

**ANNALES DE L'UNIVERSITÉ DE CRAÏOVA**  
**ANNALS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CRAIOVA**

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**ANALELE**  
**UNIVERSITĂȚII DIN CRAIOVA**

**SERIA ȘTIINȚE FILOLOGICE**

**LIMBI STRĂINE APLICATE**



**ANUL XI, Nr. 1/2015**

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**EUC**

**EDITURA UNIVERSITARIA**

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# Modern Methods in Teaching Horticultural Terminology to Nonhomogeneous Bulk Classes

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## ABSTRACT

Being a learner-centred approach and dealing mostly with inhomogeneous adult learners who need to learn English in order to use it in their working domain the teacher has to have a needs diagnose ,and genre analysis, find the appropriate materials and adjust the corpora according to their needs, also the use of general grammar is desired. In the search for the appropriate vocabulary, the teacher takes into consideration the level of the inhomogeneity class after giving them a placement test. The most difficult thing to achieve is the establishing of a singular technical language to use during the class that all specialties have in common. The availability of ESP materials, databases, dictionaries, agricultural and horticultural web sites, books, and courses help the ESP teacher in choosing the best vocabulary to bring forth to the class, thus a deep knowledge of the subject matter is often of great help in managing to tackle with new terms, especially in the developing world of agriculture.

**KEYWORDS:** *terminology, corpora, vocabulary, needs analysis, inhomogeneous*

Any terminology work starts with concepts. It aims at the strict delimitation of concepts. The sphere of concepts is independent of the sphere of terms. While terminologists talk about concepts, linguists talk about the meaning of words.  
(Felber, 1984: 98)

## Introduction

The importance of frame words (Higgins, 1966) or the technical vocabulary which students from technical faculties already have, poses challenges for the ESP teacher, who, besides the fact she/he has to be familiar with it, she/he has to prepare a corpus for inhomogeneous bulk classes to teach at the same time, encompassing students



from several specialties such as **Horticulture**, **Agriculture**, and **Biology**. Teacher's role in such situation becomes challenging because if dealing with the corpora for one specialty is demanding, three specialties become a real issue to take into consideration. A scientific vocabulary to encompass the three specialties is difficult to put together because the ESP teacher has a multi semi-technical vocabulary to deal with, not to mention the fact that she/he must find those lessons that meet the needs and comprehensive skills of all specialties. The general domain is the Horticulture and Agriculture but when it comes to particular specialties, the teacher faces the challenge of choosing those precise lessons to address the specialties at the same time. The homogeneity issue deals both with the diversity of the specialty class and of the students attending it, whose age, background, English skills and technical vocabulary and cultural identity differ. The ESP teacher has to be prepared to face the huge responsibility of mastering the specific technical vocabulary required and have a corpus discourse ready to use, also, a resourceful teacher, possessing technical knowledge, must have the ability to give the most appropriate translation for the technical students to comprehend.

A competence of mastering both native and foreign language terms is required if not mandatory and the use of bilingual dictionaries is a must because the role of the ESP teacher extends to the point of finding corresponding terms in the native language, terms which are sometimes difficult to find in technical data bases. Context is also an important part of the multilingual communication because it provides help in translating the specific terms.

## **Material and Method**

Bulk classes of Horticulture, Agriculture, and Biology. Being a learner-centred approach and dealing mostly with inhomogeneous adult learners who need to learn English in order to use it in their working domain the teacher has to have a needs diagnose, and genre analysis, find the appropriate materials and adjust the corpora according to their needs, also the use of general grammar is desired. *“ESP specialists accept the responsibility for finding out what their learners will likely need and want to be able to read, write, speak and comprehend as listeners to achieve their goals.”* (Paltridge & Starfield, 2012) *“A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style.”* (Swales, 1990: 58)

In the search for the appropriate vocabulary, the teacher takes into consideration the level of the mixed class after giving them a placement test. The most difficult thing to achieve is the establishing of a mixture of technical languages to use during the class that all specialties have in common. The availability of modern ESP materials, databases, dictionaries, agricultural and horticultural web sites, books, and courses help the ESP teacher in choosing the best vocabulary to bring forth to the class, thus a deep knowledge of the subject matter is often of great help in managing to tackle with new terms, especially in the developing world of agriculture.

*Career Paths: Agriculture* (O'Sullivan & Libbin, 2011) seems to meet the needs of the mixed technical vocabulary thus using the concise agricultural and horticultural vocabulary to obtain discourse, to communicate in a foreign language using specialised vocabulary as Sager implied, talking about the use of terminology from the communicative point of view “*Consequently we identify three dimensions of a theory of terminology, a **cognitive** one, which relates the linguistic forms to their conceptual content, i.e. the referents in the real world, a **linguistic** one which examines the existing and potential forms of the representation of terminologies, a **communicative** one which looks at the use of terminologies and has to justify the human activity of terminology compilation and processing.*” (Sager, 1990: 13)

In search for the best material to use in classroom a teacher uses the internet to find texts, modern ESP books, data bases or the modern cloud data bases where specific, technical vocabulary is saved in order to be accessed by anyone using a computer and logging in the internet, so basically a student using a smart phone can access such data bases containing dictionaries, and specialized vocabulary. As a language teacher, the ESP teacher must be as good\ familiar with that domain as the other teachers in that specific science or the students themselves, the key point is the study, followed by the materials, the **technical literature**. *Career Paths: Agriculture* fits best the need of the students, especially the nonhomogeneous of the bulk classes, because it is a modern, powerful tool for developing communication goals based on specific technical vocabulary, with incorporated glossary, CDs, providing audio and pictures, having visual stimulation in describing processes such as nitrogen cycle or the impact of **weeds, pests and disease** on farm lands:

Three of the greatest threats to farmers are weeds, pests, and diseases. Nevertheless, an informed farmer can develop effective strategies for dealing with these problems. **Weeds** grow everywhere, but they seem to prefer farmer's fields. Use a weed map to identify problem areas. Then apply herbicides as needed for suppression. If mulching weeds is not advised to apply mulch directly to your fields. **Pests**, primarily insects

but also small mammals and birds destroy countless crops every year. This is why farmers need a sound pest management strategy. These can be chemical biological. Chemical controls refer to pesticides. They tend to be very effective but carry safety risks. Less risky, though sometimes less effective, are biological controls. An example is the predatory ground beetle, which feeds on crop-eating ground worms. **Disease** arrives from one of three types of pathogens: bacterial, viral, and fungal. The first two are rather difficult to fight. The best defence is maintaining good soil and growing conditions to keep plants strong. Prevent fungal diseases with fungicides. Finally, simply sanitizing equipment can sometimes prevent the spread of blight.

