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Functions of anglicisms in the German YouTube format PULS
Reportage

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List of abbreviations:

PRC.....	<i>PULS Reportage Corpus</i> (corpus compiled for the present study)
SO.....	Structural <i>Okay</i> (<i>okay</i> is used as a structural discourse marker)
AO.....	Action-inducing <i>Okay</i> (the discourse marker <i>okay</i> is used to elicit a reaction)
RO.....	Responsive <i>Okay</i> (the discourse marker <i>okay</i> is used in reaction to an utterance)

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1. Introduction

As Onysko (2004: 59) points out, the presence of anglicisms in German underscores the global significance of the English language. In the process of reviewing literature on anglicisms in German, I noted the scarcity of research on anglicism usage in contexts of spoken German compared to written German, which is relatively well-researched (e.g., Onysko 2007). My study aims to contribute to the rather small body of research on this specific topic.

This master's thesis includes an empirical study examining transcripts from the German YouTube documentary series *PULS Reportage*. Each episode showcases the respective hosts' experiences engaging in various activities and appears to feature stretches of unscripted speech. Five episodes of the *PULS Reportage* will be transformed into a corpus (*PULS Reportage* Corpus: PRC), which will subsequently be coded manually with regard to different parameters.

The following five research-framework questions are intended to direct the literature review and provide essential background information on anglicisms. While fully answering these research-framework questions is beyond the scope of a master's thesis, they aim to establish a foundation for the empirical study.

- I) How can anglicisms be defined and classified?
- II) What are the factors promoting the emergence of anglicisms?
- III) Which functions do anglicisms fulfil?
- IV) How are anglicisms represented in the German language?
- V) Which semantic categories specifically attract anglicisms?

The central aim of this empirical project is to answer the research questions I and II (see below). These research questions guide the analysis of anglicisms in the PRC (see Appendix A/Anglicism List for a compilation of relevant PRC excerpts and Bibliography/Primary Sources). Research question II constitutes an additional research question that emerged within the process of analysing the initial quantitative results.

- I) How are anglicisms used in selected excerpts of spoken German in the *PULS Reportage* Corpus (PRC) with regard to
 - their frequency?
 - anglicism-type membership?
 - their semantic function?
 - motivations triggering their use?
 - emotional expressiveness?
 - ritualistic function?
- II) Which functions does the anglicism *okay* exert in the PRC?

The thesis sets out with a theoretical discussion of different approaches toward the concept of anglicisms (section 2.1). A more refined angle on anglicisms will be adopted in section 2.2, distinguishing between different manifestations of this linguistic phenomenon and introducing the distinction between core and borderline anglicisms (section 2.2.1) (Onysko 2007). Section 2 also presents a working definition of *anglicism* and, drawing from the theoretical discussion in this section, presents a coding manual (section 2.2.2) as a scaffolding for the empirical study. Finally, section 2.2.3 examines different types of assimilation of anglicisms to the receptor language. Section 3.1 delves into the functions of anglicisms and factors that may contribute to their distribution, whereas section 3.2 reports on studies on anglicism frequencies and their attraction to various semantic categories across German media. Section 4 describes the method adopted in the present empirical study. Section 5 represents the heart of this project, revealing the results of the analysis of the PRC and discussing them. This section encompasses the results from the quantitative data analysis (section 5.1) and categorization of anglicisms in the PRC into anglicism types (section 5.2). Section 5.3 discusses semantic category membership of the anglicisms examined and possible motivators triggering the use of anglicisms in the PRC. Section 5.4 contains an examination of the functions of anglicisms in the PRC on the level of emotional expressiveness (section 5.4.1) and ritualistic communication (section 5.4.2). The functions of the anglicism *okay* are examined in section 5.4.3. Finally, the conclusion section (section 6) summarizes the most important findings produced in this thesis.

2. Defining *anglicism*

This section seeks to discuss the term *anglicism* (section 2.1) and the distinct categories it encompasses (2.2). Furthermore, it aims to develop a coding manual tailored to the objectives of this study and formulate a working definition for the concept of anglicisms (2.2.2). The definition extracted from this exploration of models of anglicisms is necessary when it comes to distinguishing between anglicisms and non-anglicisms in the empirical project. Finally, section 2.2.3 briefly explores different mechanisms of adaptation anglicisms might experience in the course of their incorporation into the receptor language.

2.1 Approaching the concept of anglicisms

Anglicism typically refers to English terms that are used in a language other than English as exemplified in the German *Das ist nice!* (English: *this is nice!*). Upon closer scrutiny, however, it appears that despite a seemingly straightforward definition, boundaries encapsulating this heterogeneous linguistic category are far from clear (Onysko 2007: 10). Onysko (2007: 90) treats *anglicism* as a hypernym encompassing English forms occurring in German and emphasizes that the respective linguistic items' phonological, lexical, and structural ties to English form are a decisive criterion for the identification of anglicisms.

While conceptualising anglicisms as a homogenous, clearly delineated category would of course be beneficial to the identification of anglicisms, literature on this subject area of linguistics shows that *anglicism* is a rather vague term. Understanding the complexity of the concept of anglicisms and determining which occurrences qualify as anglicisms is essential for establishing a transparent coding scheme for the empirical study. Scholars such as Onysko (2007) and Filipović (2000) provide distinct perspectives on anglicisms, which underscores the ambiguity surrounding the concept. According to Onysko (2007: 90) borrowings (e.g., *supervisor*), code-switching, hybrid anglicisms (e.g., *Influencer Werbung*), and pseudo anglicisms (e.g., German *Handy*) constitute the core of the category of anglicisms, whereas interference (lexical/syntactic) and unobtrusive borrowing are referred to as borderline anglicisms (cf. section 2.2.2 for definitions of terminology). This categorization will be of great importance for the empirical study at the centre of this master's thesis (see section 2.2.). Similar to Onysko's (2007: 10) seemingly simple definition of *anglicism*, Filipović's (2000: 205) basic and narrow definition of the term *anglicism* describes *anglicism* as a borrowed word transferred from English to its source language. However, a more detailed analysis of these two definitions of *anglicism* shows that there seems to be no consensus on whether this transfer involves any process of adaptation to the receptor language; for example, Onysko (2007: 90) posits code-switches, which are characterized by a lack of adaptation to the receptor language (see section 2.2), as members of the category of anglicisms. In contrast, Filipović's (2000: 205) basic and narrow definition stresses that anglicisms assimilate to the receptor language to ensure successful incorporation into the receptor language's system. Hence, depending on the definition of *anglicism* one adopts, certain language phenomena might be excluded from this category. This observation is relevant to the selection of a suitable framework for the corpus study in section 5; The material analysed in this project exhibits several instances of code-switching. I decided to utilize a broader perspective on anglicisms, allocating instances of code-switching to the category of anglicisms. This decision does not imply that one anglicism-framework is superior to another; it is a pragmatic choice. As a student fluent in English, I expect that relying on English form as the main criterion for identifying anglicisms will ensure an efficient and consistent coding procedure. Therefore, in this study, also code-switches, co-occurrences of English forms featured in predominantly German conversation transcribed in the PRC, are treated as anglicisms. A more detailed discussion of the development of a coding-framework is provided in section 2.2.

Furthermore, this master's thesis repeatedly refers to *English word*, *English item*, *English* et cetera; the question arises which terms would qualify to co-occur with the modifier *English* in this context. Thus, it is imperative to articulate a clear rationale for the categorization of an item as English. Filipović (2000: 205) provides an approach elaborating on the use of *English* as a

modifier in this context and respecting the variety of etymological roots of borrowed terms. In this description of anglicisms, Filipović (2000: 206) refines the term *English word* and notes that anglicisms do not necessarily have to be of Anglo-Saxon descent. According to this conceptualization of anglicisms, *anglicism* also refers to items assimilated into the English lexicon and linguistic system that have been borrowed from a language other than English. Such items refer to “an object or a concept which is at the moment of borrowing an integral part of English culture and civilization; it need not be of English origin” (Filipović 2000: 206). Filipović (2000: 213) differentiates between two descriptors of anglicism etymology: primary and secondary etymology. The latter points to the anglicism’s pendant in the source language, English. Primary etymology, also known as historical etymology, describes the initial origin of the English item. For this thesis, the classification of linguistic material is dependent solely on its secondary etymology. Henceforth, *English item/word/concept*, or any related expressions will be used in alignment with Filipović’s (2000: 206) conceptualization of *anglicism* that focuses on secondary etymology, including linguistic material that has been previously borrowed by English.

This short introduction to the term *anglicism* already implies that its definition is not readily discernible. While the following section is dedicated to discussing and underscoring the concept’s manifold characteristics, the ultimate goal remains to reach at a working definition of the term *anglicism* for this project.

2.2 Different types of anglicisms

An in-depth examination of the various perspectives on classifications of anglicisms or language contact in general extends beyond the scope of this thesis, which primarily centres on the functional aspects of anglicisms in spoken discourse. Nonetheless, it seems reasonable to extract some of the distinctions made in the classification of anglicisms and examine them in as much detail as the present project would allow. This review is intended to highlight the aspects considered in the selection of a suitable framework for this project.

In the opening section, 2.2.1, different modes of linguistic item or model transfer are discussed. This project is deeply rooted in Onysko’s (2007: 89) conceptualization of anglicisms as his definition of anglicisms emphasizes linguistic form, the key criterion in the identification of anglicisms in the corpus study. Onysko’s (2007: 90) distinction between core and borderline anglicisms will therefore also be discussed in greater detail in section 2.2.1. Section 2.2.2 summarizes the main findings corroborated in section 2.2.1 in a chart that will be utilized as a coding manual for the empirical study and encompasses the working definition of *anglicism*

utilized in the ensuing analysis. Section 2.2.3 discusses different forms of adaptation linguistic items might experience in the process of transfer to a receptor language.

2.2.1 Core and borderline anglicisms

Depending on the parameter *retention of linguistic form*, Onysko (2007: 90) distinguishes between core anglicisms and borderline anglicisms. Borrowings, code-switching, hybrid anglicisms, and pseudo anglicisms are cases of core anglicisms. These types of anglicisms are classified as formally marked since they exhibit visible or audible traces of the source language English. Borderline anglicisms, on the other hand, are formally unmarked. This category includes lexical interference, syntactic interference, and unobtrusive borrowing (see figure 1).

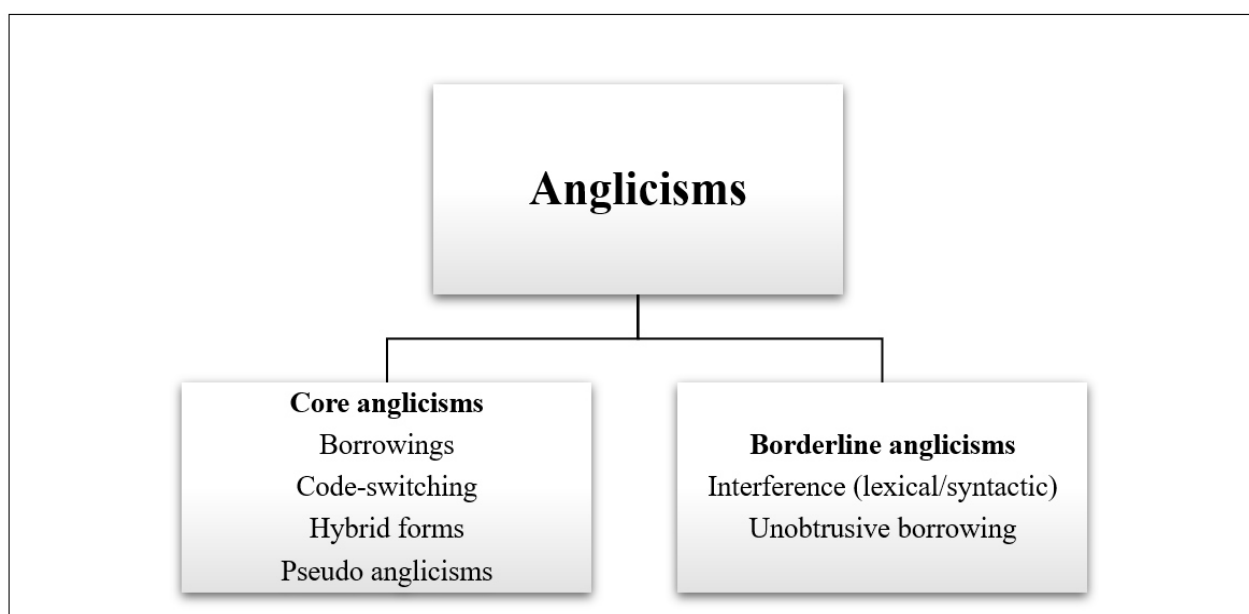


Figure 1. Core and borderline anglicisms (Onysko 2007: 90). Onysko (2007: 90) assumes that anglicisms can be divided into two primary classes, core anglicisms and those occupying the periphery of this linguistic category, borderline anglicisms. Borrowings, code-switching, hybrid anglicisms, and pseudo anglicisms form the core of anglicisms, whereas lexical interference, syntactic interference, and unobtrusive borrowing are considered borderline anglicisms.

The visualization above depicts this conceptualization of anglicisms as a linguistic category that can be subdivided into core and borderline anglicisms (figure 1). The remainder of section 2.2.1 is intended to elaborate on these different manifestations of anglicisms.

a) Borrowings and lexical interference

The term *borrowing* refers to the process of assimilating a linguistic item from one into another language (e.g., the transfer of *internet*: source language: English: *the internet*, receptor language: German: *das Internet*) and to the actual linguistic item undergoing this process (*internet*) (Fischer 2008: 6). Borrowings can take place on the level of syntax, phonology, morphology, and semantics (Onysko 2007: 90); however, Fischer (2008: 6) points out that *borrowing* is commonly associated with the transfer of word-meaning pairs; this approach will also be adopted in the present study. The term *borrowing*, while well-established, has become a target of some

criticism. Matras (2020: 158) deems it rather metaphorical in nature and slightly misleading. First of all, users of borrowings might not be aware of the linguistic item's origin, hence, these language users are not consciously borrowing from a language. Secondly, the process of linguistic borrowing does not involve returning any linguistic items to their donor language. Because of the rather misleading aura surrounding the term *borrowing*, Matras (2020: 158) proposes to use *replication* as an alternative. However, since *borrowing* is such a widely used term in linguistics, I will proceed to employ it in the subsequent sections.

Having established that borrowings are rather concerned with a form of replication of linguistic material in the receptor language, as opposed to literal instances of borrowing, the subsequent discussion revolves around their diverse nature. Emphasizing the complex nature of differentiating borrowings from code-switching (see below), Matras (2020: 119) attempts to define the “prototypical, least controversial kind of borrowing” and thereby lists integration on the structural level and regular occurrence as defining features. Additionally, the prototypical manifestation of borrowing tends to be used in monolingual contexts. Prototypical borrowings may also refer to a unique referent. Institution terms or items that lack a synonymous term in the receptor language are examples of unique referents and prime candidates for prototypical borrowing. Anglicism-borrowings can be classified as unique referents when, in comparison to linguistic items from the receptor language, the English expression encapsulates the concept intended to be conveyed more closely. An example representing this category would be the English compound *year one* when referring to English speaking school systems as in “Da war ich [...] in year one” (German: “That was when I was in year one”). The speaker has attended a school where the English counting scheme applies. Due to the lack of a direct correlation in the German school environment, using the term *year one* appears the most suitable. The specific conceptualization of *year one* referred to in this example is unique to the English grade system (Matras 2020: 36) (also see *necessary borrowings* below). Furthermore, Schlobinski (2001: 41) agrees that for some concepts, English terms seem more successful at capturing the meaning of a referent than possible German translations of the expression. Schlobinski (2001: 241) provides the translation *Einleser* for English *scanner* as an example of a Germanification that would decrease linguistic specificity.

Borrowings may also occur in contexts, where an equivalent in the receptor language would be available. Carstensen (1965: n.p., cited in Coats 2019: 259) employs the terms *luxury borrowing* and *necessary borrowing* to categorize anglicisms with regard to their level of necessity. The former serve to denote a concept that could be expressed by German lexical items (e.g., *stylish* versus *modisch*). Necessary borrowings, on the other hand, are anglicisms lacking a German

equivalent. The fact that cases of luxury anglicisms also add to the doublet-repertoire (e.g., *Team-Arbeitsgruppe*, *Job-Beruf*) of the receptor language might present anglicisms as unnecessary extension of language and thus, cast a negative light on anglicisms. However, Schäfer (2002: 78-79) argues that the presence of a variety of expressions denoting a similar concept enables language users to opt between different language styles. The necessary versus luxury distinction is analogous to Onysko's (2007: 321) theory of denotative and connotative needs. Onysko's (2007: 321) study, touching upon potential uses of anglicisms, distinguishes between connotative and denotative needs triggering the use of anglicisms. Denotative needs are at play when anglicisms are used due to the absence of a German equivalent. Hence, these anglicisms would be labelled as *necessary borrowings* (cf. Carstensen 1965: n.p., cited in Coats 2019: 259). Luxury borrowings or anglicisms are used as a result of connotative needs if they are intended to evoke the connotations attached to English (e.g., English is associated with modernity) (cf. Carstensen 1965: n.p., cited in Coats 2019: 259). Despite the terminological distinctions seeming synonymous, it is still advisable to select one terminological frame so as to ensure coherence. Given the prevalence of Onysko's (2007) definition of *anglicism* in this master's thesis, incorporating the labels *denotative needs* and *connotative needs* for the analysis of potential motivators prompting the utilization of anglicisms seems justified. In the present study, the exact reasons why speakers use an anglicism cannot be evaluated; such an endeavour would potentially involve interviews and analyses of speakers' idiolect. In this project, the distinction between denotative and connotative needs is based on the absence or existence of a German equivalent of an anglicism.

As approaches toward the categorization of borrowings vary, it is important to evaluate which forms of language contact would be labelled as borrowings and consequently also qualify as anglicisms in this study. One can distinguish between semantic and lexical borrowings, the latter might also be referred to as *loans* or *loan words*. *Lexical borrowing* concerns the process of introducing a form- (parts of) meaning combination from the source to the target language. Some scholars might also use the term *direct/integral borrowing* to refer to lexical borrowings. *Semantic borrowing* refers to the process of importing meaning but not linguistic form from one language into another (Fischer 2008: 6).

The term *semantic borrowings* functions as an umbrella term for the phenomena loan formations and loan meanings (see figure 2, Fisher's framework). The category of *loan meanings* would encompass words that experience meaning extension in the target language. An example for a case of loan meaning language contact is the meaning extension of German *Maus*. *Maus* primarily denotes mouse/a small rodent but also computer mouse. This meaning extension has

been triggered by the polysemy of English *mouse* (*mouse*=computer mouse and rodent) (Fischer 2008: 6). As stated in the beginning of section 2, borrowings constitute one of the core-anglicism classes (Onysko 2007: 90) that will be focused on in this study; however, Onysko (2007: 21) does not approve of the use of the term *loan meaning* as a form of borrowing. According to Onysko (2007: 79), it is in the nature of borrowing that a combination of source language meaning, and source language form is transferred to the receptor language.

Onysko (2007: 90, 79-80, 19-21) applies the term *semantic interference* to refer to scenarios where lexical knowledge of the source language interferes with the semantic expression of lexical forms from the receptor language. Semantic interference can have a lasting effect on a language's lexis as in the case of English *realise* (primary semantemes: *become aware of/fulfil*) and German *realisieren*. The core meaning of German *realisieren* (*fulfil*) has been extended to *fulfil* and *become aware of*. This extension of meaning can be associated with the interference of English *realise*, predominantly denoting *become aware of* and *fulfil* (Picone 1996: 4, cited in Onysko 2007: 19, Onysko 2007: 19-21). The principle of semantic interference can further be studied in *false friends*, pairs of linguistic signs between two languages that are not equal on the denotative level. Due to the formal similarity between two items, the sign's meaning in language A is mistakably applied to a word similar only in form from language B. This phenomenon can be observed when speakers of German use the word *sensibel* to denote *sensitive* in English. The meaning of German *sensibel* (English: *sensitive*) has been applied to the formal, but not semantic equivalent in English, *sensible*. Semantic interference may thus affect a language's system (e.g., the meaning extensions of German *realisieren* and German *Maus*) or occur in individual speech events (e.g., language use mistakes associated with linguistic false friends) (Picone 1996: 4, cited in Onysko 2007: 19, Onysko 2007: 19-21). It has been presented that loan meanings (*semantic interference*), as a form of semantic borrowing, do not affect the form of linguistic items, thus, in the form-dependent framework chosen for this study, loan meanings are excluded from the category of borrowings (Onysko 2007: 90, 19-21). The question remains whether loan formations, also termed as occurrences of semantic borrowings by Fischer (2008: 6), would occupy a position at the centre of the category of anglicisms, or, akin to loan meanings/semantic interference (Onysko 2007: 19-21), be situated at the periphery of this linguistic category (borderline anglicism).

Types of semantic borrowings belonging to the category of loan formations are loan translations, loan rendition/rendering, and loan creation. Loan translation occurs when an item from the source language is translated into the target language as applies for German *Bildverarbeitung* from English *picture processing*. The terms *loan rendition* or *loan rendering* refers to a partial

translation as in German *Taktfrequenz* from English *clock frequency*. Finally, *loan creation*, is used to label free translations such as German *Klimaanlage* from English *air-conditioning* (Fischer 2008: 6).

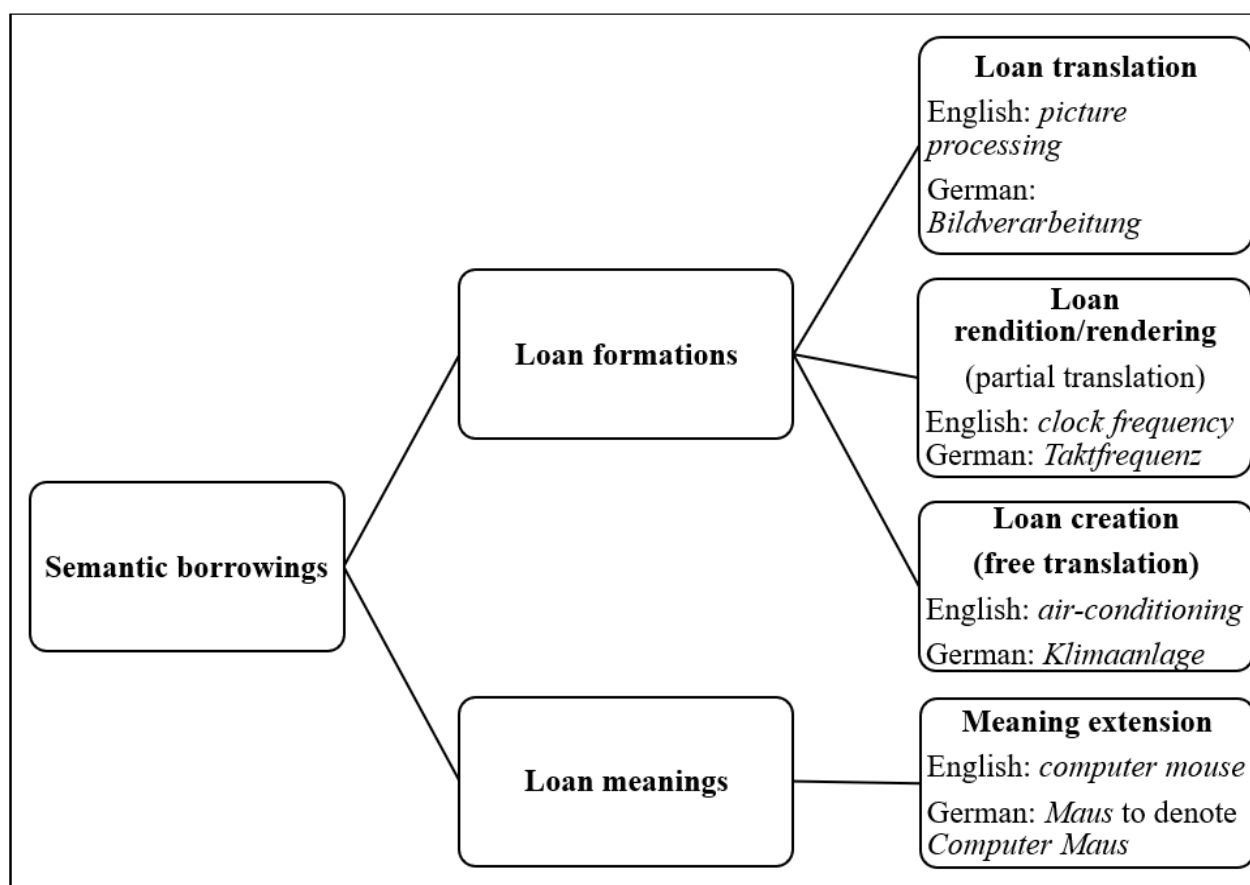


Figure 2. Potential categorization of semantic borrowings (Fischer 2008: 6). Fischer's (2008: 6) categorization framework of semantic borrowings shows that semantic borrowings can be further subdivided into *loan formations* and *loan meanings*. *Loan formation* encompasses loan translations, loan rendition/rendering and loan creation.

The above figure depicts Fischer's (2008: 6) framework of semantic borrowings, highlighting the various forms of borrowings this category comprises of in Fischer's view.

