Latin basis as well as specific technical terminology or fully integrated words as threatening (Muhr 2004: 44). Also, the list is not very consistent, for example because "dealen" is classified as 'differentiating' in the sense of "handeln, verteilen, verkaufen" while it is marked as 'ousting' when denoting "(illegal mit Drogen) handeln".

In the last phase, 2000-2001, the matter acquired a political dimension culminating in a discussion on national values when Eckart Werthebach, the then senator of Berlin, pronounced himself in favor of legislative action governing the use of Anglicisms along the lines of the French *Loi Toubon*. However, the demand for a language law was repeatedly dismissed by politicians of all parties (Spitzmüller 2005: 128-129). Nevertheless, the politicization of the matter brought the issue to public attention again and media presence of the discourse increased considerably (Busse 2005: 61).

Generally, arguments against the use of English items in German revolve around three issues (Onysko 2009a: 54): Firstly, that it discriminates against people with limited English skills. Secondly, that it corrupts German ways of expression and causes impoverishment and eventually loss of the German language. Thirdly, that it embodies an empty manner of expression and only shows speakers' misguided ambition to appear modern and well-educated. Also, this is no specifically German phenomenon. Resistances against foreign influences and associated efforts of purification have existed and exist in all European languages in differing intensity. French, Icelandic and Czech are particularly focused on resisting and converting loanwords (Muhr 2004: 20; Otto 2009: 22).

### **2.3.3. The situation in Austria**

Language purification movements in Austria differed from their German counterparts. Josef II. introduced German as the official administrative language of the Habsburg Monarchy. The difference in the Austrian reaction towards loanwords consisted in the fact that the territory of

the monarchy united several language groups and had 14 acknowledged languages. Because of the active language contact among the nations of the monarchy, umpteen loanwords from these languages were adopted into Austrian German. Italian, Slavic languages and Yiddish were particularly influential and beyond that also Latin and French influenced the language (Muhr 2004: 25-26). The loanwords were considered natural components of Austrian German and have shaped the language until today. Therefore, efforts of purification were more moderate (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 32).

As Austrians traditionally used more loanwords than Germans, they permanently aroused the latter's criticism. In the ADSV's journal, Austrians were accused of 'language treason' (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 32). The association had 30 branches in the territories of the monarchy and was immensely influential. Also Austrian Germanists were actively involved in the society's board. Under pressure from the ADSV the k. u. k. ministry of education published an "Erlass betreffend die Vermeidung entbehrlicher Fremdwörter beim Gebrauch der deutschen Sprache" (decree concerning the avoidance of expendable foreign words during the use of the German language) (Muhr 2004: 26-27). In the First Republic, the ADSV's impact ceased. It was banned in Austria in 1936 after it elevated itself to "SA der Muttersprache" (Muhr 2004: 27-28). In the two subsequent years before the Anschluss, the assaults against the 'epidemic' of loanwords massively increased. Austrian publicists, writers and linguists expressed opposition to the ADSV and criticized its efforts to unify the language on a northern German basis and abolish the differences between the national varieties. These attempts are based on the ideology that all German speakers have a similar and identical mother tongue that has to be kept clean, which is related to ethnic ideologies (Muhr 2004: 28).

In Austria, the *Verein Muttersprache* (<http://www.muttersprache.at/>) emerged in 1949, which explicitly referred to itself as a branch of the terminated ADSV and continued to pursue its nationalistic objectives (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 32). It repeatedly criticized the moderate approach of the GfdS. Numerous high members of the Viennese society, many high and highest officials, leading members of school administration and several members of the Viennese German department associated with the society (Muhr 2004: 29-30).

In 1998, the *Interessensgemeinschaft Muttersprache* (<http://muttersprache-graz.at/>) was founded in Graz. It has radical puristic views and stands in the tradition of the ADSV (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 32). Its aim is the maintenance and fostering of the German language and in its constitution it offers the following guideline: "Kein Fremdwort für das, was treffend deutsch ausgedrückt werden kann!" (No foreign word for those things that can be expressed aptly in German!). However, at the same time it supports the learning of foreign

languages, especially English, as exactly this language is particularly suitable for international communication. Nevertheless, this surprising progress contravenes with the association's other goals. Based on the model of the German VDS, they also elect a "Sprachpanscher" of the year in Austria. Frequently, advertising specialists and ORF journalists are under fire.

It is hardly surprising, that also the FPÖ (*Freiheitliche Partei Österreichs*, 'Freedom Party of Austria', an Austrian national-conservative and right-wing populist political party) appear on the scene. In February 2004, *der Standard* titles that FPÖ seniors want to save the German mother tongue. Figurehead of this concern was Johann Gudenus, who in the same year hit the headlines through officially denying the Holocaust and thereby triggered a new discussion about accounting for Austrian history and coming to terms with the past. At that time, the FPÖ Seniorenring collected endorsements for the "Rettung unserer deutschen Mutter- und österreichischen Staatssprache" (salvation of our German mother tongue and Austrian state language). They demanded the establishment of a language academy that should maintain and monitor the German language just like the French academy controls French.

Muhr perused the purists' concerns and is critical of them. According to him, purist and partly nationalistic intentions still underlie their efforts (Muhr 2004: 47). Nevertheless, in Austria the purist movement is not as strong as it is in Germany (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 166). This may be due to the fact that while in Germany the mixture of language is criticized, in Austria the takeover of German as spoken in Germany is assessed critically (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 169).

Altogether, the number of borrowings in German is small and language purists' concerns that German could become a pidgin language are without any reason (Muhr 2004: 12). Similarly, Busse, who is one of the most significant Anglicism researchers, does not think that the intrusion of English words weakens the power of the German language. He writes that

[a]s a linguist still devoted to the principles of recording usage rather than correcting it, I would like to argue that the use or overuse of certain Anglicisms can indeed be a nuisance, but that the German language as such is not endangered by lexical borrowing from English. [...] Hence, the trendy usage of Anglicisms has become the butt of a publicly led debate about a putative decay of the language. Neither legislative action nor the formation of new purist societies will solve the problem. [...] [E]ducationalists on all levels of instruction should help to create a critical attitude towards language use in the media in general and the (ab-)use of Anglicisms in particular. (Busse 2005: 67)

As a remedy for the excessive use of Anglicisms, he suggests that teachers should start early to have discussions on language with students and look at pros and cons of loanwords. This

would be the beginning of a differentiated debate on Anglicisms through which language purification movements would lose their monopoly.

## **2.4. Prior research on Anglicisms**

The issue of English loanwords has been of interest to several researchers for a long time. Already more than a century ago, Dunger (1909) dealt with the topic and registered 900 English words in the German language. However, there is one essential problem: There is an abundance of different systems for classifying Anglicisms and the mentioned works do not all use the same concepts so that some include words or phrases that others do not. Furthermore, some researchers work with type-token-relations, whereas others relate all Anglicisms to the entirety of words in the corpus and still others calculate an average number for Anglicisms per page. Therefore, results from diverse works are hardly or not at all comparable to each other (Muhr 2009: 124).

### **2.4.1. Research on media language**

The favored object of investigation has been the quantity with which Anglicisms are used. Mainly, research has been conducted on newspaper language. One source that was dealt with especially often is the news magazine *Der Spiegel*. For example, Carstensen's (1965) study on West German press language, mainly on the basis of the *Spiegel*, showed that between 1945 and 1965 more English loan words than ever before entered the German language (1965: 29). Furthermore, he reached the conclusion that English primarily influenced vocabulary whereas grammar and syntax are only marginally affected. Comparably, Yang (1990) diachronically analyzed six editions each of the *Spiegel* from the years 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980 and also noted an increase of Anglicisms. Likewise, Onysko's (2007) corpus study on Anglicisms in the *Spiegel* determined an increase between 1993 and 2000, which he accredited to the more frequent use of IT-related Anglicisms (2007:125). Additionally, he established 1.11% of all tokens and 4.25% of all types in the *Spiegel* of 2000 as Anglicisms (2007:114), whereby he underlined the marginal impact of English on German and defused claims of an overflow of Anglicisms.

The prevalence of the *Spiegel* was criticized since the magazine tries to emulate the American news magazine *Time* and therefore takes over umpteen loanwords from English (Yang 1990: 19). Considering other press publications than the *Spiegel*, Fink's (1970) examination of *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung* and *Die Welt* showed that even though the number of Americanisms is higher than expected, they are rare in relation to the total vocabulary as they amount to 0.1% only (1970: 179). Bus's (1980) study

on the *Mainzer Allgemeine* confirmed these results. Furthermore, Lee (1996) investigated the East German daily newspaper *Das Volk* – or *Thüringer Allgemeine* as it was renamed after the fall of the Berlin Wall – before, during and after this turning point. Similar to other researchers before him, he reported a significant increase of English influence on German press language. Additionally, he showed how the frequently used Anglicisms in a particular year reflect the political and social processes of development of German reunification.

More recently, Götzeler (2008) investigated the *Badische Zeitung* and the *Ostsee-Zeitung* and showed that in 1991 the East German language community did not only accommodate to the West but also held Anglicisms in high esteem as the *Ostsee-Zeitung* used significantly more Anglicisms than the *Badische Zeitung*. Through a longitudinal perspective, she furthermore registered that the number of Anglicisms increased until 2001, but slightly decreased between 2001 and 2004 (2008: 299-300). Furthermore, Burmasova (2010) compared data from *Die Welt* from the years 1994 and 2004 and reported that the use of Anglicisms increased 1.7 times. However, comparing it to data from 1954/1964 she showed that the pace of borrowing has decelerated, which may suggest saturation. Nevertheless, the comparison also indicated that instead of taking over new loans, already borrowed Anglicisms were used more frequently (2010: 225-226).

Zengerling-Veith's (2003) investigation aimed at analyzing not only the English influence but other foreign-language impact as well, predominantly from French, on the reporting of *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung*, *Bild am Sonntag*, *Neues Deutschland* and *Junge Welt* before and after German reunification. She proved that French loans are far more numerous than English ones, but they are so deep-rooted that modern reporting without them would be inconceivable (2003: 193). Similarly, Otto's (2009) work dealt with lexical borrowings of any origin in Germany, Austria, Switzerland and South Tyrol on the basis of *die Welt*, *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, *die Tageszeitung*, *Salzburger Nachrichten*, *Neue Zürcher Zeitung* and *Dolomiten-Zeitung*. She found that Latin loans were quantitatively most frequent, closely followed by French influences. English was distinctly relegated to third position (2009: 207).

Considering an Austrian context, Karin and Wolfgang Viereck were the first to concentrate on the Austrian press language. Karin Viereck (1980) compared the frequency and integration of English vocabulary in the Austrian and German press language. Her corpus consisted of ten weekend editions each of the Austrian papers *Die Presse* and *Kleine Zeitung* and the German newspaper *Süddeutsche Zeitung*. She did not only contrast Austrian and German press, but also compared her data from the *Süddeutsche Zeitung* to an earlier work by

Fink on a comparable corpus. Whereas Fink found 3,046 Anglicisms in 1963, Viereck counts 24,141 Anglicisms eleven years later, which corresponds to an increase by eightfold. In comparison to the 24,141 Anglicisms in the *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, the number of Anglicisms in the Austrian newspapers turned out remarkably lower with 6,578 Anglicisms in the *Presse* and 5,241 in the *Kleine Zeitung* (Viereck 1980: 209). In a follow-up study, Viereck (1986: 166-167) showed that the number of Anglicisms per page in the *Presse* and the *Kleine Zeitung* virtually doubled between 1974 and 1984.

Recently, Petrovic (2017) dealt with *Die Presse*, *Kronen Zeitung*, *Österreich* and *Heute* from the year 2016. She found that the free newspapers *Österreich* and *Heute* use the most Anglicisms. These results are in contrast to Saidi's (2017) findings, who analyzed the use of Anglicisms in *der Standard* and *Heute* in the context of the Austrian and American presidential election campaigns of 2016. Her results showed that the *Standard* used more Anglicisms than *Heute*. Furthermore, the *Standard* used approximately twice as many Anglicisms in reference to the American campaigns as compared to the Austrian campaigns, which she explained through the use of culture-specific terms from the American political system. In *Heute*, the relation between the two elections was fairly balanced, which she attributed to the newspaper's tenet of using as easily understandable language as possible (2017: 123).

The limitation on newspaper language was criticized by several researchers. It restricts documentary evidence and leads to exaggerated results because the press tends to be eager to incorporate foreign words (Duckworth 1979: 212-213). Therefore, Duckworth (1979: 212-213) argued that other publications should be analyzed next to newspapers. For his own investigation, he used predominantly technical literature besides press texts. Subsequently, other researchers focused on the use of Anglicisms in specialized magazines as well. For example, Fink (1997) compared the occurrences of Anglicisms in eight German magazines aimed at different audiences, namely *Bunte*, *Fit for Fun*, *Freundin*, *Super Illu*, *Die Welt*, *Bild*, *Bravo* and *Mädchen* and analyzed them in terms of their general language and the language of the advertisements they publish. He found that the sports magazine *Fit for Fun* features the highest number of Anglicisms per page (1997: 111).

Considering other specialized magazines, Langer (1996) investigated the influence of English on German on the basis of the economic journals *Capital* and *DM*. Similarly, Béchet-Tsarnos (2005) compared Greek, French and German business magazines. Irresberger (2010) examined Anglicisms in law language and found an outstanding number in the field of education. Onysko (2001) focused on the occurrence of English terminology in modern sports

and concludes that English words are mainly used due to their brevity and the American background of the types of sport under investigation. Schmitt (1985) investigated English influences on nuclear engineering and explained Anglicisms through the necessary worldwide sharing of knowledge, which is simplified through internationally consistent terminology (1985: 211-218). Michaelis's (2014) thesis focused on the language of youth magazines and was interested in the form and frequency with which Anglicisms are used in the photo love stories of *Bravo*. In her diachronic analysis of five photo love stories from 1972, 1982, 1992, 2002 and 2012, she showed that the percentage of Anglicisms first rapidly increased and eventually stabilized.

Some researchers also analyzed dictionaries for their incorporation of Anglicisms. For example, Busse (1993) examined Anglicisms in all *Duden* editions that were published between 1880 and 1986. He found that between 1880 and 1905 the number of Anglicisms grew slowly and uniformly. In a second phase, the inventory of Anglicisms further increased until 1941, even though there were large-scale deletions of items that were considered too rare or too technical. After the Second World War, entries were inconsistent as there were two separate editorial offices, one in Leipzig and one in Mannheim. Generally, the *Mannheimer Duden* adopted several Anglicisms one or two editions earlier than the *Leipziger Duden*. Similar to Busse, Rieck (2013) investigated Anglicisms in the official dictionary of the German language in Austria (*Österreichisches Wörterbuch*) between 1985 and 2012. Her results show that there was a significant increase in the number of Anglicisms within this time span, predominantly in the form of direct loans and nouns. The fields in which Anglicisms appeared changed from 'transportation' and 'sports' to 'technical matters' and 'economics'.

The focus on printed media is oftentimes considered a shortcoming, especially in regard to pronunciation and because several words or phrases occur only or predominantly in oral language (Carstensen & Busse 1993: \*27). Subsequently, some studies have focused on spoken language, mostly in the form of TV recordings. For example, Steinbach (1984) concerned himself with German commercial television and showed that more than 1% of all articulated phonetic syllables are indicative of bearing relation to the English language. Interestingly, brand names are surprisingly often pronounced in a German way. Furthermore, he reported that advertisements for US-owned companies employed significantly more Anglicisms (1984: 259-262). Furthermore, Herbst (1994) investigated synchronized TV series. According to him, English loanwords in German translations are used consciously in order to reflect the American or British context of the storyline, in order to convey an international and progressive impression, and for reasons of lip synch (1994: 134-136).

Moreover, Sagmeister-Brandner (2008) built upon her diploma thesis on radio language in Ö3 journals from 1967 to 1997 and correlated it with new data from Ö3 journals from 2004. Additionally, she investigated the language of *Zeit im Bild* in order to determine whether Anglicisms are used differently in radio and TV news. She found that whereas Anglicisms were tripled between 1967 and 1997, there was no further increase between 1997 and 2004. Furthermore, *Zeit im Bild* journalists used 20% more Anglicisms than radio journalists.

Furthermore, Glahn (2002) focused his work on recordings from the German TV stations ARD, ZDF and SWR and showed that the shorter a word is and the more recently it has been borrowed, the more likely it is to be pronounced English. He concluded that English borrowings are used every 56.6 seconds on average. Relativizing this, he elaborated that whereas Anglicisms occur every 3 minutes and 38 seconds in series, they are used every 22.7 seconds in commercials. (Glahn 2002: 181-183). Offering similar results for the written language, Fink (1980) investigated the youth magazines *Bravo* and *Freizeit-Magazin* and found that 27% of all Anglicisms are used for advertising, which means that whereas there are on average 7 Anglicisms per page in running text, there are 15 Anglicisms per advertisement page (1980: 192-194).

Several other researchers were interested in the use of Anglicisms in advertisements as well. For example, Schütte (1996) found that Anglo-American influences on the language of German magazine advertising proliferated from 1951 to 1991 and the amount of Anglicisms is higher in advertisements addressing hedonistic values, technological progress and internationality (1996: 255-357). Considering different target groups, Bohmann (1996) showed that Anglophone advertisements accumulate if the recipients of a magazine are younger than 35 years old, whereas in the case of an older or a more widespread audience, the use of Anglicisms is limited to technical terms (1996: 267). Moreover, Meder's (2006) analysis of advertisements in magazines aimed at female or male audiences showed that advertisements in men's magazines employ Anglicisms more frequently than those in women's magazines. She accredits this phenomenon to the fact that there is a considerably greater amount of advertisements for technical products and that English expressions in technical jargon are mirrored in advertisements for these products (2006: 241).

#### **2.4.2. Anglicisms dictionaries**

Building on this work on Anglicisms, some theorists have tried to compile dictionaries of Anglicisms. A milestone in this regard is Carstensen and Busse's (1993; 1994; 1996) standard work, which is based on a corpus of more than 100,000 instances from German newspapers,



magazines and literature. In addition to describing 3,500 of the most frequent Anglicisms in regard to spelling, pronunciation, grammar, meaning, etymology, syntactic features and stylistic aspects, they offer citations that show usage contexts. The main focus is on the documentation of those Anglicisms that entered the German vocabulary after 1945. Moreover, Görlach (2001) compiled *A Dictionary of European Anglicisms* documenting the occurrence of English words in four Germanic, four Slavic and four Romance languages as well as in Finnish, Hungarian, Albanian and Greek. Recent works are for example Wahrig-Burfeind and Wahrig (2007) or Duden (2015).

Additionally, several books were published whose titles already indicate their underlying attitudes towards Anglicisms. Rather than being dictionaries, these books are “wordlists garnished with satirical or polemical comments” (Busse 2005: 60). Examples of these are *Amideutsch* (Probst 1989), *Engleutsch? Nein danke! Wie sag ich’s auf deutsch?* (Paulwitz & Micko 2000), *Wörterbuch überflüssiger Anglizismen* (Pogarell & Schröder 2000), *Dummddeutsch* (Henscheid 2000) or *Modern Talking auf Deutsch* (Krämer 2000).

#### **2.4.3. Multilingual approaches towards Anglicisms**

Some studies that compare the usage of Anglicisms in different languages were published as well. For example, Dorner’s (2010) examination of German and Czech computer magazines exhibited that whereas Czech tends to emulate English terms with Czech material and thereby builds loan translations and loan renderings, German shows a tendency towards hybrid forms (2010: 135). Brandt’s (2017) investigation of texts on information technology confirmed these results for German and Norwegian as well (2017: 109). Furthermore, she conducted a survey among language professionals (i.e. translators, lecturers, communication consultants, journalists, social media and web content managers, etc.) on their attitudes towards Anglicisms (Brandt 2017: 97). The results indicated that in both language communities Anglicisms were rarely evaluated negatively. Nevertheless, while Norwegians conditioned the use of Anglicisms on the situation, Germans used them in formal as well as everyday contexts (Brandt 2017: 109). Furthermore, Germans classified Anglicisms as more neutral than Norwegians did, which suggests a high level of integration culminating in inconspicuousness (Brandt 2017: 110).

Having the French language laws in mind, Plümer (2000) compared German and French media language on the basis of the German *Frankfurter Zeitung* and the newscast of ZDF as well as the French papers *Le Monde* and *Le Figaro* and the broadcaster *France 3*. She found that French used a significantly lower number of different types, albeit these were used

considerably more often (2000: 270). With a similar background in mind, Mayerhofer (2013) investigated French and Austrian sports coverage on the basis of *L'Équipe* and *Kronen Zeitung* and found that in Austria more Anglicisms were used (2013: 124).

Some studies also attended to trilingual analyses. For example, Lilienkamp (2001) was interested in the use of Anglicisms in German, French and Spanish music magazines and found that German magazines employed more than twice as many English lexemes as Spanish publications. Determining journalists' attitudes towards English and their own mother tongue, he evaluated their language loyalty. He ranked Spanish journalists' loyalty as high, Frenchmen's as medium and of Germans' as low (2001: 565-566). Moreover, Béchet-Tsarnos's (2005) investigation of German, French and Greek business journals showed that German exhibited a three times as high ratio of economic Anglicisms as the other two languages. She explained that in German there were more 'spontaneous' neologisms as opposed to integrated specialist terms and that the English language enjoyed higher prestige in German society (2005: 233-235).

To conclude, the continuously increasing number of Anglicisms in the German language and their use across all walks of life and in several specialized fields have resulted in a vast amount of publications on this topic. Therefore, a wide range of works using different approaches can be found.

## **2.5. Summary of chapter 2**

To conclude, there is a long history of language contact between English and German, which resulted in a significant amount of Anglicisms within the German language. Anglicisms are English words that have been integrated into the inventory of an RL. There are various different models of how Anglicisms can be classified. Generally, they are split into two broad categories: inner loans and outer loans. Inner loans are emulations of SL words with RL material and are therefore often not perceptible as such. Outer loans, on the other hand, display at least partly recognizable SL material. Furthermore, there are pseudo loans, which are words that appear to be SL borrowings, but do not exist in the SL. Furthermore, some researchers also attempted to distinguish Anglicisms according to their degree of integration or to the variety of English they originate from.

Considering the borrowing process, Anglicisms in German are a case of RL agentivity, which means that German is the dominant RL while English is the subdominant SL. In cases of RL agentivity, lexis is concerned first. As language contact between German and English is still of low intensity, predominantly content words are taken over and there is no structural

borrowing. Adopted words are assimilated to the RL in regard to syntax, morphology, phonetics and phonology, as well as spelling. The two main reasons for the takeover of loanwords are need and prestige.