(O'Sullivan & Libbin, 2011: 37)

**Incorporated Glossary** of Weeds, pests and disease:

*bacterial* [AOJ- U7] If something is bacterial it has to do with bacteria.

*biological control* [N-COUNT -U7] A biological control is an organism such as a predatory insect used for pest management.

*blight* [N-COUNT -U7] Blight is a disease that kills plants.

*fungal* [ADJ-U7] If something fungal is has to do with fungi.

*fungicide* [N-COUNT -U7] A fungicide is a chemical that kills fungi.

*mulching* [N-UNCOUNT -U7] Mulching is the process of cutting plants into small pieces usually to put on the ground as a cover to hold in moisture

*parasite* [N-COUNT -U2) A parasite is an organism that lives on or in another organism.

*pathogen* [N-COUNT -U7) A pathogen is any organism that causes illness or disease.

*pest management* [N-UNCOUNT -U7) Pest management is the practice of preventing, suppressing, or destroying organisms that harm crops.

*pesticide* [N-COUNT -U7) A pesticide is a chemical that kills insects and other pests harmful to crops

*sanitize* [V-T- U7] To sanitize is to clean something so that no bacteria remains.

*suppression* [N-UNCOUNT -U7] Suppression is the act of reducing the amount of a pest so that it is no longer a threat

*weed* [N-COUNT -U7] A weed is an unwanted wild plant that interferes with crops growing in a field.

*weed map* [N-COUNT -U7] A weed map is a diagram showing the location of weeds that is used for planning a weed management program. (O'Sullivan & Libbin, 2011: 34-39)

## **Results and Discussion**

After previous analyse of the text and talking to students it seems that the technical text meets the needs of students from all three specialties who take classes together; firstly the Weeds paragraph was of real interest for both the Agriculture and Horticulture students, who learn about the harmful impact they have on farm lands, especially associated with pests and disease which are of interest for biologists; they learn about insects and diseases, both of bacterial, viral, but also fungal origin. The modern technical text, encompassing three paragraphs satisfy the needs of the bulk, nonhomogeneous class; furthermore, the book has an explanatory glossary, where specific terminology has its scientific explanation or definition to improve the understanding of the concepts, of the terms employed, which students find of paramount importance, as they work along, in providing the best translation for the lesson.

## **Conclusions**

The lesson works on the four skills necessary in the acquisition of the foreign language, reading, listening, speaking and writing and is received with great interest by the bulk classes, as it is a mixture that meets the needs of all three groups, at the same time. The modern, mixt material has served its purpose, students from Horticulture, Agriculture, and Biology finding the text useful student-centred and realistic, reflecting the syllabus, their technical language “(...) *the context necessary for activating existing knowledge and accurate processing. Once good texts have been selected, and then activities can be written. These will relate to the overall purpose of reading the text and so the process begins from using the information gathered.*” (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 100).

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# Adapting Methods and Techniques in E.L.T.

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## ABSTRACT

In the teaching process, the teacher always interacts with other models of teaching as we are integrated with an open system, with clear purposes, which is defined by organicity. Regardless of the level of the institution of education, starting with elementary schools and ending with the academic establishments, the teacher relates to other members of the educational domain. The people involved in the teaching process are a link that influences the coherence and the cohesion of the entire system. The way of action of each individual teacher depends on the solid professional preparation and the ability to develop continuously, to adapt to the new conditions encountered in his activity.

In order to acquire specialized language in the academic institutions, the student should master all the basics of the grammar of a foreign language. The teaching of the grammar basics is done on the concentric principle according to which each learning sequence contains the steps of actualization, systematization and retention of the information. When the teacher encounters errors or missing parts in the students' previously acquired knowledge, he will be forced to use specially customized lesson sequences in order to fix those errors. This procedure will help the teacher to acquire the necessary theoretical knowledge for speaking practice and a system of rules to apply whenever this type of situations occurs. The use of possession in English is the perfect example for this type of difficulties.

**KEYWORDS:** *model, link, normative guide, methodology, instruction*

In the teaching process, the teacher always interacts with other models of teaching as we are integrated with an open system, with clear purposes, which is defined by organicity. Regardless of the level of the institution of education, starting with elementary schools and ending with the academic establishments, the teacher relates to other members of the educational domain. The people involved in the teaching process are a link that influences the coherence and the cohesion of the entire system.

The way of action of each individual teacher depends on the solid professional preparation and the ability to develop continuously, to adapt to the new conditions encountered in his/her activity.

The teacher acquires models from the study of psycho-pedagogy and general didactics, from other teachers' experiences in formal, institutional frameworks, but, as a practitioner, the teacher builds his/her own teaching-learning model. This model must comply with the rules of didactics and the principles of the methodology of teaching, which are normative guide marks in the process of teaching.

Among these, the principle of respecting the scientific character of the knowledge that is taught to students is inflexible. It does not allow loose interpretations and requires maximum attention from the teacher, no matter what the object of study may be.

In the area of Linguistics, the scientific criterion is applied in the way of organizing the teaching contents and in the quality of academic information. Using this principle has the purpose of establishing the logical relationship between the empiric linguistic experience and the scientific linguistic experience.