However, as a glance into Onysko's (2007: 79-80) list of assumptions about borrowings confirms, the terminology used to describe different forms of interlinguistic transmission is not uniform. Onysko (2007: 79-80) distinguishes between borrowings and *conceptual transmission without source language form*, the latter also encompassing loan translations, loan renditions, and loan creations. Hence, Fischer's (2008: 6) category of *loan formation* comprises of the same subcategories as Onysko's (2007: 79-80) *conceptual transmission without source language form*. While Fischer's (2008: 6) *loan formation* is included within the category of borrowings, Onysko (2007: 79-80) allocates the same forms of language contact to a distinct category separate from borrowings (*conceptual transmission without source language form*). Language contact that entails linguistic creation in the receptor language (e.g., (partial) translation as in *picture processing* → *Bildverarbeitung*) does not meet the requirements for classification as typical

borrowings as only semantic material has been transferred as opposed to word-meaning *pairs* (Fischer 2008: 6; Onysko 2007: 58). This line of argumentation would result in a categorization framework that does neither present loan formations nor loan meanings as typical forms of borrowings or core anglicisms, which essentially exhibit traces of the source language on the level of form (Onysko 2007: 89) (See discussion on receptor language internal processes of creation in the section on hybrid anglicisms below). Furthermore, Onysko (2007: 80) critically remarks that the respective word's etymology and cultural-historical background would have to be investigated to clearly identify cases of *conceptual transmission* without source language form or what Fischer (2008: 6) terms *loan formation* as a form of semantic borrowing.

In this project, cases of semantic borrowing will not be categorized as borrowings or anglicisms in general; their identification, lacking clear clues from linguistic item's form, would exceed the scope of this study. As Schaefer (2021: 571) points out in her study on anglicisms in the radio discourse, traces of English orthography and phonology “are most likely perceived as anglicisms by radio journalists”. I dare to posit that utilizing terms such as *Maus* to refer to a computer mouse does hardly involve speaker's conscious decision to employ an anglicism. Following this line of argumentation, it could be assumed that semantic borrowings would most likely not be perceived as English forms by language users. Therefore, only cases of lexical borrowings will be considered as types of anglicism in this study. Figure 3 presents a revised framework of Onysko's (2007:90) categorization framework. Cases of interference on the lexical level (*conceptual transmission without source language form/loan formations* and *semantic interference/loan meanings*) are not coded as core anglicism as neither of these phenomena involve the transfer of source-language form.

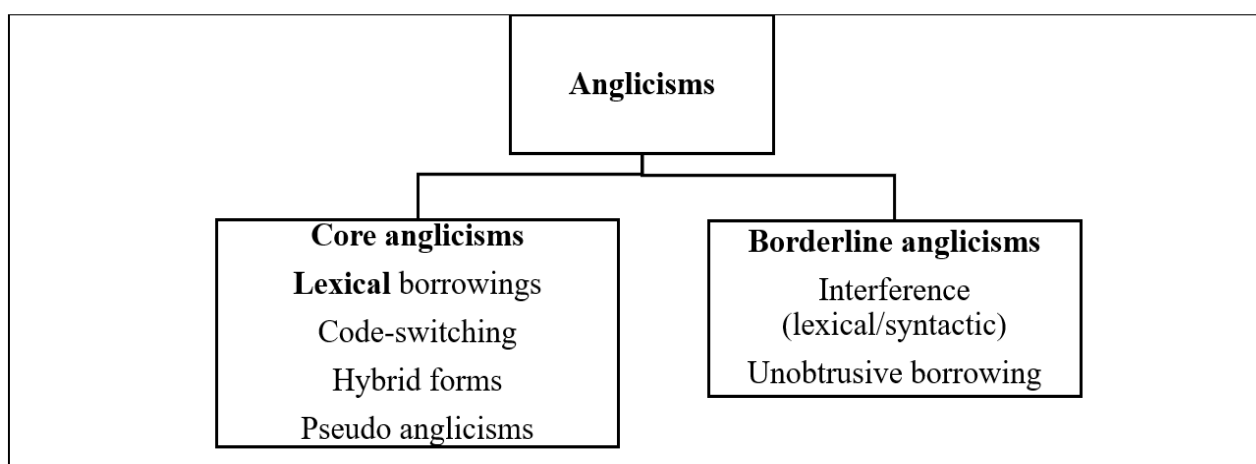


Figure 3. Revised framework of core and borderline anglicisms. The category of borrowings has been further specified by using the modifier *lexical* (cf. Onysko 2007: 90 & Fischer 2008: 6).

As figure 3 shows, based on the assumption that the identification of anglicisms gives priority to formal criteria, only lexical, as opposed to semantic borrowings, are treated as instances of core anglicisms.

Furthermore, figure 3 proposes two types of borderline anglicisms, *interference* and *unobtrusive borrowings*. While the former has been previously examined, further discussion is warranted for the term *unobtrusive borrowing*. *Unobtrusive borrowing* also refers to borrowings that cannot be detected through formal clues. Terms like *Test* or *Film* exhibit no formal difference across German and English. Such lexical items unobtrusively blend into the receptor language German (Onysko 2007: 75-76); they do not diverge from German orthography. However, examples like *Computer* or *Interview*, also maintain their base form in the course of borrowing but can still be recognized as English linguistic material. Subtle hints on orthographical and phonological level expose the terms' English heritage (e.g., the second syllable in *Computer* is usually realized as /'pju:/ instead of adapting it to German phonological patterns /pu:/). The items do not adapt to the German graphemic-phonemic system and can still be easily identified as English; hence, they would be coded as core anglicisms, or more specifically, lexical borrowings, in this study. *Film* and *Test*, despite no obvious adaptation to the German language, seamlessly blend into the German linguistic system, and thus, they do not stand out as foreign language material. According to Onysko (2007: 75-76), examining the inflectional behaviour of such unobtrusive borrowings might offer some clues about their source language; for example, *Test* inflects into the plural form by addition of the English plural marker -s. However, this is not always a reliable indicator as can be seen in the plural of *Film* (*Film* + German plural marker -e → *Filme*). Determining whether a borrowing would be perceived as unobtrusive or not is not straightforward. Whether a word, for instance, is realized following English or German phonological patterns can also depend on the speaker's linguistic proficiency (Onysko 2007: 75-76).

Furthermore, Wenliang (1990: 25) also enumerates clearly Germanized items such as *Streik* or *TV* (pronounced as [te fau] instead of [ti:vi:]) as anglicisms. *Streik* and *TV* are listed under the term *borderline anglicisms*; borderline anglicisms that exhibit such extents of assimilation have not been coded as anglicisms in Onysko's (2007: 108) examination of *Der Spiegel*. Linguistic elements that have already experienced a greater amount of formal assimilation or naturally blend into the German orthographic and phonological system (e.g., *Test*) will not be coded as anglicisms in this study. The determination of whether an item can be detected as English transference is rather subjective; In the case of less clear-cut instances of borrowings, each

occurrence will be discussed with regard to the level of assimilation and foreignness determined individually (see 4.2.1 on unclear cases of formally markedness in the PRC).

b) Code-switching

Another manifestation of language contact, which is also classified as core anglicism in Onysko's (2007) framework, is referred to as *code-switching*. Clyne (2003: 70-71) critically observes that recent literature is indecisive on how to clearly differentiate between cases of borrowings and instances of code-switching. Some approaches view borrowing as a subset of code-switching; however, the category of code-switching might also be conceptualized in contrast to borrowings. The following discussion shows that while a distinction between code-switching and borrowing is plausible, the two categories seem to share a semipermeable boundary.

Code-switching typically occurs when sentential units from the source language are transplanted into the receptor language's environment. In contrast to borrowings, which assimilate to the linguistic structure of the receptor language, code-switching adheres to the rules of syntax of the source language; Consequently, code-switching requires multilingual competence (Onysko 2007: 80). While Onysko's (2007: 80) definition of code-switching conceptualizes code-switching in contrast to borrowing, referring to Clyne (2003: 71), Onysko (2007: 80) agrees that "code-switching and borrowing form a continuum of usage" (Onysko 2007: 80), rejecting a strict code-switching-versus-borrowing distinction (Onysko 2007: 80). Matras (2020: 119) also promotes the idea of a code-switching-borrowing continuum and notes that several factors, assembled along a continuum, would have to be investigated when determining whether a linguistic element should be considered an example of either borrowing or code-switching.

For the analysis of the present corpus, it is also necessary to mention that code-switching can extend to the transfer of single-word elements (see section 5.2). Differentiating between borrowing and single-word code-switching poses certain challenges. In some studies, the identification of borrowings and code-switching is guided by the respective linguistic item's frequency. Commenting on this method, Matras (2020: 112) notes that the lack of a consistent criterion for measuring the frequency of a specific form renders this approach less reliable. Within the field of general linguistics, it is common to refer to the diachronic dimension of transferred items when discriminating between single-word insertions as representations of either code-switching or borrowing. Borrowings traditionally contribute to the receptor language's lexis or structure, whereas code-switching is characterized by spontaneity and the necessity of bilingual competence. One could therefore conclude that a defining feature of borrowings as opposed to code-switches is that they have undergone incorporation into the receptor's lexis and

linguistic structure (Matras 2020: 112-119). While acknowledging the difficulties involved in distinguishing code-switches from borrowings, Matras (2020: 112-119) notes that the prototypical code-switch is intentionally performed by the bilingual speaker and opted for to achieve a stylistic effect. Schaefer (2021: 574) also observes a stylistic dimension in the use of single word code-switches in her analysis of German radio language. In the radio corpus, single-word code-switches serve to add an “original and authentic undertone”, underscore the user’s emotional state, and, accentuate the cultural authenticity of the situation in focus, or as a discourse marker. Matras (2012: 112-119) further postulates that this shift between two languages can be located at the utterance level and usually takes place only once. Although Onysko (2007: 80) agrees that the lack of syntactic assimilation impedes the reproducibility of code-switches, he admits that code-switches are not generally immune to incorporation into the receptor language system as a consequence of lexicalization. Code-switches, usually shorter ones, may also be incorporated into the source language’s matrix lexicon (Onysko 2007: 80). As discussed thus far, the distinction between borrowings and code-switches appears rather blurred.

Beyond these challenges inherent in differentiating between these two manifestations of linguistic transfer, different types of code-switches add to the complexity of this linguistic phenomenon. Clyne (2003: 84) refers to Poplack as one of the pioneers in the examination of universal constraints on code-switching. Poplack (1993: 255-256) notes that code-switching may manifest in a diversity of linguistic forms, for example, on the sentential- and intrasentential-level. Sentential code-switching refers to the source-to-receptor language transfer of a whole sentence, whereas intrasentential code-switches occur when code-switching takes place within a sentence. According to Poplack (1993: 255), code-switching material is “internally consistent with the morphological and syntactic (and optionally, phonological) rules of the language of its provenance”. The collocative behaviour of embedded sentence fragments is governed by grammatical rules of the receptor language (Poplack 1993: 256). However, the present study does not explicitly code code-switches with regard to their syntactic compositions due to the project’s primary focus on anglicisms’ semantic categories and functions.

In summary, this comparison of borrowings and code-switches shows that they present central sub-categories of language contact. The demarcation between them is not always unambiguous. The key features of prototypical borrowings and code-switches will guide the categorization of anglicisms in the present study (see coding manual, section 2.2.2).

c) Syntactic interference

Syntactic interference is similar to code-switching as it requires the language user’s competence in the receptor language and source language (Onysko 2007: 88). As discussed earlier,

interference entails the alternation of linguistic performances in language A (e.g., German) guided by the language user's knowledge of language B (e.g., English) (Onysko 2007: 19-21). Syntactic interference, as defined by Marita and Jufrizal (2021: 168), involves the bilingual speaker's appliance of syntactic structure from the source language to the receptor language. Schäfer (2002: 76) lists some examples of collocation patterns found in German that seem to stem from English, for example, *Ich bin Sonja* mirroring the English pattern *I am Sonja*, instead of *Ich heiße Sonja*.

In the context of pure syntactic interference, the linguistic items employed exclusively stem from the receptor language, hindering a clear identification of the source of syntactic compositions. The absence of formal clues on the word level from the source language led Onysko (2007: 90) to allocate syntactic interference to the category of borderline anglicisms, which will not be analysed in this study.

d) Hybrid anglicisms

The category *hybrid anglicisms* encompasses words composed of German elements and borrowings of English descent such as the German *Zukunftstrip* (i.e., English *future* + English *trip*). While inflection of anglicisms might also create forms containing German and English morphemes as in German *gesurft*, which combines the anglicism *surf* with the German past participle prefix *ge-* (cf., 2.2.4. Forms of adaptation *transmorphemisation*), hybridity usually refers to instances of derivation. Such derivational processes could involve, inter alia, the compounding of free morphemes from the receptor and the source language (Onysko 2007: 55).

Discerning hybrid anglicisms may not always be immediately evident as certain hybrid anglicisms bear some similarities to borrowings on the surface level. It could be hypothesised that English might have acted as a model for selected hybrid anglicisms such as German *Heimcomputer* (*home computer*) or *Krisenmanagement* (*crisis management*). Provided this was the case, one might argue that these hybrid anglicisms could be categorized as borrowings as a transfer of form and meaning has been executed, followed by partial substitution of the English model in the receptor language (*Home computer* → *Heimcomputer*) (Onysko 2007: 58). However, figure 3, the scaffolding of the coding scheme for this master's thesis, clearly depicts borrowings as a category distinct from hybrid anglicisms (Onysko 2007: 90). Onysko (2007: 58), postulates that *Heimcomputer* and similar cases should not be deemed borrowings, as in contrast to borrowings, the emergence of such compounds is preceded by strategies within the receptor language, which he also refers to as *partial translation*. In cases such as *Heimcomputer* or *Krisenmanagement*, the English component constitutes a well-established anglicism that tends to display immunity against translation in various lexical contexts. Hybrid anglicisms and similar

forms of replacements (e.g., loan formations), derive from receptor language internal partial lexical creation.

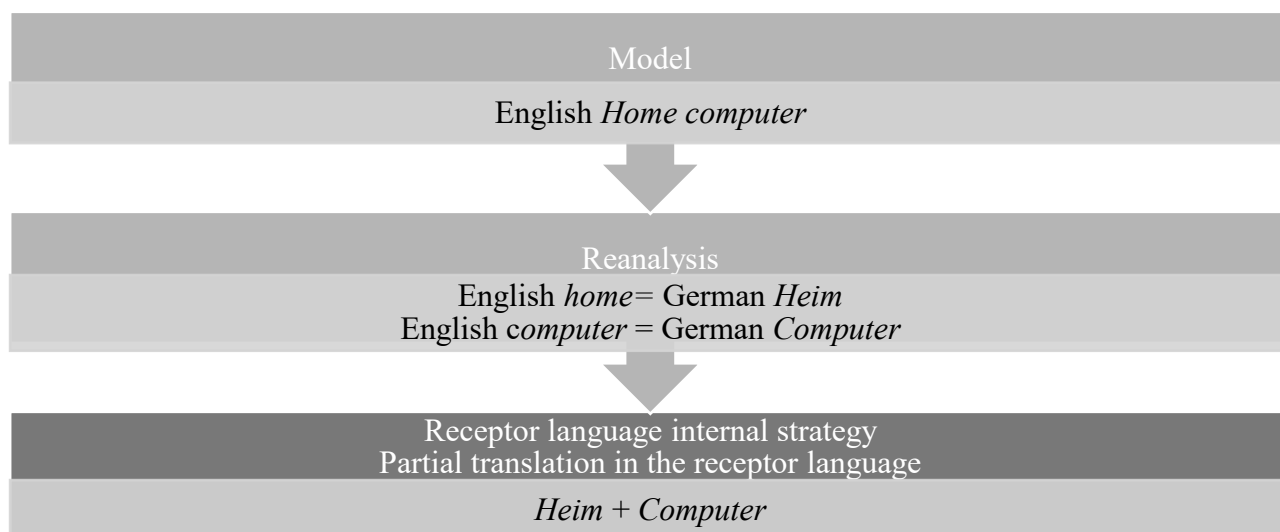


Figure 4. Linguistic innovation in the receptor language (Onysko 2007: 58). Hybridisation involves linguistic creation in the receptor language (Onysko 2007: 58).

Figure 4 illustrates Onysko's (2007: 58) proposed path of development for hybrid anglicisms following a source-language model. English *home computer* is used as a model for the German equivalent. The compound is reanalysed in the receptor language and partially translated, generating the German hybrid anglicism *Heimcomputer*. The same principle would apply to other hybrid anglicisms (e.g., German *Demokratiemanagement* from English *democracy management*). A criterion that characterizes hybrid anglicisms following an English model as opposed to borrowings, partial translation, has been identified, aiding in establishing a clearer demarcation between the two manifestations of language contact.

In summary, the term *hybrid anglicism* inherently carries the implication of hybridity. In contrast to borrowings, hybrid anglicisms are concerned with derivational processes in the receptor language combining items from both the source and the receptor language (Onysko 2007: 55-58).

e) Pseudo anglicisms

Items can be allocated to the core category *pseudo anglicisms* (Onysko 2007: 90) or in more general terms, *pseudo borrowings*, if borrowed linguistic material acquires new uses in the target language that cannot be found in the source language (Fischer 2008: 7). Onysko (2007: 54) refers to pseudo anglicisms as innovative constructions in the receptor language drawing from English linguistic material. The presence of pseudo anglicisms in German can be regarded as an indicator for the popularity and the acceptance of English in German-speaking communities. In the case of pseudo anglicisms, there is no apparent indicator of language contact between English and German on the semantic level (Onysko 2007: 54). However, traces of English as a

source language can be detected on the level of word form, which, in Onysko's view (2007: 55), legitimizes the categorization of pseudo-English forms as anglicisms. It should be noted that, similar to other subcategories of anglicisms, classifying pseudo anglicisms remains a complex undertaking, even if one adheres to the narrow conceptualisation of the category. The category informed by the narrow conception of pseudo anglicisms encompasses lexical innovations in the receptor language that exhibit form-related elements retrieved from the source language but not guided by the semantic model of the source language. Missing dictionary registrations of, for example, compounds used in English might mistakeably create the illusion of a form-only replication in the source language although the corresponding meaning is actually also applied in the source language. Onysko (2007: 55) critically observes that "the lack of an entry in an English dictionary is not tantamount to its non-existence in the English language". In the present study, the coder needs to rely on their experience as a proficient speaker of English and dictionary entries for the identification of less apparent pseudo anglicisms. Nevertheless, hybrid anglicisms and pseudo anglicisms represent a category distinct from borrowings due to creational processes in the receptor language. (Onysko 2007: 55-58).

One example of a pseudo anglicism would be German *Handy*, used to refer to a cell phone in German as opposed to its English meaning *convenient for use*. In English, this form is used as an adjective, but in the receptor language German, it is employed as a noun (Onysko 2007: 54). *Handy* not only conveys different grammatical roles between its source and receptor languages but also differs in its meaning. It remains unclear how the German pseudo anglicism is related to English *handy*. It could be hypothesized that their relationship is based on the fact that the English source term can be used to refer to the convenience involved when using a cell phone. In this scenario, a generic name would have evolved from a marginal semantic feature. A potentially more probable theory proposes a relationship between the German pseudo loan *Handy* and English *handset*, *handheld* or *portable* (Onysko 2007: 54).

Pseudo anglicisms can also occur in the form of blends. This subtype of pseudo anglicism combines parts of different English words. An example for this form of language contact are the words *show* and *master* blending into German *Showmaster*, translating into English, originally French, *compère* (Fischer 2008: 7). Hence, two English items have been combined to form a German compound anglicism that is not used in the source language. Again, English is reflected in the items' forms but not in their semantics.

In conclusion, both, pseudo and hybrid anglicisms point towards productivity on the level of lexis in the receptor language. It needs to be noted that one would need to examine the etymology of pseudo anglicisms and hybrid anglicisms to acquire a definite confirmation of the

extent of source-language influence on these forms. Unfortunately, the etymological background of pseudo and hybrid anglicisms is often obscure (Onysko 2007: 52, 56-57, 59 & 13-14) and will not be examined in the context of this study.

2.2.2 Coding manual and working definition

To conclude this discussion of core and borderline anglicisms, table 1 provides an overview of all forms of English-German language contact that will be counted as core anglicisms, along with examples for the respective sub-categories identified. The distinction connotative versus denotative needs was extended from lexical borrowings to the other categories of core anglicisms examined in this study. For each instance of anglicism, the coder examined whether speakers could have used a German alternative. This extension was made because understanding whether anglicism use is triggered by limitations of the receptor language or by connotative needs is a key interest of this study.

Table 1. Comprehensive depiction of forms of core anglicisms. This table serves as a coding manual for the analysis of anglicisms in the present study. This table features the main categories of core anglicisms: lexical borrowings, code-switching, hybrid anglicisms, and pseudo anglicisms. The distinction between denotative and connotative need is applied to all forms of core anglicisms in this study. The table also provides corresponding examples from the PRC if available. Code-switches are always connotatively motivated as they represent a switch from German to English, hence, there use is not linked to necessity but rather to stylistic choices.

Core Anglicism	Description	Type of Need	Examples
Lexical borrowing	-assimilation to the structure of the receptor language	Connotative	<i>Job</i> (PRC video 2) (German equivalent: <i>Arbeit, Beruf</i>)
	-incorporated into the lexis of the receptor language	Denotative	<i>Internet</i> (PRC: video 1)
Code-switching	-no assimilation to the structure of the receptor language -mostly sentential units -not incorporated into the lexis of the receptor language	Connotative	Single-word code-switch: <i>Weil du kriegst ja schon auch manchmal schon Hate ab, ne?</i> (PRC: video 5) (German equivalent: <i>Hass, Kritik, Hetze</i>) Multi-word code-switch: <i>I don't know, was das heißt</i> (PRC: video 1) (German equivalent: <i>Ich weiß nicht</i>)
		Denotative	-
Hybrid anglicisms	-Combine English and German elements -involve derivational processes	Connotative	<i>Notbutton</i> (retrieved from PRC: video 3) (German equivalent: <i>Notschalter</i>)

	-receptor language internal lexical creation	Denotative	<i>Internet-Kommunikation</i>
Pseudo anglicisms	-transfer of form -new meaning in the receptor language -receptor language internal lexical creation	Connotative	<i>Handy</i> (PRC: video 4) (German equivalent: <i>Mobiltelefon</i>)
		Denotative	<i>Oldtimer</i>

Table 1 provides short descriptions of each category of core anglicisms, indicating which requirements items have to meet to be allocated to the respective category. Lexical borrowing, code-switching, hybrid anglicisms, and pseudo anglicisms will be classed as core anglicisms in this study and hence, analysed in the course of the empirical project which specifically focuses on formally marked instances of anglicisms, core anglicisms. All core anglicisms will be subdivided into items triggered by denotative or connotative need. In hybrid anglicisms, the analysis only focuses on the English component to determine the type of need responsible for anglicism use. Providing concise explanations and examples for each category of core anglicism, this chart will act as a coding manual guiding the identification of core anglicisms in this empirical project. Further distinctions made with regard to function and semantic categories will be elaborated on in section 4.

Finally, as indicated at the beginning of this section, the exploration of different conceptualisations of anglicisms and anglicism types strives to devise a working definition for identifying anglicisms in the corpus compiled. This excursus into the study of anglicisms and their various sub-categories implies that the debate of how to clearly define anglicisms and their diverse manifestations in language is still open. In light of these considerations, I argue that it would be the most sensible to select an approach that aligns with the requirements of the respective research project. The decision to base this project on a definition determining anglicisms on the level of form is a practical one. Emphasizing form over conceptual transmissions ensures a more efficient coding procedure that falls within the scope of this master's thesis. In most cases, English form can be easily recognized by proficient speakers of English, whereas pure conceptual transmission would necessitate a cultural-historical analysis of the respective items. As a basis for this project, the following definition has been decided upon:

German (core) anglicisms are linguistic elements in German language usage that exhibit orthographical and/or phonological features that reveal the English language as a source language. Instances of language contact constituting the category of core anglicisms include lexical borrowings, code-switching, hybrid anglicisms and pseudo anglicisms.

Hence, the definition adopted here aligns with Onysko's (2007: 90) conceptualization of core anglicisms. For clarity, the term *borrowing* has been further specified by the modifier *lexical*.

2.2.3 Forms of adaptation

While the above discussion provides a concise overview of various types of contact between English and German and determines which forms of English-German language contact will be classed as core anglicism in this study (see working definition), it does not address how transferred elements would actually manifest in the receptor language. Anglicisms might experience different processes of adaptation in the course of their incorporation into the receptor language; as Onysko (2004: 60-62) observes, anglicisms may exhibit traces of German on a structural (e.g., suffixation of Infinitive *driften*, *checken*) (see also Baeskow 2017: 184-196), phonological (e.g., /w/ to /v/: [*v*]alkman, [*v*]elcome, [*v*]ebseite), and orthographical (e.g., capitalisation of nouns: *der Computer*) level. Filipović (1996: 40-45) outlines some of the adaptation processes English source items might undergo when manifesting as an anglicism in the respective receptor languages. The degree of assimilation, which also determines an item's formal traces stemming from the source language, is a key criterion affecting the recognition of anglicisms. Therefore, these classifications offer a valuable basis for the detection and analysis of anglicisms in the present corpus.

Source words functioning as anglicisms can be subject to different levels of *transmorphemisation*, transformation on the morphemic level (Filipović 1996: 42). Anglicisms might be subject to morphological convergence to or morphological divergence from the target language (Onysko 2007: 318). In the case of zero transmorphemisation (cf. Filipović 1980: 1-8, referred to in Filipović 1996: 42), the source word experiences no form of suffixation in the receptor language. Zero transmorphemisation is evident in the example of English *Charleston*, substantive/neutral and Italian *Charleston*, substantive/masculine. *Compromise transmorphemisation* occurs when suffixes from the source word are retained in the transferred word in the receptor language (e.g., English *chopper*, substantive/neutral and Italian *chopper*, substantive/masculine). *Complete transmorphemisation* refers to the replacement of the original suffix with its semantic and functional counterpart in the receptor language (e.g., English *planter* and French *planteur*, substantive/masculine) (Filipović 1996: 42-43). Filipović (1996: 43) further observes that the adaptation of verbal and adjectival anglicisms tends to follow wordformation patterns of the receptor language as in English *to boycott* and the German verb *boykottieren* or English *vegetarian* (substantive) and French *végétarien*, (adjective) (cf. Filipović 1994: 127-143, referred to in Filipović 1996: 43).