Another important issue in relation to loanwords is code-switching. In contrast to lexical borrowings, code-switches are not integrated into the RL. However, there is no clear distinction between code-switching and borrowing, but rather the two phenomena form a continuum. The main criteria of differentiation seem to be frequency of use and the degree of integration into the RL. Moreover, multilinguals can code-switch as well as borrow, whereas monolinguals can only borrow foreign elements. Nevertheless, SL items are only undisputedly accepted as borrowings when they are listed in the RL dictionary, although some words are commonly used long before they receive dictionary status.

For the purpose of this thesis, both code-switches and outer loans will be considered under the term ‘Anglicisms’. As has been shown, there is a vast amount of prior research on Anglicisms and it is hoped that this thesis can serve as an important contribution to this field as well.

### **3. Language attitudes**

#### **3.1. What are (language) attitudes?**

The term ‘attitude’ frequently occurs in everyday speech. Attitudes permeate everyday life and are reflected in our behavior and motivation. ‘Language attitudes’ comprise all attitudes directed at language as a referent (Soukup 2009: 85). Yet, the concept of attitudes is not only important for sociolinguistics, but has been dealt with in several fields, particularly in social psychology. In early work on attitudes, the psychologist Allport (1935: 798) asserted that “the concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American social psychology”. Nowadays, the term ‘American’ is not required anymore, otherwise this assessment remains valid (Crano, Cooper & Forgas 2010: 5).

In order to define the term, it is inevitable to address basic aspects of attitudes in general, and not only language attitudes in particular. The concept of attitude is not easily definable and there is no uniquely valid definition. Instead, several theorists have come up with different attempts of defining the term, contingent on their fields and the focus of their studies. For example, Thurstone (1931: 261) defined it as “the affect for or against a psychological object”. Thereby, he emphasized the positive or negative emotional responses embodied in attitudes. Another widely influential definition was formulated by Allport (1935: 810), who determined an attitude as “a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related”. This highlights that attitudes go beyond affect, and extend to behavior too. Behavioral aspects are included in Oppenheim’s (1982: 39) definition as well, and he further elaborated manifestations of attitudes:

An attitude is a construct, an abstraction which cannot be directly apprehended. It is an inner component of mental life which expresses itself, directly or indirectly, through such more obvious processes as stereotypes, beliefs, verbal statements, or reactions, ideas and opinions, selective recall, anger or satisfaction or some other emotion and in various other aspects of behaviour.

As these definitions indicate, there are three central components in the structure of attitudes: cognition, affect and behavior (Garrett 2010: 23). Furthermore, it is shown that attitudes are an inner construct and cannot be directly observed since thoughts and feelings are covert. Therefore, we are dependent on a person’s reports of their attitudes (Fasold 1984: 147). However, self-reports are often questionable (Fasold 1984: 147). It is possible that people are not consciously aware of their own attitudes (Svara 2009: 4). This entails difficulties in accessing and measuring attitudes as they cannot always be overtly stated.

Another way of working out a person's attitudes is to infer them from behavior patterns such as the reactions Oppenheim lists in his definitions. Stimuli can elicit observable responses through which attitudes can be inferred. However, it is important to note that attitudes are not always consistent with actual behavior as there are other factors which influence behavior as well. In order to predict behavior, attitude and behavior would need to correspond "in terms of target, action, context, and time" (Ajzen & Fishbein 1977, quoted in Gardner 1982: 133). As Ajzen (2005: 71) explains "[e]very particular instance of human action is [...] determined by a unique set of factors. Any change in circumstances, be it ever so slight, might produce a different reaction".

In regard to the emergence of attitudes, they are learned through a person's experiences and social environment (Garrett 2010: 22). Furthermore, they are considered rather stable dispositions (Garrett 2010: 29). These features are combined in Sherif's definition:

When we talk about attitudes, we are talking about what a person has *learned* in the process of becoming a member of a family, a member of a group, and of society that makes him react to his social world in a *consistent* and *characteristic* way, instead of a transitory and haphazard way. (Sherif 1967: 2, quoted in Garrett 2010: 29) [original emphasis]

Yet, even though attitudes tend to be durable qualities, they vary in level of commitment. Spontaneous evaluations are more unstable than attitudes which were acquired early in life (Garrett 2010: 29). Attitudes change depending on individual needs or social situations (Baker 1992: 105).

In contemporary literature, a frequently used definition is Eagly and Chaiken's (1993: 1) approach, who specified an attitude as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor". According to this, attitudes are evaluations of social objects and they are always evaluative in nature. For studying attitudes, two components are necessary: firstly, judgements are formed online and secondly, evaluative representations are reactivated in memory (Albarracín, Johnson & Zanna 2005: 4).

The concept of attitude overlaps with other concepts such as behavior, belief, habit, ideology, motive, opinion, perception, stereotype, personality trait, value and others and those terms are often used interchangeably (Plot 2008: 7). However, there are subtle differences between the terms, which need to be considered. The inconsistent relationship between attitudes and behavior has already been discussed. How the other terms can be distinguished from attitudes is elaborated in the following:

- Concerning beliefs, they tend to be more conscious in comparison to attitudes and can be supported by arguments (Smit 1996: 29).
- Habits differ from attitudes as they are behavioral routines, whereas attitudes cannot always be linked to behavior (Garrett 2010: 31).
- The term ideology is defined broader than the concept of attitude as it refers to norms and values of particular groups and can therefore be seen as “a global attitude” (Baker 1992: 15). The concept of language ideologies is important in the context of language politics (Garrett 2010: 34).
- The concepts of motive and attitude differ as the former is goal specific whereas the latter is object specific (Baker 1992: 14).
- The terms opinion and attitude are often used interchangeably in everyday speech. However, in contrast to attitudes, opinions are “overt belief[s] without an affective reaction” and they are verbalizable, while attitudes “contain affective reactions” and “may be latent, conveyed by non-verbal and verbal processes” (Baker 1992: 14).
- Perceptions are similar to beliefs, but they “result [...] from a sensory impression as well as cognitive activity” (Wood 1987: 145, quoted in Smit 1996: 29).
- Social stereotypes are rather formed between different social groups, however it is not always clear whether something is an attitude or a stereotype (Garrett 2010: 32).
- Personality traits do not have a target and typically do not involve an evaluative process, whereas attitudes evaluate objects or people (Ajzen 2005: 6).
- Finally, values are more global than attitudes as they refer to “a person’s goals or standards in life” and are therefore “very important and central in a person’s whole system of attitudes and beliefs – that is, they are resistant to change, and they influence many other beliefs and attitudes” (Oskamp 2005: 15).

Having discussed attitudes in general, language attitudes can be addressed in more detail. Language is not only a means of communication, but it also shapes the way we think or feel and influences the way we see the world and construct reality, as the Sapir-Whorf-Hypothesis suggests (Lucy 2001: 903). Consequently, language attitudes affect language behavior (Lasagabaster 2006: 402). Research on language attitudes has been conducted on several levels of language, for example attitudes towards whole languages, single words, dialects, grammar, code-switching, accents or towards speakers of certain language varieties (Garrett 2010: 2-15). The definition of language attitudes can even be broadened to include attitudes towards language planning efforts (Fasold 1984: 148).

Language is used as a guideline to describe and judge others and therefore language attitudes influence reactions to how others speak. Competence, friendliness, intelligence, social status, trustworthiness and so on are judged from the way we speak. The language or, to be more precise, the variety of a language used defines a speaker and marks a person as belonging to a certain group. Oftentimes, these judgements are anticipated and therefore language attitudes also influence our own language choices (Garrett 2010: 21). Language and identity are strongly interconnected. Thus, language attitudes play a role in reception as well as production of language (Garrett 2010: 21). This does not only apply to a speaker's mother tongue, but also to any further languages. Moreover, attitudes towards a language are a decisive factor in regard to learning motivation and subsequently learning success.

The construction of language attitudes is influenced by various factors, such as age, gender, schooling, ability, language background as well as cultural background (Baker 1992: 41-47). Different evaluations of languages and language varieties can be ascribed to either linguistic or aesthetic differences. A linguistic reason would be a language's inability to perform all linguistic functions, which is often criticized since all languages are capable of fulfilling their functions (Smit 1996: 36). Aesthetic differences refer to how pleasing a language sounds in comparison to another, which is criticized as there are no clear criteria for aesthetics (Smit 1996: 36). Therefore, it was replaced by the imposed-norm-hypothesis, which suggests that "the existence of language attitudes is to be seen in the system of differing social values and preferences linked to specific varieties in response to the social structures of a society" (Smit 1996: 36).

Indirect ways of eliciting attitudes, e.g. through observation of behavior, have already been discussed above. A direct approach to language attitudes research is folk linguistics, which is often identified with Preston (e.g. Preston & Niedzielski 2000). Folk linguistics means that perceptions and views of non-experts in the field are investigated (Garrett 2010: 179). In this case, these are persons who did not receive formal training in linguistics and therefore cannot be considered experts in linguistics. Their opinions are valuable as "we should be interested not only in (a) what goes on (language), but also in (b) how people react to what goes on (they are persuaded, they are put off, etc.) and in (c) what people say goes on (talk concerning language)" (Hoenigswald 1966: 20). Consequently, ordinary people are asked for their beliefs and opinions about language, language use and language users. This is the approach that was used for the purposes of the empirical study in this thesis.

### **3.2. Prior research on language attitudes**

Although several researchers dealt with language attitudes in general, studies on Austrians' attitudes towards Anglicisms are scarce. Concerning the Austrian population's attitudes towards English as a language, some diploma theses on this topic were submitted, for example Hebenstreit (1997), Knollmayr (2003), Damböck (2005), Plot (2008), Svara (2009), Wöckinger (2010), Zeiss (2010) or Kranawetter (2012). Furthermore, there is a Eurobarometer survey, in which Austrians' language attitudes were measured (European Commission 2012). Among other things, the results show that more than three quarters (76%) of Austrians considered English to be useful for their personal development (European Commission 2012: 70) and almost all respondents (93%) thought that it is useful for children's future to learn English, which is 9% more than in 2005 (European Commission 2012: 77-80). 70% of Austrians agreed that improving language skills should be a policy priority, although Austrian respondents were least likely to 'totally agree' (20%) compared to the rest of the European Union (European Commission 2012: 121-122).

However, since these studies were concerned with the English language as such instead of Anglicisms, some other works have to be considered as well. An early step into the direction of attitudes towards Anglicisms was made in Stickel's (1984) investigation, where the evaluation of Anglicisms was determined on the basis of newspaper readers' letters to the editor and journalists' comments in glosses. The results showed that letters from readers consistently judged Anglicisms negatively, while at least one third of journalists' commentaries exhibited balanced or partly positive judgements (Stickel 1984: 287-288).

Furthermore, some studies dealt with the perception of Anglicisms. For example, Fink, Fijas and Schons (1997) were concerned with the reception of Anglicisms in East Germany after German reunification and interestingly did not find great differences between the East and the West. They showed that whereas new Anglicisms frequently remained unknown, English words denoting desirable products from the West that were already well-known in GDR times enjoyed common use. In general, their participants exhibited a positive attitude towards Anglicisms (1997: 117-118). Extending the focus to all German-speaking areas, Schmidlin (2008) investigated regional differences and attitudes towards the use of Anglicisms. She detected that speakers from east-central Germany were most critical of Anglicisms and that anglo-Helvetisms seemed to be more common than anglo-Austriacisms and anglo-Teutonisms. This may be due to the fact that while in Germany the mixture of languages is criticized, in Austria (and Switzerland) the takeover of German as spoken in Germany is assessed rather negatively (Sagmeister-Brandner 2008: 169).



Other than that, opinion polls remain the means of identifying attitudes, even though expressed opinion and actual behavior are not always consistent, as was mentioned above. A first survey was conducted in Germany in 1997/98. Being asked, whether any changes in the language attracted their attention in the last 5 to 10 years, almost half of all participants answered yes and the by far most often cited example were Anglicisms (Stickel 1999: 23). Ten years later, a more detailed poll was conducted (Eichinger et al. 2009). Here, 84% stated that they have recognized changes in the German language over the past few years, which is considerably more than in the previous survey (Eichinger et al. 2009: 35). Being asked about which changes specifically were apparent to them, 28% named influences through foreign languages, especially through English (21%). In regard to age groups, over-60-year-olds ranked the English influence foremost, whereas for younger respondents it was only the second most common answer after the new spelling rules. Furthermore, respondents from East Germany mentioned the English influence significantly more often (33%) than those from West Germany (19%) (Eichinger et al. 2009: 37). Considering the development of the German language, more persons assessed it as worrying (27%) than pleasant (15%), whereas the majority (53%) was undecided (Eichinger et al. 2009: 39). Accordingly, most participants (78%) thought that more should be done for the German language. Nevertheless, most of them (58%) considered a law for the protection of the language unnecessary (Eichinger et al. 2009: 47).

Similarly, the GfdS and the *Deutscher Sprachrat* conducted an opinion poll among Germans and found that the majority (65%) considered the German language endangered or deteriorating more and more (Hoberg, Eichhoff-Cyrus & Schulz 2008: 10). Especially elders above 60 years were concerned about the decline of the German language (73%), but also 53% of 16-29-year-olds agreed. 44% of all respondents felt that the German language has become less important in the past years and 41% thought that its importance would further decrease (2008: 41). As one reason among others, 49% of participants blamed the increasing influence other languages have on German (2008: 11). Every second respondent took the view that German should be preserved against foreign influences, with two thirds (66%) of over-60-year-olds and only one third (34%) of 16-29-year olds agreeing (2008: 40). Nevertheless, almost all respondents (98%) thought that children should learn English in school (2008: 36) and the vast majority could speak at least one foreign language. English speakers represented the largest group with 63%. Whereas 84% of 16-29-year-olds indicated to know English, only 38% of over-60-year-olds did so. In line with that, only 12% of 16-29-year olds did not speak an additional language, while 53% of over-60-year olds stated not to

do so (2008: 34). Many Germans had become accustomed to the use of Anglicisms, although 39% were bothered about it. Again, especially older respondents (68%) and those without English skills (56%) indicated that they disliked it, whereas the vast majority of younger Germans (64%) did not mind (2008: 38). Considering consequences of the more frequent use of Anglicisms, 73% indicated that German words would get lost as they were suppressed by English words, 61% said that characteristics of the German language would get lost, 53% stated that communication would get complicated as many people do not speak English well enough, and 42% feared that the German language would become less important in the world. The younger ones deplored those changes in the language less frequently, but rather stated that the use of English expressions would facilitate international communication (52%), make the German language more modern and international (43%), and make it easier to learn English (31%). Furthermore, 32% of 16-29-year-olds declared that English words help them express themselves (2008: 39).

In a Forsa survey (2008) on the knowledge and use of Anglicisms, half of the participants felt disturbed by the use of Anglicisms in everyday language and in advertisements while it was evaluated more positively in youth language (Forsa 2008: 4). Especially older respondents (56-65 years) considered Anglicisms in everyday language irritating whereas most 14-25-year olds reacted indifferently (2008: 10-11). Furthermore, the frequency of Anglicism use clearly declined with increasing age and lower educational qualifications (2008: 7). Moreover, almost three quarters of all respondents thought that more Anglicisms would be used in the future (2008: 3).

In her Bachelor thesis, Pauli (2010) investigated German youth language and adolescents' and adults' language attitudes towards it. Among other things, she was interested in which characteristics adolescents ascribe to 'their' language and found that modernization of words through Anglicisms appears at the top of the list. Analogously, the surveyed teachers described similar features, namely the frequent use of Anglicisms, the creation of neologisms and shifts in meaning (2010: 55). Being asked about whether they incorporate words from other languages into their speech, almost half of all pupils (49.1% of *Gymnasiasten* and 47.8% of *Hauptschüler*) stated to do so, and most of the others indicated that they 'sometimes' do (49.1% and 34.8%, respectively). Only 1.8% and 17.4%, respectively, negated the use of other languages. Whereas those who attended a *Gymnasium* noted English, French, Spanish, Italian and Russian as donor languages, *Hauptschüler* named English, Russian and Turkish. Similarly, 72.4% of their teachers thought that adolescents used words from other languages and 24.1% indicated that youths 'sometimes' used foreign words. They

also gave priority to English and additionally adduced Spanish, Italian and French. Moreover, one teacher named “Erkan-Slang” meaning the use of German words with Turkish pronunciation (Pauli 2010: 58-59).

Schoel et al. (2012) conducted three studies on Anglicism use. In the first one, they investigated whether the use of Anglicisms appeared competent or sympathetic to students and found that implicitly, German terms were clearly favored in regard to competence and warmth (2012: 177). Explicitly, Anglicisms were rated as more competent in a professional context than in a recreational one, which they ascribed to the widely held opinion that the work-related use of Anglicisms signifies competence (2012: 183). These results could be replicated and were more distinct in the second study on non-students (2012: 179). In contrast with that, the third study, which was concerned with the selection of personnel, showed that the use of Anglicisms significantly decreased an applicant’s chances as qualifications and language competences tended to be underrated (2012: 182).

A study on language students’ attitudes towards the German language and Anglicisms revealed that most participants showed a positive attitude towards Anglicisms and considered the German language more lively and versatile through their incorporation (Rocco 2014: 141). Being asked which characteristics they would attribute to a person that frequently uses Anglicisms, the most chosen ones were ‘juvenile’ and ‘casual’. More than twice as many answers were positively connoted (‘competent’, ‘attractive’, ‘friendly’) than were negatively connoted (‘snobbish’, ‘incompetent’, ‘repulsive’, ‘dismissive’) (2014: 142).

To conclude, several opinion polls on different aspects of Anglicisms showed that attitudes can be remarkably different depending on the age of respondents. Generally, younger participants are less bothered by the use of Anglicisms and evaluate them positively. Unfortunately all of the mentioned opinion polls surveyed participants in Germany and no scientifically sound equivalents could be found for an Austrian context. Nevertheless, it is supposed that Austrians display similar attitudes as their German neighbors.

## 4. Youth language

### 4.1. Youth

In order to define the term ‘youth language’, the concept of ‘youth’ needs to be clarified first. There is no universal definition for youth as fundamental social factors such as environment, social class or gender lead to a heterogeneous view of youth (Scherr 2009: 24). Hence, Scherr (2009: 24) speaks about socially different and disparate youths in the plural instead of a singular youth. He describes youth as a socially institutionalized and internally differentiated stage of life, whose demarcation and extent as well as progression and manifestation are essentially determined by social (socio-structural, economic, political, cultural, legal, institutional) conditions and influences (Scherr 2009: 24-25).

Another noteworthy and oft-cited definition is to be found in Hollinghead’s (1975: 5) work on adolescents in a Midwestern community, which states that “[s]ociologically, adolescence is the period in the life of a person when the society in which he functions ceases to regard him (male or female) as a child but does not accord to him full adult status, roles and functions“. He continues that it is not determined by a specific moment in time such as physical puberty, but that different cultures and societies circumscribe it differently with respect to form, content, duration and period in the life cycle (Hollinghead 1975: 5). Therefore, the sociological concept proceeds on the assumption that youth is no natural category, but a societally defined and institutionalized group (Bühler-Niederberger 2007: 11).

There are no clear criteria for demarcation of beginning or end of the juvenile stage. Taking a societal perspective, Hurrelmann and Quenzel (2016: 37-39) try to determine the difference between adolescence and adulthood with the concept of independence. A central feature of entering adolescence is the adoption of a partly autonomous social role (Hurrelmann & Quenzel 2016: 38). An essential criterion for the transition to adulthood is the attainment of complete independence in the four central societal roles: the professional role, the partner and parental role, the role as an economic citizen as well as the role as a political citizen (Hurrelmann & Quenzel 2016: 38). In this context, they note that the boundaries are fluid and it is not possible to designate an expectable maturity and age threshold for the passing of the transition point between the two life phases, which is binding upon all people (Hurrelmann & Quenzel 2016: 39). Similarly, Ferchhoff (2011: 95) explains that generally, adolescence does not have a uniform closure, is characterized by various asynchronicities and disparate developments, is considered as phase of multiple partial transitions, varying legal, political and cultural dates of maturity as well as different sexual, political and social

maturities. Moreover, from the point of view of most youth sociologists, the juvenile phase continues to expand.

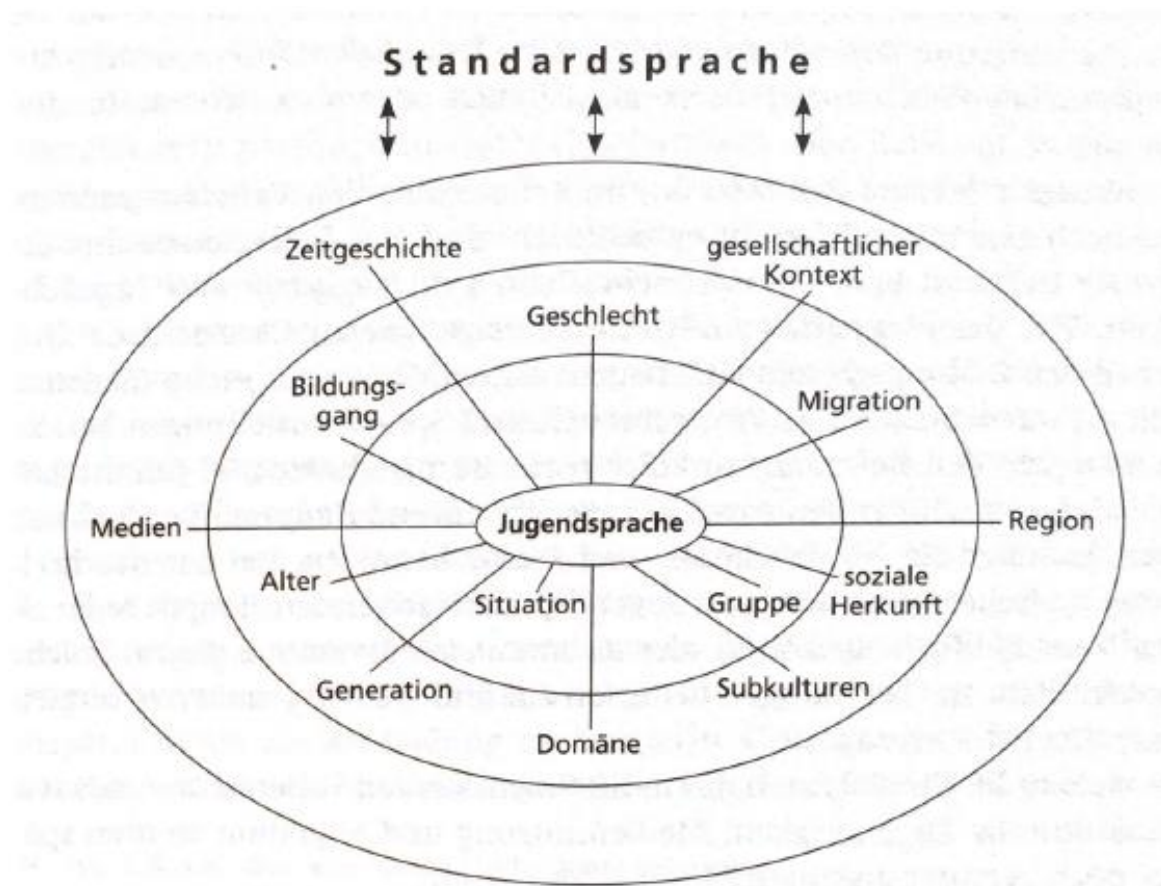
## **4.2. Youth language**

As was just pointed out, the youth as a homogenous group does not exist. Rather, there are different youth groups, which do not share the same interests and hold different attitudes to life. In line with this, aspects such as gender, age, origin and affiliation with different youth scenes contribute not only to a heterogeneous picture of youth, but also to an inhomogeneous style of speech. In this context, Schlobinski, Kohl and Ludewigt (1993: 37) note that youth language cannot exist since the youth as a homogeneous group does not exist. It follows that there are as many youth languages as there are youth groups (Schlobinski, Kohl & Ludewigt 1993: 40).