The teaching methods and techniques can be improved or renewed, having as goal a faster and easier assimilation of the information. The notional contents transferred to students must have epistemological value, they must be clear of approximation or ambiguity. Science is the domain of confirmed hypotheses and of certainty, therefore the exactness with which the teacher selects the scientific information that is to be taught to students must be similar to the cult for a religious dogma. Such an attitude generates students' trust that the information they are about to receive cannot be criticized and cannot admit any objections. This is the way in which students' scientific thinking is helped to develop.

The teacher should have the ability to assume normative attitudes at all levels of education. If in the academic establishments professors have the possibility of creating their own courses, they can also encounter errors in the students' former scientific preparation that they may need to fix. The teacher in the secondary school or highschool sometimes faces difficulties regarding the selection of the appropriate coursebook and especially of the auxiliary teaching materials, which hardly ever comply with justified didactic requirements. The poorness of the information has as consequence the inability of finalizing the study of a modern language, more exactly the inability to speak and write, to express thoughts, ideas and feelings in a variety of language registers.

The novelty regarding the teaching techniques and methods must not be necessarily judged through their momentousness, but through their degree of improvement and efficiency that they mark. After all, it is not about the inventing or discovering other teaching methods, but about the modernization of classical methods and the

use of their adapted versions. Using phonetic and imagistic support, no matter how rich it might be, the diversification of certain types of exercises, the programmed training or interdisciplinary or pluridisciplinary experiences are not considered to be new methods of teaching, but versions that have been adapted throughout time which confirm the authority of traditional models of teaching.

The impressive development of the present means of communication is an ample pluridisciplinary experiment to which famous researchers have brought their contribution: Benjamin Lee Whorf, Eduard Sapir, Emile Benveniste, Roman Jakobson, Burrhus Frederic Skinner and others. The scheme of communication suggested by Jakobson (1980: 86) by enriching the transmitter-message-receiver relationship with terms such as *context*, *contact* and *code*, as well as Skinner's theses on programmed instruction which have completed, on the basis of the behaviourist theory, the operational scheme of *stimulus-reaction-reinforcement-repetition*, are versions of the process of teaching, in which *the stimulus equals information*, *the reaction equals perception*, *the reinforcement equals comprehension* and *the repetition equals application*.

In this relation, everything starts from the stimulus, which is the information sent by the transmitter. If the scientific correctness of the information transmitted to the students is questionable, then the entire teaching process is altered.

The Internet, which represents, in our opinion, a great discovery of the modern times, is the fastest source of information, but, unfortunately, not the safest. The inaccuracies, the false theories, the misspellings and sometimes the lack of diacritics demonstrate that authors have not borrowed anything from the prestige of the inventors of this global network.

The deviation from the grammar rules and the superficiality in professional training of those who post information on the Internet grow at an ever increasing rate. This aspect is an alarming phenomenon, as amateurishness in the domain of grammar has devastating consequences when it takes the shape of instructions on how to use medicines, domestic appliances or chemical substances, and especially when they are translated into more languages.

Starting from the observation of a real assault of grammar errors that we encounter in mass-media every day, we consider that the educational establishments should become more involved in preventing and correcting these abnormalities.

The problem of the teaching methods must be brought into discussion as a way of adapting techniques to the present conditions, in which a class where students learning at the same pace would manage to acquire all the information. Somehow, this attempt still remains an idealistic dream. It comes naturally to ask what the teacher of a foreign language can do if the coursebook he uses contains a lot of inaccurate scientific information. How will he be able to adapt the teaching methods



so that the general opinion that only the written word expresses the truth and has ontological dignity remains unaffected?

In order to acquire specialized language in the academic institutions, the students should master all the basics of the grammar of a foreign language. The teaching of the grammar basics is done on the concentric principle according to which each learning sequence contains the steps of actualization, systematization and retention of the information. When the teacher encounters errors or missing parts in the students' previously acquired knowledge, he/she will be forced to use specially customized lesson sequences in order to fix those errors.

Learning a foreign language is a gradual process, during which mistakes are to be expected in all stages of learning. Mistakes will not disappear simply because they have been pointed out to the learner, contrary to what some language learners believe. Language acquisition does not happen unless the student is relaxed and keen on learning. Fear of making mistakes prevents students from being receptive and responsive. In order to overcome learners' fear, it is essential to create a friendly and relaxed atmosphere in language classrooms, to encourage cooperation through peer work or small group work and apply techniques for language acquisition that suit and involve individual learners.

Another aspect of overcoming fear of mistakes is represented by the way mistakes can be remedied. The majority of EFL professors assume an active role in error rectification, while learners prefer being passive and rely on professors to point out their mistakes. In the long run, this approach is neither efficient nor efficacious, particularly in treating the so-called *fossilized* errors. The contemporary emphasis on learner-centeredness and autonomy suggests that in some settings the learners' self-correction of errors might be more beneficial for language learning than professor's correction. This assumption has neither been confirmed nor disproved in the relevant literature.

We will start our demonstration by making a distinction between errors and mistakes. One of the most distinguished American linguists, Noam Chomsky (1986: 107), separated *errors* from *mistakes* as two distinctive notions. He observed that native speakers make many mistakes when speaking. However, a native speaker has by definition a perfect command of his language, more precisely a perfect knowledge of grammatical rules, lexis and sound system. Mistakes are a common problem, which can occur when we speak too fast, think too quickly, or are nervous or tired. Mistakes are caused by psychological restrictions, memory lapses, distractions, changes of direction half-way through the sentence, hesitation, slips of the tongue, confusion etc. Errors, on the other hand, are a systematically produced problem, which is usually the result of ingrained patterns of language that we are not aware of. Errors are caused by lack of knowledge about the target language.