The phonological realization of an anglicism depends on the degree of resemblance or dissimilarity between the phonological systems of English as a donor language and the receptor language (Filipović 1996: 42). Given that the systems of pronunciation between English and the receptor language are similar, English source forms do not experience considerable phonological transformation in the course of borrowing as in English *zoom*, /zu:m/ and French *zoom*, /zum/ (Filipović 1996: 42). Filipović (1981: 125-133, referred to in Filipović 1996: 42) uses the term *zero transphonemisation* to describe this phenomenon. *Partial or compromise transphonemisation*, on the other hand, occurs when the two systems of pronunciation only resemble each other partially (English *spot* /spɒt/ and Croatian *spot* /spõt/). The third type of transphonemisation is called free transphonemisation and occurs when constituents of the English source item lack any phonologically equal counterparts in the receptor language (e.g., English *thriller* /'θrɪl.ər/ and Croatian *triler* /triler/) (Filipović 1996: 42).

Orthographical adaptation of source items may exhibit various patterns. The spelling of an anglicism can be governed by its pronunciation (e.g., English *team* /ti:m/ → Croatian *tim*) or the orthography of the word as found in its donor language (English *bard* /ba:d/ → Croatian *bard*). A combination of both the pronunciation and orthography of the borrowed item in its source language can also influence the orthographical form of the anglicism (e.g., English *interview* → Croatian *intervju*). Provided that an English item entered its receptor language through another language, an intermediary language, the orthographical form of the respective anglicism may also be influenced by the intermediary language (e.g., English *check* → French *chèque*, /ʃɛk/ → German *Scheck*) (Filipović 1996: 41). In higher degrees of assimilation, a combination of different forms of adaptation might occur. Such processes might blur the English roots of items transferred to German. For example, English *strike* (cf. Weliang 1990: 25) has been transformed into German *Streik* by means of orthographical adaptation (English *strike* turns into German *Streik*) and partial transphonemisation (English /st/ turns into German /ʃt/).

In conclusion, this brief exploration into the ways foreign linguistic items adapt to the receptor language underscores that the assimilation of these items entails linguistic transformations across various domains of language. As in the current study, the determination of anglicisms is informed by clues on the level of form, extensive assimilation causes an exclusion from the category of anglicisms.

3. The dissemination and functions of anglicisms

This section focuses on the dissemination of anglicisms across the German language. In section 3.1, various aspects promoting the influx of anglicisms and functions they might fulfil in the German language are outlined. As mentioned in section 2, anglicism usage can be promoted by

denotative and connotative needs (Onysko 2007: 321). Due to the relevance of these two concepts to the functional analysis of anglicisms presented in section 5, the following discussion will also address the potential underlying motivators of anglicism usage. Section 3.1 serves as a point of reference for the functional analysis of anglicisms in the PRC.

This empirical study on anglicisms in German spoken discourse as displayed in videos of the *PULS Reportage* further examines the ratio of anglicisms to non-anglicisms in the corpus compiled and semantic category membership of the identified anglicisms. To better interpret the outcome of this subset of the study, findings from previous corpus studies on anglicism quantities and anglicisms' attraction to semantic categories in a variety of German media formats will be consulted and discussed in section 3.2.

3.1 Functions of anglicisms and potential factors promoting their dissemination

While the presence of anglicisms in German such as *Boogie Woogie* is indicative of a discernible impact of English on German dating back to around 1945, Hoffmann (2003: 26) observes that in comparison to fifty years ago, the influx of anglicisms into German has experienced an increase. Hoffmann (2003: 30) even refers to the use of anglicisms as one of the most prominent characteristics of contemporary German.

Language not only reflects its relation to its past but also its current relationships to the environment on the historical and cultural level. This reflection also materializes in the presence of borrowings retrieved from a variety of languages. At present, English is a dominant provider of linguistic material for European languages (Mardari 2019: 85). Focusing on English as a provider of linguistic material, Filipović (1996: 37) even goes as far as stating that English turned from a prominent receptor language into the, as he phrases it, “most generous donor of words to other languages”. However, according to Görlach (2002: 4), anglicisms seldomly acquire a position in the receptor language's core vocabulary. He attributes this circumstance to the observation that the concepts anglicisms denote are often associated with novelty and have a fashionable appeal. These connotations render anglicisms candidates for rapid importation into the receptor language but also make anglicisms susceptible to quick obsolescence. As a consequence, anglicisms are arguably one of the sections of a language's lexical inventory that are the most prone to change (Görlach 2002: 4). Interestingly, depending on language trends, anglicisms might be replaced by other anglicisms (e.g., *hitparade* replaced by *charts*) or items from the receptor language (*groggy* replaced by *kaputt*) (Schäfer 2002: 78). Overall, the prevalence of English items in other languages can be attributed to globalization and modernity (Hoffmann 2003: 26).

Literature on the dissemination of anglicisms proposes phenomena associated with Anglo-American cultures as one of the key generators behind the dissemination of anglicisms. Madari (2018: 342). assigns the Anglo-American culture a role of importance, particularly among the younger generations. The frequent emergence of ‘cool’ trends with American roots could be attributed to the United States’ power wielded in the realms of science and trade. These circumstances also have an impact on language as the influence between two languages is strengthened by tighter connections between two cultures (Mardari 2018: 342). The increasing impact of English on other European languages can also be linked to the accelerated pace of developments on the level of technology, politics, and economy (Fischer 2008: 1). Schaefer (2021: 579) observes that in contrast to linguistic material from other languages, “anglicisms carry a particular cultural reference to consumer culture”.

The United States often serve as a source of innovation, providing a package containing both, the innovative product, and the corresponding English term. This phenomenon is evident in the importation of terms like *E-mail* or *DVD* (*Digital Versatile Disk*). In such cases, a combination of an English item, lacking an equivalent in the German language (e.g., the terms *email* and *DVD*), and a corresponding referent (e.g., email services and the DVD as a physical object) is imported into the German discourse (Hoffmann 2003: 26). In such instances, no corresponding term is coined to refer to the imported concept; hence, such anglicisms are used due to denotative needs (Onysko 2007: 321). The strong influence of US-American and Anglophone cultures is without doubt the underlying force promoting the dissemination of anglicisms across other cultures and their languages (e.g., Fischer 2008: 1, Madari 2018: 342, Hoffmann 2003: 26). To gain a deeper understanding of the distribution of English items across non-English languages, the different domains attracting anglicisms and the functions anglicisms fulfil will be elaborated on in the remainder of this section.

As evident in the importation of terms like *E-mail* and *DVD*, the dissemination of anglicisms can often be attributed to advancements in the field of technology (e.g., Schlobinski 2001, Hoffmann 2003: 26). Modern communication on a global scale is one of the factors promoting the incorporation of foreign linguistic items into a language and English currently occupies a particularly influential position in this context (Mardari 2019: 87). Schlobinski (2001: 255) concurs that modern communication services emerging from the USA have played a significant role in the transfer of specialized English termini within the field of communication technology to non-English receptor languages. However, based on empirical studies, he assures that characterizing this phenomenon as anglicism–“Überflutung oder gar Kolonialisierung” of receptor languages would be an exaggeration.

Nonetheless, there is a perceptible trace of English influence evident in modern communication discourse (see section 3.2) and anglicisms and their functions in texts of modern communication have attracted scholars' interest. Anglicisms fulfil a variety of roles within the context of modern communication technology. Coats' (2019: 277) study on anglicisms in *Twitter* posts (see section 3.2) indicates that denotative need is the driving force behind the importation of several of the most frequent, more novel verbal anglicisms in the *Twitter* corpus. These items can be located in the semantic field of information and communication technology, particularly in the sphere of social media. In their study on anglicism use in German and Croatian internet communication, Vaić and Blažević (2012: 22) propose some functions of anglicism usage in their corpus and list speech economy as one of the main functions of importation of anglicisms. They also argue that some anglicisms (e.g., *happy*, *wow*, *OK*, *sorry*, *cool*, *fan*, *star*, *look*) may contribute to the originality of language use performances and even render them somehow exotic. As these anglicisms could be easily replaced by German terms, connotative needs have been involved in their usage. It is also assumed that individuals may share the intention of showcasing their knowledge of a foreign language when using anglicisms in the excerpts of Croatian and German internet communication analysed (Vaić and Blažević 2012: 22). The three functional positions of anglicisms in the German-Croatian corpus of chat communication include *acronyms within pseudonyms*, *acronyms in expressive speech acts* and *anglicisms in communicative rituals* (i.e. greeting) (Vaić and Blažević 2012: 23), only the latter two could be relevant to the present study as pseudonyms would not be treated as core anglicisms in this master's thesis.

It can further be observed that the influx of anglicisms in languages other than English seems to vary by demographic strata (Vaić & Blažević 2012: 8, Mardari 2018: 344). Anglicisms exhibit the highest prominence in the language of the youth when compared to other demographic groups (Vaić & Blažević 2012: 8, Mardari 2018: 344). Anglicisms can be regarded as a defining feature of adolescents' language use (Mardari 2018: 344). As Mardari (2018: 342) observes, the Americanization and cosmopolitization of youth culture fosters an increased incorporation of Anglo-American borrowings via direct transfer. Furthermore, Schlobinski (2001: 255) argues that younger language users might show a more receptive attitude toward anglicisms. He attributes this increased openness to younger individuals' tendency to be more adaptable to social change and cultural and linguistic shifts it may entail. Anglicisms, as Schlobinski (2001: 255) assumes, are associated with societal changes. Mardari (2019: 85) attributes the propagation of more novel anglicisms in teenagers' language to the vast influence of social media platforms in this social stratum. Hence, the omnipresence of social media in youth culture seems to propel the distribution of new anglicisms among the younger generations (Mardari 2018: 342). In addition to technological developments, trends in the music and fashion industry stand out as

some of the main driving forces behind the emergence of anglicisms (Vaić and Blažević' 2012: 22). Schlobinski (2001: 255) also refers to the dominance of anglophone culture in the music industry as a significant factor contributing to the prevalence of anglicisms among younger language users. Delving deeper into the realm of anglicisms in youth speech, the use of anglicisms in hyperbole constructions stands out as a feature of youth speech (e.g., *mega-cool*, *uncool*, *ultra-happy*) (Mardari 2018: 348). What is more, some of the main semantic fields detected in anglicism use in youth speech are *emotions* and *language of assessment* (Mardari 2018: 348). Mardari's (2018: 348) conceptualization of anglicisms in youth speech frames anglicisms as tools of emotive and evaluative communication. Furthermore, they often occur in hyperbole constructions (e.g., *ultra-happy*, *mega-cool*) in youth speech.

What is more, scholars propose further functions attributed to the use of anglicisms. Mardari (2019: 88) points out that besides its function of enabling communication, language also acts as an indicator of social belonging and an instrument of presenting one's identity.). Mardari (2019: 88-89) assumes that the use of different language forms is intentional; youth speech, characterized by the occurrence of anglicisms, might serve as a tool to emphasize one's individuality. Anglicisms may be employed to signal the speaker's social identity in the respective social setting (Mardari 2019: 88-89). The social function of anglicisms has also been addressed by scholars such as Leutloff (2003: 5-9), who analysed the stylistic functions of anglicisms in German youth magazines and concludes that some of the primary stylistic functions fulfilled by anglicisms in the magazine corpus are *creating a sense of community* ('Sozialkolorit'), *evoking emotions*, or *raising attention*. In addition, Mardari (2018: 342) suggests that English has a rather prestigious status, she attributes this status to the language's presence in the media. Assuming that an anglicism is used to fulfil a certain effect, such as exploiting the prestige English carries, its usage can be linked to connotative needs. Moreover, discussing instances of connotative need, Mardari (2018: 348) refers to translation pairs, or doublets, such as *Bruder-brother*, *Spaß-fun*, or *null-zero*. These anglicisms all have a corresponding German counterpart; hence, connotative needs are most likely involved in this form of usage. However, Leutloff (2003: 7) notes that the stylistic purpose of an anglicism cannot always be clearly pinpointed as a single anglicism might be adopted for multiple stylistic reasons concurrently. As this discussion clearly shows, scholars attribute a wide set of functions to anglicisms.

In conclusion, technological advancements, the music industry and the pervasive influence of Anglo-American culture are among the driving forces propelling the spread of anglicisms. Anglicisms are not distributed evenly across the receptor language community; especially

adolescents tend to implement anglicisms in their language use. Once received by the receptor language community, anglicisms might fulfil various functions, driven by both denotative and connotative needs. Anglicisms could be treated as signifiers of youthfulness, modernity, expertise, and group identity (Hoffmann 2003: 26).

3.2 Frequency and semantic classifications of anglicisms in German

Given that the current study is also concerned with anglicism frequencies and their bond to different thematic fields in the corpus compiled, this section reports on findings from previous corpus studies on anglicisms in a variety of German media discourses. Studies presenting anglicism-to-non-anglicism ratios are intended to serve as a comparative reference point for the quantitative component of this project. The exploration of studies observing the distributions of anglicisms across different semantic fields, or thematic categories identified in different media sources (e.g., Burmasova 2010: thematic sections of the newspaper *Die Welt*) in different corpora serves to lay the groundwork for the qualitative analysis of the current corpus of spoken language.

According to Onysko (2007: 104), a substantial portion of research on anglicisms sourced text from newsmagazines to create corpora. The German newsmagazine *Der Spiegel* seems to represent a particularly fruitful source for the analysis of anglicisms. Discussing characteristic features of language use in *Der Spiegel*, Wenliang (1990: 19) identifies the incorporation of loanwords, in particular those sharing English as a source language, as especially significant feature of the magazine's linguistic composition. As mentioned before, Onysko's (2007: 96) study on anglicisms plays a pivotal role in the development of a framework for this corpus study. His study on anglicisms in *Der Spiegel*-issues published in the year 2000 provides some insights into occurrences of anglicisms in written German in the press discourse. *Der Spiegel* is a widely read newsmagazine that "enjoys a reputation as a long standing and prestigious German newsmagazine" (Onysko 2007: 99). *Der Spiegel* primarily caters to readers aged fifty years or above, which, as Onysko (2007: 104) points out, might be interpreted as a potential indicator for a more conservative readership. As mentioned in the previous section, anglicisms are tightly connected to the realms of modernity and youthfulness (e.g., c.f. Madari 2018; Schlobinski 2001). However, the study illustrates that *Der Spiegel* features a diversity of anglicisms, even including some lexical innovations. An earlier account on anglicism occurrences in *Der Spiegel*-issues published between 1950 and 1980 also provides evidence for the prominence of anglicisms in this newsmagazine (cf. Wenliang 1990: 25). Nonetheless, Onysko (2007: 318) asserts that the results of his study do not, in any way, support the widely held belief that "English is flooding the German language" as overall, anglicisms are rarely used in *Der Spiegel*.

Onysko (2007: 317) considers the percentual token frequency of anglicisms of 1.11 percent low. The *Der Spiegel*-corpus, containing 5,202,583 tokens in total, exhibits 57,591 anglicism tokens (Onysko 2007: 114). Hence, the relative frequency is 0.01107 anglicisms tokens per token in the *Der Spiegel*-corpus. While relative frequency values enable better comparability of results between different studies, it should be noted that methodological considerations also affect the outcome of research and might impede direct comparability. In contrast to the present study, *anglicism* encompasses not only core anglicisms but also some forms of borderline anglicisms in Onysko's (2007: 108-109) research. While borderline anglicisms that have experienced high levels of phonological and/or graphological assimilation (e.g., *Keks*, *Konzern*, *Stopp*, *Tipp*), internationalisms, predominantly of Latin or Greek descent (e.g., *Radio*, *Tattoo*), as well as words of uncertain etymological origin (e.g., *Budget*, *Tourist*, *Partner*) have not been coded as anglicisms in Onysko's (2007: 108-109) corpus analysis, Onysko (2007: 108) includes certain forms of unobtrusive borrowing, a sub-category of borderline-anglicisms, such as *Test*, *Start*, *Film*, or *Hit* in his analysis of anglicisms in *Der Spiegel*. As mentioned above, the current study aims to focus on core anglicisms; *Film*, featured four times in the PRC, was excluded from the present anglicism list (see section 2.2.2 for a more detailed account on the identification of anglicisms in this study). While Onysko's (2007: 108) broader inclusion criteria may yield higher anglicism counts than those documented in the present study, other factors, for example, corpus genre, may also affect anglicism frequencies. Consequently, direct comparisons between Onysko's (2007) findings, those of other studies, and results of the present research project, as well as predictions of anglicism ratios based on methods selected, should be approached with caution.

Burmasova (2010) presents results concerning anglicism density in a similar genre of text, the German newspaper, *Die Welt*. This newspaper predominantly targets citizens associated with the more educated stratum. Therefore, as Burmasova (2010: 152) argues, it can be inferred that the newspaper is written to meet with high linguistic standards, aligning with the intellectual levels of its readership; anglicisms would not be used haphazardly as it might be common in entertainment tabloids. Hence, Burmasova (2010: 152) assumes, anglicisms occurring in *Die Welt* are more likely to demonstrate a more stable presence in the receptor language German. Burmasova (2010: 155) scanned the corpus for English morphemes. In less clear cases, she bases her determination of anglicisms on classifications as found in different anglicism dictionaries and dictionaries of foreign words. Contrarily to the present study, Burmasova (2010: 160) does not allocate syntactic constructions to the category of anglicisms (e.g., *meet and greet*, *nobody is perfect*) and states that these would not alter quantitative results significantly. Combinations of different English elements would be coded as either borrowed compounds or code-switching in

the present study and thus, be considered as anglicisms. Hence, once again, the pool of referents assigned to the term *anglicism* diverts slightly from the methodological scaffolding of the present project.

The main categories Burmasova's (2010: 53-54) anglicism corpus encompasses are:

-Direct borrowings (*Direkte Entlehnungen*) (excluding semantic borrowings), for example, *Copyright, Barkeeper, Babysitter*

-Pseudo anglicisms ("Lehnwortbildungen"), for example, *Handy, Showmaster, Beamer*

-Hybrid anglicisms ("Mischverbindungen"), for example, *Gesichts-Tattoo*

-Abbreviations and acronyms, for example, *DVD, CD*

While Burmasova's (2010: 53-54) study does also share some considerations on the determination of anglicisms with the present study's conceptualization of anglicisms, the latter category, *abbreviations and acronyms*, exhibits slight deviations. As discussed in section 2.2, items that have undergone substantial phonological and/or orthographical modulation in the borrowing process and as a result, are not easily detectable as anglicisms on the formal level, are not encompassed by the term *core anglicisms* in this study. The selection of a corpus medium also affects the decision to include or exclude data from the anglicism list due to the phonological characteristics of items. In contrast to the present study, Burmasova's (2010) analysis examines written language. In the present analysis, the coder can distinguish between anglicisms exhibiting varying phonological patterns in the receptor language and study the visibility of phonological traces from the source language on a case-by-case basis. The current analysis does, for example, exclude the acronym *VR* from the anglicism pool if pronounced as /fauer/ instead of /vi:ɑ:/ and treat it as an anglicism if pronounced as English /vi:ɑ:/. For corpora representing language in written form, these distinctions would certainly not apply. Hence, this difference in coding between Burmasova's (2010) and the present study is also rooted in the genres chosen. One may assume that the exclusion of certain lexical items if pronounced according to German phonological patterns could lead to slightly lower anglicism counts in the present study when compared to Burmasova's (2010) study, where phonological realizations could not be examined. However, as noted, other methodological decisions, such as the exclusion of syntactical categories (Burmasova 2010: 160) or the genre analysed, also affect reported anglicism ratios. Although certain research choices may suggest possible trends, methodological choices must not be viewed in isolation. Making precise predictions about to which extent different methodological choices may affect anglicism counts across studies would require a multifactorial analysis and thus remains beyond the scope of this study.

In his essay on the importation of anglicisms to German, Schäfer (2002: 78) agrees that a considerable number of anglicisms can be detected in the German language but also contends that English items are not distributed evenly across this receptor language. Schäfer (2002: 78) refers to *Clothing*, *Leisure Time* and *Sports* as classical lexical fields of anglicisms in German whereas anglicisms rarely occur when topics such as the weather, family or numbers are discussed. Several studies examined the semantic category membership of anglicisms or their prominence in media differing in their topical focus. Burmasova's (2010) study also reveals some insights into the distribution of anglicisms across thematic fields and hence, might facilitate intriguing comparisons in the empirical work focusing on semantic colouring executed in the course of this master's thesis project.

Burmasova (2010: 60) categorizes anglicisms in relation to the different sections of the newspaper *Die Welt* (2004) they occur in. The following thematic categories have been extracted: *Politics*, *Economics*, *Sports*, *Culture*, *Science and Technology* and *Society*. Presenting average relative frequencies of anglicisms as detected in the six newspaper-categories, Burmasova (2010: 203) observes that the highest concentration of anglicisms can be observed in the *sports*-section (average relative frequency: 0.10548) of the newspaper, followed by the sections *Culture* (average relative frequency: 0.05890), *Economics* (average relative frequency: 0.05762), *Society* (average relative frequency: 0.03454), *Politics* (average relative frequency: 0.02157) and *Science and Technology* (average relative frequency: 0.02091). Given that anglicisms have a strong association with the realm of technology (e.g., Hoffmann 2003: 26; Coats 2019: 267), the low rate of anglicisms in this category is rather surprising. However, Burmasova's (2010: 61) culture-section also includes articles on multimedia, TV, and films. These topics could also be associated with technology. Burmasova's (2010: 191-195) study concentrates on anglicisms in the form of substantives, verbs, and adjectives. A method of calculation has been employed that evaluates the ratio of anglicisms to non-anglicisms within the respective word class. Hence, numerical results do not allow for quantitative, comparative analysis with the present study, which does not limit itself to specific word classes (e.g., this study does not exclude adverbs from the anglicism list). However, findings concerning the distribution of anglicisms across sections of the newspaper offer insights into potential semantic trends among anglicisms.

Coats' 2019-study (255) examines the use of new, non-standard verbal anglicisms in posts shared via the social media platform *Twitter* between 2016 and 2017 and suggests that non-standard anglicisms are widespread. Excerpts from Coats (2019: 268) corpus, for example, "*Ich bin ja ganz vorne mit dabei wenns darum geht den #EmojiFilm zu haben...aber den Trailer find*

ich gar nicht mal so scheiße.” (“I’m among the first to agree when it comes to hating the #EmojiFilm... but the trailer is not even so shitty.”) (Coats 2019: 268), clearly show features of a less formal tone, for example, contractions (*wenn[’s]*) or swearwords (*scheiße*). In contrast to corpora of press language (e.g., Onysko 2007), Coats’ (2017) corpus is therefore more likely to approximate a more colloquial register as partly displayed in the present corpus.

Due to the specific focus on verbal non-standard anglicisms, numerical results may hardly appear comparable with the present corpus analysis; however, Coats (2019: 266) also conducts an inquiry on the presence of more established anglicisms and records an anglicism density of 1.5 percent in a corpus of 534,211,366 tokens. These results only refer to individual lexemes, multi-word anglicisms have not been considered; hence, the methodological approach diverges from the present study’s conceptualization of *anglicism*. Based on results presented in Onysko’s (2012: 317) study of *Der Spiegel*, Coats (2019: 266) interprets the anglicism rate in the Twitter corpus as an indication for an ongoing rise in anglicism usage in German but also notes that anglicism usage may be dependent on genre. The study also reports a dominance of new verbal anglicisms encouraged by denotative needs and linked to the semantic field of information technology, for example, *twittern* or *streamen* (Coats 2019: 267), further highlighting the crucial role of modern media and communication technology in the propagation of anglicisms.

In contrast to the studies discussed so far, the present study is concerned with spoken language. Due to the differences between spoken and written discourse, such as typically higher levels of colloquial, informal language and the prominence of dialogue in spoken language (Learning Development-University of Wollongong Australia n.d.:1), Schaefer’s (2021) more recent study on anglicism usage in German radio programmes and Glahn’s (2002: 30-31) research on anglicisms in German TV programmes broadcasted in the year 1998 have been consulted. Glahn’s (2002: 20) study aims at gaining an overview of the usage of linguistic English elements in spoken discourse of General German (‘gesamtdeutsche Sprache’). For this purpose, Glahn (2002: 20) compiled a corpus encompassing TV programmes broadcasted on German public TV channels (ARD, ZDF, and SWR). Compared to the present research project, Glahn (2002: 16) employs a wider conceptualization of the concept of anglicisms; for example, Glahn’s (2002: 40) study also treats compound loan-translations (e.g., *Gipfelkonferenz*) as anglicisms. Hence, the study does not solely rely on linguistic form as a criterion for the identification of anglicisms. Glahn (2002: 99) reports that in his corpus, anglicisms occur every 56.5 seconds. This form of measurement could not be adopted in the present study, as some text passages in the corpus have been modified (see 4.1.2), altering the words-to-seconds relation. Nevertheless, Glahn’s (2002: 99) analysis of spoken language implies a pronounced influence of English on spoken language

in the media. This observation further reinforces the decision of the present author to compile a corpus of spoken, spontaneous, and informal language sourced from a German public-service broadcaster (ARD) to enable sufficient data analysis.