Nevertheless, there is agreement that the way of speaking of adolescents has always differed from the language use of other age groups as well as from the standard language (Neuland 2000: 110). Henne (1986: 211) describes youth language as a secondary framework, which falls into several partial languages. He continues by describing it as a roof under which various youth groups live, each with its own needs of expression (e.g. language, music, clothes, hairstyle). Furthermore, he adduces standard language in order to define youth language more concretely. He writes that youth language is a perpetual evasion and passing maneuver (Henne 1986: 208). It proceeds from standard language, modifies it creatively, at the same time stereotypes it and maintains certain forms of its linguistic game (Henne 1986: 208).

The multidimensional perspective on youth language and the reciprocal exchange with standard language were exemplified by Neuland (2000: 116), who illustrated the spectrum of variety for the diversity of adolescents' language use. A slightly altered version of this illustration after Neuland (2008: 69) is depicted in figure 5. However, unfortunately neither Neuland (2000) nor Neuland (2008) specify the criteria with which the factors were allocated their position in the model. Therefore, it is not clear what the different layers mean.

Figure 5: Neuland's (2008: 69) Spectrum of Variety for Youth Language



In current research, youth language is defined as a primarily orally constituted medium of group communication, which adolescents use in specific situations intra-group (Neuland 2008: 45). Interestingly, the use of youth language on the internet is not considered here.

An issue that largely remains unclear is whether youth language is a jargon, a sociolect, a register or a style (Neuland 2002: 182). In a model depicting the varieties of German, which aims at presenting the German language as a heterogeneous entity, Löffler classifies youth language as a 'transitory sociolect' (2016: 115). The term 'transitory' emphasizes that it has to be regarded as a temporary phenomenon (Löffler 2016: 116).

As was described above, youth language cannot easily be generalized and is evolving quickly. Therefore, it is hard to determine certain characteristics that are typical of youth language. Nevertheless, there are some features that can be identified. Word formation is regarded as the most important tool (Androutsopoulos 1998: 36). Furthermore, the lexicon of youth language is situated within certain thematic domains (Androutsopoulos 1998: 37). Phraseology and idiomacy have attracted attention as well as imagery, hyperbolization, expressiveness and emotionality (Androutsopoulos 1998: 37). Vulgarisms and taboo words are numbered among the standard repertoire (Androutsopoulos 1998: 38). Further prototypical

aspects of youth language are specific salutations and nicknames, modal particles and relativization as well as onomatopoeia (Androutsopoulos 1998: 38). Moreover, one of the most notable features of youth language is its openness to Anglicisms (Androutsopoulos 1998: 38)

Considering Anglicisms, there seems to be a bias which causes people to automatically think of youth language when Anglicisms are thematized. However, the amount of Anglicisms used by adolescents does not justify this prejudice (Glahn 2002: 67; Neuland 2008: 154). Actually, borrowings occur more often in professional languages and in written contexts than in spontaneous intra-group communication among juveniles (Neuland 2008: 154). Actually, scientific Anglicisms might irritate many adolescents and they are evaluated negatively (Androutsopoulos 1998: 578). Anglicisms of everyday speech, on the other hand, are judged by different standards. Their connotative value is the exoticizing of everyday occurrences, through which otherwise trivial statements gain an original tone (Androutsopoulos 1998: 578). Furthermore, Androutsopoulos (1998: 578) notes that Anglicisms in youth language might be the result of cultural transfer. For adolescents, it is not necessarily the prestige of American politics or its entertainment industry, but specific youth culture movements that originated in the Anglophone area and were spread internationally (Androutsopoulos 1998: 580).

It is important to note that there are no features that are exclusively used in youth language. Adults also use vulgarisms and borrowings, switch between different registers or resort to allusions. What makes the difference is frequency and intensity (Neuland 2008: 160). Therefore, the term ‘age preferential usage’ is favored (Neuland 2008: 55). Nevertheless, it is possible that borrowing processes are initiated by adolescents before the words are taken over by other user groups (Neuland 2008: 154).

#### **4.3. Prior research on youth language**

Similar to non-serious dictionaries on Anglicisms that were already presented, there are several so-called dictionaries of youth language that should not be taken seriously. Examples are *Angesagt: scene-deutsch: ein Wörterbuch* (Rittendorf, Schäfer & Weiss 1983), *Laß uns mal ‘ne Schnecke angraben: Sprache und Sprüche der Jugendszene* (Müller-Thurau 1984), *Von Anmache bis Zoff: ein Wörterbuch der Szene-Sprache* (Hoppe 1984), *Kleines Wörterbuch der Jugendsprache* (Heinemann 1989), *Affengeil: ein Lexikon der Jugendsprache* (Ehmann 1996), *Oberaffengeil: neues Lexikon der Jugendsprache* (Ehmann 1996), *Voll konkret: das neueste Lexikon der Jugendsprache* (Ehmann 2001) or *Leet & leiwand: das Lexikon der*

*Jugendsprache* (Sedlaczek 2006). These publications do not have any scientific claims, but also lack scientifically valid messages in regard to choice of lexemes and attributed meanings (Neuland 2008: 13). However, also otherwise serious institutions published dictionaries on youth language, such as *Duden – Wörterbuch der Szene-sprachen* (Wippermann 2000). Yet, even this work lacks empirical evidence and remains short on reliability (Neuland 2000: 269).

Nevertheless, there are various scientifically sound studies on youth language as well. Unfortunately, no studies on attitudes towards Anglicisms in youth language were found. Yet, there are works that are concerned with language attitudes to adolescents' speech and there are occasional works concerned with Anglicisms in adolescents' speech. To begin with, two studies which dealt with attitudes towards youth language will be presented in brief. Firstly, within a quantitative study Sasse (1998) elicited attitudes of adolescents in Osnabrück towards their way of speaking. Her results showed that participants predominantly had a highly positive and self-conscious attitude towards their own style of speech (Sasse 1998: 228). Furthermore, more than half of all participants (55.7%) took the view that other adolescents assess their language positively, whereas they frequently assumed that adults would evaluate juvenile language behavior negatively (Sasse 1998: 220). Furthermore, it was shown that participants were aware of their language and differentiated in their language use (Sasse 1998: 229). Especially in school or in occupational situations, they were mindful of their way of expression and adhered to the norms of adults and their language (Sasse 1998: 212). Being asked about distinguishing features of their speech, the respondents primarily named insider expressions that are only understood within their own peer group. Thereby, communal spirit emerges and they consciously isolate themselves from others. Here, the adults' rules do not apply, which finds expression in colloquial expressions and negligence of grammar (Sasse 1998: 214). Generally, participants evaluated their language as simpler but more expressive (Sasse 1998: 214). The investigation also showed significant differences in regard to gender. The boys' speech was characterized as more vulgar and aggressive, whereas the girls' way of expression was evaluated as more moderate, more refined and more emotional (Sasse 1998: 219).

Secondly, Thonemann's (2011) empirical study on pupils' language attitudes investigated differences according to type of school. In regard to domain-specific language use, he found that they used elements of youth language most frequently in their leisure time, followed by school and to a distinctly lesser extent in the family (2011: 59-60). Concerning the school domain, youth language was intensively used primarily at recess and during side communication in class, whereas it was used rather rarely for main communication in class,



which reinforced the claim that adolescents have a distinct and differentiating awareness of language (2011: 60). Regarding the type of school, adolescents attending a *Hauptschule* used youth language significantly less during side communication and breaks than those attending a *Gymnasium* (2011: 60-61).

With regard to Anglicisms in youth language, research is sparse. Generally, Anglicism research is concentrated on English influences on standard language. Nevertheless, Androutsopoulos (1998) extensively discusses this topic and devotes a chapter of his book to lexical borrowings in German youth language, most of which are Anglicisms (1998: 523-583). He analyzed them in respect of phonology, morphosyntax and spelling, addressed phrasemes and slogans and their textual functions, and differentiated them according to word class, codification and onomasiological distribution. Furthermore, he analyzed them according to their type of borrowing and handled their integration. Here it became obvious that also in youth language there is a vast amount of inner loans that are not recognizable as such *prima facie* (Androutsopoulos 1998: 554-557). Moreover, he addressed the role of codeswitching in youth language. Even though his data was collected more than twenty years ago, many of the features he found are still valid today. Furthermore, also Michaelis' (2014) thesis was concerned with Anglicisms in youth language. This work was already discussed in relation with Anglicisms in section 2.4.1.

Considering an Austrian context, research in the field of youth language is scarce in comparison to Germany or Switzerland. Outstanding in this regard is Ziegler's project on "Jugendsprache(n) in Österreich – Zur Interaktion von Dialekt und alterspräferentiellen Sprachgebrauch im urbanen und ruralen Raum" (youth language(s) in Austria – on the interaction of dialect and age preferential language usage in the urban and rural area), which deals with Austrian adolescents' way of speaking in respect to variation linguistics and pragmatics (<https://jugendsprachen.uni-graz.at/>). The project is structured in two phases. In the first phase, which went on between August 2013 and July 2016, data on urban areas was acquired. The project is currently in its second phase, which is planned to last until July 2019, and where data on rural areas is gathered. In the course of the investigation, group discussions in various youth facilities in all Austrian federal states are recorded. Furthermore, group discussions with adults are documented, which serve as a control group.

Summing up, works on Austrian youth language in general as well as on Anglicisms in youth language are scattered and there is a lack of research dealing with attitudes towards adolescents' use of English in everyday language. Hence, it is hoped that this work can be a first step towards closing this gap and that it will reveal valuable results.

## 5. Methodology

As was explained above, umpteen English elements have found their way into German everyday language in the form of Anglicisms. It is often claimed that youth language is to blame for the overflow of English items that are used within German. Therefore, adolescents' attitudes towards the use of Anglicisms were investigated.

The empirical part of this thesis concerns a case study on language attitudes that was conducted among members of a youth organization in rural Lower Austria. The focus of the study is on their language attitudes towards English words in the German language. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 322) argue that case studies are preferred when “the investigator has little control over events or when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context.” These criteria apply to the present study. As it is not possible to deprive participants from any influences through Anglicisms, the researcher has no control over participants' exposure to Anglicisms. Furthermore, Anglicisms are a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context.

According to Dörnyei (2007: 151), “almost anything can serve as a case as long as it constitutes a single entity with clearly defined boundaries”. This means that every program, institution, organization or community that is researched in depth can be considered a case. The case in this study is members of the *Pfadfinder and Pfadfinderinnen Österreichs*, which is the Austrian Scout Movement. To be more precise, members of three scout groups in rural Lower Austria were sampled. Even though members of three different local scout groups participated in the study, they can be treated as one case due to their similar background as scouts and their geographical proximity. Hence, the research design of this case study is a “single-case design” (Yin 2009: 46).

In regard to methodology, case studies are eclectic and can employ both qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection and it is also possible that different kinds of research are embedded within them (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 296). Actually, triangulation, which means using more than one method of obtaining data, is commonly used in case studies in order to establish validity (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995: 323-324). Since attitudes cannot be observed directly, they have to be inferred from behavior or be measured through interviews or attitude rating scales (Himmelfarb 1993: 23). The data collection in this survey employed quantitative methods. Therefore, a questionnaire was compiled. The advantages of quantitative research are that it is “systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data” (Dörnyei 2007: 34). Furthermore, even though most of the results collected through the questionnaire were

quantitative, it also contained two open-ended questions which required a qualitative analysis. These were added where it was felt that the closed format could have hardly gathered the information as participants' possibilities to answer would necessarily have been restricted.

Yet, since most of the research design involves quantitative inquiry, this also implies that the values and categories that want to be investigated need to be specified *a priori* (Dörnyei 2007: 33). Hence, the following research questions were developed:

- RQ1: Which attitudes do Austrian adolescents have towards the English language in general?
- RQ2: What do they think about the use of Anglicisms in German?
  - RQ2a: In how far do they perceive it as annoying/threatening/unnecessary?
  - RQ2b: In how far do they perceive it as enriching?
- RQ3: Do they perceive it as a problem that the number of Anglicisms increases?
- RQ4: Do they use Anglicisms in everyday speech themselves?
  - RQ4a: How often do they use Anglicisms?
  - RQ4b: Do they use them consciously or automatically?
- RQ5: Is Anglicism use dependent on the person?
  - RQ5a: What type of person uses Anglicisms most often, according to their judgement?
  - RQ5b: Which characteristics do they associate with speakers who frequently incorporate English words in their German everyday language?
- RQ6a: Does Anglicism use depend on the situation?
  - RQ6b: In which contexts do they think Anglicisms are used most often?
- RQ7: Why do they think Anglicisms are used?
- RQ8: Do they recognize Anglicisms as such or do they already evaluate them as German words?
- RQ9: Is there a relation between attitudes towards Anglicisms and participants' personal background?
  - RQ9a: In how far do attitudes differ in respect to gender?
  - RQ9b: How does the compiled data correspond with age?
  - RQ9c: Do language attitudes correspond with language competence or level of education?

- RQ9d: Do participants that have already spent longer periods of time in Anglophone countries exhibit more positive attitudes towards the English language and Anglicisms?

The first research question aims at eliciting attitudes towards the English language. It is considered a prerequisite in order to answer the other research questions as negative attitudes towards English as such arguably lead to negative attitudes towards Anglicisms. Questions 2a and 2b are concerned with Anglicisms in general, question 3 deals with the future development of Anglicisms and questions 4a and 4b are concerned with the participants' own use of Anglicisms. Questions 5 to 7 aim at determining factors that foster or hinder Anglicism use. Question 8 wants to find out whether Anglicisms are even perceived as English or whether they are already accepted as regular German words. Finally, questions 9a-9d examine whether other factors relate with attitudes towards Anglicisms. Variables under investigation were age, gender, level of education, linguistic background, language proficiency and whether the participants have already spent some time in an Anglophone country.

### **5.1. The questionnaire**

The instrument used for data collection was a questionnaire. The questionnaire, which is attached in appendix A, was developed by the researcher for the purpose of this thesis. It consists of three main sections, each of which gathers information on different aspects under investigation. The first part consists of 46 items and tries to elicit participants' attitudes towards the English language, towards Anglicisms and towards speakers who use Anglicisms. It closes with an open question on why participants think Anglicisms might be used. The second part contains 28 items, which are concerned with concrete examples of Anglicisms in addition to an open question which asks participants to list English words they can think of. Finally, the last section gathers information about the participants' background.

The first part can further be subdivided into three subsections. The first subsection is composed of 22 statements, which is based on a study on English words and phrases in Croatian by Perić and Škifić (2015). However, whereas participants in their study could only choose between 'yes' and 'no', the response options were expanded into a four-point Likert scale for the purposes of this study. Through a Likert scale, respondents are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree to a characteristic statement (Dörnyei 2007: 105). Hence, respondents in this study should react to the items by choosing either 'yes', 'rather yes', 'rather no' or 'no'. A four-point scale was chosen in order to give participants the opportunity to indicate different degrees of agreement or disagreement without overwhelming

them with too many options to choose from, but still force them to decide for one side. Furthermore, some of the items used by Perić and Škifić were deleted as they were not regarded as relevant for the German context and some items that were not tested by Perić and Škifić were added for the purposes of this study. There are multiple items for each content area, each of them focusing on a slightly different aspect of it. This ensures that individual items do not carry excessive loads and an inconsistent response to one item causes only limited damage (Dörnyei 2007: 104).

The second subsection asks participants to rate how often they think certain groups of people use English words in their everyday language and how often English words are used in certain contexts. Similar to the previous subsection, a four-point rating scale is used. Participants can decide between ‘very often’, ‘often’, ‘sometimes’ and ‘never’. On the one hand, this facilitates analyzing large data sets data and comparing participants to each other (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 382). On the other hand, however, it restricts participants’ answer options. Therefore, an open question was integrated which asked participants why they decided to tick that Anglicisms are used by certain people and in certain situations or not.

The third subsection is a partially open multiple-choice item, which provides ten adjectives and asks participants to choose which of them can be applied to people who frequently incorporate English words in their everyday language. In addition to the ten provided categories, they have the opportunity to formulate their own answers. This was taken over from a study conducted by Rocco (2014), which compared the attitudes of German and Italian language students. However, instead of using the exact same adjectives that were used by Rocco, some were exchanged for characteristics that Rocco’s participants listed in the open items as they were considered to be more suitable.

In the second main part, participants are first asked to reflect on the thoughts they have had while filling in the first section of the questionnaire since they are asked to give examples of English words they have thought about. Afterwards, they are asked to rate selected Anglicisms according to their Englishness or Germanness. Again, a four-point rating scale is used, allowing participants to choose between ‘English’, ‘rather English’, ‘rather German’ or ‘German’. The English words they are presented with were taken from Michaelis (2014) and Onysko (2007).

In the course of her thesis, Michaelis (2014) analyzed the use of Anglicisms in photo-love-stories in the *Bravo* magazine. Her diachronic study analyzed magazines between 1972 and 2012. Unfortunately, she does not reveal which words were used in which year. However, the problem with working with *Bravo* is that it does not actually show the language as it is

used by adolescents but rather it is written by adults in a way that they think adolescents speak. Pauli (2010: 81) revealed that many adolescents consider the language used in magazines such as *Bravo* insincere and exaggerated as it tries to force youthfulness and therefore inserts inappropriate Anglicisms.

Onysko's work lists the 100 most frequent Anglicisms in *Der Spiegel* from 2000 (2007: 122-123). This is obviously not a very recent collection and it is not representative of youth language. Nevertheless, since there is a lack of satisfying alternatives, a combination of Michaelis' and Onysko's works was used as the basis for this study. Only words that appeared in both lists were used in the questionnaire. This is due to two reasons: firstly, it narrowed the number of words down to an acceptable number so that participants are not overwhelmed, and secondly, any unauthentic Anglicisms that were constructed by *Bravo* reporters but are not used in everyday language could be avoided this way.

Finally, the last main section of the questionnaire concerns the participants' background. It asks them for their age, gender, level of education, mother tongue, years of learning English and whether they have already spent a longer period of time in an Anglophone country. Furthermore, they are asked to rate their English proficiency for the four skills reading, writing, speaking and listening as it is expected that there might be correlations between attitudes towards Anglicisms and language proficiency.

All instructions of the questionnaire and all items were written in German in order to ensure that participants understood what they were supposed to do.

In order to identify any potential problems with the material, the questionnaire for the study was piloted in November 2017 with three volunteers of the same age group as the participants. Piloting is especially important when quantitative methods are used as "quantitative studies rely on the psychometric properties of the research instruments" (Dörnyei 2007: 75). After the volunteers filled in the questionnaire, they were asked for their feedback. Especially the questions' comprehensibility was emphasized because "[w]hen it comes to assessing non-factual matters such as the respondents' attitudes, beliefs and other personal or mental variables, the actual wording of the items can assume an unexpected importance" (Dörnyei 2007: 103). Consequently, the questionnaire was adapted where necessary.

## **5.2. Participants**

Eight subgroups from three different scout groups in Northern Lower Austria participated in the study. The researcher collected all the data personally between November 2017 and April

2018. As the researcher is a member of the scouts herself, several participants are from her own personal milieu. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011: 290) state, it is a hallmark of case studies that the researcher is involved in the case.

First of all, the leaders of the scout group in the researcher's home town of which she is a member herself were contacted and informed about the study and its purposes. All of them kindly offered one of their meetings for data collection. Subsequently, an e-mail was sent to all groups of the scouting district Weinviertel. Unfortunately, there were no returns. Therefore, the researcher directly contacted two more scout groups, which then kindly offered their support, too and made contact details of the respective leaders available to the researcher. After all of the scout leaders had been asked for permission to conduct the study during one of their meetings, an appointment for data collection was arranged.

Data collection proceeded as follows: As most of the respective scout leaders had already informed their groups in advance, the study's purpose was only briefly summarized. All parts of the questionnaire were explained orally so as to ensure that the participants clearly understood what they were supposed to do. It was clarified that the study focuses on their own attitudes and beliefs and that there were no correct or incorrect answers in order to ensure that the participants did not feel pressured and gave honest answers. Also, it was elucidated that all answers would be treated anonymously and that they would not be used for any purposes other than this thesis. Afterwards, the participants were provided with the opportunity to ask questions.

All of the participants actively consented to participating in the research study by signing a consent form before completing the questionnaire. The participants were guaranteed confidentiality, anonymity and the chance to withdraw their consent at any time during the data collection. Furthermore, since most participants were underage, their parents' consent had to be sought, too. However, they only consented passively. Passive consent means not opting out or objecting to the study (Dörnyei 2007: 70). After having finished the questionnaire, all of the participants that were younger than 18 years old received a slip of paper. On this slip of paper there was a short explanation of the study as well as the researcher's e-mail address. If the parents did not want their children's data to be used, they should contact the researcher. The information the parents were given is to be found in appendix B. However, nobody objected to participation. Unquestionably, active consent is preferable. Nevertheless, it is supposed that seeking active consent from the parents would have reduced the sample size remarkably as several participants would have failed to hand in

the consent form. Also, Dörnyei (2007: 70) points out that in an anonymous questionnaire survey active consent is not as necessary as it would be in a qualitative interview study.

Once everyone had a clear understanding of the tasks, the participants completed the questionnaire. Also questions that came up while filling in the questionnaire were answered. It is hard to determine an average time it took the participants to fill in the questionnaire, as there were great differences between the age groups. Generally, completion took between 10 and 30 minutes.