It is a well-known fact that learning a foreign language is, naturally, more difficult than one's mother tongue. Grown-ups or students, in our case, are in advantage as they have already acquired complex structures while learning their mother tongues, thus developing strategies for learning in general. Having reached this point of our demonstration, it is worth remembering that the behaviourists have considered the process of language learning as the acquisition of skills, comparable to the process of learning to do something practical, such as riding a bicycle. Theoreticians observed that main skills are divided into smaller logical parts, intended as logical actions that would avoid errors. Still, students *do* make errors. Why then? A plausible explanation might be that students, if faced with a difficult task, are unable to concentrate or control their performance on every aspect of the task at the same time. Other explanations refer to incomplete knowledge of the target language, mother-tongue interference, overgeneralisation or simply errors caused by teaching materials or methods. This approach will help the teacher to acquire the necessary theoretical knowledge for speaking practice and a system of rules to apply whenever this type of situations occurs. The use of possession in English is the perfect example for this type of difficulties.

It has been generally agreed that, even if we have learned the internal mechanism of a foreign language and we have a good knowledge of its idioms, when we need to communicate in that specific language, our first impulse is to form the basic structure of the message in our mother tongue. We tend to use the mental scheme of the foreign language subsequently, when self-control occurs, as this is the key factor that urges us to obey the grammar rules of other languages. Expressing the idea of possession in English is a frustrating process for the Romanian learners of English as a foreign language. Forming the Saxon Genitive with the 's morpheme, as well as the Analytical Genitive with the preposition *of* is accessible when the noun in Nominative-Accusative which requests the noun in Genitive is expressed in the sentence: *the teacher's book; the book of my teacher*.

The difficulties in the process of communication occur in situations in which the Genitive is not present in the sentence, but replaced with the possessive adjective or the possessive pronoun. Let us take the example of the following structure: *a teacher of mine*: for the Romanian learner, it is a compelling situation from a linguistic point of view, as, in Romanian, the possessive *mine* has two meanings, of singular and of plural: *un profesor al meu* and *un profesor de-ai mei*. It is not distinguishable which of the two meanings is intended by the speaker and it is not possible to translate in a distinctive way the two meanings from Romanian, simply because the possessive pronoun does not have a paradigm in English, in comparison with Romanian, where the possessive pronoun does have a paradigm, but which is incomplete, as it is defective for the third person plural. The invariable form of *mine* substitutes the four

forms of possessive adjective from Romanian (*meu, mea, mei, mele*), which are used formally according to the genre and number of the possessed objects and which replaces the owner. The preposition *of* has the value of the Genitive morpheme, which corresponds to the Romanian morpheme *a*. In Romanian, it is considered article of the Genitive.

The structure *a friend of mine* is the perfect equivalent for *my friend*. In both cases, the possessive is adjective and not pronoun, as opposed to the opinion expressed in some grammars:

A friend of mine told me that the shops in their town close at 2 p.m. on Saturdays.  
(Turai, 2008: 166)

A friend of mine told me the truth about them.  
(Gervescu, 2011: 20)

Using the preposition *de* for the translation of these examples into Romanian is incorrect, as it does not have a partitive sense and it is compatible only with the plural forms of the Genitive article. The grammatical pattern in Romanian is based on the equivalence between *de* and *dintre*. Therefore, the correct form is *un prieten de-ai mei* or *o prietenă de-ale mele*. The only possibility to express the partitive value in English is by replacing the indefinite article *a* with the indefinite pronoun *one*: *one of my friends* instead of *a friend of mine*.

When the possessed object is not expressed, but it can be identified through the deictic or cataphoric procedure, the possessive article can replace it, as it contains the information regarding the categories of genre and number. The possessive pronoun replaces both the owner and the possessed object. In Romanian, it is formed by the possessive article and the possessive adjective, unlike English, where it has a single form for each person: *Your friend is in Bucharest. Mine is in Paris*.

Regarding the possessive pronoun, we have noticed that in most English grammars published in Romanian, the authors do not make the distinction between the form of the third person personal pronoun in singular and plural in Genitive, which are used in order to express possession. The forms used in singular are the equivalents of the possessive pronoun, but in plural the single form (*lor*) is used to replace the possessive pronoun, which does not have a form for this specific situation. In these books, the terminological inaccuracy is troublesome, because the pronoun *lui* and *ei* occur in the neighbourhood of the possessive pronouns, as doublets, and the plural form *lor* occurs as possessive pronoun.

Despite the appearance of flexional concentration of the noun phrase, English seems to have unlimited resources of expression and the ability to communicate the most profound aspects of human expressivity. To this purpose, we can give as an example an excerpt from *The Sound and the Fury* by William Faulkner, which demonstrates that the casual Genitive is viable and functional even for one of the most impressive examples of artistic language:

Father said why should Uncle Maury work if he father could support five or six niggers that did nothing at all but with their feet in the oven he certainly could board and lodge Uncle Maury now and then and lend him a little money who kept his Father's belief in the celestial derivation of his own species at such a fine heat then Mother would cry and said that Father believed his people were better than hers [...]

(2000: 150)

It is advisable that the clarity of the classification of pronouns in Romanian grammar be respected. Also, the authors should point out that in the absence of the possessive pronoun for the third person plural, the personal pronoun in Genitive is used. This specification would help students who correctly acquired the paradigm of the personal and possessive pronoun get less confused.

In the process of teaching the personal pronoun and the possessive adjective and pronoun in English, the teacher must make a clear distinction of the correspondent terminology in Romanian. To this purpose, the teacher will illustrate the way these categories perform in Romanian. As didactic material, charts containing flexional forms can be used in comparison with English.

The excessive use of English by the teacher during grammar classes can cause cognitive clogs or the partial/total refusal of the student to acquire information. The differences will be easier to identify by the students if the teacher uses Romanian as well during the didactic sequences of classes which imply complex cognitive processes such as rationalization, generalization or conceptualization.

The didactic methods that can be used to the purpose of understanding and solid assimilation of the above-mentioned grammar categories are represented mainly by the heuristic conversation, demonstration or learning by discovering.