Anglicisms are also present in excerpts of radio language, as Schaefer's (2021) study demonstrates. Schaefer's (2021: 572-575) analysis examines occurrences of novel anglicisms in a corpus containing radio language recorded in 2016. Schaefer (2010: 571) also adopts Onysko's (2007) form-oriented approach towards anglicisms. The scholar assumes that English marking on the phonological and/or graphemic level is decisive in journalists' recognition of anglicisms' tie to the English language. To be attributed the label *novel*, anglicisms must "not yet [be] part of general language usage by the broader population" (Schaefer 2021: 571-572). Schaefer (2021: 587) detects approximately 3,169 anglicism tokens, hence, the relative frequency in the radio corpus is 0.0157. Only 26 of the anglicisms identified classify as novel anglicisms in the German morning show corpus containing 202,000 tokens. Although unlike the present project, Schaefer's (2021) study focuses on novel anglicisms, their distribution across the different semantic fields may offer insights into the productivity of certain semantic fields that might also emerge in the present corpus. Overall, most novel anglicisms in Schaefer's (2021: 579) corpus tend to be nouns gravitating towards the domain of popular culture. The majority of the 26 novel anglicisms can be found in the semantic field *Technology* (8 items), followed by *Lifestyle/Fashion/Leisure* (7 items), *Sports* (3 items), *Politics* (2 items) and *Food* (2 items). The remaining semantic fields include *Media/Communication/Entertainment*, *Science*, *Consumer Goods*, and *Biology*, each containing a single novel anglicism. While results from such a small sub-corpus of anglicisms should certainly be treated with caution, a comparison with other studies investigating the semantic orientation of anglicisms, such as the current, might provide some indicative results concerning tendencies in the distribution of anglicisms across semantic fields.

It can be concluded that all texts examined contain anglicisms, indicating an influence of English on the German language in formal, informal, written and spoken media. General conclusions regarding the distribution of anglicisms across the different genres of texts are impeded by both differences in the definition of *anglicism* and the selected measurement method and focus employed in these studies. Direct comparisons of numerical results potentially distort the representation of anglicism distribution between the corpora. This concern extends to the present study, differing in the conceptualization of anglicisms and methods of calculations when compared to the studies discussed above. It is important to emphasize that differences in anglicism ratios between studies may not only be due to genre-specific linguistic style, semantic

category characteristics, or individuals' language use habits, but may also be related to methodological differences.

Concerning semantic affiliation in anglicisms, Schäfer (2002: 78) posits a pull toward the domains of clothing, leisure time and sports. Burmasova's (2010: 203) study, partly reinforces this notion, identifying the sports-section as the one featuring the highest number of anglicisms, followed by the categories *Culture, Economics, and Society*. The section *Science and Technology*, on the other hand, records a low incidence of anglicisms (Burmasova 2010: 203), whereas both Schaefer (2021: 579) and Coats (2019: 267) note a dominance of anglicisms in the semantic field of technology (Coats: *Information Technology*). The presence of technology-related articles in Burmasova's (2010: 61) section *Culture* might explain the low anglicism incidence in the section *Science and Technology*. Furthermore, Schaefer (2021: 579) identifies *Lifestyle, Fashion, and Leisure* as an additional semantic field rich in novel anglicisms in her corpus. The dominance of anglicisms in the semantic fields *Leisure* and *Sports* seems to be a recurring theme in the research discussed. Nevertheless, generalized claims concerning overall semantic tendencies in anglicisms on the basis of the pool of studies discussed and results retrieved from the present study should be avoided. This is, inter alia, due to restrictions of the concept of anglicism (Coats 2019: 255: verbal, non-standard anglicisms, Schaefer 2021: 579: novel anglicisms) or a very limited sample size (e.g., Schaefer 2021: 579: 26 novel anglicisms). Nonetheless, these results constitute a starting point for the present and future studies on anglicisms and their relation to different semantic fields.

4. Method

The first sub-section (4.1) introduces the PRC and outlines the steps taken to ensure an efficient coding process. The second sub-section (4.2) describes the methodology applied to identify anglicisms and analyse them with regards to their various uses.

4.1 The *PULS Reportage* Corpus (PRC)

4.1.1 Selection of a medium

For this study, five episodes from the YouTube series *PULS Reportage* were translated into a corpus of text (*PULS Reportage* Corpus, PRC). The PRC documents the speech of hosts and guests in the selected episodes. *PULS Reportage* is an online documentary series produced by the German public service broadcaster BR, targeting viewers aged 16 to 25. Each episode features the host engaging in actions related to the episode's focus, sharing relevant information and personal experiences. Video 2 "True Crime zwischen Blut und Maden: Ein Tag mit Tatortreiniger Thomas Kundt" (2023), centring on crime scene cleaning, for instance, documents how the host is being instructed to clean a filthy apartment by a professional of the field. The

host narrates his feelings and gathers information on the topic through interaction with the professional cleaner, Thomas Kundt and research conducted off-screen. Speech generally appears to be unscripted in the video material analysed.

To ensure a more holistic portrayal of anglicism usage in the series, one episode per host was selected, rather than examining a single individual's idiolect. The episodes, posted between October 11th and December 13th, 2023, are hosted by Nadine Hadad, Ariane Alter, Sebastian Meinberg, Leah Nlemibe, and Kevin Ebert (Puls 2022). *PULS Reportage* contains edited material where snippets of conversations filmed may have been removed during the editing process of the episodes. Hence, the texts in the PRC should be regarded as excerpts from conversations. Observations concerning the speakers' use of anglicisms, or other linguistic features pertain solely to linguistic material transcribed in the corpus. A different selection of clips by the series' editors might yield different results. Hence, the present analysis attempts to capture language approximating unscripted, spoken language use, but it acknowledges that the processes involved in the compilation of professional documentary videos are likely to reduce the corpus representativeness. The remainder of this section discusses features pointing toward unscripted speech in the PRC.

According to Hoffmann (2003: 30), audio-visual media and the press fosters the distribution of anglicisms in German. Therefore, a contemporary German audio-visual format was selected, with the expectation of encountering anglicisms rates conducive to interesting analyses. Hoffmann (2003: 26) further argues that analysing anglicisms as they occur in spoken discourse allows for an exploration of the spontaneous usage of anglicisms. He stresses the benefits of assessing anglicisms in the context of interviews, noting the spontaneity involved in their usage. As the *PULS Reportage* series contains longer stretches of seemingly unscripted speech and features several interactions in the fashion of interviews, the YouTube format was considered a suitable source of analysis of anglicisms in spoken language. The following excerpt from the PRC exhibits features of spontaneous speech such as word repetition, false starts and morpheme fragments:

- i. Würdest du sagen, **dass das, also das Tierwohl** dir schon **sehr sehr o- also sehr** weit oben steht? (Video 1: 02:17-02:21)

Furthermore, it can be observed that anglicism-rates tend to rise with the level of informality (Hoffmann 2003: 30). Therefore, the series *PULS Reportage*, a rather informal YouTube format (see table 2), promises to be a fertile source for the analysis of anglicisms.

Table 2. Use of informal language in the PRC

Features of informal language	Video excerpt
False starts	<i>dann fangen wir an hintereinander weg- das wegzunehmen.</i> (Video 2: 14:43-14:46)
Filler words	<i>Also anfassen fühlt sich schön an, fühlt sich fremd an, ähm fühlt sich ein bisschen surreal an.</i> (Video 1: 03:06-03:12)
Contractions: the result of merging two lexemes (e.g., <i>wenn</i> , <i>es</i>) into one linguistic item (<i>wenn's</i>) by attaching a shortened form of one item (<i>es</i> → <i>'s</i>) to the other form (<i>wenn</i> + <i>'s</i> = <i>wenn's</i>).	<i>Jetzt geht's wirklich los</i> (Video 2: 3:06-3:07)
Swear words	<i>Holy fucking shit</i> (Video 5: 06:38-06:39)

As can be seen in the table above, the PRC exhibits characteristics of informal, unspoken language. Hence, the presence of anglicisms can be expected (Hoffmann 2003: 30).

4.1.2 Corpus editing

The PRC was compiled by using a combination of transcripts provided by YouTube and partial manual transcription of the respective YouTube video. The YouTube transcripts were used as a basis for the corpus; however, YouTube transcripts do not always replicate speech as featured in the videos analysed. As an initial step in corpus compilation, the transcripts were corrected accordingly. As a subsequent step, linguistic material that impeded corpus consistency and clarity was deleted or adjusted. When certain conversational particles (e.g., *ähm*) were difficult to grasp reliably and not affecting the use of anglicisms, all representatives of this linguistic category (in the case of *ähm*: hesitation markers) were deleted to ensure a uniform corpus. This decision is crucial for the quantitative dimension of this study. In this study, anglicism word counts are compared to the total word counts, therefore, a consistent compilation method had to be selected to enhance the transparency of results. The following adjustments were made to facilitate coding and warrant consistency.

a) False starts, morpheme fragments and unintentional repetitions

Due to stretches of rather unscripted and seemingly spontaneous speech, there are several text sequences that exhibit false starts, morpheme fragments or repetitive starts. These linguistic fragments do not affect the coding of anglicisms and were excluded from the corpus. This decision has been made to render the compilation of the corpus more efficient and ensure a concise corpus.

False start/original:

- ii. dann fangen wir an hintereinander **weg-** das wegzunehmen. (Video 2: 14:43-14:46)

Revised version:

- iii. dann fangen wir an hintereinander das wegzunehmen.

Morpheme fragments/unintentional repetition/original:

- iv. Würdest du sagen, dass **das, also** das Tierwohl dir **schon sehr sehr o- also** sehr weit oben steht? (Video 1: 02:17-02:21)

Revised version

- v. Würdest du sagen, dass das Tierwohl dir schon sehr weit oben steht?

b) Repetitions serving the purpose of adding emphasis

Said repetitions were not excluded as they appear to constitute the speaker's intention of adding emphasis and thus, could potentially provide further insights into the dynamics of the conversational situations. While this does not necessarily affect the coding process of individual anglicisms, it might assist the coder in visualizing the conversations and grasp their tone.

Intentional repetition:

- vi. Das ist wirklich **richtig, richtig** anstrengend. (Video 2: 09:54-09:57)

c) Hesitation markers

Hesitation markers unnecessarily lengthen the corpus text without providing information relevant to the present project. Thus, such markers were excluded from the corpus data set.

Hesitation marker/original:

- vii. **ähm** fühlt sich ein bisschen surreal an. (Video 1: 03:08-03:12)

Revised version:

- viii. fühlt sich ein bisschen surreal an.

d) Stand-alone non-lexical discourse markers and interjections

Stand-alone non-lexical interjections and discourse markers (e.g., *ah, mhm, oh, wow, boah, yay, ih*) are sometimes hard to grasp in conversations or rapid speech. To render the corpus more coherent, all instances of stand-alone non-lexical discourse markers and interjections were deleted. Stand-alone translates into not being attached to a lexical discourse marker.

Non-lexical discourse marker/original:

- ix. **Ach**, guck mal hier, hast du das gesehen? (Video 2: 06:38-06:38)

Revised version:

- x. Guck mal hier, hast du das gesehen?

However, if a non-lexical discourse marker or interjection is attached to a lexical item, the non-lexical items were not excluded from the corpus. (*Oh Gott, Oh nein, Oh ne, ach du meine Güte, Oh Mann ey, ach krass* etc.), as they are seen as part of the respective phrase. Dialect specific or colloquial counterparts of lexical discourse markers were also treated as lexical discourse marker as e.g., the tag-questions *gä?* and *ne?* (similar to *nicht?*).

e) Secondary text

e.g., speech in social media videos inserted in the *PULS* Reportage-videos

These linguistic passages were not transcribed as I do not consider them primary linguistic material of the videos.

xi. Babyaffen-Badetime. So, komm mein Schatz, komm. (Video 1: 0:00-0:07)

xii. Ja, so sieht die Wohnung aus. Wir werden hier 3 bis 4 Tage räumen.(Video 1: 0:21-0:25)

e.g., off-screen audio narration

I do not consider off-screen narration unscripted language material as it can be assumed that narrators use scripts compiled prior to recording. Off-screen narration texts were excluded from the corpus and thus, anglicisms used as part of off-screen narration will not be coded.

Off-screen narration:

xiii. Den „Krokomann” alias VenomBreeder haben wir via TikTok gefunden. Er hält sich in seinem Dachgeschoss über dreißig Schlangen und im Erdgeschoss ein Krokodil. Unglaublich! (Video 1: 00:05-00:18)

e.g., read out messages

In the video collection, written digital messages integrated into the documentary narrative are read out to the viewers. Since reading a text does not qualify for unscripted spoken conversation, sequences featuring the reading of written messages were excluded from the corpus. Verbal comments on the respective messages are treated as unscripted reactions by the hosts and are retained within the corpus.

Phone-message/original:

xiv. Dann würde ich den jetzt einfach mal anschreiben. „**Hey, ich bin an deinem Krokodil interessiert. Gibt es das noch? Liebe Grüße.**” Erstmal easy anfangen [...]. (video 1: 18:48-13:54)

Revised version:

xv. Dann würde ich den jetzt einfach mal anschreiben. Erstmal easy anfangen [...].

e.g., linguistic material from digital interfaces

Texts originating from digital devices such as app alerts, were excluded from the corpus, even if they are verbally articulated by the speakers showcased in the respective video. Impromptu

spoken interactions surrounding these read out texts are retained within the corpus and examined for the presence of anglicisms.

Original:

- xvi. **I'm ready.** Ach, krass [...] Jetzt kommt **What is your anxiety level?** [...] **Congratulations on completing your exposure.** (video 7:26-8:25)

Revised version:

- xvii. Ach krass [...] Jetzt kommt.

f) Video previews

Previews of documentary content was excluded from the corpus to prevent redundant coding. For instance, the introduction of video 1 features a brief clip which is later revisited as part of the documentary. While not all preview clips are repeated in every analysed episode, they were all removed from the corpus to render its compilation process more efficient.

- xviii. Dieses Tier ist seelisch verstümmelt worden, dadurch, dass man es der Mutter weggenommen hat (Preview: video 1: 00:26-00:32; actual scene: video 1: 07:06-07:11)

g) Contractions

As this is a spoken language corpus comprising stretches of informal, unscripted speech, contractions such as *gibt's* or *man's* are used frequently. However, in rapid speech the auditory differences between contractions and full phrases might not always be discernible. Due to the importance of wordcount in the quantitative analysis and the necessity of a uniform approach to achieve more homogenous results, it has been decided to always use the full items; e.g., *geht es* instead of *geht's* as in:

Contraction/original:

- xix. Jetzt geht's wirklich los (Video 2: 3:06-3:07)

Revised version:

- xx. Jetzt geht es wirklich los

The PRC is intended to authentically document anglicism use as occurring in spoken, unscripted language. Therefore, anglicism contractions were not dissolved. Anglicism contractions do not affect the anglicism count in this study as English phrases and sentences are treated as one example of anglicism. Therefore both, *I do not know* or *I don't know* count as one instance of

code-switch. This decision does not affect the overall word count significantly as the PRC only features one example of anglicism contraction (PRC 2024: 6: s.v. *I don't know*).

h) Clippings

This corpus would exhibit numerous instances of clippings. However, clippings such as *hab* or *nem* were expanded to ensure coherence (*hab* → *habe*, *nem* → *einem*). Anglicisms were preserved in their original form as uttered by speakers in the video and not adjusted in the corpus.

Finally, it should be noted that this corpus has been specifically designed to facilitate efficient analysis of anglicisms in spoken language. This corpus is not intended to replicate spoken language exactly. It is assumed that the modifications mentioned will not affect the present analysis. The PRC is not suitable for studying other aspects of language such as turn-taking, use of interjections, or regional differences in pronunciation, as the focus was on creating a corpus optimized for examining anglicism use, potentially at the expense of capturing other dimensions of spoken language.

4.2 Data Analysis

4.2.1 Material selection: Identifying anglicisms

The coding manual presented in section 2.2.2 serves as a guiding tool to determine whether an item classifies as core anglicism. In some cases, the boundary between core and borderline anglicisms is less pronounced. In table 3, anglicisms that do not appear as clear cases of core anglicisms have been listed. The coder designated them as unclear cases; The first column presents the anglicism under scrutiny, the second column indicates whether the anglicism has been coded as core anglicism, whereas the third column provides a brief explanation for this categorization. Anglicisms that were not classified as core anglicisms are excluded from the analysis of anglicisms and will be treated as German words, contributing to the total word count of the corpus.

As the discussion in section 2 indicates, the concept of anglicism harbours certain ambiguities. Hence, a cautionary note should be made: the ensuing categorization of anglicisms is also subject to the coder's individual stance towards their degree of foreignness.

Table 3. Unclear cases of anglicisms. The anglicisms listed in this table have been deemed unclear cases by the coder. The coder provides arguments for the exclusion from or the inclusion in the category of core anglicisms of these terms.

Item	Core anglicism	Explanation
<i>Film</i>	No	Onysko (2007: 108) refers to <i>Film</i> as unobtrusive borrowing but includes it in his analysis. The present analysis exclusively focuses on what the coder recognizes as core anglicism. The coder does not attribute a strong degree of foreignness to <i>Film</i> due to the German pronunciation of the term.
<i>Foto</i>	No	Due to its orthographical and phonological adaptation in the course of borrowing, the coder does not recognize <i>Foto</i> as core anglicism.
<i>Internet</i>	Yes	<i>Internet</i> might be classified as unobtrusive borrowing as it seamlessly blends into German and the English and German version resemble each other. However, this item has been coded as lexical borrowing instead due to the internet being a phenomenon highly influenced by the English language. It is therefore assumed that <i>internet</i> is perceived as English by speakers of German.
<i>Top</i> (adjective denoting very good, excellent)	Yes	At first glance, <i>top</i> might not stand out as English and be treated as unobtrusive borrowing. However, <i>top</i> occurs in several apparent anglicisms, such as <i>Laptop</i> , <i>topping</i> , <i>Desktop</i> , <i>Topmodel</i> . Therefore, I attribute a noticeable level of foreignness to the item. Furthermore, <i>top</i> does not inflect according to German grammatical rules (e.g., <i>*ein toppes Auto</i>). Consequently, this anglicism form can be associated with the English language, and the coder decided to categorize <i>top</i> as lexical borrowing.
<i>Veggie</i>	No	This anglicism has been pronounced as /vegi/ instead of /vedʒi/, therefore it is not classified as core anglicism in this analysis of spoken language.
<i>Video</i>	No	Firstly, Onysko (2007: 108) classifies this item as borderline anglicism. Secondly, the present study does not contain an analysis of vowel composition in the anglicism <i>video</i> , as the differences are subtle, and a more detailed analysis of pronunciation would be necessary. Nonetheless, dictionaries suggest differences in pronunciation of <i>video</i> between German (/ˈviːdeɔ/ (DWDS n.d.: s.v. <i>video</i>)) and English (UK-English: /ˈvɪd.i.əʊ/, US-English: /ˈvɪd.i.oʊ/ (Cambridge Dictionary 2024: s.v. <i>video</i>)). For these reasons this term is not included in the present anglicism list.

Finally, proper names or words derived from proper names were not coded as anglicisms. For example, the inflected verb form of *PayPal* in *ich paypale das* (Video 1: 16:08-16:09) will not be considered in the following analysis of core anglicisms.

Words identified as core anglicism were transferred to the anglicism list and categorized with regard to anglicism type, semantic category, function, need, and tone where applicable. A colour scheme was applied to provide a clearer overview of anglicism occurrences across different *PULS Reportage* episodes. The following table indicates the colours used to mark the respective episodes.

Table 4. Colour scheme anglicism list. Each episode was assigned a colour in the anglicism list.

Video 1	
Video 2	
Video 3	
Video 4	
Video 5	

4.2.2 Quantitative data analysis

The word-count tool provided by the programme Microsoft Word was used to obtain word counts of the corpus and individual episodes. *Word count* refers to the words transcribed in the PRC and not to the actual total of words uttered in the selected videos (see section 4.1.2). Furthermore, *Word count* is based on the orthographic word count; hence, each linguistic item separated by a space is counted as an additional word (e.g., *I do not know* counts as four words, *I don't know* counts as three words). Anglicisms were counted manually. This study focuses on tokens as opposed to types. Anglicism units consisting of several items (e.g., multi-word code-switches) are treated as one token.

Word counts had to be adapted as a means of ensuring representative results. The word count of the anglicism lists exceeds its anglicism count, since instances of code-switches and compound words were counted as one instance of anglicism despite sometimes consisting of several words. This procedure could potentially skew results concerning the proportions of anglicism to non-anglicisms. This imbalance must be considered when determining the total word counts of the episodes and the corpus. The number of words exceeding the anglicism count in the anglicism list was deduced from the word counts in the corpus as illustrated in table 5.

Table 5. Word count adaptations. Word counts obtained by Microsoft Word were adapted to account for imbalances between anglicism list word counts and anglicism list anglicism counts.

Episode 1 Anglicism list		Episode 1 Corpus	
Word count	42	Original word count	2,086
Anglicism count	32	Adapted word count	2,076

As can be seen in table 5, episode 1 exhibits 32 anglicisms. The anglicism list for episode 1 contains 42 words because some anglicisms consist of more than one word, such as *No Chance*. The imbalance between the anglicism count and the word count in the anglicism list for episode 1 is 10. Therefore, the overall word count of episode 1 in the PRC was reduced by 10, resulting in 2,076 words.

Figures on proportions and percentages were created using the Microsoft Word Chart tool. This tool is connected to Excel and evaluates percentages, producing corresponding charts.

4.2.3 Qualitative data analysis

In the present study, anglicisms were categorized according to type, semantic category, function, connotative or denotative needs, and tone. The various semantic, functional and tone sub-categories were derived through an inductive approach. After several coding stages a set of sub-categories emerged, encompassing different semantic tendencies, functions and tones. It is important to note that the collection of sub-categories of anglicism use detected is not exhaustive but rather contingent on the corpus material used as well as the coder's decisions.

a) Anglicism type

The coding manual presented in section 2.2.2 was used for the analysis of anglicism types lexical borrowing, code-switching, hybrid anglicisms, and pseudo anglicisms. Every anglicism in this study was allocated to one of the categories listed in the coding manual.

In some cases, the categorization of anglicisms was less straightforward, calling for a case-by-case analysis. The following examples are intended to showcase some of the issues involved in the determination of anglicism types:

VR-Selbsthilfetool (hybrid anglicism) and *VR* (code-switch) (video 5)

Although the phrase *VR-Selbsthilfetool* incorporates the English initialism *VR*, which has been classified as code-switch by the coder, it was nevertheless decided to allocate *VR-Selbsthilfetool* to the category of hybrid anglicisms. This decision is based on the argument that the noun phrase integrates the English element into the German one, creating one syntactic entity and masking

the language switch. This example indicates that multi-category membership could be justified under certain circumstances; however, in the present study, multi-category membership was not considered. The item was treated on the level of the noun-phrase as a hybrid anglicism.

Check/en

The verbal anglicism *check/en* denotes two different meanings in the PRC. *Checken* may either be used to denote its meaning in the source language, namely to evaluate if something is correct or if a device is working properly (Cambridge Dictionary 2024: s.v. *check*) or to express the notion of understanding something. The latter is not associated with the verb *to check* in English. Hence, depending on the meaning the item *check/en* may either be categorized as a lexical borrowing or a pseudo anglicism. The following examples (see table 6) are intended to highlight the importance of examining not only form but also meaning when coding anglicisms types.

Table 6. The meanings of the anglicism *check/en*. Depending on its meaning, *check/en* is coded as either lexical borrowing or pseudo anglicism.

Corpus excerpt	Meaning	Anglicism type
[...] <i>ich will auch checken, was macht es mit mir</i> [...] (video 5)	evaluate	Lexical borrowing
<i>Ich check auch gar nicht, wo ich hingucken soll.</i> (video 4)	understand	Pseudo anglicism

In the first example, the speaker uses *checken* to denote its source-language meaning evaluate. Hence, both form and meaning are transferred from the source language. In this example, *checken* meets the criteria of lexical borrowings. In the second utterance, *check* refers to the speaker's lack of understanding and thus, communicates an additional meaning in the receptor language. This occurrence of *check* was therefore allocated to the category of pseudo anglicisms.

Single word code-switches

Furthermore, several single word items were categorized as code-switches (e.g., *crazy, easy*) due to the coder's recognition of their higher level of foreign sound, a subjective criterion. This underscores that the perception of foreignness does not only affect the coder's decision to exclude certain items from the category of core anglicism but also to allocate items to the category of code-switches or an alternate category.

b) Semantic category

Burmasova (2010: 223) notes that the majority of words can be regarded as part of general lexis and lacks any features typical of specific subject areas. Therefore, their semantic category-

membership is unclear, and they could be allocated to several semantic categories. Burmasova (2010: 223-224) circumvents this issue by comparing anglicism frequencies in the thematic sections of her newspaper-corpus as a means of examining anglicisms and their relationship to semantic categories. The present corpus consists of five episodes, each one dedicated to a specific topic (e.g., video 3: *first aid*). While the semantic foci of the videos could certainly be allocated to a broader semantic category (first aid: e.g., *health, safety*), Burmasova's (2010) approach would not be viable due to the small sample size in the PRC and the fact that each episode is hosted by a different speaker, with their potentially distinct lexis. The speaker's higher propensity to use anglicisms would then imply that anglicisms are especially common in the semantic field relevant to the respective episode. To at least avoid distortions that would arise from the semantic-analysis method Burmasova (2010) employed, semantic categories were extracted from the anglicism list itself. No framework has been constructed prior to the corpus analysis. It should not be ignored that the anglicism affinity of speakers and the topics covered in the episodes is also likely to distort results on anglicisms' association with certain semantic fields. Words that showed no clear semantic category membership (e.g., *okay, hi, Ticket*) were not coded with regards to their semantic focus. Furthermore, in the manner of Schaefer's (2021: 575) semantic categorization of anglicisms, anglicisms that could be associated with several semantic categories were categorized in accordance with their semantic orientation in the respective context and co-text; for example, *Team* could be allocated to *Sports* or *Work*; due to contextual cues, its use in video 2 was assigned to the category *Work*.

c) Functions of anglicisms

Three functions were identified in the corpus: *communicative ritual*, *emotional reaction* and *OK-discourse marker*. This framework was determined on the basis of the coded material. In this study, 89 anglicisms were assigned to functional categories, while 84 items were excluded from this functional analysis as they primarily act on a denotative level (e.g., *Team, Job*), lacking any of the communicative functions examined in this study.