In the following, the participants and their background will be explained. However, first a short explanation is given on how the Austrian scouts group their members into age groups. There are five groups:

- Biber (5 to 7 years)
- Wichtel and Wölflinge, short: WiWö (7 to 10 years)
- Guides and Späher, short: GuSp (10 to 13 years)
- Caravelles and Explorer, short: CaEx (13 to 16 years)
- Ranger and Rover, RaRo (16 to 20 years)

As these groups differ slightly between countries, there are no equivalent English translations. This study was conducted on members of GuSp, CaEx, RaRo and on their respective leaders. The classification into these age groups will be adopted for this study as well. However it is important to note that in the case of the RaRo, the upper boundary is not that clear-cut. On the one hand, many RaRo assume a function as leaders of one of the younger groups while they are still within the age limit. On the other hand, several former RaRo still attend the meetings, even though they already exceed the age limit. Therefore, some participants were unsure whether they should identify themselves as RaRo or as leaders. This decision was left to their own discretion. Thus, there might be some overlaps between the RaRo and the leaders. For the leaders, an age limit was set at 30 years in order to ensure the focus on youth language. This means that the sampled participants are between 10 and 30 years old. Thus, it can be assumed that they are all members of the generation that is familiar with the internet.

In total, the questionnaire was completed by 90 participants, all of which are members of one of the three scout groups. As language users and folk linguists they participate in the public discourse on Anglicisms. However, some of the participants had to be excluded from the study for different reasons. Firstly, one participant apparently did not take it seriously and left approximately half of the gaps blank. Even though others deliberately or accidentally missed to answer single items as well, the amount of unanswered questions in this case was considered too much. Secondly, one participant was excluded as she is a native Czech speaker



and only acquired German later in life. Thirdly, a pair of siblings participated in the survey, whose father is Australian and who therefore grew up bilingually with both German and English as native languages. As it is believed that they are more prone to code-switching and incorporating English items into their everyday speech than the average German-speaking adolescent, especially at home, they were excluded from the study as well. There was another participant who indicated that she grew up bilingually with German and Russian as her native tongues. However, as this study is not interested in Russicisms, she was included in the analysis. Fourthly, six leaders were excluded as they are older than 30, which was decided to be the age limit in order to ensure the focus on youth language.

Summing up, ten participants were excluded, which reduced the sample size to 80. Considering quantitative research, this is a rather small sample size. However, it is realistic considering the time constraints implied by a diploma thesis. Nevertheless, it has to be pointed out that since this study is a case study and it is restricted to a small number of persons, many of them from the personal milieu of the researcher, it is in no case representative of youth language in general. Weaknesses of case studies are that results are not generalizable unless other researchers see how they could be applied, and that cross-checking is hardly possible, which is why they are biased, personal, selective and subjective (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 293). Therefore, results should not be regarded as a generalization of the whole population, but rather they need to be treated with caution. However, replication can extend generalizability and therefore multiple case studies can contribute to greater generalizability (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 294). Hence, further investigations are needed.

All categorizations concerning the participants are summarized and illustrated in figure 6 at the end of this subchapter. As already indicated, the participants' age ranged between 10 and 30 years. Unfortunately, the age groups are imbalanced. The majority of participants are members of the GuSp with 32 persons or 40%, respectively. The CaEx are represented by 16 adolescents, which makes up 20% of the sample. Furthermore, there are 11 RaRo, which means 13.8%, and 21 leaders or 26.3%. However, as was indicated before, there might be overlaps between RaRo and leaders.

Furthermore, the sample consisted of slightly more females than males as 46 or 57.5% identified as female and 33 or 41.3% of the participants identified as male. Nobody chose the third option 'others'. Nevertheless, one participant chose not to provide an answer on this item.

In terms of level of education, a total of 41 (51.2%) have completed elementary school, 13 (16.3%) have finished middle school, 6 (7.5%) have served their apprenticeship, 4 (5%) have attended a professional school, 11 (13.8%) have graduated from high school, and 5 (6.3%) have university or college degrees.

Concerning mother tongue, there was not much variety as some participants were already excluded from the study due to their linguistic background. In the present sample, there was only one participant that mentioned German as well as Russian as her native language. Everybody else checked German as their L1.

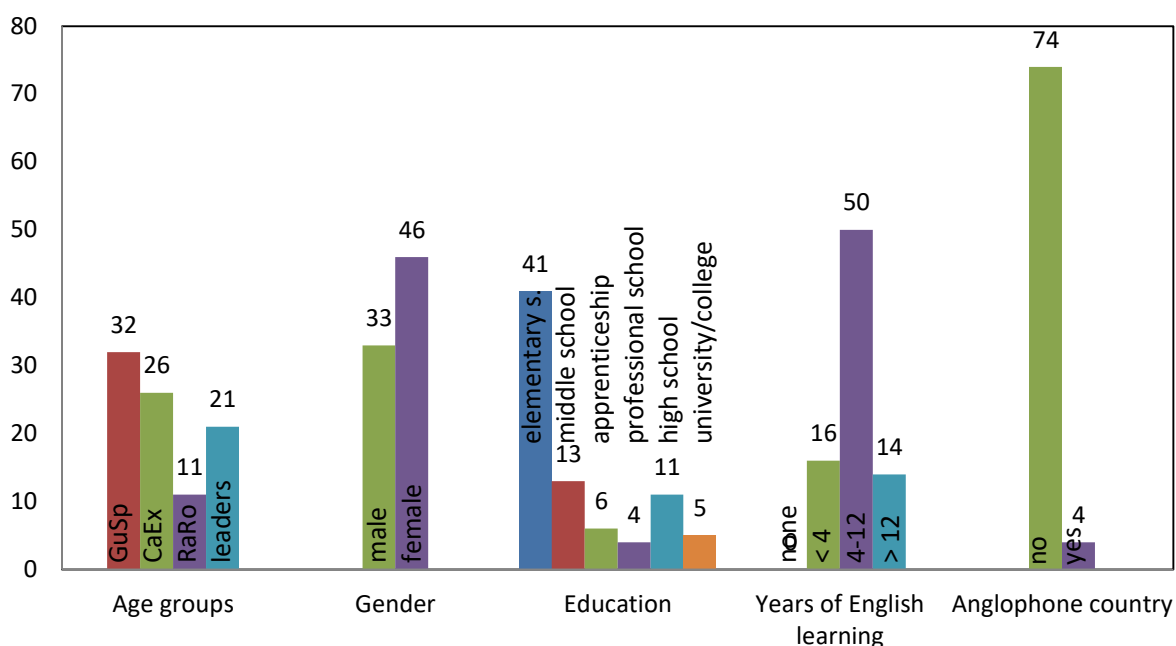
With regard to the years of learning English, nobody indicated that they had never learned English, 16 participants or 20% had learned English for less than 4 years, 50 or 62.5% had learned English between 4 and 12 years and 14 or 17.5% had learned English for more than 12 years. However, it has to be stressed here that not all participants counted their years of English instruction in the same way. Whereas some already included playful introductions into English in kindergarten and elementary school, others started counting in middle school only.

The majority of participants had never spent a longer period of time in an Anglophone country, but 4 persons or 5% indicated that they had lived abroad. The amounts of time spent abroad vary between 2 and 10 months. Two of them went to England, one to the US and one to New Zealand, respectively. All of them are either RaRo or leaders, which means they belong to the older age groups.

Furthermore, participants were asked to rate their English proficiency for the four skills reading, writing, speaking and listening. As these are self-assessments, they might not be accurate in several cases. Evidently, participants had varying confidence in their English competency. While some were rather cautious and reported lower levels of proficiency, others estimated their proficiency as very high even though their young age, their level of education and their limited number of years of English instruction would suggest different scores. Nevertheless, also perceived proficiency might have an effect on attitudes.

The descriptive analysis of the sample is illustrated in Figure 6:

**Figure 6: Participants**



### 5.3. Data analysis

This section outlines the processes of data preparation for statistical and qualitative analysis. Similar to methods of data collection, case studies are also eclectic in regard to analysis of data, which means that statistical as well as qualitative tools can be used (Cohen, Morrison & Manion 2011: 296). The closed questionnaire items were coded and entered into SPSS for analysis (SPSS Inc. 2017). Open questions posed a problem for coding as a wide range of answers was provided. Therefore, the two open items were not coded but analyzed qualitatively instead. Furthermore, the mean for the four skills reading, writing, speaking and listening was determined to yield a new variable of overall English competency, which was then used in order to calculate the statistics.

Data from the open question items was listed manually. The first open question was concerned with reasons for the use of Anglicisms by certain persons and in certain situations. After having collected all the explanations for the use of Anglicisms produced by the participants in one file, they were grouped so that similar reasons were listed next to each other. Consequently, ten categories could be determined. Some participants provided several different reasons within their responses. These were split and allocated to different categories as was seen fit. Summarizing titles for all categories were found and they were sorted according to how many participants mentioned a reason that falls under this umbrella term. Consequently, the categories are the following:

1. To appear cool
2. Because it is more practical
3. Because of the internet, social media and the media in general
4. For work-related reasons
5. Because it describes some issues better
6. Because English is an international language
7. Because others do it
8. I do it by habit
9. That's just the way it is
10. Others

Furthermore, the second open question asked participants to list English words they could think of. All lexical items produced by the participants were sorted alphabetically, misspellings were corrected and items that are not actually Anglicisms were deleted. The frequency of appearance of words that were listed by several participants was determined and duplicates were removed. Also differently inflected forms were counted as multiple appearances of the same lemma. The more frequently appearing words were placed at the beginning of the list and ordered according to their number of mentions. All words were then color-coded according to their word class.

## 6. Results

In this chapter, the data that was gathered in the questionnaire will be presented and analyzed. For this purpose, descriptive as well as inferential statistics were applied. Descriptive statistics is used – as the name suggests – for describing and presenting data without making any inferences or predictions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 606). This includes the provision of frequencies. Contrary to that, inferential statistics aim at making inferences and predictions from the gathered data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 606). The present study used correlations for this purpose. Here, data from different parts of the questionnaire is combined in order to ascertain possible relations between various factors. As the majority of the data is ordinal and therefore non-parametric, the correlation test used for this study is Spearman's rank order correlation.

For inferential statistics, the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) will be tested instead of the logical hypothesis since a hypothesis can never be verified but only be falsified (Larson-Hall 2016: 59). The null hypothesis assumes that there is no relation between the tested variables. If the null hypothesis is rejected, the alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) can be accepted.

For all statistical tests the correlation coefficient and the significance levels will be provided. The correlation coefficient attains any value between +1 and -1 and indicates the strength of the relationship (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 635-636). A coefficient of +1 or -1 indicates a perfect correlation and a coefficient of 0 means that there is no relation between the variables. Hence, the closer the value is to +1 or -1, the stronger the correlation. Furthermore, the correlation coefficient also indicates the direction of the relationship. A positive value indicates a positive relationship, which means that if one variable increases, the other does so, too. A negative value indicates a negative correlation, which is found when the two variables do not fluctuate in the same direction. Hence, if one variable increases, the other decreases. The correlation coefficient alone is not enough though, because it does not reveal whether the relationship between the variables is statistically significant. This is indicated by the p-value. Statistical significance is frequently demonstrated at the 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 levels (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 613). This means that results are regarded as statistically significant if  $p < 0.05$ , 0.01 or 0.001, respectively. In other words, the chances of receiving these results without a correlation are less than 5%, 1% or 0.1%, respectively.

The subsections of this chapter correspond to the subsections of the questionnaire.

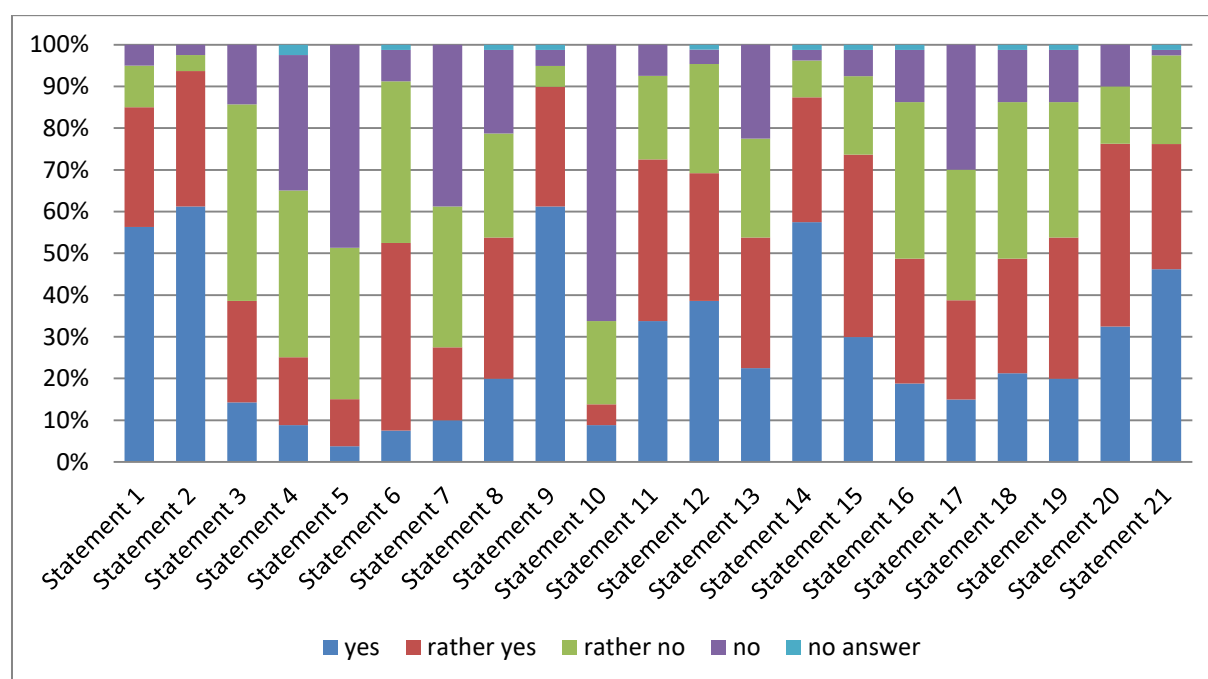
## 6.1. Attitudes towards Anglicisms

In this section, the results from the first page of the questionnaire will be presented. For each statement, the frequencies with which the respective answer options were chosen will be given, in some cases followed by correlations. Although correlations have been calculated for all items and there were several statistically significant ones, not all of them will be specified in the following. Rather, only those that were considered remarkable will be mentioned below. A table displaying all correlations is to be found in appendix E. The fact that different parts of the data agree to each other shows that the participants took the questionnaire seriously and highlights the reliability of the results.

Furthermore, some individual statements will be linked to findings that were discussed in the literature review above. However, as not all of the statements that were tested in this study correspond to what was tested in previous research designs, it is unfortunately not feasible to draw comparisons to prior research for most statements.

First of all, figure 7 illustrates all frequencies that will be mentioned below:

**Figure 7: Results for Statements 1-21**



Participants' responses to the introductory statement, "*Ich mag die englische Sprache*" ("I like the English language"), revealed that their attitudes towards the English language as such were mainly positive (85% 'yes' or 'rather yes'). There is a modest negative relation ( $p = -0.264$ ,  $p = 0.018$ ) between participants' attitudes towards English as a language and their years of learning English. This means that they tended to evaluate the English language more positively, the more English instruction they had enjoyed. Moreover, there is a strong positive

correlation between attitude towards English and perceived English proficiency ( $\rho = 0.526$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This signifies that participants who rated themselves as more proficient in English also tended to like English better. Furthermore, statement number 2, “*Ich glaube, dass man in Zukunft noch mehr Englisch verwenden wird*” (“I think that the use of the English language will grow even more in the future”), showed that the majority of all participants (93.8% ‘yes’ or ‘rather yes’) agreed that the English language would gain even more importance in the future.

After these introductory statements on English in general, the following ones were related to the amount of Anglicisms in German. The results for the third statement, “*Ich finde, dass es zu viele englische Worte in der deutschen Sprache gibt*” (“I think there are too many English words in German”), showed that approximately two thirds of all participants did not agree with this assertion (66.3% ‘rather no’ or ‘no’). Similarly, statement 4, “*Ich finde, dass die zunehmende Menge englischer Wörter in Deutsch andeutet, dass wir uns nicht genug um unsere Sprache kümmern*” (“I think that the increased amount of English words in German signifies carelessness towards the mother tongue”), evoked predominantly negative answers (72.5% ‘no’ or ‘rather no’). The results for both of these statements revealed that participants do not consider the amount of English words a problem. The two statements are positively correlated ( $\rho = 0.410$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), which means that participants that agreed or disagreed to statement 3 also tended to agree or disagree to statement 4. Also, there is a modest negative correlation between statement 4 and statement 1 ( $\rho = -0.233$ ,  $p = 0.040$ ), which means that participants who indicated that they like the English language, did not agree that English takeovers signify carelessness towards German and *vice versa*. Yet, the participants’ opinions on these items seem to be less strong than they were for the first two statements. More participants chose the vaguer option ‘rather no’ than the absolute option ‘no’ for these two statements, whereas for the first two statements most participants chose the absolute answer ‘yes’.

In line with the answers to the previous two statements, participants did not consider the presence of English wordage in German a threat to the German language, as is claimed in statement 5, “*Ich glaube, dass englische Wörter die deutsche Sprache gefährden*” (“I think that the presence of English words in German threatens the identity of the German language”). 85.1% responded to this item with ‘no’ or ‘rather no’. There is again a modest negative correlation with statement 1 ( $\rho = -0.249$ ,  $p = 0.026$ ), which means that participants that indicated to like the English language did not perceive English influences as threatening.

Even though the number of English items in German was not perceived as a threat to the German language, the participants were undecided whether those words should be regarded as an improvement or enrichment of the language, as statement 6 claims: “*Meiner Meinung nach ist die zunehmende Menge englischer Wörter im Deutschen eine Bereicherung. Auf diese Weise verbessert sich die Sprache*” (“In my opinion, the increase of English words in German represents enrichment of the language with some new English words. In that way language is improving.”). The results for this statement were remarkably vaguer with only 7.5% each choosing the absolute answer options ‘yes’ or ‘no’, 38.8% opting for ‘rather no’ and 45% selecting ‘rather yes’. Hence, slightly more participants rather agreed to the view of Anglicisms as enrichment.

Affective attitudes towards Anglicisms in German were investigated in statements 7 and 8. According to statement 7, “*Die Vermischung englischer und deutscher Wörter stört mich*” (“The mixing of English words into German bothers me”), most participants are not bothered about the influence of English (72.6% ‘rather no’ or ‘no’). Nevertheless, several participants still value German equivalents to Anglicisms, even though a narrow majority felt they are not needed. This was elicited in statement number 8, “*Ich finde, dass wir keine deutschen Übersetzungen brauchen für englische Wörter und Phrasen, die wir oft benutzen*” (“I think that we do not even need to look for German equivalents for English words and phrases that we use often”). 20% agreed, 33.8% rather agreed, 25% rather disagreed and 20% disagreed with this statement. Despite the majority vote against German equivalents, the fact that almost half of all participants (45%) still valued translations for frequently used Anglicisms suggests that they should not be disregarded.

Furthermore, the perceived inevitability of the English influence was made evident in the high percentage of participants who indicated agreement with statement 9, “*Ich glaube, dass die Verwendung von englischen Wörtern heutzutage nicht vermeidbar ist*” (“I think that the use of English words in today’s society is inevitable”). 91.1% agreed or rather agreed to this statement.

Moreover, the results for statement 10, “*Es stört mich, wenn ich englische Wörter in deutschsprachigen Filmen, TV- oder Radiosendungen höre*” (“It bothers me when I hear English words in German movies, television or radio programs”), elicited 86.3% of disagreement, which means that the majority of participants is not bothered by Anglicisms in the media. For this statement, there are moderate correlations with the number of years of learning English ( $p = 0.314$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) as well as with perceived English proficiency ( $p = -0.428$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This means that those participants who received more English instruction



and who rated their English proficiency as better do not mind English insertions in German media, whereas those participants who enjoyed less years of learning English and who were less confident in their English skills tend to bother more. This is probably attributable to the fact that those participants are not as familiar with the English language and therefore do not understand everything. Additionally, there is a negative correlation with statement number 1 ( $\rho = -0.348$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ), which indicates that participants who like the English language do not bother about English words in German media.

Furthermore, the usage of English items in everyday speech was addressed in statement 11, "*Ich benutze oft englische Wörter im Alltag*" ("I often use English words in everyday speech"). The results show that 72.5% of all participants indicated to do so. There is a modest correlation with proficiency ( $\rho = 0.255$ ,  $p = 0.024$ ) and interestingly, also with gender ( $\rho = -0.232$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ). This signifies that participants who rated themselves as more proficient stated to use English words more often and also female participants tended to give positive answers. Also, there is again a positive correlation with statement 1 ( $\rho = 0.325$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), which means that participants who indicated that they like English are more prone to using English expressions in everyday language.

Moreover, most participants regarded the use of English wordage as a means of promoting international understanding, which is evident in the results for statement number 12, "*Ich denke, dass die Verwendung von englischen Wörtern und Phrasen die internationale Verständigung fördert*" ("I think that the use of English words and phrases fosters international understanding"), in which there was agreement among 77.2% of all participants. This corresponds to the results that were found by Hoberg, Eichhoff-Cyrus and Schulz (2008: 39), where 52% of 16-29-year olds stated that the use of English expressions facilitates international communication. For this statement, there are modest correlations with level of education ( $\rho = -0.254$ ,  $p = 0.024$ ) and the number of years of learning English ( $\rho = -0.229$ ,  $p = 0.043$ ). This means that people with higher education and those who received more English instruction tended to evaluate this statement more positively and therefore rather stated that the use of English expressions facilitates international communication.

According to statement number 13, "*Es stört mich, wenn Leute unnötig englische Wörter in deutschen Sätzen benutzen*" ("It bothers me when people in my company unnecessarily use English words inside German sentences"), a slight majority bothered about unnecessary use of Anglicisms (22.5% 'yes', 31.3% 'rather yes', 23.8% 'rather no', 22.5% 'no'). However, this statement could have been interpreted quite differently by participants as it is not clarified what 'unnecessary use' of Anglicisms is and different participants probably

consider different usages of Anglicisms a nuisance. There are modest correlations with perceived competency ( $\rho = -0.233$ ,  $p = 0.039$ ) as well as with gender ( $\rho = 0.277$ ,  $p = 0.013$ ). Hence, participants who rated their English proficiency as better tended not to bother about unnecessary use of English terms within German sentences, whereas those who rated their proficiency lower tended to bother. Also, male participants indicated to bother more, whereas female participants did not. Furthermore, there is a negative correlation with statement 1 ( $\rho = -0.327$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ) and statement 11 ( $\rho = -0.455$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), which signifies that participants who indicated to like English and to frequently use English words are less bothered about unnecessary use of English.