Students' intellectual effort towards the comprehension of the particularities of English, which apparently are characterized by economy in terms of grammar categories, is indeed notable, but the outcome is a more accurate use of English as a language of contact.

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# Nouvelles méthodes d'enseignement pour le Français sur Objectifs Spécifiques

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**ABSTRACT:** New teaching methods for FOS (French on Specific Objectives)

In this study, we will refer to FOS audience consisting of students studying French on specific objectives. Specifically, we talk about students of the Faculty of Agronomy and Faculty of Horticulture from the University of Craiova. These students learn French in their home country. They need to follow these French language classes, they should talk to their teachers in French and to do this, they have to master French more or less. These students follow this training FOS during the academic year according to specific timetables.

**KEYWORDS:** *specific objectives, specific competence, information transfer, motivation*

## Préliminaires

Le FOS est l'abréviation de l'expression *Français sur Objectifs Spécifiques*. Il s'agit d'une branche de la didactique du FLE. Ce dernier s'adresse à toute personne voulant apprendre le français dit *général*. Par contre, le FOS est marqué par ses spécificités qui le distinguent du FLE. La principale particularité du FOS est certainement ses publics. Ceux-ci sont souvent des professionnels ou des universitaires qui veulent suivre des cours de français à visée professionnelle ou universitaire. Donc, ils veulent apprendre non LE français mais plutôt DU français pour réaliser un objectif donné.

(Qotb, *Présentation du FOS*)

Les publics du FOS sont marqués par leur diversité qui comprend plusieurs catégories. Dans cette étude, on s'arrête sur le public étudiant qui constitue une composante importante dans la diversité du FOS. Plus spécifiquement on s'arrête sur le public étudiant formé des étudiants de la Faculté d'Agronomie et de la Faculté d'Horticul-

ture de l'Université de Craiova. On parle ici des étudiants qui étudient dans une université de leur pays natal. Ces étudiants ont besoin de suivre des cours, de discuter avec leurs professeurs, et pour le faire, ils doivent maîtriser plus ou moins le français dans leur spécialité.

Les étudiants de toutes les spécialités liées aux deux principaux domaines Agromonie et Horticulture (Agriculture, Sylviculture, Montanologie, Contrôle et expertise des produits agroalimentaires, Mesurages terrestres et cadastre, Horticulture, Biologie, Ingénierie de l'environnement, Paysagistique, Technologie de l'organisation des produits agricoles) suivent cette formation du FOS tout au long de l'année universitaire selon leur emploi du temps.

### **Besoins des apprenants du FOS**

La détermination des besoins des apprenants constitue une étape très importante de l'élaboration des cours du FOS où le professeur doit fixer précisément les besoins de ses apprenants.

Il s'agit de déterminer souvent les situations de communication cibles qu'affronteront plus tard les apprenants. Au cours de cette étape, le professeur commence à faire des hypothèses à propos de ces situations : quelles situations affronteront-ils ?, à qui parleront-ils ?, que liront-ils ?, qu'écriront-ils ?, quelles compétences langagières doit-on privilégier lors de la formation: Comprendre, Lire, Parler et Écrire.

(Qotb, *L'analyse des besoins des apprenants*)

Il y a plusieurs moyens pour analyser les besoins langagiers des étudiants. Premièrement le professeur discute avec ses apprenants sur les situations de communications cibles. Selon le modèle conçu par les didacticiens, le professeur propose des grilles d'analyse en vue de mieux connaître les apprenants et les situations cibles.

### **Activités - Exemples de grilles d'analyse**

*La grille d'analyse pour les étudiants des spécialités: Agriculture, Sylviculture, Montanologie, Mesurages terrestres et cadastre, Horticulture, Ingénierie de l'environnement, Paysagistique, Technologie de l'organisation des produits agricoles*

#### *Questionnaire*

\* Avez-vous déjà étudié le français ?

\* Si oui, pendant combien de temps et où: à l'école, au lycée ?

- \* Avez-vous obtenu un diplôme de langue française ? Si oui, lequel ?
- \* Utilisez-vous le français en dehors de l'université ? Dans quelles occasions ?
- \* Regardez-vous des émissions, des films en français ? Si oui, les comprenez-vous ?
- \* Êtes-vous en contact avec des documents écrits en français ?
- \* Quelles sont vos principales difficultés en français: la lecture de documents, la rédaction de documents, la compréhension de documents oraux ou/et écrits ?
- \* Avez-vous des informations sur :

- les régions agricoles de la Roumanie
- les principales activités agricoles de la Roumanie
- les diverses situations des agriculteurs, des horticulteurs, des sylviculteurs, des montanologues, des métrologues roumains
- l'organisation du travail des agriculteurs, des horticulteurs, des sylviculteurs, des montanologues, des métrologues roumains

- \* Savez-vous les difficultés des agriculteurs roumains ? Si oui, parlez-en ?
- \* Vous parlez avec les professeurs de spécialité sur la politique agricole de la Roumanie ?
- \* Aimerez-vous aller en stage dans des diverses régions agricoles de Roumanie et de France ? Quelles sont ces régions ?
- \* Quel est votre niveau de langue française ? Avez-vous passé le baccalauréat au français ?
- \* Serait plus facile pour vous d'apprendre le français si on utilise des moyens audio-visuels ?
- \* Savez-vous ce que suppose une analyse métrologique ?
- \* Connaissez-vous les aires protégées et les parcs naturels de la Roumanie ?

Pour les étudiants des spécialités *Contrôle et expertise des produits agroalimentaires* et *Biologie*, j'ajouterai les questions :

- \* Connaissez-vous les aspects des contrôles de la qualité des produits alimentaires ?
- \* Avez-vous consulté des manuels sur le contrôle de la qualité des produits alimentaires ?
- \* Selon vous, que signifie une vie sereine et une nourriture saine ?

Quand on a fait une évaluation des objectifs des apprenants du FOS, on peut établir les activités en classe de FOS.