The label *communicative ritual* was adapted from Vaić and Blažević (2012: 23). Although communicative rituals encompass various forms of communication (e.g., thanking, congratulating), in the present study, it exclusively refers to farewells and greetings, this category emerged in the course of the coding process of the PRC. In the corpus some German and English lexemes are typically associated with the function of a greeting e.g., *Hey* or *Hallo* but are not listed in tables presenting communicative functions (see section 5.4.2). Table 7 presents lexemes that may be used as greetings but do not fulfil this function in the presented context. Therefore, they are not considered communicative rituals in the present study.

Table 7. No communicative rituals. The lexemes *Hey* and *Hallo* were not used as greetings in these examples.

<i>Hey</i>	<i>Dann habe ich mir gedacht: Wieso eigentlich nicht? Wenn man halt Fleisch isst, muss man vielleicht auch sagen: Hey, ich muss es nicht können, aber vielleicht mal gesehen haben. (Video 5)</i>
<i>Hallo</i>	<i>Eigentlich sollte ich mich hier mit Leuten von der Berufsfeuerwehr Augsburg treffen, aber wie ihr gesehen habt, die hatten jetzt einen anderen Termin. Da frage ich mich: Hallo? (Video 2)</i>

In these corpus excerpts (table 7), *Hey* and *Hallo* are not used to greet another individual, hence they do not qualify as communicative ritual in the analysis.

Interjections and exclamations containing English items were examined to determine whether they function as emotional outlet. Emotional reactions were identified by examining the speakers' intonation, gestures, and the content of the utterance. This category was further subdivided into expression of astonishment, negative reaction to situation and expression of fear. While these sensations are not mutually exclusive the current analysis does not allow for double-coding. The coder assigned emotional reactions to the perceived dominant tone.

For a detailed elaboration on the discourse functions of *okay* see section 5.4.3.1.

Not all anglicisms were assigned a function in this study.

d) Need

All anglicisms were coded in accordance with Onysko's (2007) distinction between denotative and connotative need. As discussed in section 2.2.1, whether a term was used due to connotative or denotative needs depends on the existence of a near German equivalent (cf. Carstensen 1965: n.p., cited in Coats 2019: 259). However, the determination of needs-aspects can also be dependent on the different meaning facets of an item and the context of utterance as illustrated in the example of the anglicism *Baby* (PRC 2024: video 1). Video 1 exhibits two manifestations of *Baby* (see table 8).

Table 8. Excerpt from coding sheet focusing on needs associated with anglicism use. Needs for using a specific anglicism can vary depending on the meaning an anglicism denotes in a specific con- and co-text.

Anglicism	Text excerpt	Need
<i>Babies</i>	<i>Und nicht immer die kleinen Babies, wo sie süß sind, sondern immer die großen Tiere.</i>	Connotative

<i>Baby</i>	<p>Guest speaker addressing the host: <i>So schau, das ist unser Jimmy.</i></p> <p>Guest speaker addressing the monkey: <i>Baby.</i></p>	Denotative
-------------	--	------------

In the first example, anglicism use has been attributed to connotative needs. *Babies* could be replaced by German *Neugeborenen* without significantly altering the meaning or tone of the statement. The speaker uses *Baby* as a categorical term to refer to young animals in general. In the second example *Baby* is used affectionately in a vocative form to greet a little monkey named Jimmy. In this context, using the categorical term *Neugeborenes* would not be natural, as it does not usually serve as a vocative. Therefore, lacking a direct functional and formal equivalent in German, the use of *Baby* was assigned to denotative needs in the second example.

This comparison of two manifestations of the same anglicism illustrates that the need of using an anglicism is dependent on the different meaning dimensions of an item; therefore, it is insufficient to merely examine whether an anglicism has a German counterpart in the dictionary. The specific use and function of the anglicism has to be considered. In the present analysis, the situational context and co-text of each anglicism was examined in the determination of usage need. Whether using a certain term (e.g., *Baby* versus *Neugeborenes*) in a specific context is natural is subject to the coder's perception of language.

Furthermore, the categorization of *Burger* (cf. video 5) also raises some questions concerning the definition of German equivalents in the present study. English *Burger* derives from *Hamburger* (etymonline 2024: s.v. *burger*). As a glance at the entry for *Hamburger* in the German Dictionary *Duden* reveals, *Hamburger* can either be phonologically realized in its English form, /hembœ:ɐgə/ (Cambridge Dictionary 2014: s.v. *hamburger*), or its assimilated German phonological form /hamboagə/ (Duden 2024: s.v. *hamburger*). However, in the light of the present study, which only recognizes core anglicisms, the assimilated form would not be coded as anglicism if uttered by the speakers in the *PULS Reportage*. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that the Germanized *Hamburger* evokes associations with the German city Hamburg, thereby obscuring its English roots even more. Without discrediting other approaches toward the type of need triggering the use of *Burger*, in the present study, *Burger* was attributed to connotative needs. The German pronunciation of *Hamburger* is considered a German equivalent as it would not be coded as anglicism within the framework established in this study. This example once again highlights how different conceptualizations of the term *anglicism* affect the analysis of the linguistic material.

In conclusion, assigning communicative needs to anglicisms requires an analysis of the meaning a word conveys in its specific context. Hence, examining items in isolation is no feasible approach. Furthermore, as illustrated by the example *hamburger*, the determination of needs-aspects is not purely objective and could vary between coders, depending on their chosen criteria for identifying equivalents in the receptor language (e.g., possible phonological realizations).

5. Results and discussion

5.1 Overall anglicism ratios

This sub-section presents the quantitative data elicited from the PRC.

Applying the method described in section 4.2.2, the word count of each episode and of the PRC as a whole was evaluated. The adapted word count of the PRC is 11,645 words, with an anglicism count of 173 (see table 9); hence, on average every 67th word in the PRC was coded as an anglicism. To ensure better comparability of the results, relative frequencies have been calculated by dividing the absolute frequency count of an item by the number of items in the sample (Burmasova 2010: 188). These results produce a relative anglicism token frequency of 0.01486 in the whole PRC, equivalent to approximately 1.5 percent of the adapted word count. The proportion of anglicisms to non-anglicisms in the PRC is visualized in the pie chart below.

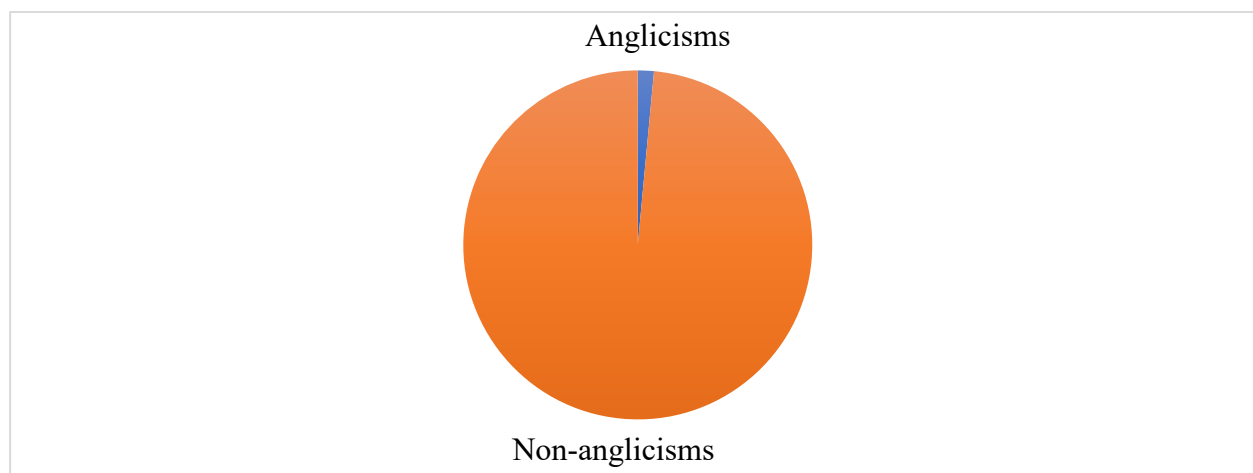


Figure 5. Proportion of anglicisms to non-anglicisms in the PRC. This figure shows that anglicisms account for approximately 1.5 percent of the total PRC word count. The PRC exhibits 173 occurrences of anglicisms and encompasses 11,472 non-anglicisms.

Figure 5 shows that anglicisms represent a minority in the PRC. While recognizing the impact of methodological decisions, particularly concerning the definition of *anglicism*, on the frequencies detected (see section 3.2 for an elaboration on comparability issues), the quantitative results will be compared with other studies on anglicisms to better interpret the anglicism frequencies in the PRC.

Onysko (2007: 318) considers an anglicism token frequency of 1.11 percent as low. The higher frequency of anglicisms in the PRC may be due to its more informal tone and the use of spontaneous language in the videos analysed. As previously mentioned, anglicisms gravitate

towards more informal linguistic environments (Hoffmann 2003: 30). This hypothesis is further supported by Coats' (2019: 255) analysis of Twitter posts, which exhibit features of highly informal language (Coats 2019: 268). Despite excluding code-switches and multi-word anglicisms, Coats (2019: 266) reports an anglicism concentration of 1.5 percent, similar to the present study. Furthermore, the higher anglicism-frequencies observed in the PRC, compared to Onysko's (2007) corpus, might also be linked to the younger target audience of the *PULS Reportage*. Anglicism use is strongly associated with the language of the youth (Vaić & Blažević 2012: 8, Mardari 2018: 344). Given that the *PULS Reportage* caters to an audience aged between 16 and 25 years (Puls 2022), it is plausible that speakers use language that appeals to this demographic.

Moreover, Coats (2019: 266) notes that anglicism-use is genre-specific. In her corpus of spoken language in German radio morning shows, Schaefer (2021: 575, 582) detects an anglicism density of 1.6 percent, which exceeds the anglicism rates reported in the studies discussed. Schaefer (2021: 578), notes that most reporters interviewed view established anglicisms as component of High German. Schaefer's (2021) study underscores the findings of the present study, that anglicisms also occur in German spoken media.

Comparing the studies reviewed in this study suggests that the anglicism density in the present study ranks from medium to high. However, due to constraints of this project, the literature review is not exhaustive. Therefore, labelling the anglicism-frequency in the PRC as low, medium, or high neither appears to be objective nor representative.

Furthermore, evaluating the anglicism counts per episode sheds light on the distribution of anglicisms across the PRC. In absolute terms, episode 4 (48 anglicisms) exhibits the highest rate of anglicisms, followed by episode 3 (41 anglicisms), episode 1 (32 anglicisms) and 5 (32 anglicisms), and episode 2 (20 anglicisms), with the lowest amount of anglicisms. Data relevant to the analysis of anglicism rates in the PRC have been summarized in table 9.

Table 9. Anglicism counts and adapted word counts. This table presents the anglicism counts and adapted word counts per session and the total anglicism and adapted word count.

Episode 1 Anglicism list		Episode 1 Corpus	
Word count	42	Original word count	2,086
Anglicism count	32	Adapted word count	2,076
Episode 2 Anglicism list		Episode 2 Corpus	
Word count	21	Original word count	2,844
Anglicism count	20	Adapted word count	2,843
Episode 3 Anglicism list		Episode 3 Corpus	
Word count	44	Original word count	2,409
Anglicism count	41	Adapted word count	2,406
Episode 4 Anglicism list		Episode 4 Corpus	
Word count	54	Original word count	2,086
Anglicism count	48	Adapted word count	2,080
Episode 5 Anglicism list		Episode 5 Corpus	
Word count	37	Original word count	2,245
Anglicism count	32	Adapted word count	2,240
Total anglicism count	173	Total adapted word count	11,645

Table 10 shows that the absolute anglicism counts vary between 20 to 48 anglicisms per episode. As the episodes transcribed vary in word length, relative anglicism frequencies for each episode have been evaluated (see table 10).

Table 10. Anglicism rates per episode. Episode 4 features the highest number of anglicisms, episode 2 the lowest.

Episode	Anglicism count	Adapted word count	Relative frequency of anglicisms
Episode 1	32	2,076	0.015414
Episode 2	20	2,843	0.007035
Episode 3	41	2,406	0.017041
Episode 4	48	2,080	0.023077
Episode 5	32	2,240	0.014286

Table 10 presents relative anglicism frequencies per episode. Episodes 1, 3 and 4 exhibit anglicism-ratios exceeding the overall relative anglicism frequency in the PRC (0.01486). Episodes 2 and 5 do not meet the 1.5 percent mark. Episode 5 only features a slightly lower anglicism frequency than the overall relative frequency of anglicisms in the PRC, whereas the relative frequency of anglicisms in episode 2 is notably lower. Figure 6 serves to visualize the differences in anglicism-saturation between the analysed *PULS Reportage* episodes.

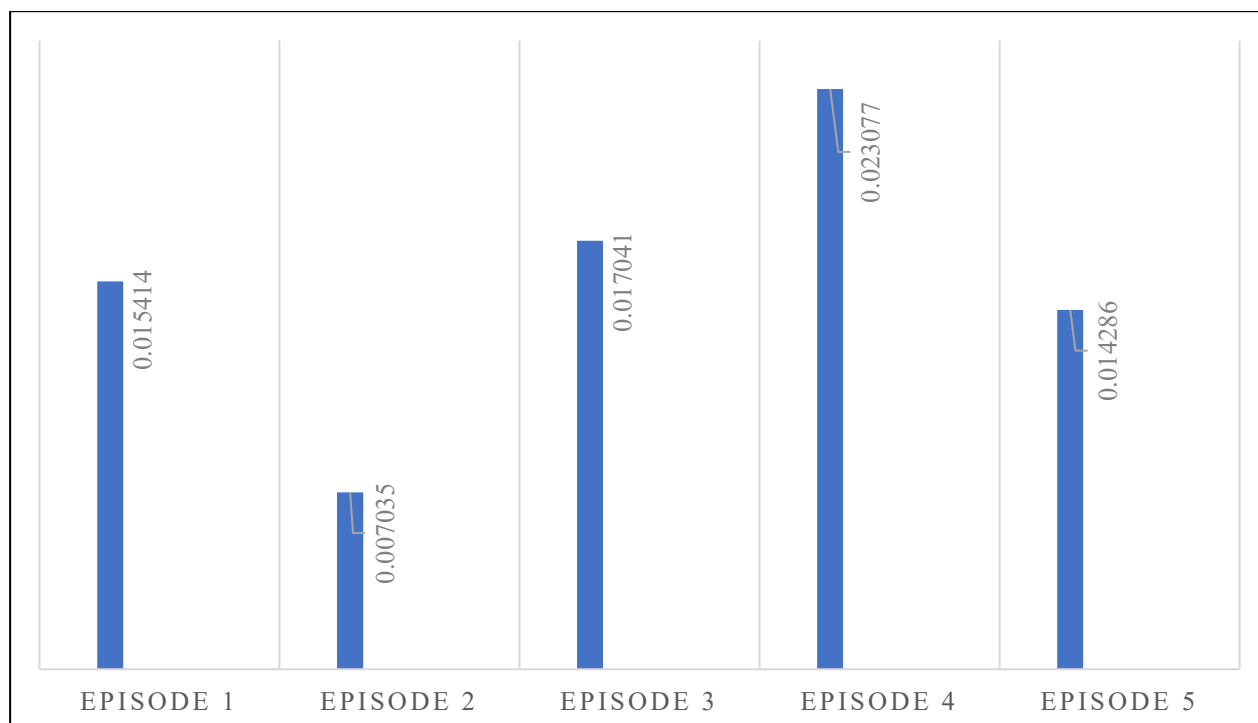


Figure 6. Relative frequency of anglicisms per episode. The pie chart depicts the uneven distribution of anglicisms across the episodes examined.

Several factors could explain the fluctuations in anglicism rates between episodes. Firstly, it should be considered that each episode is hosted by a different speaker. Speakers' idiolects likely

vary in their use of anglicisms. Unfortunately, this study does not provide enough language material to reliably analyse speakers' idiolects. Secondly, the topical focus of each episode might affect anglicism use. The corpus subset with the highest anglicism saturation, namely episode 4, centres on VR-tools as a means of self-therapizing anxiety. Anglicisms associated with app-controlled VR self-help tools are featured 16 times in episode 4, with 20 modern technology-related anglicisms occurring in the PRC in total (see section 5.3 for a more detailed discussion on semantic fields). An additional factor that might have potentially promoted different anglicism frequencies between the videos is the format of conversation. For example, episode 3, exhibiting the second-highest relative anglicism frequency shows the host as they are taught how to act in two dangerous situations. The most frequent anglicism in this episode is *okay*; speakers in this episode inter alia use *okay* to signal that they understood what has been said or that they are ready for the next step. It could be argued that this tutorial setting facilitates the use of *okay* as a marker of comprehension, attention, or the user's readiness. However, the use of *okay* can be linked to connotative needs of anglicism use as German alternatives could have been used in said situation. Hence, the use of *okay* is not dictated by the format of conversation, but the decision to use *okay* in this context could also be the manifestation of the speaker's preferences (see section 5.4.3.2 for a discussion of the uses of *okay* in the PRC).

Although this corpus study cannot pinpoint the exact reasons for the uneven distribution of anglicisms, it demonstrates that anglicisms are consistently used by all five hosts. The quantitative analysis implies that the PRC constitutes a valuable source for the analysis of anglicisms.

5.2. Anglicism types in the PRC

As indicated above, the coding manual serving as a framework for this empirical study distinguishes between four types of anglicisms: lexical borrowings, code-switching, hybrid anglicisms and pseudo anglicisms. The distinction between different types of anglicisms and their characteristics is intended to serve as a tool of guidance for the identification of anglicisms. Applying the categorical framework presented in the coding manual (see section 2.2.2) yielded the following results:

All four types of anglicisms are represented in the PRC; however, the proportion of each type varies. Lexical borrowings are the most prominent anglicisms in the PRC, with 126 instances. Speakers in the PRC utilize code-switching 33 times, whereas German and English items co-occur in hybrid anglicisms nine times. Pseudo anglicisms are the least pronounced in the PRC, with only 5 instances. Figure 7 below visualizes the stark differences in representation of the different types of anglicism in the PRC.

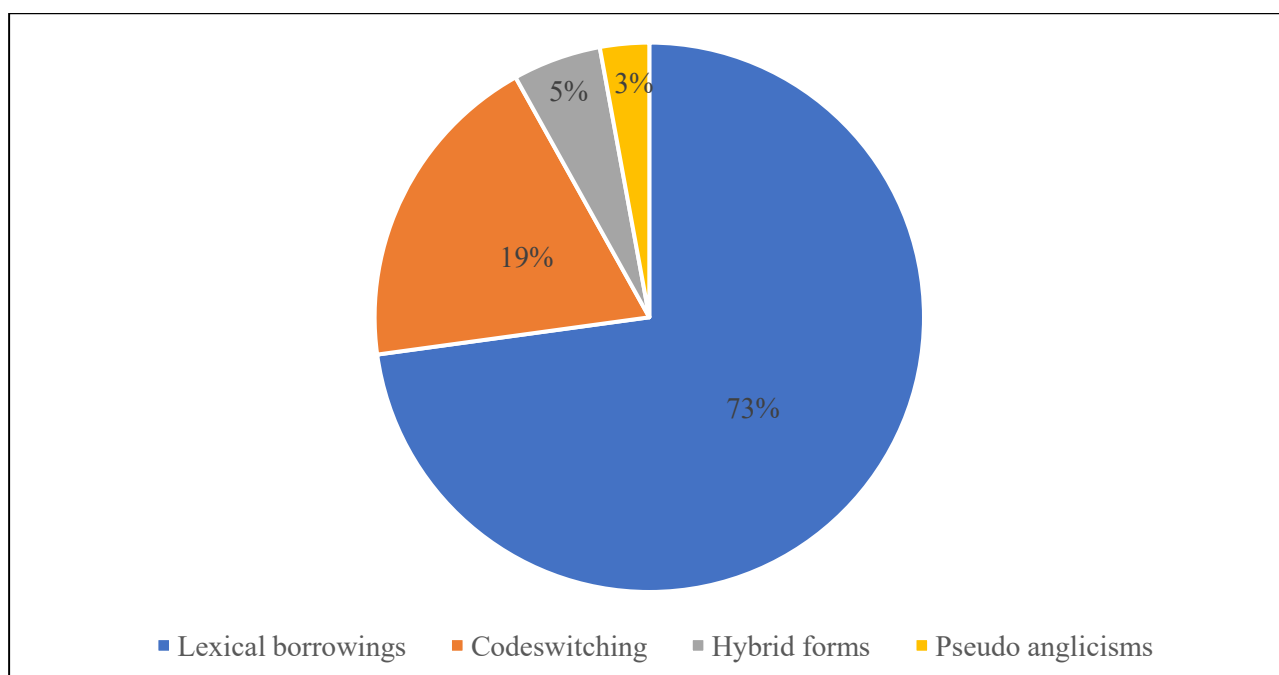


Figure 7. Anglicism types in the PRC. Lexical borrowings account for almost three quarters of all anglicisms recorded in the PRC.

As figure 7 clearly shows, speakers predominantly use lexical borrowings when they incorporate English items into German speech in the PRC. Table 11 below displays the top-five lexical borrowings in the PRC and their incidence counts.

Table 11. Incidence of the most frequent lexical borrowings. This category of anglicism types is clearly dominated by the lexical borrowing *okay*. *Okay Deal* is not included in this count as *Okay Deal* was coded as code-switch.

Lexical borrowing	Incidence count
<i>Okay/ okay okay</i>	71
<i>Hi</i>	8
<i>Job</i>	8

As Table 11 shows, *okay* (68 occurrences) or the passage *okay okay* (3 occurrences) constitute more than half of all lexical borrowings in the PRC. The uses of *okay* in the PRC are elaborated on in section 5.4.3. The relatively high frequency of the anglicism *Hi* implies that anglicisms are also incorporated into ritualistic communication such as greeting someone in the PRC (see section 5.4.2). Interestingly, *okay* and *Hi* are also recorded as one of the most frequent anglicisms in Vaić and Blažević's (2012: 13) study of chat communication. The use of *Job* is potentially facilitated by the respective episode's semantic focus (video 2: the occupation crime scene cleaner) (see section 5.3). Notably, all of the most frequent lexical borrowings (see table 11) can be assigned to connotative needs. These findings once again imply a certain level of openness toward the use of anglicisms among the speakers featured in this corpus.

The category of code-switches is dominated by single-word instances. Speakers switch codes for a single item 21 times in the PRC, while only 12 code-switches are multi-word units. Examining code-switches in the PRC, it can be observed that code-switches are often emotion-loaded or carry an evaluative stance. While this observation pertains specifically to code-switches used by adults in the PRC, it resonates with Mardari's (2018: 348) study reporting a dominance of anglicisms of assessment and emotions in youth speech (see section 5.4.1 on emotional reactions expressed through anglicisms in the PRC). Furthermore, some items repeatedly occur in the form of code-switches (e.g., *crazy*, *hosts*, *easy*). The following code-switches have been recorded in the PRC with emotive (e.g., *hate*, *gestruggelt*, *no way*) and evaluative code-switches (e.g., *crazy*, *blurry*, *easy*) highlighted in bold, the rest was categorized as neutral code-switches (e.g., *climbed*, *mall*): *Anxiety*, ***Blurry***, *Climbed*, ***Crazy*** (x2 times), ***Crazy Shit***, *Crocodile*, ***Easy*** (x2 times), *For free*, ***Fuck***, ***Fuck my life***, ***Gestruggelt***, ***Hate***, ***Holy fucking shit***, *Hosts* (x2 times), *I don't know*, *Mall*, *Mission*, ***No Chance***, ***No way***, *Okay Deal*, *Reallife*, ***Sick***, *Unlocked*, *VR* (x2 times), *We are back*, *Welcome to reporter-life*, ***What the fuck***, ***What?***, ***Worst case***.

In the PRC, speakers rarely combine free morphemes from English and the receptor language German to create hybrid anglicisms. The following nine hybrid anglicisms could be identified: *Notbutton*, *timing-mäßig*, *Appartement-Fenster*, *Level eins*, *Level drei*, *VR-Brille* (x2 times), *VR-Selbsthilfetool*, *Burgerteller*. This category also exhibits repetitive occurrences. *Level* occurs twice as a component of a hybrid anglicism, and *VR* was detected in three tokens of hybrid anglicisms. The repetition of these items is also a result of the thematic focus of video 4, testing VR-therapy apps. Furthermore, referring to Glahn's (2002) study, Onysko (2007: 56) notes that "[a]mong hybrids, compound nouns are by far the largest group". These findings resonate with the results of the present study, apart from *timing-mäßig* all hybrid anglicisms are compound nouns.

The category pseudo anglicisms is rather homogenous in composition, containing the following tokens: *check*, *check*, *checken*, *Handy*, *Handy*.

In conclusion, in the PRC anglicisms are not evenly distributed across anglicism types. Speakers predominantly make use of lexical borrowings. Items coded as lexical borrowings have been considered as incorporated into German lexis (see coding manual). By using well established anglicisms, speakers are more likely to retain comprehensibility but may also draw from the possible positive connotations of English suggested by scholars (e.g., Hoffmann 2003: 26) (see section 3.1). Additionally, a tendency to carry emotive and evaluative notions could be observed in instances of code-switching in the PRC. Pseudo anglicisms and hybrid anglicisms are barely represented in the PRC. When speakers in the PRC employ the latter, they tend to combine

English and German items to create noun-compounds. The low counts of pseudo and hybrid anglicisms show that traces of receptor-language inherent linguistic creation are less explicit than indicators of direct form-meaning transfer and code-switching.