Several participants thought that English expressions sounded better than German ones, as the results for statement 14 show, “*Ich finde, dass sich manche Ausdrücke auf Englisch besser anhören als auf Deutsch*” (“I think that some English expressions sound better than German equivalents”). 88.6% of all participants answered ‘yes’ or ‘rather yes’. Moreover, almost three quarters of all participants (74.7%) claimed that they could express something more quickly and in a shorter form in English than in German. This proposition was attested in statement 15, “*Ich denke, dass wir oft englische Wörter und Phrasen benutzen, weil man dadurch etwas schneller und kürzer ausdrücken kann*” (“I think that we use English words and phrases more often because they can express something quicker and shorter”). This statement can be related to the work of several researchers who found that Anglicisms are incorporated due to their brevity, for example Onysko (2001: 48) or Sagmeister-Brandner (2008: 58). Both statements (14 and 15) correlate positively with statement 9 and statement 11. This indicates that participants who considered Anglicisms inevitable and who indicated that they frequently use them value their sound and their shortness.

Being asked about consciously using English even though knowing the German equivalent because they like English better, (statement 16: “*Obwohl ich ein deutsches Wort weiß, verwende ich manchmal absichtlich ein englisches, weil ich es lieber mag*”, “Even when I know a German word, sometimes I use English consciously because I like it better”), participants were undecided. Positive and negative answers almost balance each other. 18.8% answered ‘yes’, 30% ‘rather yes’, 37.5% ‘rather no’ and 12.5% ‘no’. Here, there is a modest positive correlation with age group ( $\rho = 0.288$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ), which means that the younger participants tended to give more positive answers than the older ones. Additionally, there is a moderate positive correlation with level of education ( $\rho = 0.334$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), which means that those who have completed higher education tended to give more negative answers. This corresponds to the findings of the Forsa survey (2008: 7) that showed that the frequency of

Anglicism use declines with increasing age and lower educational qualifications. However, age group and level of education in this study are interrelated as the younger participants have only finished elementary school due to their age. Therefore, the correlation with level of education may largely reflect age again. Hence, it can be said that the use of English words and phrases in everyday speech decreases with age. Furthermore, there is a positive correlation with statement 11 ( $\rho = 0.522$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and statement 14 ( $\rho = 0.306$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ), which means that English words are consciously used by those participants who admitted to frequently using English items and who thought they sounded better than German ones.

Moreover, according to statement number 17, "*Oft verstehe ich manche englische Wörter nicht, die in den Medien verwendet werden*" ("I often do not understand some English words used in the media"), most participants do not have problems with understanding as 61.3% chose 'rather no' or 'no'. For this item there are positive correlations with age group ( $\rho = 0.455$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), years of learning English ( $\rho = 0.494$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) as well as level of education ( $\rho = 0.403$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This means that the younger participants, those who studied English for a shorter period of time as well as those with lower levels of completed education admitted that they sometimes do not understand some English words used in the media. Again, these categories are largely overlapping. These findings partly corresponds to the results of Hofmann's (2002: 242-243) study on the comprehension of Anglicisms that showed among other things that level of education and English proficiency are distinctive factors for understanding. Furthermore, there are negative correlations with statement 11 ( $\rho = -0.256$ ,  $p = 0.022$ ) and statement 15 ( $\rho = -0.272$ ,  $p = 0.15$ ), which indicates that those participants that indicated to frequently use Anglicisms and who use them due to their shortness indicated not having problems understanding English words used in the media.

Statement 18 was concerned with German equivalents for English words: "*Für viele englische Wörter gibt es keine deutsche Übersetzung*" ("There is no German equivalent for many English words"). Here, participants' opinions were divided again and almost balance each other. 21.3% checked 'yes', 27.5% 'rather yes', 37.5% 'rather no' and 12.5% 'no'. Slightly more participants evaluated this statement negatively, which means that they think there are German translations for several Anglicisms. Similar but slightly more positive results were achieved for statement 19, "*Englische Wörter fallen mir oft gar nicht auf*" ("Often I do not even notice English words"). For this item, 20% indicated 'yes', 33.8% 'rather yes', 32.5% 'rather no' and 12.5% 'no'. Here, there is a modest correlation with the number of years of learning English ( $\rho = -0.243$ ,  $p = 0.031$ ). This signifies that those who have enjoyed more years of English instruction tend not to recognize the use of English items

in everyday speech. Additionally, there is a positive correlation with statement number 1 ( $\rho = 0.338$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) and statement number 11 ( $\rho = 0.282$ ,  $p = 0.012$ ), which means that participants that stated they like the English language and that admitted to frequently using English words do not recognize when English is inserted into everyday speech.

Related to this is statement 20, “*Manchmal verwende ich automatisch englische Wörter anstelle von deutschen*” (“Sometimes I automatically use English words instead of German ones”), which showed more positive results. More than three quarters (76.3%) answered either ‘yes’ or ‘rather yes’. For this item, there is a moderate correlation with competency ( $\rho = 0.370$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ), which means that those who perceive their English proficiency as better are more prone to using English words automatically. Also, there is a positive correlation with statement 1 ( $\rho = 0.292$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ), statement 11 ( $\rho = 0.585$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), statement 14 ( $\rho = 0.422$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and statement 16 ( $\rho = 0.347$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ), which indicates that participants that like English, consciously use English words frequently and think they sound better, also use them more automatically.

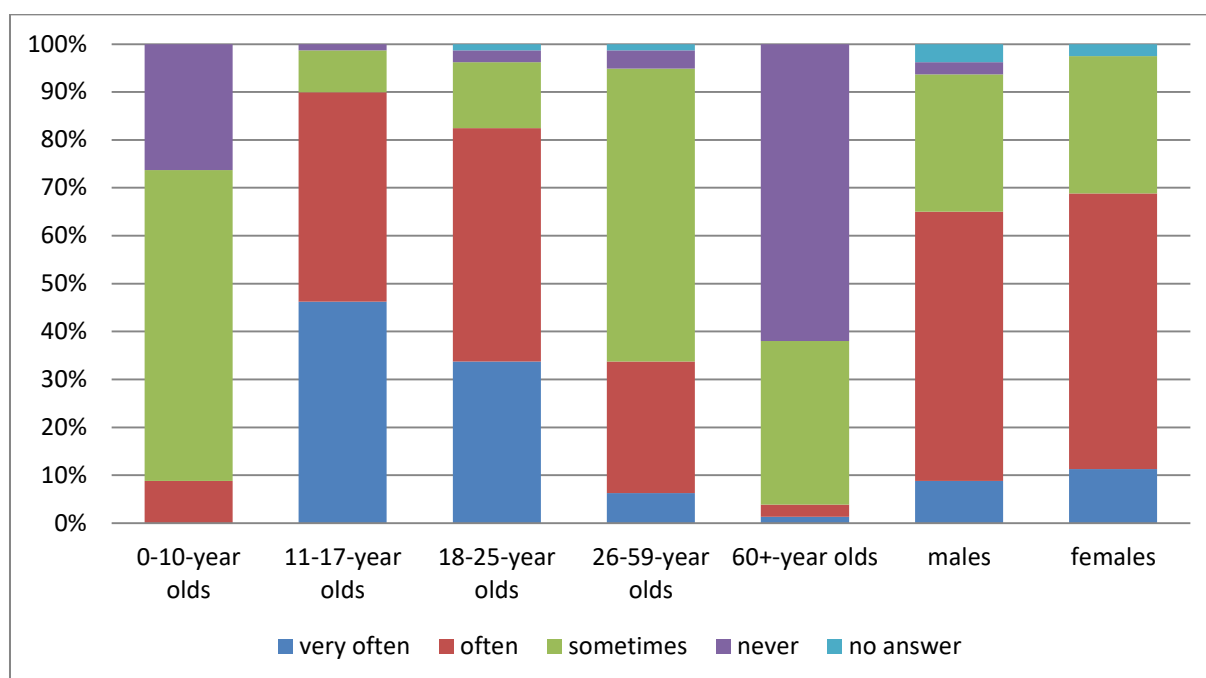
Finally, statement number 21 was concerned with context-dependency: “*Ich glaube, dass es auf den Kontext und das Gesprächsthema ankommt, ob englische Wörter verwendet werden oder nicht*” (“I think that it depends on context and topic whether English words are used or not”). Most participants gave positive responses to this item (77.2% ‘yes’ or ‘rather yes’) and only one person completely disagreed. There is a modest negative correlation with level of education ( $\rho = -0.277$ ,  $p = 0.014$ ), which indicates that higher educated participants evaluated the use of Anglicisms as more context-sensitive.

## **6.2. Dependency on age and gender**

This section deals with the part of the questionnaire that asked participants to evaluate how often certain groups of persons use Anglicisms. Unfortunately, a link to previous research is not possible as the studies mentioned in the literature review above only showed differences in attitudes according to age groups, but none of the works asked participants to rate how frequently different age groups use Anglicisms.

Similar to the previous section, all results are first summarized in figure 8:

**Figure 8: Results for Age Groups and Gender**



Being asked to rate what types of persons use Anglicisms how frequently, participants agreed that 11-17 year olds use them most often. This group includes middle and high schoolers as well as those serving an apprenticeship. Also, most of the participants (57%) belong to this age group. 90% of all participants indicated that this group uses English items ‘very often’ or ‘often’. Only one participant (who belongs to this age group himself) chose the option ‘never’. There are positive correlations with several of the prior statements (9, 11, 14, 19), which signifies that those participants that displayed positive attitudes towards Anglicisms also rated this age group, which they are likely to belong to themselves, as often using English words in everyday speech.

For younger children (0-10-year olds), the vast majority (91.3%) chose the options ‘sometimes’ or ‘never’ and nobody opted for ‘very often’. Most participants explained this with the fact that those children did not receive extensive English instruction yet, except for some playful lessons in kindergarten and elementary school. However, one participant also mentioned the educational TV series *Dora the Explorer*, which teaches basic English vocabulary to preschoolers, as a reason why some young children might use English items every now and then.

Results for 18-25-year olds are similar to those for 11-17-year olds, even though slightly lower. This group basically means university students or persons starting to work after having finished high school or an apprenticeship. Approximately one quarter of all participants (25.3%) belong to this group. 83.5% indicated that this group incorporates English words into

their everyday language ‘very often’ or ‘often’. Two participants chose the answer option ‘never’.

The group of 26-59-year olds, which is a broad generalization for adults, was evaluated as using remarkably less English words in everyday language. The majority (61.3%) of participants chose the option ‘sometimes’ for this group. There is a positive correlation with statement 18 ( $p = 0.328$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), which means that participants that thought there are no German translations for several English words were more likely to think that persons of this group frequently use Anglicisms in everyday speech. This might point to the fact that these persons need to use several work-related Anglicisms for which there are no German translations in professional jargon.

Considering the elderly, the majority (61.3%) thought they never incorporate English items in their speech. Only one participant chose the option ‘very often’ and only two opted for ‘often’.

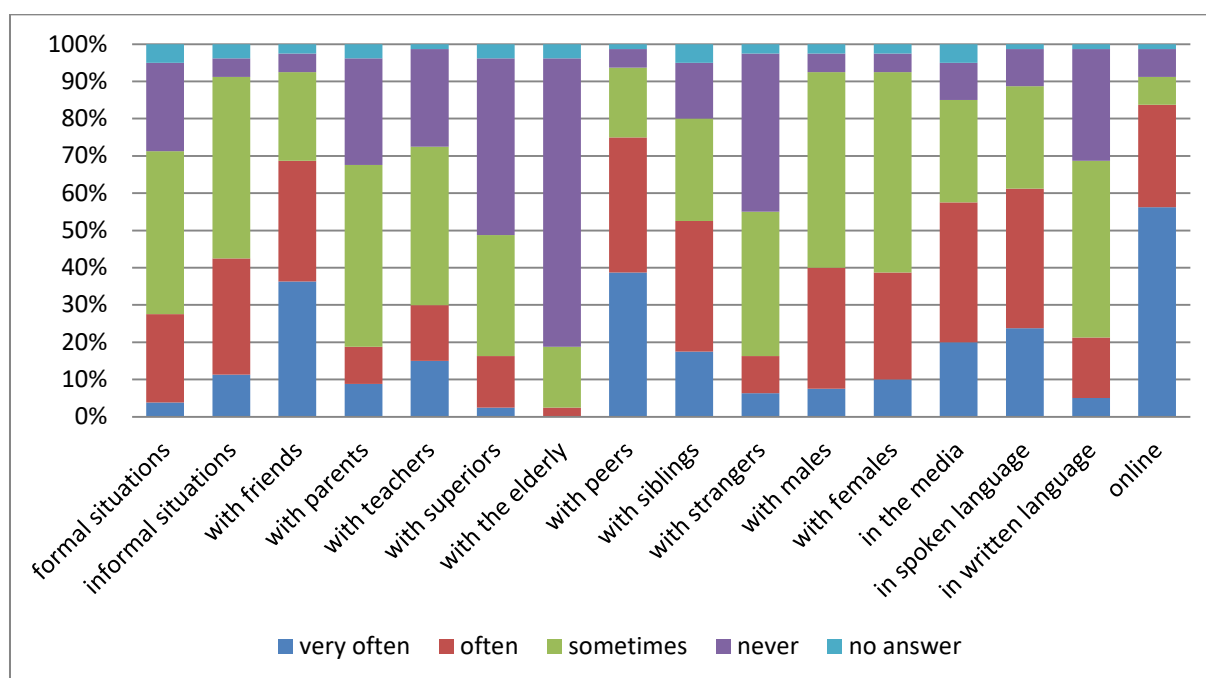
With regard to gender, there were highly similar answers for male and female persons, although women were assessed as being slightly more prone to using English terms. Also, a correlation between the item ‘females’ and gender ( $p = -0.269$ ,  $p = 0.017$ ) suggests that female participants evaluated females as being more prone to using Anglicisms than males did. This mirrors the correlation between statement 11 and gender, which revealed that female participants indicated more often to frequently use English items. Other than that, inferential statistics did not reveal any significant correlations with age group or gender for any of these items.

### **6.3. Situation-dependency**

Similar to the prior section on person-dependency, this section deals with items that asked participants to evaluate the frequency of Anglicism use in certain situations. In the results for statement number 21, it was already shown that most participants agreed on the context-dependency of Anglicism use. This section shows the answers they gave when they were asked about specific situations. Where it is possible, comparisons are drawn to prior research. However, not all situations that were investigated in the study at hand have been tested in other studies before, which is why not all items can be related to prior findings.

In line with the previous sections, all results are first illustrated in figure 9:

**Figure 9: Results for Context**



Considering the formality of a situation, most participants (43.8%) opted for the vague option ‘sometimes’ for formal situations. 23.8% each chose the options ‘often’ and ‘never’. This ambiguity might be due to the fact that some participants thought about professional terminology, whereas others focused on juvenile expressions. Concerning informal situations, most participants (48.8%) chose ‘sometimes’ as well. However, there is a clearer tendency towards the use of Anglicisms than in the previous item as 44.2% opted for ‘very often’ or ‘often’.

Among close friends, most participants (68.8%) indicated to use English expressions ‘very often’ or ‘often’. Even more positive results were achieved for the use of English among peers. Approximately three quarters (75.9%) of all participants indicated to use English ‘very often’ or ‘often’ in this context. However, the use of Anglicisms with siblings was assessed as rarer. Only a slight majority (55.3%) indicated that English terms are used ‘very often’ or ‘often’ when talking to brothers or sisters and there were remarkably more participants (15.8%) who chose the option ‘never’.

Considering the use of English with adults, results were more negative again. Almost half (48.8%) of the participants indicated that they sometimes use English with their parents and 28.7% stated that they never do so. Similar but slightly more positive results were achieved for the question on English use with teachers. Again, the majority (42.5%) opted for ‘sometimes’. Nevertheless, 15% each chose ‘very often’ or ‘often’. Possibly, some participants chose a more frequent option here as they were thinking about English lessons in

which they talk English to their teachers, instead of only considering the incorporation of English words into otherwise German sentences.

Regarding conversations with superiors, almost half of all participants (49.4%) indicated that they would never use English terms in this context. Remarkably more negative results were found for the question whether Anglicisms are used with the elderly. More than three quarters (77.5%) stated that English words are never used with old people. Nobody chose the option 'very often' and only two participants opted for 'often'. Furthermore, for communication with strangers, most participants (42.5%) decided that English is never used in such situations. Many justified this judgement with the fact that they do not know whether the other person speaks or understands English.

Concerning gender-specific use, there are almost no differences. For conversations with male persons, 7.5% chose 'very often', 32.5% chose 'often', 52.5% chose 'sometimes' and 5% chose 'never'. For conversations with female persons, 10% opted for 'very often', 28.7% opted for 'often', 53.8% opted for 'sometimes' and 5% opted for 'never'. The slightly more frequent ratings for females again mirror the results that were already discussed above. The fact that the different items concerned with gender show similar results indicates the test-internal consistency. Furthermore, inferential statistics revealed correlations between the item 'male persons' from the previous section and the item 'with males' in this section ( $p = 0.355$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) as well as between the item 'female persons' from the previous section and 'with females' in this section ( $p = 0.255$ ,  $p = 0.026$ ). This indicates that those who thought that males frequently use English items also checked one of the more frequent options for conversations with male persons. The same applies to females and conversations with female persons.

With regard to Anglicisms in the media, most participants (60.5%) thought they are used 'very often' or 'often' and only 10% thought they are never used in that context. Comparing participants' assessments for English in spoken and written language, there was a clear tendency that they are used more often in spoken communication. Whereas 62% thought that English items are used 'very often' or 'often' in spoken language, only 21.5% thought that this is the case for written language. The situation in which most participants agreed that English words are used 'very often' is online. More than half of all participants (56.3%) chose this option, 27.5% opted for 'often' and only 7.5% each chose 'sometimes' or 'never'.

These results largely correspond to Thonemann's (2011: 59-60) findings who investigated pupils' domain-specific use of youth language. He found that elements of youth language are used most frequently in recreational contexts, followed by school and to a



distinctly lesser extent in the family. As Anglicisms are a prominent feature of youth language (Androutsopoulos 1998: 38), Thonemann's findings for youth language and the results for Anglicisms of this study can be related to each other. Hence, in line with Thonemann's results, the results of this study show that participants indicated that Anglicisms are used most frequently online, with peers or with friends, which suggests a recreational context. Moreover, participants indicated to use Anglicisms more frequently with teachers than with parents, which is consistent with Thonemann's findings that youth language is more frequently used in school than in the family.

Subsequently, the questionnaire continued with an open question on why the participants think English words are incorporated into everyday language specifically by those people and in those situations they have chosen in the preceding items. Unfortunately, one third of all participants (27 or 33.75%, respectively) left this question unanswered. Nevertheless, the valid answers still reveal interesting aspects of motivation for Anglicism use. All of the answers participants provided are to be found in appendix C.

As was already introduced above, the answers were grouped into ten categories that were ranked according to how many participants mentioned a reason that fits into this category. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of participants naming a reason within this category:

1. To appear cool (15)
2. Because it is more practical (9)
3. Because of the internet, social media and the media in general (9)
4. For work-related reasons (6)
5. Because it describes some issues better (5)
6. Because English is an international language (4)
7. Because others do it (4)
8. I do it by habit (3)
9. That's just the way it is (2)
10. Others (12)

Five of these categories correspond to the categories into which Neuland classified the answers to the question "Why do you use youth language?" (Neuland 2008: 138). These are to be cool/casual (cf. category 1), because it is less complicated (cf. category 2), to have a say in one's circle of friends (cf. category 7), I do it automatically (cf. category 8) and because that's just the way adolescents talk (cf. category 9). Her other categories that do not apply for this study include a dissociating function (in order to talk differently than adults do) and the

expression of emotions. Furthermore, she had a category stating “I do not use youth language” (Neuland 2008: 138).

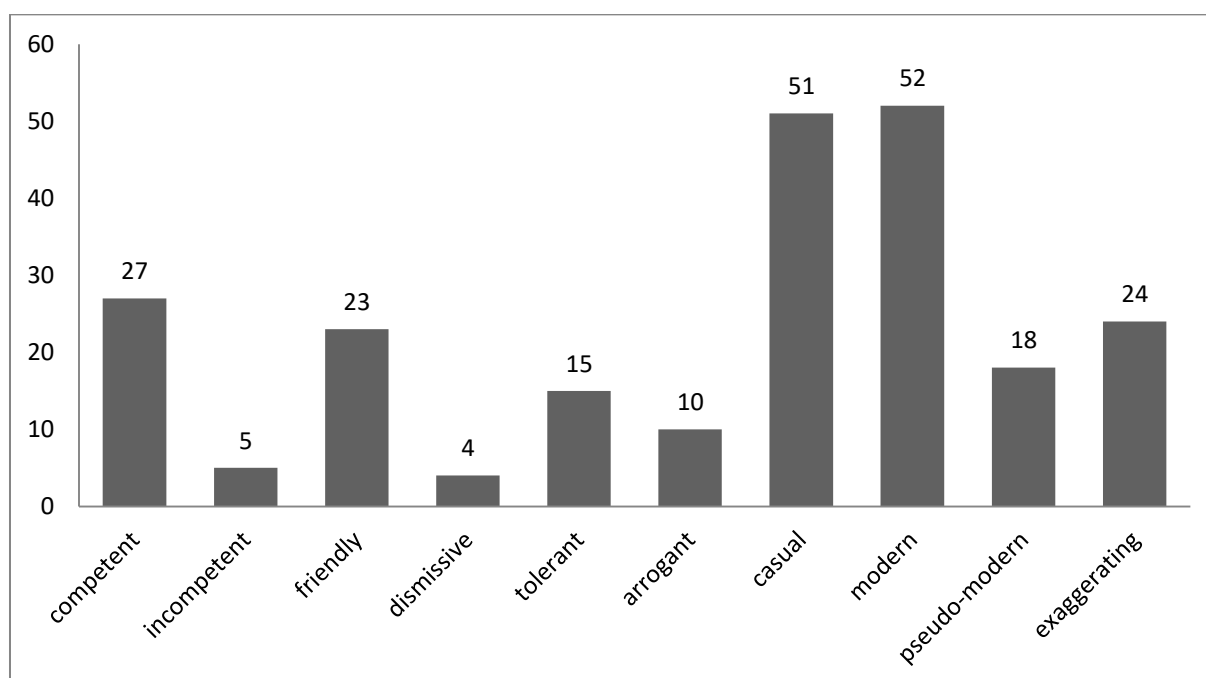
The other categories that were used for this study can be found in the work of other researchers as well. Category 6 corresponds to one of the reasons Myers-Scotton names for adding a language to one’s repertoire: the spread of international languages (2002: 32). Furthermore, categories 1 and 7 largely correspond to reasons of prestige and emulating dominant groups, which are important motifs for adopting loanwords according to Kowner and Rosenhouse (2008: 13-15). Moreover, theorists such as Winford (2003: 30) or Kowner and Rosenhouse (2008: 14) mentioned the mass media as a factor for lexical borrowing, which corresponds with category 3. Furthermore, the opinion poll conducted by Hoberg, Eichhoff-Cyrus and Schulz (2008: 39) revealed that approximately one third of surveyed 16-29-year olds declared that they can express themselves better with English words, which corresponds to category 5. What is more, reasons that can be found in the ‘other’ category correspond with motifs for the adoption of loanwords that were named by theorists. For example, both Winford (2003: 30) and Kowner and Rosenhouse (2008: 13-14) noted travelling and tourism as a factor for lexical borrowing, which was also listed by one participant. Moreover, one participant indicated that adolescents and adulescents are closer to English classes (“*Jugendliche & junge Erwachsene sind näher am E-Unterricht [...]*”). The importance of foreign language instruction for lexical borrowing was stressed by several researchers such as Görlach (2002: 5), Winford (2003: 31) or Kowner and Rosenhouse (2008: 14).