## **Types d'activités en classe de FOS**

Pour réussir à sensibiliser, à stimuler et à former les étudiants, les enseignants doivent motiver l'apprentissage par compétences langagières et niveaux de maîtrise par compétence.

Le transfert de la compétence langagière n'est pas du tout une mince tâche. La compétence langagière est une des compétences transversales au sujet de laquelle on s'entend tous pour dire qu'elle est importante, car elle est à la base de tout apprentissage. C'est par la langue qu'on accède au savoir. Le transfert est un processus dynamique par lequel un individu utilise une connaissance déjà acquise soit pour intégrer une nouvelle connaissance ou un nouveau savoir-faire parmi ses connaissances, soit pour résoudre un problème dans un nouveau contexte.

Lire et écrire demandent de recourir aux trois types de connaissances: des savoirs, des savoir-faire et des reconnaissances de situations ou de conditions. Si un individu ne peut reconnaître un participe passé dans une phrase, il ne pourra pas l'accorder, même s'il connaît la règle par cœur... La compétence langagière est un ensemble d'habiletés reliées au langage qui permet de produire et de comprendre différents discours. Cette définition conserve le caractère de faculté générique de Chomsky. La compétence langagière englobe trois types de compétences : les compétences discursive, textuelle et linguistique. Ces compétences sont imbriquées les unes dans les autres lors de la production ou de la compréhension de discours. La compétence linguistique renvoie à la connaissance du code, aux règles d'utilisation de la langue. La compétence textuelle correspond à la connaissance des règles d'organisation d'un texte et la compétence discursive, à la connaissance des moyens langagiers permettant de lier un texte à un contexte ou à un type de discours.

(Moffet Jean-Denis, *La compétence langagière et le transfert*)

La motivation est un facteur important dans la réussite du transfert. En ce qui concerne les étudiants du FOS, la motivation est très solide, parce qu'ils suivent volontiers une formation dans un domaine choisi par eux-mêmes. Même si, au commencement il est possible d'exister un sentiment d'insécurité linguistique, l'enseignant a le rôle d'aider l'apprenant à surmonter ce sentiment. « *Les responsabilités des enseignants du FOS ne sont pas d'ordre strictement pédagogique. Plusieurs fonctions lui sont confiées: éducatives, institutionnelles, culturelles, interculturelles* ». (Curta, 2013 : 12)

La communication en classe du FOS se fait en langue étrangère et en langue maternelle des apprenants. L'enseignant donne de temps en temps des consignes en français aux apprenants. Au début de l'apprentissage, les apprenants ont du mal à comprendre

ces consignes. C'est pourquoi, il est conseillé à l'enseignant de commencer par des consignes faciles à retenir en les répétant plusieurs fois au cours de la formation. Le deuxième domaine concerne cette différence entre la communication apprise en classe et celle en situation réelle. Dans le cadre du FOS, le concepteur doit utiliser des documents authentiques lors de la formation. Ces documents authentiques jouent un rôle de premier plan, d'un côté, ils rendent les apprenants plus motivés à suivre cette formation et d'un autre côté ils les préparent à mieux affronter les situations cibles aux milieux professionnel ou universitaire. Quant au troisième domaine, il s'agit de l'apprentissage lui-même et ses représentations chez l'apprenant en tant que valeur d'échange.

(Qotb, *Profil du public de FOS*)

On souvient ici seulement une d'activité considérée comme rentable et motivante pour les apprenants du FOS.

\* Les séjours d'étude qui peuvent être brefs (une semaine) ou de longue durée (un ou deux semestres).

Pour les étudiants de la Faculté d'Agronomie et de la Faculté d'Horticulture, il serait très important d'aller voir des situations concrètes en France. Ils doivent faire une parallèle entre la Roumanie et la France en ce qui concerne les domaines étudiés. Ensuite, quand ils reviennent à l'Université, l'enseignant peut leurs proposer des exercices de créativité. Ces exercices ont comme but la communication en langue française.

*Exercice 1* : Regardez la carte de l'Europe et positionnez-vous dans l'espace géographique donné en utilisant les compléments circonstanciels de lieu! Fixez sur la carte les lieux visités et mentionnez votre position géographique actuelle par rapport à eux.

*Exercice 2* : Présentez les caractéristiques de la zone visitée (les formes de relief, le climat, la température, l'humidité, etc.) en utilisant les adjectifs au singulier et au pluriel.

*Exercice 3* : Avez-vous observé des variétés linguistiques utilisées sur un territoire restreint ? Langue familiale, régionalismes, archaïsmes ? Faites la différence avec les termes de la langue littéraire !

*Exercice 4* : Parlez de la variété de la flore et des espèces végétales en mentionnant les substantifs au féminin et au masculin, au singulier et au pluriel !

*Exercice 5* : Parlez de l'ensemble d'actions faites en utilisant les verbes aux modes et temps différents !

*Exercice 6* : Positionnez-vous dans la période passée à l'étranger en utilisant les compléments circonstanciels de temps !

Alors il est nécessaire de dépasser l'espace limité d'une salle de cours et, en même temps, il faut dépasser les méthodes traditionnelles d'enseignement !

Chaque enseignant doit identifier les besoins de ses apprenants et il doit trouver les méthodes nouvelles spécifiques pour eux !

## **Conclusions**

Il est important de faire comprendre aux étudiants le fait que, généralement, pour les langues, tout ne se décide pas, définitivement à l'École et à l'Université : celle-ci constitue une étape décisive, mais l'acquisition des variétés linguistiques peut s'effectuer ultérieurement, en dehors des institutions éducatives, par apprentissage individuel autonome. Pour créer une telle perception des langues il convient de sensibiliser les apprenants à la notion de répertoire plurilingue, leur faire découvrir leur propre répertoire, l'histoire de leurs contacts avec les langues, les variétés parlées dans leur territoire, dans leur classe, etc. Cette meilleure connaissance de soi est de nature à permettre aux apprenants de prendre confiance dans leurs propres capacités à développer leurs connaissances des langues et peut conduire à accroître leurs motivations à l'apprentissage.