5.3 Semantic categories and connotative and denotative needs

In the PRC, 173 core-anglicisms were coded according to their type of need. The occurrences of 165 anglicisms are linked to connotative needs, denotative needs triggered the usage of 8 anglicisms. Thus, in the entire PRC, approximately 5 percent of anglicisms are uttered due to denotative needs and approximately 95 percent to connotative needs. The following pie chart visualizes the connotative to denotative needs relationship in the PRC.

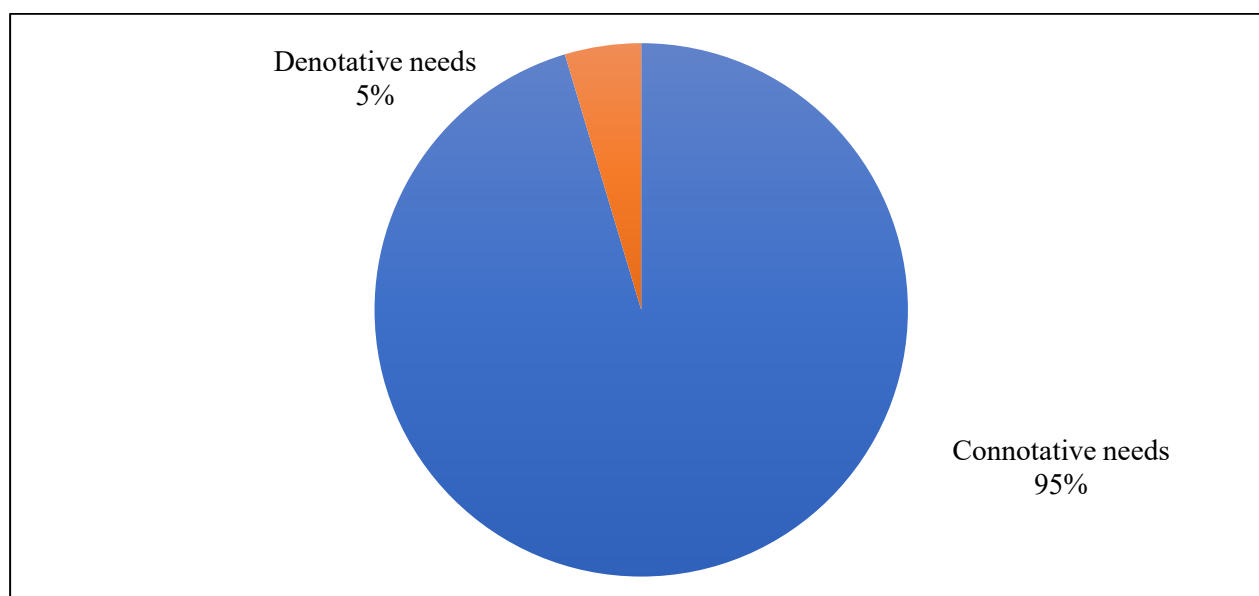


Figure 8. Need-factors for anglicism use. The figure clearly shows a pronounced dominance of connotatively motivated anglicism use in the PRC.

From the semantic analysis of the PRC, six semantic categories emerged: *Modern Technology* (20 items), *Work* (10 items), *Leisure* (10 items), *Food* (8 items), and *Health* (4 items), and *Trade* (2 items). 54 out of 173 anglicism tokens could be categorized into the said semantic fields. The remaining items did not show a clear semantic tendency (e.g., *okay*) or would have resulted in single-member categories (e.g., *Living: Appartement-Fenster*).

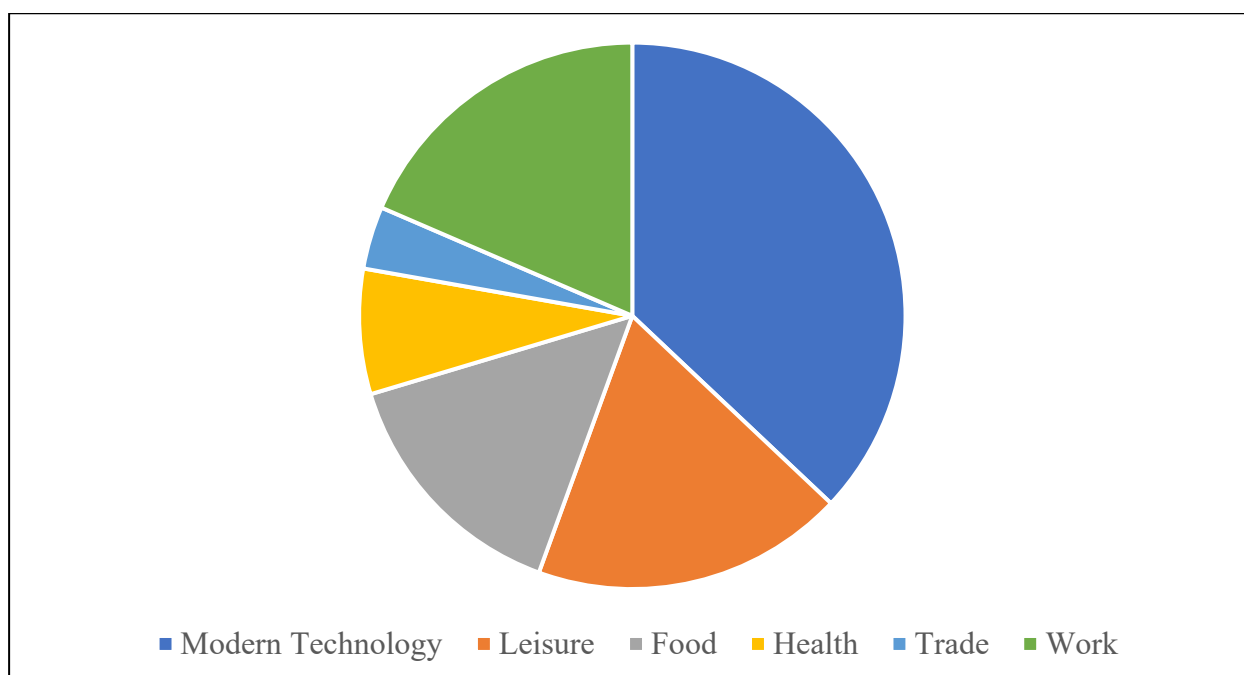


Figure 9. Semantic categories in the PRC. In the PRC, anglicisms are distributed unevenly across semantic categories

The pie-chart above shows the distribution of anglicisms across the semantic categories of the PRC. The category *Modern Technology* was further divided into *Function of Device* and *Device*. *Leisure* encompasses the sub-categories *Pets*, *Sports* and *Miscellaneous* (*Leisure* without further specification). Items from the category *Health* were either allocated to *Physical Health* or *Mental Health*. Neither *Work*, *Food* nor *Trade* were further sub-categorized. Figure 10 provides an overview of the evaluated semantic categories in the PRC.

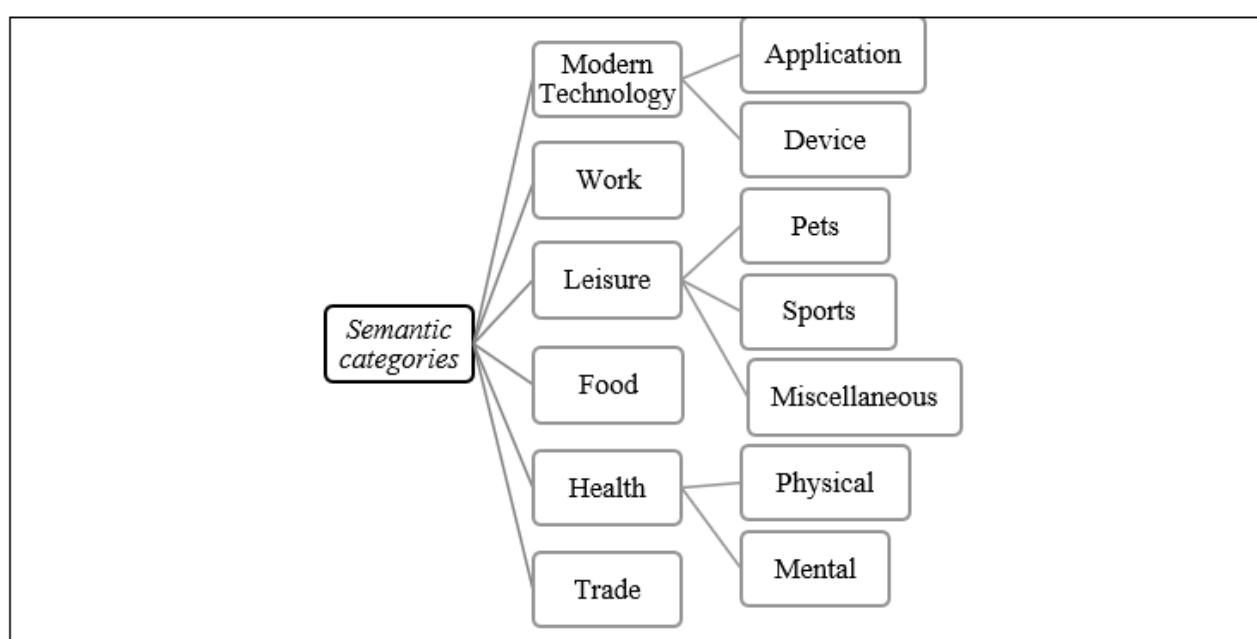


Figure 10. Semantic sub-categories in the PRC. This figure presents the main semantic categories, and their sub-categories identified in the PRC.

Figure 10 presents the categorical framework that emerged from the semantic analysis of the PRC. Examining needs-aspects, it can be observed that anglicism members of semantic

categories are used due to connotative reasons in 46 cases and due to denotative reasons in 8 cases. Hence, roughly 85 percent of all anglicisms showing an affiliation to a semantic field are generated by connotative needs and almost 15 percent by denotative needs. In comparison to the overall relation of denotative to connotative needs in the PRC, semantically categorized items are more often triggered by denotative needs. This dynamic is partly due to the prevalence of the discourse marker *okay* in the PRC (see section 5.4.3), which is used due to its connotations and is not semantically charged. The following discussion presents results retrieved from the analysis of individual semantic categories and the respective motivational needs for anglicism-usage.

Supporting the assumption that the usage of anglicisms can often be linked to developments in modern media and technical phenomena, *Modern Technology* emerges as the most prominent semantic category in the PRC. 20 Items can be associated with the field *Modern Technology*. From this category, 15 items were coded as *Function of Device* and the remaining five refer to a technological device. *Function of Device* refers to functions that are provided by technological devices (e.g., apps, internet) or concepts associated with such functions (e.g., *YouTube followers* is associated with the function *internet*). Table 12 lists all anglicisms coded with the label *Modern Technology*.

Table 12. The semantic field *Modern Technology*. This excerpt from the anglicism list presents all data relevant to the semantic category *Modern Technology*.

Anglicism	Type	Sub-category of <i>Modern Technology</i>	Need
<i>Internet</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Denotative
<i>Internet</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Denotative
<i>YouTube-Follower</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>Virtual reality</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>App</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Denotative
<i>App</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Denotative
<i>Gedownloadet</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>Podcast</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Denotative
<i>App</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Denotative
<i>Level eins</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Function of Device	Connotative

<i>Level</i>	Lexical borrowing	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>Unlocked</i>	Code-switch	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>Level drei</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>VR</i>	Code-switch	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>VR</i>	Code-switch	Function of Device	Connotative
<i>Handy</i>	Pseudo-English	Device	Connotative
<i>Handy</i>	Pseudo-English	Device	Connotative
<i>VR-Brille</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Device	Connotative
<i>VR-Brille</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Device	Connotative
<i>VR-Selbsthilfetoool</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Device	Connotative

According to Plechko, Chukhno, Nikolaieva, Apolonova, and Leleka (2022: 183), English carries high visibility in the field of information technology; This observation is evident in the present study, where items representative of the IT domain feature repeatedly (e.g., *Internet*, *App*, *gedownloadet*, *VR*). In Burmasova's (2010: 203) analysis of the *Die Welt*-corpus, the section *culture*, encompassing the sub-sections *multimedia*, *TV*, and *films*, ranks second in terms of anglicism usage. Items like *VR*, *App*, *Podcast* or *gedownloadet* (video 4) can also be associated with the realm of multimedia, further underscoring the prevalence of modern-technology and media-related anglicisms in German language that has been reported in other studies. Additionally, in Schaefer's (2021: 579) study on novel anglicisms, *Technology* also emerges as the most productive semantic field. The abundance of technology-related anglicisms in video 4 (16 instances), which centres on VR-guided therapy for anxiety, further suggests that discourses on topics within semantic fields rich in anglicisms are conducive to higher anglicism occurrences in the corpus.

The dominance of IT-related new verbal anglicisms in Coats' (2019: 267) Twitter-Corpus reveals a pronounced link to denotative needs. In contrast, the semantic category *Modern Technology* in the PRC exhibits a dominance of connotatively motivated anglicism usage. 14 anglicisms are allocated to the category of connotative need, whereas only six items were used due to denotative needs. The relation of denotative to connotative need in the semantic category *Modern Technology* is therefore 30 to 70 percent. Across all semantic categories of the PRC only 15 percent are prompted by denotative needs. In relation to the denotative (5 percent) to connotative (95 percent) need count in the entire PRC and the proportion between denotative and

connotative needs in semantically categorized items in the PRC, denotative needs still seem to accumulate in the semantic field *Modern Technology* in the PRC. Additionally, examining the referents of items, it can be concluded that except for *level* and *unlocked*, all anglicisms in this category specifically refer to innovations in the field of technology, emphasizing the effect of technological innovations on the importation of anglicisms (c.f. Hoffmann 2003: 26). New devices and applications emerged (e.g., Apps) and their English term has been incorporated into the German language (e.g., *Internet*, *App*), highlighting the relationship between changes in language and technological advancements.

The second most prevalent semantic categories in the PRC are *Leisure* and *Work*, each counting 10 instances of anglicisms. The latter is rather homogenous, comprising eight instances of the anglicism *Job* and two of the anglicism *Team*. Except for one anglicism (video 1: *team*), all work-related anglicisms have been uttered in video 2 (see table 13). Utterances in the PRC stemming from this semantic category are entirely connotatively motivated.

Table 13. The semantic field *Work*. This excerpt from the anglicism list presents all data relevant to the semantic category *Work*

Anglicism	Type	Need
<i>Team</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Team</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative

The high saturation of work-related anglicisms in video 2 might be due to its focus on the profession of a crime scene cleaner. Interestingly, episode 5, which follows the host to a butchery, also introduces a profession but does not feature the anglicism *Job*. As indicated in the table above, *Job* is connotatively motivated. Hence, one might assume that speakers in video 5 preferred the German term *Arbeit* over the anglicism *Job*, explaining the absence of this anglicism; However, *Arbeit* is only used once in video 5, implying that the context in video 5 did

not encourage the use of either of the categorical terms *Arbeit* and *Job*. *Arbeit* appears twice in episode 2, indicating speakers' preference for the anglicism *Job*. Both, speakers' preferences and communicative context affect the usage or absence of anglicisms. Furthermore, the analysis of this sub-category again indicates that a video's foci can facilitate the use of certain anglicisms, affecting the distribution of anglicisms across semantic categories.

The second category comprising 10 items is more diverse in its sources of videos. As Schäfer (2002: 78) points out, *Leisure Time* and *Sports* can be regarded as semantic core fields of anglicisms. In the PRC, 10 anglicisms are used in relation to leisure. 4 tokens were not further assigned to a specific sub-category of *Leisure*: *Hobby*, *Ticket* and *Hosts*. 3 anglicisms can be associated with the sub-category *Pets* in the PRC, whereas the remaining 3 are allocated to the sub-category *Sports*. Unlike Burmasova's study (2010: 203), which reported the sports-section in *Die Welt* as the richest in anglicisms, and in contrast to Schäfer's (2002: 78) observations, this study does not confirm high rates of sports-related anglicisms. The low incidence of sport-related anglicisms may be caused by the fact that none of the videos specifically addresses this topic. The anglicisms coded with the label *Pets* might appear as rather unusual representatives of this category. Both occurrences of *Baby* as well as *Crocodile* were used to refer to exotic pets. Finally, with a 20-percent rate of anglicism use triggered by denotative needs, this semantic category also exceeds the overall trends concerning denotative needs in the PRC.

Table 14. The semantic field *Leisure*. This excerpt from the anglicism list presents all data relevant to the semantic category *Leisure*.

Anglicism	Type	Sub-category of <i>Leisure</i>	Need
<i>Hobby</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure	Denotative
<i>Ticket</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure	Connotative
<i>Hosts</i>	Code-switch	Leisure	Connotative
<i>Hosts</i>	Code-switch	Leisure	Connotative
<i>Babies</i>	Lexical borrowing	Pets	Connotative
<i>Baby</i>	Lexical borrowing	Pets	Denotative
<i>Crocodile</i>	Code-switch	Pets	Connotative
<i>Caving</i>	Lexical borrowing	Sports	Connotative
<i>Climbed</i>	Code-switch	Sports	Connotative
<i>Skydiven</i>	Lexical borrowing	Sports	Connotative

Food, containing eight anglicisms, represents a semantic category entirely constituted by anglicism utterances linked to connotative needs. Similar to the domains of *Modern Technology* and *Work*, a peak can be identified in one of the videos: almost 90 percent of all food-related anglicisms were detected in video 5. This result is unsurprising, as video 5 deals with butchering and the consumption of meat; hence, the video specifically focuses on a food-related topic and food-related vocabulary occurs naturally. Nonetheless, in the examples below, the speakers specifically opt for the use of anglicisms, despite the availability of a German equivalent (see table 15).

Table 15. The semantic field *Food*. This excerpt from the anglicism list presents all data relevant to the semantic category *Food*.

Anglicism	Type	Need
<i>Snackt</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Burger</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Burger</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Burger Patties</i>	Lexical Borrowing	Connotative
<i>Burger</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Burgerteller</i>	Hybrid from	Connotative
<i>Patty</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Burger</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative

The semantic field *Health* (see table 16) is barely visible in the PRC, only four anglicisms were allocated to this semantic category. Three of them are associated with mental health and one with physical health. All of these anglicisms carry a connotative character as each concept could have been expressed without using anglicisms. In the corpus, only episode 4 focuses on a mental-health-related topic. Video 4 also features two items related to mental health. An additional item from this semantic sub-category occurs in video 2 while the only representative of *Health/Physical* is featured in video 3.

Table 16. The semantic field *Health*. This excerpt from the anglicism list presents all data relevant to the semantic category *Health*.

Anglicism	Type	Sub-category of <i>Health</i>	Need
<i>Package</i>	Lexical borrowing	Mental	Connotative
<i>Anxiety</i>	Code-switch	Mental	Connotative
<i>Triggert</i>	Lexical borrowing	Mental	Connotative
<i>Fit</i>	Lexical borrowing	Physical	Connotative

Trade (see table 17) is the smallest semantic category in this corpus, comprising of only 2 anglicisms. None of the videos specifically approaches the topic of trade. However, it could be argued that trade plays a role in video 1, where the host attempts to buy a crocodile. However, as can be seen in table 17, both anglicism utterances were connotatively motivated and were used in video 4.

Table 17. The semantic field *Trade*. This excerpt from the anglicism list presents all data relevant to the semantic category *Trade*.

Anglicism	Type	Need
<i>Marketing</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Mall</i>	Code-switch	Connotative

In conclusion, the analysis of anglicisms with a semantic tendency in the PRC further supports the idea that the semantic category *Technology* is a linguistic environment conducive to the emergence of anglicisms. The semantic sub-category *Sports*, exhibiting high occurrence rates of anglicisms in Burmasova's (2010: 203) study, hardly served as a source of anglicism in the PRC. This discussion implies that there is a correlation between the topical focus of videos (*Modern Technology, Work, Food*) and the anglicism fields speakers resort to. Furthermore, this section of the study suggests that in the PRC, most speakers use anglicisms despite the existence of an equivalent German expression. These results imply that hosts and guests in the transcribed *PULS Reportage* episodes predominantly use anglicisms because of their connotations, such as their association with modernity (cf. Carstensen 1965: n.p., cited in Coats 2019: 259), and/or, as hypothesized in section 5.1., to appeal to their younger audience. However, the exact motivations leading to the incorporation of denotative anglicisms into speech can only be evaluated by means of consulting the actual speakers deciding to use these anglicisms. *Modern Technology* shows the highest incidence of anglicisms linked to denotative needs, underscoring the impact of the invention of technological items and applications on the growth of the anglicism repertoire (c.f., Hoffmann 2003: 26).

5.4 Functions of Anglicisms in the PRC

In the following discussion, the results from the functional analysis will be presented. Section 5.4.1 examines emotional reactions expressed through the usage of anglicisms. Section 5.4.2 explores anglicism units in communicative rituals. Finally, section 5.4.3 explores uses of the anglicism *okay* in general (5.4.3.1) and specifically in the PRC (5.4.3.2).

5.4.1 Anglicisms expressing emotional reactions in the PRC

As seen in table 18, all emotional reactions are examples of code-switching, satisfying connotational needs. It should be noted that emotional reactions could also be expressed through other forms of anglicisms; for example, the lexical borrowing *cool* could serve as an expression of emotion depending on factors such as context, intonation, and gestures. However, in the present corpus, emotional expression through anglicism use is limited to a single anglicism category. In the corpus, anglicisms were used nine times to express emotions. All anglicisms coded as emotional reaction were uttered by the host of the respective *PULS Reportage* episode. Emotional reactions expressed through anglicisms were assigned to either of the following tones: *astonishment*, *fear*, and *negative reaction to situation*.

Table 18. Anglicisms as an expression of emotional reaction. This table provides a list of all anglicisms associated with an emotional reaction. (PRC 2024)

Anglicism	PRC Excerpt	Type	Need	Tone of emotional reaction
<i>Crazy</i>	<i>Ach crazy. Willst du mich verarschen?</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Crazy Shit</i>	<i>Crazy Shit.</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Sick</i>	<i>Hier ist mein kleines Reich. Das ist ja sick.</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>What the fuck</i>	<i>Digger, wollt ihr mich verarschen. What the fuck.</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>What?</i>	<i>Sie ist nicht so schwer wie ein Kind. What?</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Fuck</i>	<i>Ich komme da nie</i>	Code-	Connotative	Negative reaction to situation

	<i>wieder hoch. Fuck.</i>	switch		
<i>No way</i>	<i>Nein, wirklich? Ja, ja. No way.</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Fuck my life.</i>	<i>Wo bin ich hier? Ich habe Angst, fuck my life.</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Fear
<i>Holy fucking shit</i>	<i>holy fucking shit Sehr seltsam, es ist sehr seltsam hier zu stehen, während gerade ein Tier da gestorben ist</i>	Code-switch	Connotative	Negative reaction to situation

Similar to Schaefer's (2021: 574) analysis of single-word code-switches in the corpus of German radio language, the present study finds that single-word code-switches may be utilized as a marker of the speaker's emotional state. Four anglicisms linked to an emotional reaction in the PRC are single-word code-switches *crazy*, *sick*, *what?*, and *fuck* (PRC 2024). Furthermore, anglicisms in youth speech seem to gravitate toward the semantic spheres of emotions (Mardari 2018: 348). While speakers in the PRC would be classified as adults, the target group of the series (PULS 2022) is likely to affect the language used by speakers in the videos. Code-switches are repeatedly used for emotional expression in this corpus (see section 5.2).

Examining the colour scheme of table 18, it can be observed that English predominantly serves as a donor language to express emotions in videos 1 (green) and 3 (yellow). Video 1 features four instances of expression of emotional reactions via the usage of anglicisms, followed by video 3 (3 instances), videos 4 and 5 (1 instance respectively) and video 2, where the speaker does not utilize English to express emotional responses.

Topic-wise it could be argued that all 5 videos address topics that might elicit verbalized emotional reactions. In video 1, the host, Nadine Hadad, uses anglicisms to convey her emotional response to the exotic animals presented to her. The emotional reactions verbalized through the use of these anglicisms were all interpreted as a sign of astonishment by the coder. In video 2, which produced the shortest anglicism list in the corpus, Sebastian Meinberg is instructed how to clean the dilapidated apartment of a deceased person. While the host does express emotional reactions verbally, he entirely resorts to German, using expression such as *krass!*, *Ach du scheiße!*, *Das ist ja der Wahnsinn!* (video 2). Ariane Alter learns to assist people

in highly dangerous situations in video 3. Her use of anglicism to comment on these simulations, such as climbing up from a train rail shaft, was interpreted as an expression of astonishment and negative feelings in response to an unpleasant situation.

In video 4, the host attempts to confront their fear of heights. Leah Nlemibe uses anglicisms to denote an emotional reaction only once. The phrase *fuck my life* seems to be used to indicate her feelings of fear. This impression is strengthened by the co-text preceding the code-switch. The video exhibits several occurrences of linguistic material expressing emotional reactions such as *Ach du Scheiße. Gott, Leute, Oh Gott* (video 4); hence, the low incidence of anglicisms fulfilling the function of verbalizing emotions is not due to a lack of contexts eliciting emotional reactions in the host. Furthermore, as the quantitative analysis has shown, video 4 has a high anglicism count, implying the hosts' readiness to incorporate English items in her speech. However, as the present analysis implies, this readiness only sparsely extends to using anglicisms as a means of marking emotional reactions. In video 5, the speaker also primarily utilizes German to express emotions, using phrases like *krass, Ist das krass*, and *Boah Leute krass*, but only code-switches once to stress negative emotions in reaction to the butchering process. Table 19 presents rates of code-switching per video and compares them to the number of emotional reactions through anglicisms by the host per video.