#### **6.4. Appeal of Anglicism use**

This section deals with the semi-open multiple-response item that asked participants to check those characteristics that they think apply to persons that frequently use Anglicisms in their everyday language. The answers to this question allow insights into the participants’ attitudes towards speakers that use Anglicisms. Similar to the previous sections, links to previous research are established where it is possible.

Again, an illustration (figure 10) is added first:

**Figure 10: Results for Appeal**



The answers to this item offer very clear results. There were two answer options that were chosen almost twice as often as the option with the third highest score. These are ‘casual’ and ‘modern’. Together, they account for almost half of all chosen attributes that describe the appeal of Anglicism use (103 out of a total of 229 indications).

Dividing the answer options into positively and negatively connoted ones, there is a clear preponderance of positive answers. 168 positive (27 ‘competent’, 23 ‘friendly’, 15 ‘tolerant’, 51 ‘casual’, 52 ‘modern’) and 61 negative characteristics (5 ‘incompetent’, 4 ‘dismissive’, 10 ‘arrogant’, 18 ‘pseudo-modern’, 24 ‘exaggerating’) were chosen.

These results can be related to the findings of several previous works. Especially the modern appeal of Anglicisms has been emphasized in other studies. For example, the opinion poll conducted by Hoberg, Eichhoff-Cyrus and Schulz (2008: 39) revealed that 43% of surveyed 16-29-year olds stated that the use of English expressions makes the German language more modern and international. Similarly, Pauli’s (2010: 55) investigation showed that adolescents connect Anglicisms with modernization. Furthermore, comparing the results of the study at hand to the results of the study this questionnaire item was based on (Rocco 2014), the findings largely overlap. In Rocco’s study, ‘casual’ was also chosen most often, together with ‘juvenile’ (Rocco 2014: 142). Whereas ‘juvenile’ was not used for the purposes of the study at hand, Rocco did not incorporate ‘modern’ in his study. Moreover, Rocco’s participants chose more than twice as many positively connoted characteristics than negatively connoted ones (Rocco 2014: 142), which is mirrored by the results of this study.

Concerning the open answer slots, only eight persons made use of one of them as a supplement to other ticked boxes. Translations of seven of these additions are the following: ‘intelligent’, ‘nice’, ‘cool’, ‘funny’, ‘cosmopolitan’, ‘annoying’ and ‘wannabe-cool old’. Some of these characteristics can be matched with some of the suggested options. For example, ‘intelligent’ could correspond to ‘competent’, ‘nice’ could be equalized with ‘friendly’, and ‘cosmopolitan’ might overlap with ‘tolerant’ or ‘modern’.

Furthermore, the eighth participant that used the open slot indicated that it depends on the person. Supposedly, this is also what the person that wrote ‘wannabe-cool old’ thought of. This is interpreted to mean that old people that use English words in everyday speech appear wannabe-cool, which means they try to appear cool but do not actually come across as cool. Dependency on person is probably an issue that several participants had in mind since almost half of them (47.5%) ticked positive as well as negative answers that partly contradicted each other. This is interpreted as an indication of person- as well as situation-dependency, which means that depending on who uses a specific item and in which context it is used, it can be either positively or negatively evaluated. Actually, there were only four participants that exclusively chose negative features.

### **6.5. Examples of frequently used English words in youth language**

After investigating participants’ attitudes on the English language and incorporating English words into German, the second part of the questionnaire was concerned with concrete examples of English items that are used within German sentences. This section deals with the words participants listed in the open question that asked them to report the words they were thinking of when the previous items in the questionnaire talked about “English words”.

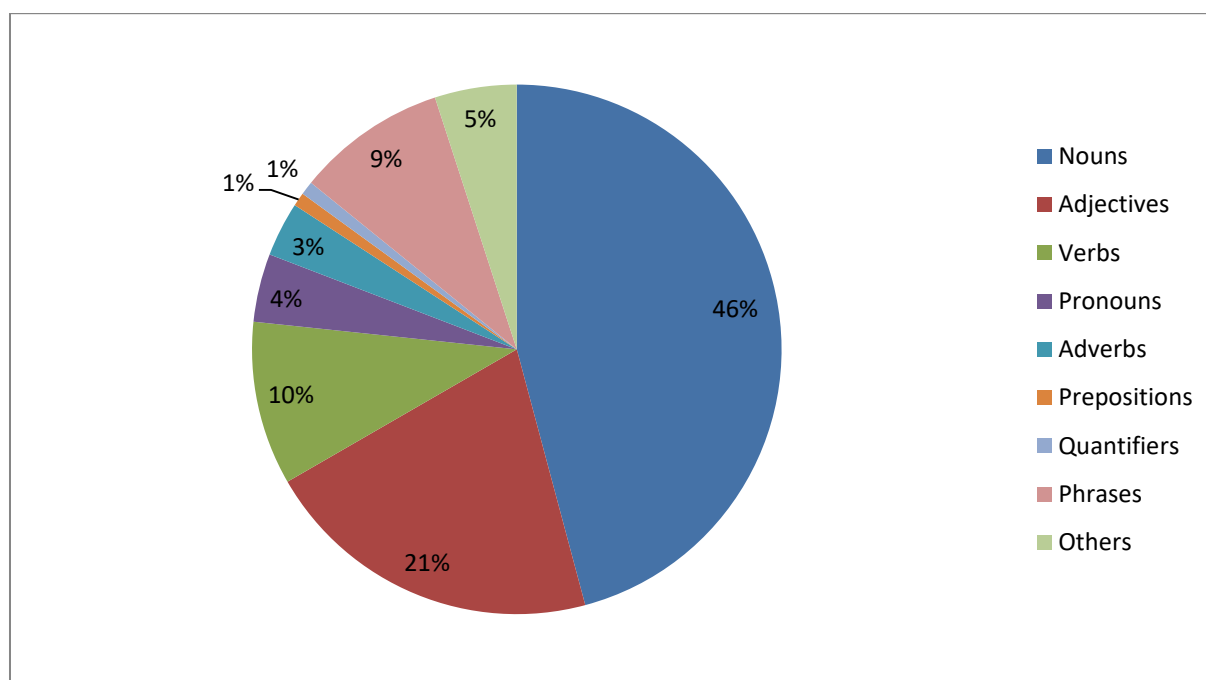
Being highly imaginative, they listed more than 130 different words. However, some words that do not actually originate from English were removed. Moreover, there are several words that technically do not count as Anglicisms as they are not included in German dictionaries yet and might have to be considered code-switches. Nevertheless, it was decided to include those words into the understanding of Anglicisms for the purposes of this thesis, as was explained in section 2.2. They represent the words adolescents actually regularly use and therefore, they were kept in the list. Words that are not to be found in the *Duden* and therefore need to be considered code-switches are written in italics.

The words were listed alphabetically and words that appeared more often than once were put at the beginning of the list. Furthermore, some words of the same stem that appeared in differently inflected forms were grouped together and counted as several appearances of the

same lemma. Consequently, a list of 117 words remained. Due to this abundance of different words that was provided by the participants, there were only 32 items that were named by at least two persons. The full list is to be found in appendix D.

Analyzing these words according to word class, there are 55 nouns, 25 adjectives, 12 verbs, 5 pronouns, 4 adverbs, one preposition and one quantifier. Furthermore, there are 11 fixed phrases and 6 words of exclamation that cannot be clearly allocated to one word class. These findings are translated into percentages and are graphically illustrated in figure 11. As some words appeared in different forms (e.g. ‘shoppen’/‘shopping’) and some words could belong to different word classes (e.g. ‘love’ could be a noun and a verb), the numbers do not add up to 117. Revisiting Muysken’s (2000: 74) work on borrowability (nouns – adjectives – verbs – prepositions – coordinating conjunctions – quantifiers – determiners – free pronouns – clitic pronouns – subordinating conjunctions), these findings largely correspond to his hierarchy.

**Figure 11: Words Produced by the Participants According to Word Class**



By far the most often listed item is ‘cool’. This is not surprising as it was often named as the paragon of Anglicisms in youth language. Also when I explained the aims of my study and what the participants were supposed to do in the questionnaire, I always used the word ‘cool’ as an example.

Interestingly, already the second most common word (‘nice’) cannot be found in the *Duden* and therefore has to be considered a code-switch. Altogether, approximately one third (11 of 32) of the more often named and approximately half (58 of 117) of all words and

phrases are instances of code-switching. This corroborates the belief that several items are already commonly used as code-switches before they receive a dictionary entry and can thus undisputedly be considered borrowings (Myers-Scotton 2002: 41).

Also interesting is the use of acronyms. *OMG*, *WTF*, *LOL*, *USB* and *W-LAN* were mentioned. In the case of *OMG* it would be interesting to know whether participants pronounce it with English /dʒi:/ in the end or with German with /gɛ/. Furthermore, even though *WTF* was only listed as an acronym, whereas for *OMG* also the full spelling *oh my god* was provided, it is doubtful whether people actually use *WTF* in its abbreviated form in spoken language or whether they voice it as *what the fuck*. However, it might also be possible that the participants that named this item only use the acronym in writing and never actually pronounce it. For *LOL*, *USB* and *W-LAN* a German pronunciation is assumed.

Considering word fields, it is hard to allocate words to certain fields as numerous items could appear in several contexts. Therefore, it will only be mentioned that ten words that were produced by the participants are related to technology ('Computer', 'Download'/'gedownloaded', 'Laptop', 'Beamer', 'Handy', 'Headset', 'installieren', 'online', 'USB'; 'WLAN'), four items deal with gaming ('get wrecked', 'double kill', 'game', 'killen') and three words are concerned with social media ('WhatsApp', 'Influencer', 'like'). Also, there is one proper name ('Avengers'), which refers to a series of American superhero movies based on comics of the same name. Even though several of the studies that were mentioned in section 2.4.1. (research on Anglicisms in media language) differentiated Anglicisms into different fields, this is not comparable to the data collected in this study, as their word fields largely equaled the respective section of the newspapers they were analyzing (e.g. 'business', 'sports', 'politics', etc.). The only comparison that can be drawn here is to Muhr (2004: 9) who stated that the English influence is especially strong within the scope of the media, technology and the film industry, which is why Anglicisms particularly occur in information technology, telecommunications, service industry, leisure industry, and youth culture. The influence on technology, the media and youth culture can be seen in the words mentioned above.

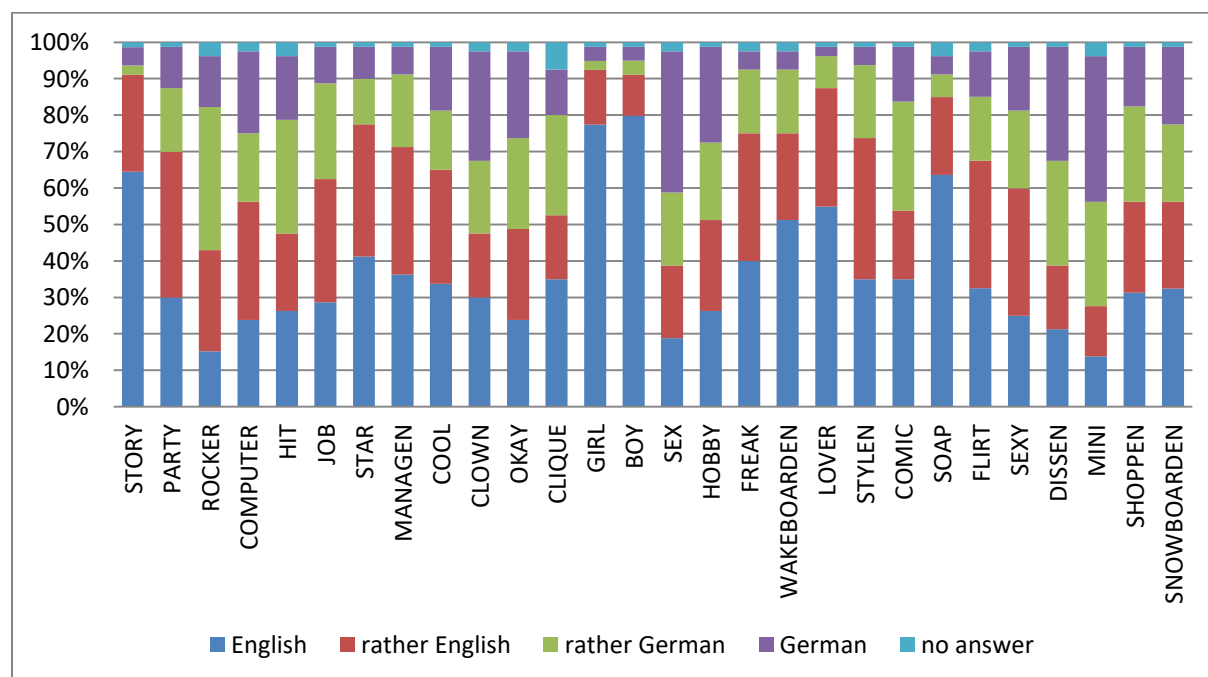
## **6.6. Integration of Anglicisms**

This section is concerned with participants' evaluation of Anglicisms' Englishness or Germanness. After the participants listed the English words they were thinking of themselves, this part of the questionnaire consisted of 28 Anglicisms, all of which are actually already integrated into German. The participants were asked to decide whether they think the words

are English, rather English, rather German or German in order to determine whether they even recognize some words as Anglicisms or whether they are already equal with German terms for them. This can be connected to Muhr's (2004: 35) belief that Anglicisms should not be differentiated into different types of borrowing but rather according to their degree of foreignness or degree of integration. For this purpose, he introduced the terms 'integrated', 'partly integrated', and 'non-integrated' (Muhr 2004: 36). Phonological, orthographic and morphological similarity to the German language system is decisive for whether a word is perceived as integrated. Hence, some of the words the participants were presented with are visibly adapted to German for example through the verb ending *-en*, while some of them are not. Nevertheless, external non-integration does not necessarily mean that the words are perceived as foreign. Several linguistic borrowings are so conventional and became so important in daily usage that they are no longer considered foreign words and can therefore be put on a level with German words (Muhr 2004: 36). In the following, it will be shown how the participants of this study perceived selected Anglicisms.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to draw any comparisons between the results for this part of the questionnaire and previous research as this has not been done before. Again, all frequencies are visualized in figure 12. In the diagram, the order of the items adheres to the sequence in which they appeared in the questionnaire rather than to the sequence in which they will be presented in the following.

**Figure 12: Results for Englishness/Germanness of Anglicisms**



Remarkably, the results show that most of the words are still clearly evaluated as being (rather) English. The analysis of the examples will be presented in three groups. Firstly, the examples the participants distinctly evaluated as English and which therefore need to be considered as non-integrated according to Muhr (2004: 36), secondly, the examples that exhibited a close race and can thus be regarded as partly integrated (Muhr 2004: 36), and thirdly, the examples that were rather perceived as German and hence are to be seen as integrated Anglicisms (Muhr 2004: 36).

To begin with, most words (i.e. 20 of 28) in this part of the questionnaire were assessed as being English and therefore non-integrated. Those are ‘story’, ‘party’, ‘computer’, ‘job’, ‘star’, ‘managen’, ‘cool’, ‘clique’, ‘girl’, ‘boy’, ‘hobby’, ‘freak’, ‘wakeboarden’, ‘stylen’, ‘comic’, ‘soap’, ‘flirt’, ‘sexy’, ‘shoppen’ and ‘snowboarden’. In the following, they will be presented in descending order according to how distinct the results were. The items with the most clear-cut evaluations were ‘boy’ and ‘girl’. Those two items exhibit similar results. 77.5% judged ‘girl’ as ‘English’ and exactly 80% assessed ‘boy’ as ‘English’. Only 6.3% in the case of ‘girl’ and 7.6% in the case of ‘boy’ thought they are ‘rather German’ or ‘German’.

Next, 63.7% rated ‘story’ as ‘English’, 26.3% as ‘rather English’ and added together only 7.5% thought it is either ‘rather German’ or ‘German’. Similarly, 63.7% decided that ‘soap’ is ‘English’. However, here the number of answers for ‘rather English’ was slightly lower (21.3%). The high percentage of ‘English’ answers for this item might be due to the fact that the participants were not thinking about soap operas, for which the short form ‘soap’ is an Anglicism in German, but rather about the hygienic product ‘soap’ (*Seife*), for which the term is not used in German.

Less distinct, but still unmistakable are the results for the item ‘lover’. 88.6% rated it as either ‘rather English’ or ‘English’, with 55% choosing the absolute option ‘English’. Furthermore, 78.5% evaluated ‘star’ as ‘rather English’ or ‘English’. For the next item, ‘freak’, 76.9% checked either ‘English’ or ‘rather English’.

Considering ‘wakeboarden’, the added score of 76.9% perceiving it as ‘English’ or ‘rather English’ is lower than the scores for the previous items. However, in this case, the number of participants opting for the absolute option ‘English’ (52.6%) is more than ten percentage points higher than it was for the prior two items ‘star’ and ‘freak’. Furthermore, it is twice as high as the percentage of participants opting for the vaguer option ‘rather English’ (24.4%). Only 5% perceived it as ‘German’. Even though ‘wakeboarden’ carries the German verb ending, it is rated in favor of English.



Similar scores are achieved for the items 'managen' and 'stylen'. Even though slightly more participants checked 'rather English' or 'English' for 'stylen' (74.7%) than for 'managen' (72.2%), the number of people choosing the absolute answer 'English' is slightly higher for 'managen' than for 'stylen'. Again, participants refused to be convinced by the German verb endings *-en*.

Furthermore, 65.8% think that 'cool' is 'rather English' or 'English'. The items 'shoppen' and 'snowboarden' show similar results. In both cases, 57% perceive it as 'rather English' or 'English'. Interestingly, even though 'cool' and 'shoppen' were among the most common examples of English items that were produced by the participants and therefore it might be assumed that they are used frequently within otherwise German sentences, they are still clearly evaluated as English. However, it also has to be pointed out that probably all of the words mentioned by the participants would be evaluated as English since they were named as examples of "English words".

Also, English still was in the lead for the item 'comic' with 54.4% checking 'rather English' or 'English'. Next, 'clique' was evaluated in favor of English as 52.5% checked the options 'rather English' or 'English'. However, for this item a rather large percentage of participants (7.5%) chose not to answer. Supposedly, they decided to leave it blank because they did not know the word. Also, some participants might have left it blank because they did not recognize the word from the spelling. Some asked what it meant and immediately recognized it when it was pronounced for them. However, not all participants might have heard that or did not pay attention when it was explained.

Completing the group of items that were rated as English, 70% assessed 'party' as 'rather English' or 'English', 69.2% judged 'flirt' as 'rather English' or 'English', 63.3% considered 'job' 'rather English' or 'English', 60.8% perceived 'sexy' as 'rather English' or 'English' and 'computer' was rated as being 'rather English' or 'English' by 57.7% of all participants. However, for all of these items the percentage points for the vaguer answer option 'rather English' is already higher than those for the absolute answer option 'English'.

Concerning the second group of words, less distinct cases that are considered as partly-integrated are discussed. The results for 'hit' exhibit a very close race. 47.6% evaluated it as 'rather German' or 'German', whereas 48.8% perceived it as 'rather English' or 'English'. Three participants did not provide answers, which is why the numbers do not add up to 100%. Therefore, English wins by a nose. A similar outcome was reached for the item 'hobby'. The same amount of participants (26.3% each) assessed it as being English or German. However, slightly more participants opted for 'rather English' (25%) than for 'rather German' (21.3%),

which is why overall it is evaluated in favor of English. For the next item, 'okay', no tendency can be determined as the answers are distributed exactly equally. 23.8% each considered it 'English' or 'German' and 25% each considered it 'rather English' or 'rather German'. Two participants chose not to answer. Maybe the answers for this item would have been distributed differently if the participants had been presented with the short form 'ok'.

Finally, the examples 'rocker', 'clown', 'sex', 'dissen' and 'mini' were evaluated in favor of German and are therefore regarded as integrated Anglicisms. A slight majority (52.6%) thought that the term 'rocker' is 'rather German' or 'German'. However, for this item more participants chose the vaguer option 'rather German' (28.8%) than the absolute option 'German' (13.8%). For all the other words that were rated in favor of German the absolute value is higher than the vague one. For the next word, 'clown', exactly 50% of all participants thought that it is 'rather German' or 'German'. As two participants did not provide answers, this is sufficient to overtake those who thought it is 'rather English' or 'English' (47.5%). The word 'sex' was clearly evaluated in favor of German. 58.8% thought it is 'rather German' or 'German'. Furthermore, the term 'dissen' was evaluated as 'rather German' or 'German' by exactly 60%. The most distinct result in favor of German was achieved by the item 'mini'. 40% rate it as German and 28.7% as 'rather German', which adds up to 68.7%.

## **6.7. Discussion of results with regard to research questions**

In this section, the *a priori* defined research questions will be reconsidered and consequently, the main results of the study that were presented in the previous subchapters will be re-interpreted.

- RQ1: Which attitudes do Austrian adolescents have towards the English language in general?
- RQ3: Do they perceive it as a problem that the number of Anglicisms increases?

The introductory statement of the questionnaire, "I like the English language", was positively rated. No statistically significant correlations were found among the age and education level variables. However, liking the English language correlates with the number of years of learning English and with perceived English proficiency. Moreover, the participants did not perceive the amount of Anglicisms as overwhelming and the vast majority thought that the influence from English would grow even more. The inevitability of the use of English words in today's society was strongly defended.

- RQ2: What do they think about the use of Anglicisms in German?
  - RQ2a: In how far do they perceive it as annoying/threatening/unnecessary?

- RQ2b: In how far do they perceive it as enriching?

Participants are not always aware of the presence of English words as a slight majority indicated that they do not even notice English words. Nevertheless, they did not consider this as carelessness towards their native language and most participants were not concerned by the mixing of English words into German. They saw no reason to be apprehensive of the extinction of the German language and they supported the argument that English expressions could foster international understanding. Still, they were rather undecided whether Anglicisms should be considered an enrichment. Yet, a slight majority regarded the increase of English words an improvement of the German language. Furthermore, the majority of participants strongly believed that some English words or phrases sounded better than their German equivalents. English is considered to be efficient and compact and most of the participants claimed that English words could express something shorter and quicker. However, a slight majority indicated to be bothered by unnecessary use of English items.