(Curta, 2013 : 12)

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# Metafora „inimii frântă” sau sindromul Tako-tsubo

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## RÉSUMÉ: La Métaphore du « cœur-brisé » ou le syndrome Tako-tsubo

La langue roumaine actuelle, fidèle miroir de la société, est pleine de métaphores qui forgent son identité culturelle. On va s'occuper dans cet article d'une métaphore présente non seulement en roumain, mais qui prend tout son sens dans notre langue. Il s'agit du *cœur brisé* 'inimă frântă' qui, du langage commun, passé dans le langage médical en traduisant la cardiomyopathie de stress ou le syndrome de Tako-tsubo. On peut dire, avec Nichita Stănescu « *Cœur, cœur, planète mystérieuse / où j'aurais aimé vivre et mourir* ».

**MOTS-CLÉS:** *cœur brisé, métaphore, cardiomyopathie de stress, syndrome Tako-tsubo, langage commun/langage médical*

Poeții cântă de când lumea inimile frântă. Ei bine, s-ar părea că această metaforă este preluată de cardiologi pentru a explica faptul că amărăciunea și stresul de proporții ar fi cu adevărat capabile să frângă la propriu inima.

## 1. Metaforele inimii

Dacă primul sens al cuvântului inimă este unul medical, de „organul intern musculos central al aparatului circulator, situat în partea stângă a toracelui, care are rolul de a asigura, prin contracțiile sale ritmice, circulația sângelui în organism, la om și la animalele superioare; cord” (DEX 2009), acesta trece în limbajul comun într-o serie de locuțiuni și expresii, una mai grăitoare decât alta. Limba română actuală este o fidelă oglindă a societății, în continuă căutare de sine în ceea ce privește identitatea lexicală. Problema inimii este pasionantă, tulburătoare și neelucidată de cunoașterea umană. Inima este „*sinteza și centrul ființei umane, a funcțiilor și facultăților spirituale omenești*” (O dragoste mincinoasă. Păcatul desfrânării). Taina omului este, în

ultimă analiză, taina inimii sale și a bogatului ei univers, căci inima, fiind de natură spirituală, se află la hotarul dintre Dumnezeu și noi, fiind simțirea, voința, mintea omului, toate la un loc. (de Beauregard, 1995: 179)

Dacă examinăm metaforele inimii, imaginea pe care acestea ne-o dau nu este aceea a unui model conceptual unic, ci a mai multor submodele ce țin de semnificația existenței inimii pentru individ, de centralitatea simbolică a inimii care o plasează în centrul organismului, chiar dacă ea se află în stânga, de funcțiile inimii ce o plasează în relație cu sufletul și mintea, de capacitatea individului de a o manevra, de capacitatea sa de a acționa de sine stătător prin disocierea de eu și de structura sa.

Pentru individ, inima este un organ vital, existența sa depinzând de bătăile inimii, fapt ce conduce la conceperea existenței omului ca o inimă în metafore precum *inimi pioase*, *inimi fierbinți*, *inimă care bate* (pentru cineva), dar *oameni de inimă*, *oameni cu inimă* sau *indivizi fără inimă*. *A avea inimă bună* înseamnă a fi generos, în timp ce putem muri *de inimă rea*.

Ca centru simbolic, inima este plasată într-o serie de metafore care nici măcar nu mai sunt percepute ca atare: *inima orașului*, *inima conferinței*, *inima pădurii*, *inima copacului*, *inima pământului* etc. pentru a desemna partea de mijloc, interiorul, partea centrală, centrul.

Legat de afecte, funcțiile inimii sunt subsumate aceleia de receptacul al emoțiilor și sentimentelor, uneori chiar de cauză a acestora. „Ca funcție integratoare și sintetizatoare individualității și personalității umane inima este «izvorul vieții și centrul sufletului»” (Nellias, 1994: 133): „centru metafizic, loc al întâlnirii divinului cu umanul, al harului cu natura, inima este locul către care converg și unde se integrează toate facultățile umane: rațiune, sentiment și voință” (Teșu, 2004: 124) Marea majoritate a metaforelor legate de inimă țin de această ipotetică funcție: *foc la inimioară*, *cade cu tronc la inimă*, *îl trage inima*, *te unge la inimă*, *îți merge drept la inimă*. Dacă cele mai multe metafore se referă la inimă ca sediu al unor sentimente pozitive: *inimă bună*, *inimă deschisă*, *inimă largă*, *inimă curată*, *inimă dreaptă*, *inimă de aur*, *bun la inimă*, *băiat de inimă* etc., inima apare și ca sediu al unor sentimente negative: *a fi rău (câinos, negru) la inimă*, *a avea inimă haină (sălbatică)*, *a fi fără inimă*, *a avea inimă de piatră (împietrită)*. Inima este legată de psihic în locuțiuni precum: *îi merge la inimă*, *pune (la) inimă*, *își ia inima în dinți*, *foc la inimioară*; este legată de curaj, de îndrăzneala sau de energia, de puterea de voință sau de acțiune a cuiva: *înfruntă pericolul cu inimă rece*; *a(-și) pierde inima* = a-și pierde curajul, speranța, a se descuraja; *a-și lua inima în dinți* = a-și face curaj, a se hotărî să întreprindă ceva; *a-i veni (cuiva) inima la loc*, se spune când cineva își recapătă calmul, echilibrul și curajul după un moment de emoție sau de spaimă; *a (mai) prinde (la) inimă* = a căpăta (din nou) putere, curaj, a se restabili sufletește, a nu-i mai fi teamă; *a-i ține*

*cuiva inima* = a încuraja, a consola pe cineva; *a i se face (cuiva) inima cât un purice* = a-i fi (cuiva) frică de ceva; a se descuraja; *a i se tăia inima* = a-și pierde curajul.