Table 19. Comparison of total code-switching counts and emotional code-switching counts per speaker and video. Some speaker's willingness to code-switch could be treated as an indicator for using code-switches as emotional marker.

Video/Host	Total: Code-switching	Code-switching for emotional expression
1: Nadine Hadad	13	4
2: Sebastian Meinberg	0	0
3: Ariane Alter	4	3
4: Leah Nlemibe	11	1
5: Kevin Ebert	5	1

As can be seen in table 19, the speaker who uses code-switches most frequently, Nadine Hadad in video 1, also scores highest in using code-switches as an instrument for denoting emotional states. In video 2, Sebastian Meinberg does not code-switch at all. These observations suggest a correlation between a speaker's inclination to code-switch and their use of anglicisms to express emotions. However, especially the counts obtained in video 4 debunk this theory: Leah Nlemibe

code-switches frequently but only once as an expression of emotional response. Hence, the current study does not establish a correlation between the total incidence of code-switching and the anglicism function *code-switching as emotional expression*.

Upon examining the lexical compositions of these code-switches, it becomes evident that, except for the two markers of astonishment *what?* (video 3) and *no way* (video 3), each emotionally expressive code-switch contains at least one English element carrying a negative semantic connotation (e.g., *sick*, *crazy*) and/or traditionally classified as a swear word (e.g., *shit*, *fuck*). These negatively connoted lexemes are predominantly linked to feelings of astonishment (4 occurrences), followed by negative reactions to a situation (2 occurrences) and expression of fear (1 occurrence). Notably, the lexeme *fuck* is employed by all four hosts who adopt English as an instrument of emotional expression. Within the PRC, this lexical item serves three functions: it is used to denote astonishment (*What the fuck* (video 1)), indicate negative emotions in response to a situation (*Fuck* (video 2), *Holy fucking shit* (video 5)) and as a verbalization of fear (*Fuck my life* (video 4)).

This analysis of anglicisms as a tool for indicating emotional stance toward speakers' experiences reveals that, with one exception, all hosts utilize anglicisms as emotional outlet. The present study is thus indicative of anglicisms being tied to emotional expression (cf. Schaefer 2021: 574, Mardari 2018: 348). As previously indicated, PRC-speakers exclusively resort to code-switching as a means of emotional expression in English. While some findings suggest otherwise, the frequency of code-switching per host does not reliably predict their propensity to switch to English for emotional expression. It should be noted that the present study does not provide statistical data on emotional expressions in German. To generate reliable, comparative quantitative results on speakers' preferred code of emotional stance, one would also have to consider how often German is employed as emotional marker. Furthermore, a closer examination of speakers' general use of anglicisms is necessary to understand their relationship with English as a language of emotions. Again, a comprehensive analysis of speakers' idiolects is beyond the scope of this study. An intriguing finding of this analysis is that the term *fuck* emerges as a frequent emotional marker. Depending on the context, this lexeme conveys different tones, including *astonishment*, *fear*, and *negative reaction to a situation*. Due to the very limited set of emotional markers studied in this analysis, it would be premature to draw definite conclusions about the primary function of this lexical item as an emotional marker; however, applying the present framework to an extended corpus may yield interesting insights into the use of this anglicism.

5.4.2 Anglicisms in communicative rituals: greetings and farewells

As noted in section 5.2, the presence of anglicisms as forms of greetings observed in Vaić & Blažević's (2012: 14) examination of chat communication is also evident in the present corpus. Anglicisms are used in communicative rituals nine times in the corpus. Table 20 lists all anglicisms coded with the label *communicative ritual*, referring to greetings or farewells, in the PRC.

Table 20. Communicative rituals in the PRC. This table provides an overview of communicative rituals drawing from English as a source language in the PRC.

<i>Anglicism</i>	PRC excerpt	Type	Need
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, Marcel</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, spannend</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, Nadine</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, der Markus</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi Markus</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Welcome to reporter-life</i>	<i>Welcome to reporter-life. Ich wollte eigentlich schon schlafen gehen</i>	Code-switch	Connotative
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, kann ich schon reinkommen?</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Kevin, hi</i>	Lexical borrowing	Connotative

Anglicisms in this functional position can be associated with connotative needs in the present study as each of the anglicisms could be replaced by a German counterpart (e.g., *Hallo*, *Willkommen*). The list of anglicisms presented above is highly monotonous in its composition: The anglicism *Hi* is used 8 times as a means of greeting speakers featured in the videos. There are no instances of anglicism as farewells in the present corpus. Apart from the code-switch and introductory phrase *Welcome to reporter life*, all anglicisms in this category are lexical borrowings. As the colour scheme in table 20 shows, anglicisms only fulfil the ritualistic function of greeting someone in two of the videos transcribed in the PRC: video 1 and video 5. Video 1 dominates this category with seven instances of greetings coded as anglicisms.

The absence of greeting in videos 2,3, and 4 and farewells in all videos might be linked to speakers' preference for using German as a tool for this form of ritualistic communication or the sparsity of contexts necessitating the use of greetings and farewells documented in the PRC. In order to conclude about speakers' potential preferences for English or German as a code of communication in these communicative rituals it is necessary to evaluate how often contexts in the videos elicited forms of greetings. Due to the very restricted data set generated in this part of the analysis, it is possible to conduct a comparison of English and German forms of greetings in the PRC. The following table lists all non-English phrases and lexemes functioning as greetings in the PRC.

Table 21. Non-English greetings in the PRC. Three out of five episodes transcribed in the PRC present conversational contexts eliciting the use of greetings.

German greetings in the PRC
<i>Hallo</i>
<i>Willkommen in den Tropen</i>
<i>Morgen</i>
<i>Guten Morgen</i>
<i>Morgen</i>
<i>Guten Morgen</i>
<i>Morgen</i>
<i>Hallo</i>

In total, the PRC contains 17 phrases or lexemes allocated to the category of *communicative rituals/greetings*. A comparison of English and German greetings in the PRC shows that all episodes featuring anglicisms in the position of greetings also exhibit German greetings; German greetings are only uttered twice by speakers in video 1. This could be regarded as a rather low count in comparison to the seven anglicism-greetings detected in this episode. Video 5 shows a more balanced use of English and German greetings, with English greetings being slightly more presented. In video 5 the host Kevin Ebert uses English greetings twice and German greetings once. Hence, in the PRC, English greetings outweigh German ones in videos containing anglicisms as greetings.

As tables 20 and 21 show, only videos 1, 2, and 5 contain contexts eliciting the incorporation of greetings. In video 2, all greetings are uttered in German and restrictive in their use as they refer to a specific daytime. The English counterparts of German *Guten Morgen/Morgen*, *Good Morning/Morning* are less established in the German language and would have been coded as a code-switch as opposed to a lexical borrowing. Speakers in video 2 avoid code-switching altogether, the analysis of German and English greetings in this episode implies that speakers in this episode prefer to use more established anglicisms rather than engaging in code-switching. Videos 3 and 4 are completely devoid of greetings. Hence, the lack of anglicisms fulfilling this communicative function in these videos does not necessarily imply an avoidance of English as a code of ritualistic communication. In the absence of contexts allowing for the use of greetings, no conclusions about speakers' preferences for a certain code of ritualistic communication can be drawn.

To evaluate whether the absence of English farewells in the PRC is due to a lack of contexts triggering the use of farewells, the corpus was scanned for farewells free from anglicisms. The following lists includes all phrases and lexemes used as farewell in the PRC (see table 22).

Table 22. Farewells in the PRC. Three out of five episodes transcribed in the PRC present conversational contexts eliciting the use of farewells. Speakers avoid anglicisms in farewells in this corpus.

Farewells lacking anglicisms in the PRC
<i>Gunnar, war mir ein Vergnügen</i>
<i>Mach es gut</i>
<i>Ciao</i>
<i>Ciao</i>
<i>Tschüss</i>
<i>Gute Nacht</i>
<i>Habt es schön</i>
<i>macht es gut</i>
<i>Tschüssi</i>
<i>Wiedersehen</i>
<i>Bis dann</i>
<i>Ciao</i>
<i>Bis bald</i>

The analysis shows that the PRC exhibits situational contexts eliciting the use of farewells. Videos 1, 4, and 5 capture situational contexts facilitating the use of farewells. Examining all instances of greetings and farewells in the PRC, video 1 is particularly rich in linguistic material fulfilling the purpose of greetings or farewells. The list of farewells does not exclusively encompass German language material, the Italicism *Ciao* is uttered twice in video 1 and once in video 5. Hence, in the PRC, speakers rather borrow from Italian than English to say goodbye. Some of the farewells, for example, *Ciao* or *Tschüss*, may be replaced by an anglicism (e.g., *Bye*). However, *Bye* is arguably less established in German than the English greeting *Hi* and would be categorized as a single word code-switch in the present study. Table 22 also features farewells fulfilling purposes beyond signalling the end of a conversation. For instance, *War mir ein Vergnügen* (*It was a pleasure*) also has an evaluative function referring to the prior conversation whereas *Bis dann* (*See you then*), *Habt es schön* (*Have a nice time*), *Mach(t) es gut*

(*Take care*), *Bis bald* (*See you soon*), and *Gute Nacht* (*Good night*), point towards future experiences; the latter is additionally restricted in use by the time of the day. Translated into English, these more specific farewells, would potentially be regarded as code-switches rather than established anglicisms and/or lack a direct equivalent (e.g., *Habt es schön/Have a nice time*). By employing German greetings to denote more nuanced meanings, the speakers increase comprehensibility. This examination of farewells in the PRC suggests a preference among speakers for using German or Italian farewells rather than borrowing general farewells from English or code-switching to English for more nuanced farewells.

This section of the empirical study shows that anglicisms in communicative rituals are only observed in the function of greetings in the PRC; however, they are rather restricted in their occurrence, only two videos exhibit anglicisms in this function. What is more, only one anglicism-greeting could be regarded as more nuanced in meaning and was labelled as code-switch. More general farewells are either realized in German or Italian, but never in English. Speakers show a preference for German for more nuanced greetings and farewells, carrying an additional layer of meaning beyond marking the end of a conversational context.

5.4.3 The most prominent anglicism: *okay*

5.4.3.1 Functions of *okay*

Since *okay* (alternatively *OK*), a marker of informal language use (Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar 2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*), emerges as the most prominent anglicism within the corpus of this master's thesis, it has been decided to conduct a closer examination of the functions this English item serves within the PRC. This subsection offers a brief overview of the diverse roles this English item may play, with the aim of constructing a coding framework suited to the objectives of this study. Sub-section 5.4.3.2 presents the findings obtained by applying this framework to the PRC.

The functions of *okay* can be divided into two main categories: discursal and non-discursal ones. As discourse markers, lexical items tend to express relationships between surrounding segments of information. The meaning of discourse markers emerges from their conceptual and linguistic context (Fraser 1999: 931). Discursal *okay* may be utilized to fulfil a variety of communicative tasks. Literature on discourse-level roles of *okay* further implies that *okay* might exert several functions concurrently (Gaines 2011: 3291). The *Cambridge Dictionary* (2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*) provides a concise overview of some of the functions of the discourse operator *okay*.

Okay can be used as a structural device that indicates a change of topic (e.g., “*Okay, let's get into groups of four now*” (Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar 2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*)) or the end of a

conversation (e.g., “*Right, okay, [...] Bye.*” (Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar 2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*)).

Speakers may also utilize *okay* as a means of checking understanding between conversation partners. In this function, the discourse marker is followed by a question mark and usually occupies the utterance final position as in “*just nod or shake your head. OK?*” (Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar 2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*).

Furthermore, the discourse marker *okay* can be used to signal acceptance, agreement, and/or understanding as in the following example from the *Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar* (2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*):

xxi. A: I’ll see you at 5 in front of the library.

B: OK. See you later.

Depending on the conversational context and prosodic features more specific discourse functions of *okay* can be identified. An exploration of such finer-grained functions is explicated in Gaine’s (2011: 3291-3292, 3294) analysis of the functions of *okay* in an English police interview. Gaines finds that in the examined language used by the police officer, *okay*, for example, acts as an instrument of confrontation, carrying an aggressive tone, or may be used to achieve a rather contrary effect, alleviating distress within interactions (*okay of solidarity overture*). In his paper on the discourse functions of *okay*, Rhee (2019: 1) further underscores the slightly conflicting roles of the discourse marker *okay*. According to Rhee, *okay* can be used to refuse politely and mildly, contrary to its function of indicating approval and acceptance. Additionally, Rhee adds another role of *okay* to its spectrum of rather negatively coloured functions, signifying discontent. Hence, depending on the depth of analysis, finer meaning nuances of *okay* can be evaluated.

Rhee (2019: 4-5) notes that the assessment of communication components heavily relies on the prosodic properties of linguistic items. Depending on their prosodic composition, discourse markers exert different functions. Gaines (2011: 3294) suggests that an analysis of intonational patterns is necessary to ensure “significant discussion of the discourse functions of *okay*”. Furthermore, Schleef (2005: 49) argues that the difficulty of analysing discourse markers lies within the dissonance between the item’s literal meaning and the function it fulfils on the pragmatic level, determined by aspects such as the speaker-listener relationship. Given the broader scope of this master’s thesis, examining instances of *okay* with regards to factors exceeding an item, co-textual and contextual analysis is beyond the project’s purview. The main purpose of this thesis is not to provide a detailed examination of *okay* as a discourse marker but to identify the main functions of anglicisms identified within this study. This objective calls for a

more simplified approach towards coding instances of *okay*. The coder will categorize instances of *okay* to the best of their ability by considering co-textual and contextual cues and relies on their understanding of German as a native speaker. My analysis of discorsal *okay* will distinguish between three functions, Structural *Okay* (SO), Action-inducing *Okay* (AO), and Responsive *Okay* (RO). Table 23 has been compiled to guide the coding process and primarily draws from the overview of discourse-functions of *okay* provided by the *Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar* (2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*).

Table 23. Coding manual for occurrences of *okay* as a discourse marker. Instances of the discourse marker *okay* were coded for the three categories listed in column one. Column 2 enumerates the functions of discorsal *okay* associated with the respective category. Column 3 provides examples from the PRC representative of each category.

Type	Functions	Example
Structural <i>Okay</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -initiate a new topic, argument, train of thought, decision etc. -reaction to context preceding new information -close an argument, train of thought, decision etc. -filler word 	<p>Hier sind auf jeden Fall viele Angebote. Auf jeden Fall mehr als auf dieser anderen Seite. Okay, dann klicke ich mich da nochmal durch und vielleicht gibt es da ja ein Kroko.</p> <p>(PRC 2024: 6)</p>
Action-inducing <i>Okay</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -check understanding -eliciting an answer 	No occurrence in the corpus
Responsive <i>Okay</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -reaction to an utterance -answer a question -signal understanding -signal attention -signal approval -signal acknowledgement 	<p>A: Du hast deiner Pflicht damit Genüge getan.</p> <p>B: Ja, okay</p> <p>(PRC 2024: 26)</p>

As can be seen in table 23, each category subsumes multiple functions; however, due to the aforementioned limitations, these sub-functions will not be distinguished within the coding process.

Furthermore, *okay* is also multi-functional on the non-discorsal level. Non-discorsal functions of *okay* can be identified examining item's co-text. Speakers may use *okay* as an adjective, meaning-wise akin to *acceptable* and *all right*, or expressing a notion that falls between *very good* and *very bad* (Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar 2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*). The *Cambridge*

Dictionary/Grammar (2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*), inter alia, provides the following example featuring *okay* as an adjective:

xxii. Speaker A: “What do you think of my plans?”

Speaker B: “They’re okay,” Jenny said unenthusiastically.

Okay can also operate as an adverb, conveying a similar meaning as in its adjectival form as in “[t]he [i]nternet was down all morning, but it seems to be working *okay* now” (*Cambridge Dictionary/Grammar* 2024: s.v. *Okay, OK*).

Okay may also occur in the form of a noun signalling permission as in the following example:

xxiii. “He got the OK to go ahead with his project.” (*Cambridge Dictionary* 2024: s.v. *OK*).

Operating on the non-discoursal level, *okay* might further exert the function of a verb (*Cambridge Dictionary* 2024: s.v. *OK*). Based on the author’s knowledge as a native speaker of German, the anglicism *okay* is not used as a verb in German. This observation is reinforced by the absence of an entry for *okay* as a verb in the German dictionary DUDEN (DUDEN 2024: s.v. *okay*).

In conclusion, the following context- and co-text-based analysis distinguishes between discoursal and non-discoursal functions of *okay*. The diagram below depicts the functional categories of *okay* relevant to the present study.

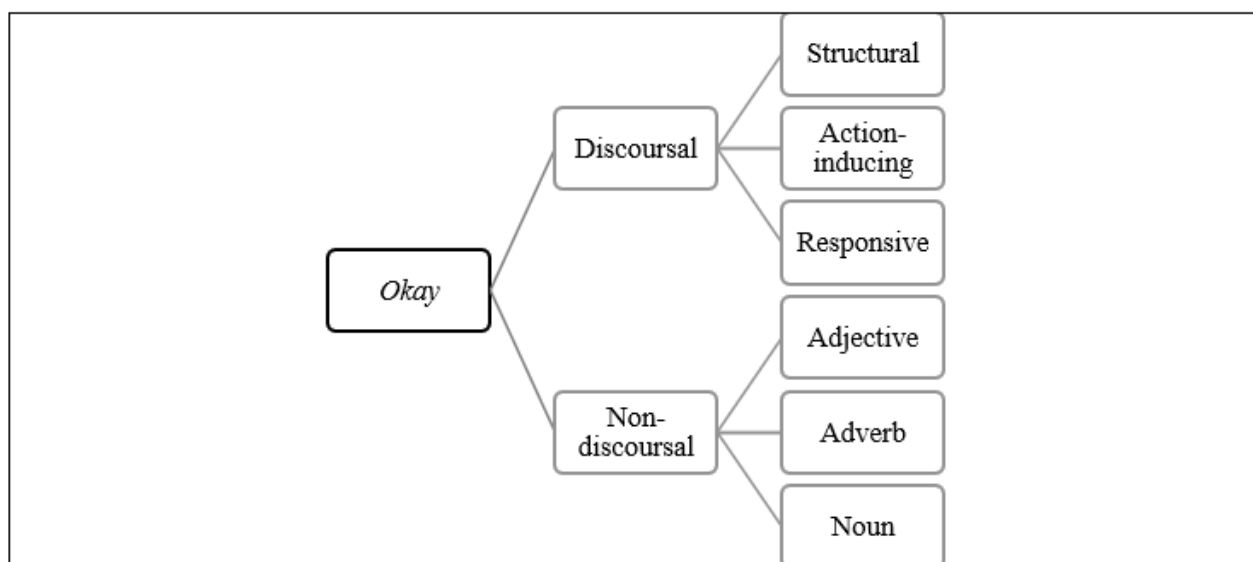


Figure 11. Overview of functions of *okay*. This figure depicts all functions of *okay* that will be considered in the analysis of the anglicism *okay* in the PRC.

In conclusion, *okay* will be coded in relation to six different categories, its discourse functions: Structural *Okay*, Action-inducing *Okay*, Responsive *Okay*, and its non-discoursal functions: *okay* as an adjective, adverb, or noun.

5.4.3.2 Functions of *okay* in the PRC

The prominence of the anglicism *okay* in German is also reflected in other studies (e.g., Vaić and Blažević's 2012: 13, Onysko 2007: 122). In the present study, the ubiquity of this anglicism warrants a separate analysis on the uses of *okay*. As mentioned in section 5.2 the anglicism *okay* has been recorded 72 times (71 times as lexical borrowings) in the PRC. In total, *okay* occurs 69 times while the passage *okay okay* is utilized three times. Repetitive use of *okay* (*okay, okay*) was recognized as one cluster if the two items were uttered in quick succession, in response to the same trigger and serve the same function. Clusters of *okay* were treated as one anglicism and thus, one instance of *okay* in these three instances.

Speakers in the PRC predominantly employ *okay* to exert discursial functions. Not a single instance of *okay* as a noun or an adverb could be recorded. Only one speaker uses *okay* as an adjective. In video 5, the speaker notes that “[...] *wir müssen zeigen, dass das okay ist Fleisch zu essen*”, utilizing *okay* in the position of German equivalents such as *in Ordnung*, *akzeptabel* or *legitim*. The remaining 71 occurrences can all be associated with discursial use of *okay*.

Responsive *Okay* is the most common function of *okay* in the PRC. Speakers employ *okay* in response to an utterance and to communicate their understanding and attention 41 times in the PRC. The high incidence of this reactive form of *okay* may be due to communication formats in the PRC. Onysko (2007: 120) refers to *okay* as a frequent component of *Spiegel*-interviews and quotations from direct speech. The PRC, a corpus dominated by direct speech, does also exhibit passages organized in an interview-like style as displayed in the subsequent examples encompassing forms of Responsive *Okay*:

Table 24. Examples of responsive *okay* in the PRC. Speakers use RO in reaction to utterances of the other interlocutor.

I	<p>Speaker A: Der Preis ist bei eins zwei fünf, wie viel war das da drin nochmal?</p> <p>Speaker B: Tausendvierhundert</p> <p>Speaker A: Okay, sogar noch günstiger als im Zoogeschäft. Dann würde ich den jetzt einfach mal anschreiben. (video 1)</p>
II	<p>Speaker A: Hier ist das auch Munition, oder sowas?</p> <p>Speaker B: Genau, das ist so Feuerwerksmunition.</p> <p>Speaker A: Okay (video 2)</p>

III	<p>Speaker A: Ab welchem Punkt müssen Sie dazwischengehen?</p> <p>Speaker B: Ab welchem Punkt ich dazwischengehe? Ja, wenn sie ansetzt, quasi in das Gleis zu gehen.</p> <p>Speaker A: Okay (video 3)</p>
IV	<p>Speaker A: Aber ob das dann eine Phobie ist, das kann eben nur jemand vom Fach dann eben im detaillierten Gespräch auch abklären.</p> <p>Speaker B: Okay, also jemand wie Sie dann. (video 4)</p>
V	<p>Speaker A: Wie viele Rinder schlachtest du denn am Tag? Also ist es jetzt eins pro Tag und das ist jetzt das eine, oder?</p> <p>Speaker B: Ne, wir schlachten in der Woche ein bis zwei Rinder</p> <p>Speaker A: Okay (video 5)</p>

The excerpts above exhibit a question-and-answer format, which is commonly found in interviews. In all of the above examples, Responsive *Okay* signals to conversation partners that their statement has been perceived by the other speaker. In examples I and IV *okay* is followed by a comment on the respective utterance. *Okay* could be regarded as a sole marker of perception and acknowledgement free of any evaluative stance whereas the subsequent linguistic material provides the speaker's evaluation of the utterance.

Structural *Okay* is used 30 times in the PRC. Table 25 provides examples of Structural *Okay* in the corpus. Brackets delineate distinct information clusters in Table 25. The following list contains an analysis of the corpus excerpts presented in table 25:

- I) In example I, the speaker first informs the viewers about a suggestion to check out another website in her search for exotic animals. This information prompts the speaker to decide to scan the newly discovered website. *Okay* serves as a structural marker, signalling that the first information cluster triggers the action referred to in the information cluster following *okay*.

- II) Having almost finished the task of cleaning the bedroom of a dilapidated flat, the speaker uses Structural *Okay* at the onset of his evaluative statement, commenting on his perception of the moment and assessing the progression of the cleaning process.
- III) After a failed attempt of catching a dummy during rescue training, *okay* initiates an evaluative statement in response to the experience. Hence, the information cluster preceding Structural *Okay* is contextual rather than linguistically expressed.
- IV) In example IV, the speaker, who is scared of heights, first uses *okay* to announce an action: looking down; then the speaker narrates her reaction to the experience. *Okay* represents a turning point in her emotional state. The speaker first expresses negative emotions (“das ist so unangenehm” (video 4)) and then experiences increasing comfort (“krass, aber jetzt geht es auch“ (video 4)).
- V) Example V depicts a simulation of butchering an animal, where the speaker decides to use a captive bolt stunner on a skeleton. The information cluster preceding *okay* describes the speaker’s stance on exerting this action and expresses his decision to undertake the action. *Okay* concludes the utterance.

Table 25. Examples of structural *okay* in the PRC. SO occupies different functional positions in the PRC.

I	[Ich habe einen Tipp bekommen. Hier sind auf jeden Fall viele Angebote, auf jeden Fall mehr als auf dieser anderen Seite.] Okay , [dann klicke ich mich da nochmal durch und vielleicht gibt es da ja ein Kroko.] (video 1)
II	Okay , [das ist jetzt fast schon ein besonderer Moment, denn jetzt glaube ich, ist das Schlafzimmer, naja, fertig]. (video 2)
III	Okay , [das wäre nicht gut gelaufen für das Kind]. (video 3)
IV	Okay , [ich gucke jetzt runter.] [Ach du Scheiße, das ist so unangenehm], okay [krass, aber jetzt geht es auch] (video 4)
V	[Ja, also da kann ich ja mal reinschießen], [das ist ja schon fast echt schon unangenehm irgendwie auf eine Art], [aber das würde ich mal machen, ja tatsächlich] okay . (video 5)

This comparison of examples shows that speakers use Structural *Okay* to mark the onset or coda of information clusters and transitions between them. Furthermore, Structural *Okay* may signal a shift in emotional reaction, introduce an evaluative statement, or actions. These lists of different functions of Responsive *Okay* and Structural *Okay* are not exhaustive, additional examples and a

detailed analysis of all occurrences of Responsive *Okay* and Structural *Okay* may reveal additional functional layers in the use of Responsive *Okay* and Structural *Okay* in the PRC.

Action-inducing *Okay* was not used in the PRC; hence, speakers in the PRC do not use *okay* as a means of eliciting verbal reactions from interlocutors. To gain a deeper understanding of the uses of Responsive *Okay* and Structural *Okay* in the PRC, the distribution of Responsive *Okay* across the PRC has been evaluated (see table 26).