Moreover, most of the participants did not bother about the use of Anglicisms in the media, although some participants admitted sometimes having problems understanding them. Both of these factors are related to the number of years of learning English with younger participants bothering more about the incorporation of English words and phrases in the media and admitting more often to not understanding everything. Nevertheless, German equivalents were considered unnecessary by a narrow majority. Still, almost half of the participants thought that German equivalents should be sought, which is why we should not cease to look for them. Participants' opinions were also divided over the question whether German equivalents for often used English words even existed, and only a very narrow majority thought that they did.

- RQ4: Do they use Anglicisms in everyday speech themselves?
  - RQ4a: How often do they use Anglicisms?
  - RQ4b: Do they use them consciously or automatically?
- RQ5: Is Anglicism use dependent on the person?
  - RQ5a: What type of person uses Anglicisms most often, according to their judgement?
  - RQ5b: Which characteristics do they associate with speakers who frequently incorporate English words in their German everyday language?

The participants considered the increasing amount of Anglicisms in German as the language of the younger generations since the majority of surveyed adolescents and adultescents admitted to using English words in everyday communication and rated their own age groups

as most prone to using them. Furthermore, the use of English words in everyday speech was characteristically found among those who rated their English proficiency as better. Moreover, a clear majority admitted to sometimes using them automatically. In contrast with that, the participants' answers almost balanced each other when they were asked whether they sometimes consciously used English words instead of German ones because they liked it better. A very narrow majority negated this statement. However, there is a correlation with age group suggesting that younger participants consciously use English more often. This again mirrors the assessment that younger age groups use more English words and phrases.

In regard to the perception of speakers that often incorporate Anglicisms in their everyday language, participants largely evaluated them positively. By far the most chosen characteristics describing these persons are 'casual' and 'modern'. However, several participants chose positively as well as negatively connoted items, which suggests that it depends on the person that uses them and the situation in which they are used.

- RQ6a: Does Anglicism use depend on the situation?
  - RQ6b: In which contexts do they think Anglicisms are used most often?

Most participants indicated that the use of Anglicisms is context-dependent. The vast majority thought that they are used online. This is followed by conversations with peers and conversations with friends. Least Anglicisms are used when communicating with the elderly.

- RQ7: Why do they think Anglicisms are used?

Being asked about why they think Anglicisms are used, most participants gave answers that correspond to the category 'to appear cool'. This suggests that the use of English items is closely linked to issues of prestige.

- RQ8: Do they recognize Anglicisms as such or do they already evaluate them as German words?

Considering concrete examples of English items in German that were named by the participants, the most often named word was 'cool'. Interestingly, almost half of all words and phrases that were mentioned by the participants need to be considered code-switches as they are not integrated into the German dictionary yet. Nevertheless, just because a word is included in German dictionaries does not mean that it is perceived as German. Even external integration through German word endings did not convince participants to evaluate some words as German. Only 5 out of 28 integrated Anglicisms were rated as 'rather German' or 'German'. These are 'rocker', 'clown', 'sex', 'dissen' and 'mini'.

- RQ 9: Is there a relation between attitudes towards Anglicisms and participants' personal background?

- RQ9a: In how far do attitudes differ in respect to gender?
- RQ9b: How does the compiled data correspond with age?
- RQ9c: Do language attitudes correspond with language competence or level of education?
- RQ9d: Do participants that have already spent longer periods of time in Anglophone countries exhibit more positive attitudes towards the English language and Anglicisms?

Several items correspond with the number of years of learning English, the participants' self-assessed English proficiency or their level of education. This suggests that the more educated participants and the participants with higher proficiency in English (according to their self-rating) are more open to the English influence and evaluate Anglicisms more positively. Probably this is due to the fact that they do not have problems understanding them. Furthermore, it was shown that participants who rated themselves as more competent admitted to using English words and phrases more automatically.

In regard to age, even though the younger age groups indicated that they often do not understand English words, they answered to 'consciously' use English more often than the older participants. Considering gender, it was shown that more female participants indicated to use English items frequently, whereas males bother more about 'unnecessary' use of English words. Concerning time spent abroad, unfortunately no results can be presented as the number of participants that has lived in Anglophone countries was too small in order to reveal meaningful results.

To sum up, the results indicate that adolescents and adultescent have positive attitudes towards the English language and towards Anglicisms and they are aware of their use in various situations in everyday life.

## 7. Conclusion

Nowadays, English is the major lingua franca of the modern world and it has a great influence on most languages. German is no exception in this regard and numerous Anglicisms have entered the German language. As it is often claimed that adolescents and their language are to blame for the overflow of English words and phrases in German, the aim of this thesis was to explore adolescents' attitudes towards the use of English items. For this purpose, the present study surveyed members of rural Lower Austrian scout groups through a questionnaire using quantitative research methods with two interspersed qualitative items. The questionnaire elicited information on the participants' attitudes towards the English language and the use of Anglicisms and provides insights on possible links between participants' attitudes and their personal background.

Overall, participants indicated agreement towards positively formulated statements and disagreement towards negatively formulated statements, which shows that they have positive attitudes towards English as a language as well as towards Anglicisms. It was shown that Anglicisms are perceived as a characteristic feature of the language of younger generations and most participants admitted to using English words and phrases in everyday communication. Nevertheless, they were aware that the use of Anglicisms is not always appropriate and indicated its context-dependency. Furthermore, speakers that frequently incorporate Anglicisms in their speech were largely ascribed positive characteristics, even though the results suggest that the evaluation depends on the person by which and the situation in which they are used. Being asked about why Anglicisms are used, most participants named reasons of prestige. Interestingly, when they were asked to name examples of English words, approximately half of the words mentioned are not integrated into the German dictionary yet and are therefore instances of code-switching. Still, when the participants were presented with Anglicisms that are already integrated into the German language, they largely evaluated them as English. The words mentioned by the participants show that Anglicisms figure prominently in several fields, particularly in technology, social media and gaming.

Even though this study has revealed valuable insights into adolescents' and adultescents' attitudes towards the use of Anglicisms, there are also several limitations that need consideration. Case studies cannot be readily generalized, which means that the results and their interpretation only apply to the case at hand and no wholesale generalizations can be made. Furthermore, correlations were the only instrument of inferential statistics that was used in this study. This only shows relations between variables but does not determine the

direction of influence. Additionally, the sample size was rather small, which limits the power of the compiled correlations. Therefore, conducting other statistical tests in future research might be interesting. Moreover, it may be a limitation that most of the material used was self-reported data, which the researcher cannot verify. However, as was mentioned above, attitudes are hardly observable.

Considering these limitations, further research is needed in order to compensate for them and to reveal more significant results. This thesis aimed at providing an overview of a wide range of factors that are connected to attitudes towards Anglicisms. Research focusing on individual aspects would allow in-depth investigations and could therefore yield valuable findings. Furthermore, as the results of this study showed that the vast majority thought that English influences would grow even more in the future and that the use of Anglicisms seems to increase with younger age, it will be interesting to see future developments in this area.

Being an Anglophil myself, it is nice to see that the English language and its influences are evaluated so positively by the participants of my study. Also, the positive attitudes towards the English language are encouraging for my future career as an English teacher.

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## Appendix A: Questionnaire

### Anglizismen in der österreichischen Jugendsprache

|                                |
|--------------------------------|
| <b>Einverständniserklärung</b> |
|--------------------------------|

Diese Studie ist ein Teil eines Forschungsprojektes, das ich im Rahmen meiner Diplomarbeit an der Universität Wien durchführe. Das Ziel dieser Forschung ist es herauszufinden, wie Jugendliche zur Verwendung von Englisch im Deutschen stehen.

Für diese Studie bitte ich dich, das Folgende zu tun:

- Gib deine Meinung zu einigen Statements an.
- Gib deine Meinung dazu an, von welchen Personen und in welchen Situationen Anglizismen genutzt werden.
- Gib an, wie Personen, die viele Anglizismen nutzen, auf dich wirken.
- Entscheide, ob einige Wörter (eher) Englisch oder (eher) Deutsch sind.
- Fülle einen kurzen Fragebogen über dich und deinen Hintergrund aus.

Die gesammelten Informationen werden vertraulich behandelt und nur für meine Diplomarbeit verwendet. Dein Name wird nirgends aufscheinen. Deine Teilnahme ist völlig freiwillig. Du kannst jederzeit entscheiden, dass du aufhören willst.

- .....
- ☐ Ich stimme zu, dass ich an dieser Studie teilnehme. Ich bestätige, dass ich das Obenstehende gelesen und verstanden habe, dass anfällige Fragen zur Forschung zufriedenstellende beantwortet wurden, und dass ich darüber informiert wurde, dass ich meine Einwilligung jederzeit zurückziehen und die Teilnahme am Forschungsprojekt beenden kann.

---

(Name)

(Datum)

---

(Unterschrift)

**I. Entscheide, ob du den folgenden Statements zustimmst und wähle für jedes Statement (1) JA, (2) EHER JA, (3) EHER NEIN oder (4) NEIN als Antwort.**

|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ich mag die englische Sprache.  |   |   |   |   |
| Ich glaube, dass man in Zukunft noch mehr Englisch verwenden wird.  |   |   |   |   |
| Ich finde, dass es zu viele englische Worte in der deutschen Sprache gibt.  |   |   |   |   |
| Ich finde, dass die zunehmende Menge englischer Wörter in Deutsch andeutet, dass wir uns nicht genug um unsere Sprache kümmern.             |   |   |   |   |
| Ich glaube, dass englische Wörter die deutsche Sprache gefährden.   |   |   |   |   |
| Meiner Meinung nach ist die zunehmende Menge englischer Wörter im Deutschen eine Bereicherung. Auf diese Weise verbessert sich die Sprache. |   |   |   |   |
| Die Vermischung englischer und deutscher Wörter stört mich.   |   |   |   |   |
| Ich finde, dass wir keine deutschen Übersetzungen brauchen für englische Wörter und Phrasen, die wir oft benutzen.                          |   |   |   |   |
| Ich glaube, dass die Verwendung von englischen Wörtern heutzutage nicht vermeidbar ist.   |   |   |   |   |
| Es stört mich, wenn ich englische Wörter in deutschsprachigen Filmen, TV- oder Radiosendungen höre.   |   |   |   |   |
| Ich benutze oft englische Wörter im Alltag.   |   |   |   |   |
| Ich denke, dass die Verwendung von englischen Wörtern und Phrasen die internationale Verständigung fördert.                                 |   |   |   |   |
| Es stört mich, wenn Leute unnötig englische Wörter in deutschen Sätzen benutzen.  |   |   |   |   |
| Ich finde, dass sich manche Ausdrücke auf Englisch besser anhören als auf Deutsch.  |   |   |   |   |
| Ich denke, dass wir oft englische Wörter und Phrasen benutzen, weil man dadurch etwas schneller und kürzer ausdrücken kann.                 |   |   |   |   |
| Obwohl ich ein deutsches Wort weiß, verwende ich manchmal absichtlich ein englisches, weil ich es lieber mag.                               |   |   |   |   |
| Oft verstehe ich manche englische Wörter nicht, die in den Medien verwendet werden.   |   |   |   |   |
| Für viele englische Wörter gibt es keine deutsche Übersetzung.  |   |   |   |   |
| Englische Wörter fallen mir oft gar nicht auf.  |   |   |   |   |
| Manchmal verwende ich automatisch englische Wörter anstelle von deutschen.  |   |   |   |   |
| Ich glaube, dass es auf den Kontext und das Gesprächsthema ankommt, ob englische Wörter verwendet werden oder nicht.                        |   |   |   |   |

**Wie oft benutzen diese Personen deiner Meinung nach englische Wörter in der Alltagssprache?**

|                    | sehr oft | oft | manchmal | nie |
|--------------------|----------|-----|----------|-----|
| 0-10-Jährige       |          |     |          |     |
| 11-17-Jährige      |          |     |          |     |
| 18-25-Jährige      |          |     |          |     |
| 26-59-Jährige      |          |     |          |     |
| 60+-Jährige        |          |     |          |     |
| männliche Personen |          |     |          |     |
| weibliche Personen |          |     |          |     |

**Wie oft denkst du werden englische Wörter in diesen Situationen verwendet?**

|                                | sehr oft | oft | manchmal | nie |
|--------------------------------|----------|-----|----------|-----|
| formelle Situationen           |          |     |          |     |
| informelle Situationen         |          |     |          |     |
| mit guten Freundinnen/Freunden |          |     |          |     |
| mit Eltern                     |          |     |          |     |
| mit Lehrerinnen/Lehrern        |          |     |          |     |
| mit Vorgesetzten               |          |     |          |     |
| mit alten Leuten               |          |     |          |     |
| mit Gleichaltrigen             |          |     |          |     |
| mit Geschwistern               |          |     |          |     |
| mit Fremden                    |          |     |          |     |
| mit männlichen Personen        |          |     |          |     |
| mit weiblichen Personen        |          |     |          |     |
| in den Medien                  |          |     |          |     |
| in der gesprochenen Sprache    |          |     |          |     |
| in der geschriebenen Sprache   |          |     |          |     |
| online                         |          |     |          |     |

**Warum denkst du werden englische Wörter gerade von diese Personen und in diesen Situationen benutzt?**

.....

.....

.....

**Wie wirken Personen, die viele englische Wörter im Alltag benutzen, auf dich? (Du kannst mehrere Antwortmöglichkeiten auswählen!)**

- |                                      |                                   |  |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> kompetent   | <input type="checkbox"/> tolerant | <input type="checkbox"/> pseudo-modern |
| <input type="checkbox"/> inkompetent | <input type="checkbox"/> arrogant | <input type="checkbox"/> übertrieben   |
| <input type="checkbox"/> freundlich  | <input type="checkbox"/> locker   | <input type="checkbox"/> _____         |
| <input type="checkbox"/> abweisend   | <input type="checkbox"/> modern   | <input type="checkbox"/> _____         |

**In diesem Fragebogen bist du nach deiner Meinung zu „englischen Wörtern“ befragt worden. An welche Wörter hast du dabei gedacht? Bitte nenne ein paar Beispiele!**

.....

**II. Entscheide, ob die folgenden Wörter (1) ENGLISCH, (2) EHER ENGLISCH, (3) EHER DEUTSCH oder (4) DEUTSCH sind.**

|             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|
| STORY       |   |   |   |   |
| PARTY       |   |   |   |   |
| ROCKER      |   |   |   |   |
| COMPUTER    |   |   |   |   |
| HIT         |   |   |   |   |
| JOB         |   |   |   |   |
| STAR        |   |   |   |   |
| MANAGEN     |   |   |   |   |
| COOL        |   |   |   |   |
| CLOWN       |   |   |   |   |
| OKAY        |   |   |   |   |
| CLIQUE      |   |   |   |   |
| GIRL        |   |   |   |   |
| BOY         |   |   |   |   |
| SEX         |   |   |   |   |
| HOBBY       |   |   |   |   |
| FREAK       |   |   |   |   |
| WAKEBOARDEN |   |   |   |   |
| LOVER       |   |   |   |   |
| STYLEN      |   |   |   |   |
| COMIC       |   |   |   |   |
| SOAP        |   |   |   |   |
| FLIRT       |   |   |   |   |
| SEXY        |   |   |   |   |
| DISSEN      |   |   |   |   |
| MINI        |   |   |   |   |
| SHOPPEN     |   |   |   |   |
| SNOWBOARDEN |   |   |   |   |

### III. Bitte fülle zum Schluss noch ein paar Fragen zu deinem Hintergrund aus.

1. Zu welcher Pfadfinderstufe gehörst du?
  - ☐ GuSp
  - ☐ CaEx
  - ☐ RaRo
  - ☐ LeiterIn
2. Wie alt bist du? \_\_\_\_\_
3. Mit welchem Geschlecht identifizierst du dich?
  - ☐ männlich
  - ☐ weiblich
  - ☐ andere
4. Was ist deine höchste abgeschlossene Ausbildung?
  - ☐ Volksschule
  - ☐ Hauptschule
  - ☐ Lehre
  - ☐ Fachschule
  - ☐ Matura
  - ☐ Studium
5. Was ist deine Muttersprache (falls du mehrere Sprachen von Geburt an gelernt hast, nenne bitte alle Sprachen)?
  - ☐ Deutsch
  - ☐ Andere: \_\_\_\_\_
6. Wie lange lernst du schon Englisch?
  - ☐ Ich habe nie Englisch gelernt.
  - ☐ Weniger als 4 Jahre.
  - ☐ 4-12 Jahre.
  - ☐ Mehr als 12 Jahre.
7. Hast du schon einmal in einem englischsprachigen Land gelebt?
  - ☐ Nein
  - ☐ Ja – Wo und wie lange?  
\_\_\_\_\_
8. Wie würdest du selbst deine Englischkenntnisse bewerten? (Kreise die Nummer ein:  
1 – fortgeschritten, 5 - schlecht)

| Lesen |   |   |   |   | Schreiben |   |   |   |   | Sprechen |   |   |   |   | Hören |   |   |   |   |
|-------|---|---|---|---|-----------|---|---|---|---|----------|---|---|---|---|-------|---|---|---|---|
| 1     | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1         | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1        | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1     | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**DANKE FÜR DEINE TEILNAHME!**

## Appendix B: Information for Parents

Liebe Eltern!

Im Rahmen meiner Diplomarbeit an der Universität Wien führe ich ein Forschungsprojekt durch, dessen Ziel es ist, herauszufinden wie Jugendliche zur Verwendung von Anglizismen im Deutschen stehen. Dafür hat Ihr Kind in der heutigen Pfadistunde einen Fragebogen ausgefüllt. Die gesammelten Informationen werden vertraulich behandelt und nur für meine Diplomarbeit verwendet.

Falls Sie **NICHT** wollen, dass die Angaben Ihrer Tochter/Ihres Sohnes verwendet werden, senden Sie bitte ein E-Mail mit dem Namen Ihres Kindes an [stephanie.prantl@hotmail.com](mailto:stephanie.prantl@hotmail.com).

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Stephanie Prantl

## **Appendix C: List of reasons for incorporating English words into everyday language produced by the participants**

1. Um cool zu sein
  - Gute Freunde, weil es sich ‚cool‘ anhört,
  - Weil sie denken, dass sie cool sind
  - Sie wollen cool wirken
  - Weil sie glauben, es ist cool und angemessen
  - Weil sie cool sein wollen oder lustig sein wollen
  - Wollen lustig sein
  - Um intelligenter zu wirken
  - Um intelligenter zu wirken, zu zeigen man ist locker drauf
  - Weil es Humor bringt und lustig ist
  - Um cool oder am neuesten Stand zu sein.
  - Wenn es bei Jugendlichen gerade „cool“ ist
  - Weil es gerade modern ist
  - Weil es ein Zeichen moderner Sprache ist
  - Weil es modern und „cool“ ist englische Ausdrücke zu verwenden
  - Ich denke, dass Jugendliche oft diese Wörter benutzen, weil sie „cooler“ wirken wollen
2. Weil es einfacher/praktischer ist
  - Sind oft einfacher/cooler/direkter
  - Weil es praktischer ist
  - Weil es manchmal praktisch ist
  - Weil es manchmal verkürzt wird
  - Weil sie kürzer oder leichter erklärbar sind
  - Man muss nicht so lange und so viele Wörter aussprechen
  - Weil es Erklärungen vereinfacht
  - Da einige Fachausdrücke auf Englisch einfacher sind als auf Deutsch
3. Internet, Social Media, Medien generell
  - Ich denke von jungen Leuten und unter Freunden wird die englische Sprache häufig/häufiger benutzt, vor allem in informellen Situationen, da der Einfluss von englischen Serien & Filmen größer wird.
  - Jugendliche & junge Erwachsene sind näher am E-Unterricht & hören englischsprachige Musik & Filme.
  - Weil sich Jugendliche oft online mit anderen Jugendlichen in anderen Ländern unterhalten
  - Bei jungen Leuten mit Freunden/Gleichaltrigen weil starker Einfluss vom Internet auf sie ausgeübt wird und in sozialen Netzwerken viel mit Leuten aus anderen Ländern kommuniziert wird – auf Englisch
  - Da die heutige „Jugendsprache“ sehr durch Social Media beeinflusst wird
  - mit Freunden hauptsächlich wegen sozialen Medien (YouTube, Film-Trailer)
  - Weil sie auf Social Media Plattformen (z.B. YouTube, Twitter, Facebook, ...) irgendwas sehen oder hören auf Englisch.
  - Weil man es z.B. im Fernsehen/Radio hört und die Wörter dann auch verwendet
  - Medien, Reporter

#### 4. Berufliche Gründe

- In formellen Situationen ist Englisch weniger brauchbar außer der Beruf verlangt es.
- In formellen Situationen, z.B. Firmen-Meetings, etc. bzw. internationale Konzerne sowieso Englisch gesprochen
- In der Arbeit → Wissenschaft
- Weil sie in der Arbeit Englisch sprechen müssen
- Weil sie es brauchen bei der Arbeit
- Es kommt darauf an, mit wem du sprichst, welchen Beruf du hast, ... (Umfeld)

#### 5. Beschreibt manche Situationen besser

- Weil man auf English manche Dinge leichter ausdrücken kann als auf Deutsch
- Manchmal kann ein engl. Wort einen Zustand oft besser beschreiben als die deutsche Übersetzung, z.B. crazy
- Es gibt keine Übersetzung
- Weil es manchmal kein passendes deutsches Wort dafür gibt
- Weil es manche Situationen besser beschreibt

#### 6. ELF

- Weil fast jeder die englische Sprache spricht (Bsp Ausland)
- Weltsprache
- Die englische Sprache dominiert
- Verständlich über die Landesgrenzen hinaus

#### 7. Um im Freundeskreis mitreden zu können

- Wörter, die Freunde verwenden, werden automatisch übernommen
- Anpassung
- Weil man mit vielen vertrauten Personen sich schon eine eigene Sprache entwickelt hat
- Weil es andere auch machen

#### 8. Das mache ich aus Gewohnheit

- Gewohnheit
- Jugendsprache ist oft Gewohnheit
- Wenn die Wörter einfach nicht mehr auffallen

#### 9. Weil Jugendliche eben so sprechen

- Weiß nicht, is halt so
- Wös so is

#### 10. Andere

- Beim Reisen, Tourismus
- Damit ich es besser lerne
- Weil sie sich für Englisch interessieren
- Weil sie es besser finden
- Weil sie es können
- Weil sie es können müssen



## Appendix D: Word list of all the words produced by the participants in the questionnaire

All words that are not incorporated into *Duden* yet are written in italics (even though some are not adopted with their full meanings, e.g. ‘house’ can only be used to refer to a music genre in German. As it cannot be determined which meaning the participant intended, it will not be italicized here.)