Table 26. Incidence of RO and SO across episodes of the *PULS Reportage*. RO is unevenly distributed across the corpus.

Episode/video	Instances of <i>okay</i> as discourse marker	Incidence count RO	Incidence count SO
1	3	1	2
2	10	7	3
3	31	21	10
4	13	1	12
5	14	11	3

Both Responsive *Okay* and Structural *Okay* are scarcely represented in episode 1. Videos 2, 3, and 5 exhibit a higher Responsive *Okay* than Structural *Okay* -count, whereas the opposite applies to videos 1 and 4. This comparison of Responsive *Okay* and Structural *Okay* counts per video indicates a pronounced fluctuation of the usage of *okay* as a discourse marker. The uneven distribution of *okay* across videos might be due to speaker-internal preferences of language use or different conversation formats.

In conclusion, this analysis of the use of *okay* in the PRC reveals that *okay* occupies various discursal positions in linguistic material in the PRC. Structural *Okay* marks different manifestations of changes on the structural level, for example, the transition between utterances referring to two different emotional responses. Responsive *Okay* also varies in its realizations. Examples from the PRC imply that Responsive *Okay*, inter alia, functions as a stand-alone marker utilized to signal attention and understanding or precedes an evaluative statement. The study shows a clear dominance of *okays* used as discourse marker, whereas *okay* is only once used as an adjective. A more comprehensive, quantitative analysis, examining all functional positions of *okay* as discourse marker and equivalent other discourse markers in relation to the representation of specific conversational contexts (e.g., monologue versus dialogue) in the PRC

could reveal whether speakers harbour a preference for the anglicism *okay* in these functional positions and how contexts of language use influence the proportion of Responsive *Okay* to Structural *Okay*.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, this master's thesis highlights the prevalence of anglicisms in both written and spoken discourse. The literature review demonstrates how the conceptualization of the term *anglicism* is dependent on scholarly perspectives on different forms of language contact. Following Onysko's (2007) model, the present study is based on a form-dependent definition of anglicisms. Lexical borrowings, code-switches, hybrid anglicisms, and pseudo anglicisms were recognized as representations of anglicisms due to their formal markedness. This form-based approach, exclusively focusing on core anglicisms (Onysko 2007), was selected as it does not require etymological research and thus, allows for a more efficient coding-process.

The literature review aimed at evaluating factors promoting the emergence of anglicisms; technology, the music industry as well as the impact of Anglo-American culture emerged as significant contributors to the widespread use of anglicisms. Furthermore, stylistic functions of anglicisms are recognized as additional generators for the growth of anglicism repertoire. The empirical study shows that anglicisms are primarily used as a substitution for a German equivalent, supporting the assumption that anglicism usage is more tightly linked to connotative needs than to denotative needs in the PRC. The dominance of lexical borrowings in the PRC implies speakers' effort to ensure clarity, as lexical borrowings tend to be well integrated into the receptor language's lexical repertoire, unlike code-switches, which demand bilingual competence.

With regard to semantic categories subject to high anglicism use, the field of technology is particularly prominent in both the reviewed literature and the present study. The accumulation of semantically marked anglicisms in *PULS Reportage* episodes focusing on this very topic as well as anglicism ratios differing significantly between some videos highlights some of the weaknesses of this study. The rather small corpus size does not allow for definite conclusions about speakers' preferences concerning the use of anglicisms and their semantic foci. As Onysko (2007: 98) critically notes, more general conclusions about the integration of anglicisms into the German language should only be drawn from comprehensive studies examining corpora encompassing written and spoken discourse of varying levels of formality and derived from different forms of media. Nevertheless, the dominance of technology-related anglicisms has also been observed in other studies and the influence of technological developments on anglicism usage such as social media is undeniable.

With regard to functional positions of anglicisms, the present corpus study examined forms of emotional expression through anglicism use, ritualistic communication and uses of the anglicism *okay*. Interestingly, in the PRC, anglicisms were used as an outlet for strong emotional reactions: *astonishment*, *negative reaction to a situation*, and *fear*. Apparent positive emotions such as joy were not expressed through anglicisms. Examining each instance of strong emotional expression in the PRC may reveal further interesting findings on preferences for using either English or German to express different emotions. Another intriguing observation made in the course of the functional analysis is that anglicisms are only used as greetings but never as farewells. *Hi* is used particularly often as a greeting in the PRC. Moreover, German is the dominant language for greetings and farewells expressing more nuanced meanings in the PRC. Finally, this study also presented an analysis of the uses of *okay* in the PRC. In the PRC, the discourse marker *okay* may either be used in a reactive manner (Responsive *Okay*) or employed to structure utterances (Structural *Okay*), tagged *okay* (Action-inducing *Okay*) is not used by speakers in the PRC. The present analysis of the discourse marker *okay* should rather be regarded as an introductory analysis, an examination also considering the proportions of different conversational structures (e.g., dialogue, monologue) in the PRC would provide more definite results on the factors promoting the usage of discursive *okay* in the PRC. Non-discursive *okay* is barely represented with only one instance of adjectival *okay*.

This master's thesis explored anglicisms in the PRC on several levels, with regard to anglicism type, motivational needs, semantic-category membership and three different functional positions. Due to the breadth of this study combined with the restrictions set up by the length of a master's thesis, an in-depth analysis of each individual area of anglicism use addressed was not possible. The restrictions of this study have been recognized as affecting the reliability of the results. Nonetheless, the study provides interesting insights into the uses of anglicisms that call for further analysis of anglicisms use in specific functional positions. The *PULS* Reportage proves to be a fertile source for the analysis of anglicisms. Extending the PRC promises to produce more reliable results on the use of anglicisms directed at an adolescent audience.

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Appendix A: Anglicism list

Anglicism	Text excerpt	Type	Semantic category	Function	Need	Emotion
<i>Anxiety</i>	<i>dann ist die Anxiety zu hoch</i>	Code-switch	Health/Mental	-	Connotative	-
<i>App</i>	<i>Eine App, die mir jetzt helfen soll</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Denotative	-
<i>App</i>	<i>die App auf meinem Handy gedownloadet</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Denotative	-
<i>App</i>	<i>mir wurde in der App gesagt</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Denotative	-
<i>Appartement-Fenster</i>	<i>Wer macht sein Appartement-Fenster</i>	Hybrid anglicism	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Babies</i>	<i>Und nicht immer die kleinen Babies, wo sie süß sind, sondern immer die großen Tiere.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure/Pets	-	Connotative	-
<i>Baby</i>	<i>So schau, das ist unser Jimmy, Baby.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure/Pets	-	Denotative	-
<i>Blurry</i>	<i>Weiter weg ist immer noch sehr blurry.</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Burger</i>	<i>nach dem Feiern einen Burger</i>	Lexical borrowing	Food	-	Connotative	-
<i>Burger</i>	<i>du wirst beim nächsten Burger daran denken</i>	Lexical borrowing	Food	-	Connotative	-
<i>Burger</i>	<i>Ich war noch nie nervös, bevor ich einen Burger gegessen habe.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Food	-	Connotative	-
<i>Burger</i>	<i>wie ein guter Burger</i>	Lexical borrowing	Food	-	Connotative	-

		ng				
<i>Burger Patties</i>	<i>wir machen auch Burger Patties.</i>	Lexical Borrowing	Food	-	Connotative	-
<i>Burgerteller</i>	<i>auf meinem Burgerteller als Patty</i>	Hybrid from	Food	-	Connotative	-
<i>Caving</i>	<i>Hier war Nadine in einer Höhle, man nennt es auch Caving</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure/Sports	-	Connotative	-
<i>Check</i>	<i>Aber ich check gar nicht.</i>	Pseudoanglicism	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Check</i>	<i>Ich check auch gar nicht, wo ich hingucken soll.</i>	Pseudoanglicism	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Checken</i>	<i>nur checken, kann man</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Checken</i>	<i>ich will auch checken, was macht es mit mir</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Checken</i>	<i>da irgendwie zu checken wo man rumschneiden muss</i>	Pseudoanglicism	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Climbed</i>	<i>Da climbed jetzt ein Mensch rum</i>	Code-switch	Leisure/Sports	-	Connotative	-
<i>Cool</i>	<i>als cooles Abschiedsding abseilen.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Cool</i>	<i>Ja, wer fand es nicht cool?</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Cool</i>	<i>Das finde ich wieder cool</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Cool</i>	<i>Weil jetzt gerade denke ich mir so</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-

	<i>cool.</i>					
<i>Crazy</i>	<i>Ach crazy. Willst du mich verarschen?</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Crazy</i>	<i>Weißt du was für mich bisschen crazy ist?</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Crazy Shit</i>	<i>Crazy Shit.</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Crocodile</i>	<i>Sondern, was hole ich mir? Ein Crocodile.</i>	Code-switch	Leisure/Pets	-	Connotative	-
<i>Deal</i>	<i>Ja, die Hose ist dreckig, aber ich schlauer.</i> <i>Ja</i> <i>Das ist ein guter Deal.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Easy</i>	<i>Erstmal easy anfangen</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Easy</i>	<i>Und jetzt easy Nummer</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Fit</i>	<i>Gut gefrühstückt? Bist du fit?</i>	Lexical borrowing	Health/Physical	-	Connotative	-
<i>For free</i>	<i>habe auf einige Tiere aufgepasst und konnte deswegen for free dort wohnen</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Fuck</i>	<i>Ich komme da nie wieder hoch. Fuck.</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Negative reaction to situation
<i>Fuck my life.</i>	<i>Wo bin ich hier? Ich habe Angst, fuck my life.</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Fear
<i>Gedownloadet</i>	<i>die App auf meinem Handy gedownloadet</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>Gestrugelt</i>	<i>Ich habe ganz schön</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-

	<i>gestruggelt</i>					
<i>Go</i>	<i>Ab jetzt, oder was? Auf dein Go .</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Handy</i>	<i>wisst ihr, was gerade geklingelt hat? Mein Handy</i>	Pseudoanglicism	Modern Technology/Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>Handy</i>	<i>die App auf meinem Handy gedownloadet</i>	Pseudoanglicism	Modern Technology/Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>Hate</i>	<i>Weil du kriegst ja schon auch manchmal schon Hate ab, ne?</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Hey</i>	<i>Wenn man halt Fleisch isst muss man vielleicht auch sagen, Hey ich muss es nicht können</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, Marcel</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, spannend</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, Nadine</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, der Markus</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi Markus</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Hi, kann ich schon reinkommen?</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>Hi</i>	<i>Kevin, hi</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Communicative	Connotative	-

		ng		ritual		
<i>Hobby</i>	<i>Alter dein Hobby ist ja auch echt gewöhnungsbedürftig.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure	-	Denotative	-
<i>Holy fucking shit</i>	<i>holy fucking shit Sehr seltsam, es ist sehr seltsam hier zu stehen, während gerade ein Tier da gestorben ist</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Negative reaction to situation
<i>Hosts</i>	<i>wie die anderen Hosts und ich an unsere Grenzen gehen</i>	Code-switch	Leisure	-	Connotative	-
<i>Hosts</i>	<i>mich und alle anderen Hosts bei PULS Reportage</i>	Code-switch	Leisure	-	Connotative	-
<i>I don't know</i>	<i>I don't know, was das heißt</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Internet</i>	<i>Solche Videos gibt es im Internet gerade richtig viele</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Denotative	-
<i>Internet</i>	<i>ist im Internet angeboten worden</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Denotative	-
<i>Job</i>	<i>Wie ist der Job eines Tatortreinigers wirklich?</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Job</i>	<i>der Job als Tatortreiniger</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Job</i>	<i>es ist halt mein Job sozusagen</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Job</i>	<i>weil du sagst es ist der Job</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-

<i>Job</i>	<i>Job des Tatortreinigers</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Job</i>	<i>könntet ihr euch vorstellen diesen Job zu machen?</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Job</i>	<i>haben wir einen guten Job geleistet</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Job</i>	<i>wie wichtig dieser Job eigentlich ist</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Level</i>	<i>ich habe ja gestern das mittlere Level unlocked</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>Level drei</i>	<i>Ich habe ja jetzt die höchste Schwierigkeitsstufe erreicht, Level drei</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>Level eins</i>	<i>wir sind auch erst bei Level eins.</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>Mall</i>	<i>die oberste Etage einer Mall</i>	Code-switch	Trade	-	Connotative	-
<i>Marketing</i>	<i>das Marketing für solche Programme</i>	Lexical borrowing	Trade	-	Connotative	-
<i>Mission</i>	<i>Ich habe mir ja hier als Mission vorgenommen</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>No Chance</i>	<i>No Chance da</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>No way</i>	<i>Nein, wirklich?</i> <i>Ja, ja.</i> <i>No way.</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Notbutton</i>	<i>Aber es muss doch auch so eine Notbremse hier geben, oder sowas.</i>	Hybrid anglicism	-	-	Connotative	-

	<i>So einen Notbutton, Nothalt, Nothalt mit Notruf.</i>					
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Tausendvierhundert</i> <i>Okay, sogar noch günstiger als im Zoogeschäft.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, dann klicke ich mich da nochmal durch</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Das ist ja gut so.</i> <i>Ja? Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Ich halte den Sack auf</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Also es ist Schreckschuss.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>ich meine da kann so ein Finger auch ab sein. Okay, das macht es echt unheimlich</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Genau ja, das ist so Feuerwerksmunition.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Das muss alles raus. Wir hängen jetzt die Tür aus</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-

Okay	<i>es ist halt mein Job sozusagen</i> <i>Okay, du kannst das ein bisschen ausblenden</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
Okay	<i>Für mich ist das so wenn ich jetzt fertig bin, abends Feierabend habe, wir verlassen die Wohnung jeden Tag, ist das für mich komplett</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
Okay	<i>Okay, das ist jetzt fast schon ein besonderer Moment</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
Okay	<i>So?</i> <i>Ja</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
Okay	<i>aber wir kommen in einen Bereich, wo es schon gefährlicher wird, gä?</i> <i>Ah ja, ja, ja</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
Okay	<i>Bist du bereit?</i> <i>Joa</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
Okay	<i>Okay, das wäre nicht gut gelaufen für das Kind.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
Okay	<i>Okay, ja, dann machen wir mal drei.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-

<i>Okay</i>	<i>Bist du fit?</i> <i>Ja.</i> <i>Okay, also dann.</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Das ist so wie ein drei-, vierjähriges Kind.</i> <i>Okay, ja, nein</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Ich gehe mal hier hoch.</i> <i>Ja, okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Ab welchem Punkt ich dazwischenge he?</i> <i>Ja, wenn sie ansetzt, quasi in das Gleis zu gehen.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, auf die Plätze, fertig, los .</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Auf die Plätze, fertig, los.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, Das ist viel zu hoch.</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Das funktioniert ab er nicht. Nein, okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, siehst du, ich dachte, es ist viel einfacher.</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-

<i>Okay</i>	<i>Das heißt, da ist noch Strom drauf</i> <i>Ah okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>So Andi, das war anscheinend ja wohl nichts.</i> <i>Ja</i> <i>Okay, so, wie geht es richtig?</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Da musst du nicht aus dem Bahnhof raus.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Wir gehen zu dem Nothalt.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Ja</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Den nächsten Nothalt, den du siehst,</i> <i>Okay</i> <i>daran ziehst du.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>dann hast du sofort eine Verbindung zur Leitstelle.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Und sie holt sofort Hilfe.</i> <i>Okay, das dauert jetzt nahe fünfzehn</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-

	<i>Sekunden.</i>					
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Ja</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>du hast deiner Pflicht damit Genüge getan.</i> <i>Ja, okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Deswegen blei bst du hier an der Bahnsteigkant e</i> <i>Ja</i> <i>und</i> <i>versuchst, mit der Person zu sprechen.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, das läuft gar nicht gut</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, das funktioniert</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, ja, also, wie ihr seht, meine Höhenangst, i st geheilt</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>es geht eigentlich immer noch. Boah Okay. Weil ich sehe halt Bäume</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Wenn ich jetzt hier vor mich schaue, okay die Brücke wackelt, aber dann finde ich es</i>	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-

	<i>eigentlich ganz angenehm.</i>					
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, Leute, Ich habe mir „oVRcome“ geholt.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, ich muss mich umdrehen</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>okay wir klettern jetzt hoch</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, da climbed jetzt ein Mensch rum</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, ich muss mal kurz durchatmen.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Aber ob das dann eine Phobie ist, das kann eben nur jemand vom Fach dann eben im detaillierten Gespräch auch abklären.</i> <i>Okay, also jemand wie Sie dann.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, ich gucke mal kurz runter.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, ich gucke jetzt runter.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>okay krass, aber jetzt geht es auch.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Okay, jetzt müssen wir weitergehen</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-

Okay	Ne wir schlachten in der Woche ein bis zwei Rinder Okay	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	zieht es durch die Feder wieder rein. Okay, das schießt?	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	aber das würde ich mal machen, ja tatsächlich okay.	Lexical borrowi ng	-	SO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	es macht nur also relativ laut. Okay	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	Richtung Herz und jetzt kommt das Blut raus. Okay, ja	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	Genau, also das ist jetzt schon vorbei, Okay, das ging schnell.	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	Das ist mein eigenes Messer, das kriegst du heute, Okay	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	und dann kommt dein Einsatz. Okay	Lexical borrowi ng	-	RO	Connotat ive	-
Okay	Also ich habe das noch	Lexical borrowi	-	SO	Connotat ive	-

	<i>überhaupt nicht angefasst. Okay, so?</i>	ng				
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Boah okay krass, ja da ist jetzt noch das Blut von den Adern, ne?</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>da ist jetzt noch das Blut von den Adern, ne?</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>Das hängen wir jetzt in den Kühlraum, eine Woche zum Zerlegen</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>das klappen wir dann weg.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>ich zeige so viel wie es geht.</i> <i>Okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay</i>	<i>wir müssen zeigen, dass das okay ist Fleisch zu essen</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	Okay as an adjective	Connotative	-
<i>Okay Deal</i>	<i>wir wollen einfach nur checken, kann man sich in einer ganz normalen Wohnung ein Krokodil kaufen. Okay Deal</i>	Code-switch	-	SO	Connotative	-

<i>Okay, okay</i>	<i>okay, okay, Leute ich glaube die ist geladen, die hier.</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	SO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay, okay</i>	<i>Ja gut, das glaube ich, kriege ich noch hin.</i> <i>Okay, okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Okay, okay</i>	<i>Und das ist wirklich schon höchst gefährlich, auch jetzt mit der leichten Puppe.</i> <i>Okay, okay</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	RO	Connotative	-
<i>Package</i>	<i>nochmal so ein Package, wo ich sage ich schleppe das dann nicht ewig mit mir rum</i>	Lexical borrowing	Health/Mental	-	Connotative	-
<i>Patty</i>	<i>auf meinem Burgeteller als Patty</i>	Lexical borrowing	Food	-	Connotative	-
<i>Podcast</i>	<i>Das ist wie so ein Podcast.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Denotative	-
<i>Reallife</i>	<i>Auf die Brücke im Reallife freue ich mich weniger.</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Sick</i>	<i>Hier ist mein kleines Reich.</i> <i>Das ist ja sick</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Skydiven</i>	<i>Ich war skydiven</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure/Sports	-	Connotative	-

<i>Snackt</i>	<i>Jetzt snackt er und dann kommt er nochmal hoch, oder wie?</i>	Lexical borrowing	Food	-	Connotative	-
<i>Team</i>	<i>wie wir ihn im Team nennen</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Team</i>	<i>Ganz wichtig, auch für das Team</i>	Lexical borrowing	Work	-	Connotative	-
<i>Ticket</i>	<i>dass das Ticket nicht geht.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Leisure	-	Connotative	-
<i>Timing-mäßig</i>	<i>Das hat jetzt fünf Sekunden gedauert. Timing-mäßig schon mal besser.</i>	Hybrid anglicism	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Top</i>	<i>ich fand, wir waren schauspielerisch top</i>	Lexical borrowing	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Triggert</i>	<i>So richtig Angst triggert es aber nicht.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Health/Mental	-	Connotative	-
<i>Unlocked</i>	<i>ich habe ja gestern das mittlere Level unblockiert</i>	Code-switch	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>Virtual reality</i>	<i>Ja, also auf Virtual Reality freue ich mich.</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>VR</i>	<i>welchen Anteil hat VR da gehabt</i>	Code-switch	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>VR</i>	<i>VR kann beim Umgang mit Ängsten helfen</i>	Code-switch	Modern Technology/ Function of Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>VR-Selbsthilfetool</i>	<i>dass natürlich so ein VR-Selbsthilfetool</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Modern Technology/ Device	-	Connotative	-

	<i>keine richtige Therapie ist</i>					
<i>VR-Brille</i>	<i>dazu diese VR-Brille geholt habe</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Modern Technology/Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>VR-Brille</i>	<i>eine Konfrontation mit der VR-Brille</i>	Hybrid anglicism	Modern Technology/Device	-	Connotative	-
<i>We are back</i>	<i>We are back beim Schlachter</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>Welcome to reporter-life</i>	<i>Welcome to reporter-life. Ich wollte eigentlich schon schlafen gehen</i>	Code-switch	-	Communicative ritual	Connotative	-
<i>What the fuck</i>	<i>Digger, wollt ihr mich verarschen. What the fuck.</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>What?</i>	<i>Sie ist nicht so schwer wie ein Kind.</i> <i>What?</i>	Code-switch	-	Emotional reaction	Connotative	Astonishment
<i>Worst case</i>	<i>Und dann ist der worst Case</i>	Code-switch	-	-	Connotative	-
<i>YouTube-Follower</i>	<i>die YouTube-Follower meinen, das geht</i>	Lexical borrowing	Modern Technology/Function of Device	-	Connotative	-

Appendix B: English abstract

The use of anglicisms across various German linguistic genres underscores the omnipresence of the English language. The present study examines the quantity, types, and functions of anglicisms in a corpus of five episodes from the YouTube format *PULS Reportage*, a German documentary series targeting adolescents and young adults. Anglicisms were coded manually and identified on the basis of English form. The present study records a relative anglicism token frequency of 0.01486. Lexical borrowing is the most frequent anglicism type in the *PULS Reportage* Corpus (PRC). The study also finds that 95 percent of all anglicisms used in the selected episodes have a German equivalent, potentially pointing toward the use of anglicisms for the connotations attached to the English language, such as modernity and youthfulness.

Furthermore, the qualitative analysis showed that anglicisms in the PRC can be grouped into six categories: *Modern Technology* (20 items), *Work* (10 items), *Leisure* (10 items), *Food* (8 items), *Health* (4 items), and *Trade* (2 items). A clear dominance of technology-related lexis could be observed. An analysis of anglicisms linked to emotional expression has shown that items of this subset denote the following emotions: astonishment, negative reaction to a situation, and fear. In the PRC, anglicisms also function as components of *communicative rituals*. While anglicisms are used as greetings in the PRC, the present corpus is entirely devoid of anglicisms as farewells, implying that English greetings may be more established in the German language than English farewells. Finally, *okay* emerged as the most frequent anglicism in the PRC. The analysis of this anglicism revealed that speakers either use the discourse marker *okay* as a structural marker or to signal understanding and attention to the interlocutor.

Appendix C: German abstract

Die Verwendung von Anglizismen in verschiedenen Ausprägungen der deutschen Sprache unterstreicht die allgegenwärtige Präsenz der englischen Sprache. Diese Studie befasst sich mit der Quantität, den Typen und Funktionen von Anglizismen in einem Text-Korpus. Dieses umfasst fünf Episoden des YouTube-Formats *PULS Reportage*, eine deutsche Dokumentationsreihe, die sich an Jugendliche und junge Erwachsene richtet. Anglizismen wurden abhängig von formalen Hinweisen, die auf den Einfluss der englischen Sprache hindeuten, manuell kodiert. Das Korpus weist eine relative Token-Häufigkeit von 0,01486 Anglizismen auf. Lexikalische Entlehnungen sind die häufigsten Anglizismus-Typen im *PULS Reportage* Corpus (PRC). Die Studie zeigt auch, dass in den ausgewählten Episoden 95 Prozent der genutzten Anglizismen über ein Gegenstück in der deutschen Sprache verfügen. Dieses Ergebnis deutet eventuell auf die Nutzung von Anglizismen auf Grund der Konnotationen der englischen Sprache wie Modernität oder Jugendlichkeit hin.

Darüber hinaus zeigt die qualitative Datenanalyse, dass Anglizismen im PRC in sechs Gruppen unterteilt werden können: *Moderne Technologie* (20 Anglizismen), *Arbeit* (10 Anglizismen), *Freizeit* (10 Anglizismen), *Essen* (8 Anglizismen), *Gesundheit* (4 Anglizismen) und *Handel* (2 Anglizismen). Dabei zeigte sich eine klare Dominanz an technologie-bezogenen Anglizismen. Des Weiteren konnten Anglizismen, die dem Ausdruck von Emotionen dienen, den folgenden Gefühlszuständen zugeordnet werden: Erstaunen, negative Reaktion auf eine Situation und Angst. Weiters werden Anglizismen im PRC als Komponente *kommunikativer Rituale* genutzt. Während Anglizismen zwar zur Begrüßung gebraucht wurden, weist das PRC keine Anglizismen in der Position von Verabschiedungen auf. Dies könnte implizieren, dass englische Begrüßungen stärker in der deutschen Sprache etabliert sind als englische Verabschiedungen. Außerdem hat diese Studie ergeben, dass *okay* der am meisten genutzte Anglizismus im PRC ist. Die Analyse dieses Anglizismus zeigt, dass Sprecher den Diskursmarker *okay* entweder als strukturierendes Glied nutzen oder um dem Konversationspartner Verständnis und Aufmerksamkeit zu signalisieren.