|                         |                             |                             |                 |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| cool (29)               | strange (2)                 | Handy                       | <i>parents</i>  |
| <i>nice</i> (8)         | style (2)                   | <i>hard</i>                 | pool            |
| shoppen/shopping        | WhatsApp (2)                | <i>hat</i>                  | <i>rabbit</i>   |
| (6)                     | <i>apple</i>                | <i>he</i>                   | <i>random</i>   |
| easy (5)                | <i>alright</i>              | headset                     | <i>retarded</i> |
| party (5)               | <i>are</i>                  | <i>hello</i>                | safe            |
| chill/chillen (4)       | <i>Avengers</i>             | hey                         | <i>school</i>   |
| OMG/oh my god (4)       | Beamer                      | hipster                     | <i>she</i>      |
| story (4)               | <i>best friend</i>          | house                       | smiley          |
| WTF (4)                 | busy                        | <i>I know</i>               | snowboarden     |
| computer (3)            | bye                         | in                          | <i>some</i>     |
| crazy (3)               | <i>car</i>                  | <i>influencer</i>           | soundtrack      |
| fancy (3)               | <i>casual</i>               | installieren                | straight        |
| <i>get wrecked</i> (2)  | <i>cat</i>                  | <i>it</i>                   | statement       |
| <i>no way</i> (3)       | clown                       | killen                      | stop            |
| <i>awesome</i> (2)      | <i>cow</i>                  | like                        | <i>suddenly</i> |
| boy(s) (2)              | dissen                      | LOL                         | <i>through</i>  |
| dog (2)                 | <i>double kill</i>          | <i>man</i>                  | tricky          |
| download/ gedown-       | dresscode                   | <i>moon</i>                 | <i>unicorn</i>  |
| loaded (2)              | feeling                     | motion                      | USB             |
| hobby (2)               | flirten                     | <i>mountain</i>             | W-LAN           |
| <i>I don't know</i> (2) | <i>fly am been</i>          | mountainbiken               | <i>weird</i>    |
| job (2)                 | <i>for your information</i> | native speaker              | <i>what</i>     |
| laptop (2)              | freak                       | <i>never</i>                | <i>why</i>      |
| <i>lit</i> (2)          | fresh                       | news                        | <i>women</i>    |
| <i>love</i> (2)         | <i>fuck</i>                 | <i>no</i>                   | yes             |
| mum (2)                 | game                        | <i>oil</i>                  | <i>you know</i> |
| <i>really</i> (2)       | <i>good morning</i>         | online                      | <i>you</i>      |
| relax/relaxen (2)       | <i>good night</i>           | <i>pink fluffy unicorns</i> |                 |
| sorry (2)               | groovy                      | <i>dancing on a</i>         |                 |
| star (2)                | <i>gross</i>                | <i>rainbow</i>              |                 |

NOUNS – ADJECTIVES – VERBS – PRONOUNS – ADVERBS – PREPOSITION –  
QUANTIFIER – PHRASES – OTHERS

## Appendix E: Correlations between Statements 1-21

|    |   | Q1     | Q2    | Q3      | Q4     | Q5      | Q6      | Q7      | Q8    | Q9    | Q10     | Q11     | Q12     | Q13     | Q14   | Q15   | Q16     | Q17    | Q18   | Q19    | Q20    | Q21   |
|----|---|--------|-------|---------|--------|---------|---------|---------|-------|-------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-------|-------|---------|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|
| Q1 | p | 1,000  | ,215  | -,107   | -,233* | -,249*  | ,127    | -,127   | ,130  | -,161 | -,348** | ,325**  | ,116    | -,327** | ,198  | -,057 | ,112    | -,148  | ,039  | ,338** | ,292** | ,257* |
|    | p | .      | ,056  | ,346    | ,040   | ,026    | ,263    | ,263    | ,253  | ,156  | ,002    | ,003    | ,310    | ,003    | ,080  | ,621  | ,327    | ,189   | ,733  | ,002   | ,009   | ,022  |
|    | N | 80     | 80    | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79     | 80     | 79    |
| Q2 | p | ,215   | 1,000 | ,018    | -,164  | -,170   | ,216    | -,126   | ,044  | ,035  | -,128   | ,163    | ,232*   | -,241*  | -,042 | ,029  | ,055    | -,275* | ,011  | ,121   | ,050   | -,118 |
|    | p | ,056   | .     | ,871    | ,150   | ,132    | ,056    | ,264    | ,700  | ,757  | ,256    | ,150    | ,039    | ,031    | ,716  | ,799  | ,630    | ,014   | ,925  | ,286   | ,659   | ,302  |
|    | N | 80     | 80    | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79     | 80     | 79    |
| Q3 | p | -,107  | ,018  | 1,000   | ,410** | ,202    | -,324** | ,388**  | -,129 | -,119 | ,323**  | -,061   | -,337** | ,194    | -,023 | ,020  | -,102   | -,006  | ,061  | -,167  | -,088  | -,009 |
|    | p | ,346   | ,871  | .       | ,000   | ,072    | ,004    | ,000    | ,256  | ,298  | ,003    | ,593    | ,002    | ,085    | ,839  | ,859  | ,371    | ,959   | ,596  | ,141   | ,438   | ,939  |
|    | N | 80     | 80    | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79     | 80     | 79    |
| Q4 | p | -,233* | -,164 | ,410**  | 1,000  | ,535**  | -,254*  | ,164    | -,158 | -,139 | ,268*   | -,130   | -,268*  | ,212    | -,063 | -,130 | -,032   | ,176   | ,032  | -,057  | -,083  | ,026  |
|    | p | ,040   | ,150  | ,000    | .      | ,000    | ,026    | ,152    | ,168  | ,227  | ,018    | ,258    | ,019    | ,063    | ,583  | ,259  | ,785    | ,123   | ,781  | ,625   | ,471   | ,822  |
|    | N | 78     | 78    | 78      | 78     | 78      | 77      | 78      | 78    | 77    | 78      | 78      | 77      | 78      | 78    | 77    | 77      | 78     | 78    | 77     | 78     | 77    |
| Q5 | p | -,249* | -,170 | ,202    | ,535** | 1,000   | -,358** | ,302**  | -,040 | -,045 | ,262*   | -,301** | -,135   | ,156    | -,111 | -,010 | -,168   | ,116   | -,051 | -,196  | -,221* | -,039 |
|    | p | ,026   | ,132  | ,072    | ,000   | .       | ,001    | ,007    | ,726  | ,691  | ,019    | ,007    | ,235    | ,167    | ,332  | ,932  | ,139    | ,307   | ,654  | ,083   | ,049   | ,730  |
|    | N | 80     | 80    | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79     | 80     | 79    |
| Q6 | p | ,127   | ,216  | -,324** | -,254* | -,358** | 1,000   | -,361** | ,135  | ,069  | -,241*  | ,170    | ,152    | -,111   | ,100  | ,149  | ,165    | ,031   | -,122 | ,008   | -,004  | ,010  |
|    | p | ,263   | ,056  | ,004    | ,026   | ,001    | .       | ,001    | ,238  | ,550  | ,033    | ,134    | ,184    | ,330    | ,383  | ,194  | ,150    | ,786   | ,288  | ,947   | ,972   | ,933  |
|    | N | 79     | 79    | 79      | 77     | 79      | 79      | 79      | 78    | 78    | 79      | 79      | 78      | 79      | 78    | 78    | 78      | 79     | 78    | 78     | 79     | 78    |
| Q7 | p | -,127  | -,126 | ,388**  | ,164   | ,302**  | -,361** | 1,000   | -,106 | -,199 | ,350**  | -,346** | -,114   | ,402**  | -,135 | -,127 | -,342** | ,079   | -,097 | -,198  | -,275* | ,056  |
|    | p | ,263   | ,264  | ,000    | ,152   | ,007    | ,001    | .       | ,354  | ,079  | ,001    | ,002    | ,319    | ,000    | ,236  | ,266  | ,002    | ,483   | ,394  | ,081   | ,014   | ,626  |
|    | N | 80     | 80    | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79      | 80      | 79    | 79    | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79     | 80     | 79    |
| Q8 | p | ,130   | ,044  | -,129   | -,158  | -,040   | ,135    | -,106   | 1,000 | ,125  | ,007    | ,079    | ,009    | -,103   | ,177  | ,173  | -,047   | ,010   | ,046  | ,076   | ,005   | ,132  |
|    | p | ,253   | ,700  | ,256    | ,168   | ,726    | ,238    | ,354    | .     | ,274  | ,954    | ,487    | ,935    | ,365    | ,119  | ,129  | ,683    | ,933   | ,686  | ,511   | ,968   | ,251  |
|    | N | 79     | 79    | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78      | 79      | 79    | 78    | 79      | 79      | 78      | 79      | 79    | 78    | 78      | 79     | 78    | 78     | 79     | 78    |

|     |   | Q1      | Q2     | Q3      | Q4     | Q5      | Q6     | Q7      | Q8    | Q9    | Q10     | Q11     | Q12    | Q13     | Q14     | Q15    | Q16     | Q17    | Q18   | Q19     | Q20     | Q21    |
|-----|---|---------|--------|---------|--------|---------|--------|---------|-------|-------|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|--------|---------|--------|-------|---------|---------|--------|
| Q9  | p | -,161   | ,035   | -,119   | -,139  | -,045   | ,069   | -,199   | ,125  | 1,000 | -,076   | ,154    | ,184   | -,120   | ,231*   | ,240*  | ,058    | -,213  | ,113  | ,122    | ,071    | ,071   |
|     | p | ,156    | ,757   | ,298    | ,227   | ,691    | ,550   | ,079    | ,274  | .     | ,506    | ,176    | ,107   | ,292    | ,042    | ,034   | ,613    | ,060   | ,326  | ,288    | ,534    | ,534   |
|     | N | 79      | 79     | 79      | 77     | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78    | 79    | 79      | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78      | 78     | 78      | 79     | 78    | 78      | 79      | 78     |
| Q10 | p | -,348** | -,128  | ,323**  | ,268*  | ,262*   | -,241* | ,350**  | ,007  | -,076 | 1,000   | -,348** | -,233* | ,358**  | -,304** | -,210  | -,052   | ,292** | -,086 | -,308** | -,233*  | -,109  |
|     | p | ,002    | ,256   | ,003    | ,018   | ,019    | ,033   | ,001    | ,954  | ,506  | .       | ,002    | ,039   | ,001    | ,006    | ,064   | ,648    | ,008   | ,452  | ,006    | ,037    | ,338   |
|     | N | 80      | 80     | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79     | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79     | 80      | 79      | 79     | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79      | 80      | 79     |
| Q11 | p | ,325**  | ,163   | -,061   | -,130  | -,301** | ,170   | -,346** | ,079  | ,154  | -,348** | 1,000   | ,143   | -,455** | ,399**  | ,266*  | ,522**  | -,256* | ,061  | ,282*   | ,585**  | ,199   |
|     | p | ,003    | ,150   | ,593    | ,258   | ,007    | ,134   | ,002    | ,487  | ,176  | ,002    | .       | ,209   | ,000    | ,000    | ,018   | ,000    | ,022   | ,591  | ,012    | ,000    | ,079   |
|     | N | 80      | 80     | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79     | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79     | 80      | 79      | 79     | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79      | 80      | 79     |
| Q12 | p | ,116    | ,232*  | -,337** | -,268* | -,135   | ,152   | -,114   | ,009  | ,184  | -,233*  | ,143    | 1,000  | -,160   | ,114    | ,043   | ,021    | -,125  | -,063 | ,167    | ,159    | ,132   |
|     | p | ,310    | ,039   | ,002    | ,019   | ,235    | ,184   | ,319    | ,935  | ,107  | ,039    | ,209    | .      | ,160    | ,322    | ,711   | ,856    | ,273   | ,582  | ,143    | ,161    | ,248   |
|     | N | 79      | 79     | 79      | 77     | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78    | 78    | 79      | 79      | 79     | 79      | 78      | 78     | 78      | 79     | 78    | 78      | 79      | 78     |
| Q13 | p | -,327** | -,241* | ,194    | ,212   | ,156    | -,111  | ,402**  | -,103 | -,120 | ,358**  | -,455** | -,160  | 1,000   | -,347** | -,276* | -,413** | ,240*  | ,043  | -,262*  | -,373** | ,112   |
|     | p | ,003    | ,031   | ,085    | ,063   | ,167    | ,330   | ,000    | ,365  | ,292  | ,001    | ,000    | ,160   | .       | ,002    | ,014   | ,000    | ,032   | ,706  | ,020    | ,001    | ,327   |
|     | N | 80      | 80     | 80      | 78     | 80      | 79     | 80      | 79    | 79    | 80      | 80      | 79     | 80      | 79      | 79     | 79      | 80     | 79    | 79      | 80      | 79     |
| Q14 | p | ,198    | -,042  | -,023   | -,063  | -,111   | ,100   | -,135   | ,177  | ,231* | -,304** | ,399**  | ,114   | -,347** | 1,000   | ,330** | ,306**  | -,142  | ,145  | ,249*   | ,422**  | ,298** |
|     | p | ,080    | ,716   | ,839    | ,583   | ,332    | ,383   | ,236    | ,119  | ,042  | ,006    | ,000    | ,322   | ,002    | .       | ,003   | ,006    | ,211   | ,205  | ,028    | ,000    | ,008   |
|     | N | 79      | 79     | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78     | 79      | 79    | 78    | 79      | 79      | 78     | 79      | 79      | 78     | 78      | 79     | 78    | 78      | 79      | 78     |
| Q15 | p | -,057   | ,029   | ,020    | -,130  | -,010   | ,149   | -,127   | ,173  | ,240* | -,210   | ,266*   | ,043   | -,276*  | ,330**  | 1,000  | ,083    | -,272* | ,131  | ,215    | ,184    | -,057  |
|     | p | ,621    | ,799   | ,859    | ,259   | ,932    | ,194   | ,266    | ,129  | ,034  | ,064    | ,018    | ,711   | ,014    | ,003    | .      | ,472    | ,015   | ,252  | ,059    | ,105    | ,622   |
|     | N | 79      | 79     | 79      | 77     | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78    | 78    | 79      | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78      | 79     | 78      | 79     | 78    | 78      | 79      | 78     |
| Q16 | p | ,112    | ,055   | -,102   | -,032  | -,168   | ,165   | -,342** | -,047 | ,058  | -,052   | ,522**  | ,021   | -,413** | ,306**  | ,083   | 1,000   | ,048   | -,057 | ,072    | ,347**  | -,005  |
|     | p | ,327    | ,630   | ,371    | ,785   | ,139    | ,150   | ,002    | ,683  | ,613  | ,648    | ,000    | ,856   | ,000    | ,006    | ,472   | .       | ,676   | ,617  | ,529    | ,002    | ,964   |
|     | N | 79      | 79     | 79      | 77     | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78    | 78    | 79      | 79      | 78     | 79      | 78      | 78     | 79      | 79     | 78    | 78      | 79      | 78     |

|     |   | Q1     | Q2     | Q3    | Q4    | Q5     | Q6    | Q7     | Q8   | Q9    | Q10     | Q11    | Q12   | Q13     | Q14    | Q15    | Q16    | Q17     | Q18   | Q19     | Q20    | Q21    |
|-----|---|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|------|-------|---------|--------|-------|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|-------|---------|--------|--------|
| Q17 | p | -,148  | -,275* | -,006 | ,176  | ,116   | ,031  | ,079   | ,010 | -,213 | ,292**  | -,256* | -,125 | ,240*   | -,142  | -,272* | ,048   | 1,000   | -,093 | -,302** | -,219  | -,101  |
|     | p | ,189   | ,014   | ,959  | ,123  | ,307   | ,786  | ,483   | ,933 | ,060  | ,008    | ,022   | ,273  | ,032    | ,211   | ,015   | ,676   | .       | ,414  | ,007    | ,051   | ,377   |
|     | N | 80     | 80     | 80    | 78    | 80     | 79    | 80     | 79   | 79    | 80      | 80     | 79    | 80      | 79     | 79     | 79     | 80      | 79    | 79      | 80     | 79     |
| Q18 | p | ,039   | ,011   | ,061  | ,032  | -,051  | -,122 | -,097  | ,046 | ,113  | -,086   | ,061   | -,063 | ,043    | ,145   | ,131   | -,057  | -,093   | 1,000 | ,064    | ,253*  | ,127   |
|     | p | ,733   | ,925   | ,596  | ,781  | ,654   | ,288  | ,394   | ,686 | ,326  | ,452    | ,591   | ,582  | ,706    | ,205   | ,252   | ,617   | ,414    | .     | ,577    | ,025   | ,267   |
|     | N | 79     | 79     | 79    | 78    | 79     | 78    | 79     | 78   | 78    | 79      | 79     | 78    | 79      | 78     | 78     | 78     | 79      | 79    | 78      | 79     | 78     |
| Q19 | p | ,338** | ,121   | -,167 | -,057 | -,196  | ,008  | -,198  | ,076 | ,122  | -,308** | ,282*  | ,167  | -,262*  | ,249*  | ,215   | ,072   | -,302** | ,064  | 1,000   | ,264*  | ,151   |
|     | p | ,002   | ,286   | ,141  | ,625  | ,083   | ,947  | ,081   | ,511 | ,288  | ,006    | ,012   | ,143  | ,020    | ,028   | ,059   | ,529   | ,007    | ,577  | .       | ,019   | ,185   |
|     | N | 79     | 79     | 79    | 77    | 79     | 78    | 79     | 78   | 78    | 79      | 79     | 78    | 79      | 78     | 78     | 78     | 79      | 78    | 79      | 79     | 79     |
| Q20 | p | ,292** | ,050   | -,088 | -,083 | -,221* | -,004 | -,275* | ,005 | ,071  | -,233*  | ,585** | ,159  | -,373** | ,422** | ,184   | ,347** | -,219   | ,253* | ,264*   | 1,000  | ,318** |
|     | p | ,009   | ,659   | ,438  | ,471  | ,049   | ,972  | ,014   | ,968 | ,534  | ,037    | ,000   | ,161  | ,001    | ,000   | ,105   | ,002   | ,051    | ,025  | ,019    | .      | ,004   |
|     | N | 80     | 80     | 80    | 78    | 80     | 79    | 80     | 79   | 79    | 80      | 80     | 79    | 80      | 79     | 79     | 79     | 80      | 79    | 79      | 80     | 79     |
| Q21 | p | ,257*  | -,118  | -,009 | ,026  | -,039  | ,010  | ,056   | ,132 | ,071  | -,109   | ,199   | ,132  | ,112    | ,298** | -,057  | -,005  | -,101   | ,127  | ,151    | ,318** | 1,000  |
|     | p | ,022   | ,302   | ,939  | ,822  | ,730   | ,933  | ,626   | ,251 | ,534  | ,338    | ,079   | ,248  | ,327    | ,008   | ,622   | ,964   | ,377    | ,267  | ,185    | ,004   | .      |
|     | N | 79     | 79     | 79    | 77    | 79     | 78    | 79     | 78   | 78    | 79      | 79     | 78    | 79      | 78     | 78     | 78     | 79      | 78    | 79      | 79     | 79     |

\*. Die Korrelation ist auf dem 0,05 Niveau signifikant (zweiseitig).

\*\*. Die Korrelation ist auf dem 0,01 Niveau signifikant (zweiseitig).

## **Abstract**

English plays an important role in contemporary life and we are constantly surrounded by it through social media, games, music, etc. However, English is not only present in Anglophone contexts, but English words and phrases have also been incorporated into the German language. It is often claimed that youth language is to blame for the overflow of English items that are used within German. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate adolescents' attitudes towards the use of Anglicisms.

A quantitative study was conducted on 80 participants in their teens and twenties who are members of local scout groups. The questionnaire collected detailed information on their attitudes towards English as a language, towards different aspects of incorporating English words into German as well as towards people who frequently incorporate English words and phrases into their German. Furthermore, they were asked to rate how often Anglicisms are used by certain groups of people and in certain situations. Also, in order to determine whether they even perceive often used Anglicisms as English, they were asked to rate certain words according to their Englishness or Germanness, respectively. Moreover, the questionnaire collected information on the participants' background, to which the collected data was related.

Results showed predominantly positive attitudes towards English and towards the use of English items within German sentences. Even though younger participants more easily admitted to not understanding some English words that are used in the media than older or higher educated participants, they were more likely to indicate that they consciously use English words sometimes because they like them better. Also, the age group that most participants belong to (11-17-year olds) was assessed as using Anglicisms most often. Furthermore, they are highly aware of English wordage in their everyday language as they could list numerous examples of English words they regularly use and also evaluated most of the Anglicisms they were presented with as being 'rather English' or 'English'.

## **Zusammenfassung**

Heutzutage spielt Englisch eine wichtige Rolle und durch soziale Medien, Spiele, Musik, usw. sind wir ständig davon umgeben. Englisch ist jedoch nicht nur in englischsprachigen Kontexten präsent, sondern auch in die deutsche Sprache wurden einige englische Wörter und Phrasen aufgenommen. Es wird oft behauptet, dass die Jugendsprache an der Vielzahl englischen Wortguts innerhalb der deutschen Sprache schuld sei, weshalb diese Studie darauf abzielt, Jugendliche zu ihrer Einstellung zur Nutzung von Anglizismen zu befragen.

Eine quantitative Studie wurde an 80 Jugendlichen zwischen 10 und 30 Jahren, die Mitglieder der örtlichen Pfadfindergruppen sind, durchgeführt. Ein Fragebogen sammelte detaillierte Informationen zu ihren Einstellungen zur englischen Sprache, zu verschiedenen Aspekten von Anglizismen, und zu Sprechern, die häufig englische Wörter und Phrasen in ihre Alltagssprache einbauen. Weiters sollten sie bewerten wie oft Anglizismen von bestimmten Personengruppen und in bestimmten Situationen verwendet werden. Außerdem sollten sie ausgewählte Wörter danach bewerten, ob sie (eher) Englisch oder (eher) Deutsch seien. Der Fragebogen sammelte auch Informationen zum persönlichen Hintergrund der Teilnehmer, womit die gesammelten Daten in Zusammenhang gestellt wurden.

Die Ergebnisse zeigten vorherrschend positive Einstellungen zur englischen Sprache und zu Anglizismen. Obwohl jüngere Teilnehmer häufiger zugaben manche englische Wörter, die in den Medien benutzt werden, manchmal nicht zu verstehen, gaben sie häufiger an bewusst englische Wörter zu benutzen, weil sie sie lieber mögen. Die Altersgruppe zu der die meisten Teilnehmer gehören (11-17-Jährige) wurde als diejenige gewertet, die die meisten Anglizismen benutzt. Weiters konnte gezeigt werden, dass den Teilnehmern die Menge englischer Wörter in ihrer Alltagssprache bewusst ist, da sie zahlreiche Beispiele aufzählen konnten. Außerdem werteten sie die meisten Anglizismen, die ihnen vorgelegt wurden, als ‚eher Englisch‘ oder ‚Englisch‘.