Dacă funcțiile inimii nu depind de voință, ea poate, în schimb, să fie dăruită, răpită, scoasă și pusă altundeva, poate fi luată în stăpânire. Genul liric abundă de astfel de asocieri.

Inima poate să-și facă de cap, să zboare, să lupte, poate suferi diverse transformări (crește, râde, îngheață, doare, plânge, suspină, geme, oftează, arde, seacă, se frânge, se topește, se îmbolnăvește): *i s-a bucurat inima, după voia (pofta) inimii, a râde inima în cineva, a-i râde cuiva inima, a-și călca pe inimă, i s-a frânt inima* (inima moare fără ca individul să prindă de veste, în general, din cauza amorului).

Inima poate fi grea sau ușoară, verde sau albastră, poate suporta o povară: *a avea ceva la (pe) inimă, a-i sta ceva pe inimă, a fi negru la inimă, inimă albastră* (utilizat în cântece de dragoste numite și cântece de inimă albastră pentru a arăta supărarea, întristarea, însingurarea). Inima străpunsă de săgeată este metafora vizuală pentru înfățișarea amorului.

Materia din care este făcută inima nu este indiferentă. Astfel avem *inimă de piatră, inimă de zahăr, inimă de aur*. Și temperatura trădează anumite stări ale inimii: o inimă caldă este una ce trădează bunătatea, generozitatea, o inimă care arde, care este înflăcărată poate fi ori din cauza unei idei, ori din cauza mâniei, ori a iubirii. La polul opus, dacă este rece sau chiar îngheață, nu este capabilă de sentimente tandre sau de sentimente înalte.

## 2. Sindromul Tako-tsubo

Metaforele având ca bază „inima” se constituie într-o serie de modele explicative pentru fizicul și psihicul uman. Senzația de apăsare (*are ceva pe inimă*) are și ea o sursă fiziologică: un medic cardiolog ar putea să ne spună multe despre aceste expresii inerent metaforice. Element al corpului, dar în același timp «ascunsă», percepută prin «semnale» care trebuie să fie interpretate, inima constituie, probabil, organul cel mai în măsură să întruchipeze dualitățile corp-suflet, rațiune-sentiment, dar și să sugereze misterul.

Pornind de la metafora „inimii frânte”, ne întrebăm dacă putem oare cu adevărat să avem inima frântă la propriu? Această expresie, utilizată cel mai adesea după o ruptură amoroasă, nu este doar o simplă imagine: există chiar un sindrom care-i poartă numele. Medicina de azi demonstrează ceea ce poezii, scriitorii, artiștii, muzicienii au afirmat de secole, că inima se poate îmbolnăvi, în mod fizic, real, în urma unor suferințe sufletești foarte mari.

„Inima frântă” este o descoperire japoneză. Într-adevăr japonezii au fost primii care și-au dat seama, în 1991, că o „inimă frântă” la figurat, are urmări în plan fizic. În sindromul „inimii frânte” o parte din inimă se mărește, afecțiune care poartă numele de „cardiomiopatie Tako-tsubo” (după denumirea unui vas folosit de pescarii japonezi la prinderea caracatițelor) sau „cardiomiopatie de stres”. Pe radiografii, inima mărită a bolnavilor seamănă cu acest vas.

Sindromul „inimii frânte” se declanșează după un stres emoțional sau fizic. Numită și cardiomiopatie de stres, este o entitate clinică recent descrisă ce definește o afectare cardiacă acută ce evoluează ca o cardiopatie ischemică ce asociază sindromul coronarian și insuficiența cardiacă la diverse grade, fără leziune organică coronariană și, în general, cu rezoluție spontană. Se caracterizează prin absența stenozei coronare semnificative angiografic și un aspect caracteristic de balonizare apicală a ventriculului stâng în timpul sistolic al ventriculografiei (Sato, Tateishi, Uchida, 1990: 56-64).

Criteriile de definire stabilite de Mayo clinic (Bybee, Kara, Prasad 2004; 141(11): 858-65; Kawai, Kitabatake, Tomoike 2007; 71(6): 990-2) în 2004, apoi în 2007, sunt: hipokinezie, akinezie sau diskinezie tranzitorie apicală a ventriculului stâng cu sau fără atingere mediană; anomalii printre care atingerea regională ce se întinde dincolo de o distribuție vasculară epicardică; un declanșator de stres (frecvent, dar nu întotdeauna prezent); lipsa bolii coronariene obstructive sau a semnelor angiografice de ruptură acută a plăcii de aterom; anomalii electrocardiografice recente (denivelarea segmentului ST și/sau inversarea undei T) sau creștere modestă a troponinei cardiace; absența miocarditei, a feicromocitomului.

Urmare a unui stres emoțional (uneori, stres fizic intens), mai ales la femeile postmenopauză, descărcarea catecolaminelor endogene tip adrenalină antrenează o reacție intensă cu siderare miocardică. La coronarografie alterarea microcirculației coronariene nu este obiectivabilă. Fenomenul ar putea fi explicat prin concentrarea diferită a receptorilor beta-adrenergici la nivelul apexului cardiac. Dacă recuperarea este regula, s-a înregistrat un procent de mortalitate de 3,7% în acest sindrom (Bybee, Prasad, 2008; 118(4): 397-409; Afonso, Bachour, Awad, Sandidge, 2008; 9(6): 849-54; Ito, Sugihara, Katoh, Azuma, Nakagawa, 2003; 17(2) : 115-22).

Se prezintă ca o insuficiență cardiacă acută cu dispnee brutală, asociată eventual unei simptomatologii dureroase anginoase. Pacienții nu au decât foarte puține antecedente sau factori de risc cardiovascular. Diagnosticul diferențial cuprinde și alte cauze de dispnee/angor de origine cardiacă sau respiratorie cum ar fi: sindromul coronarian acut, edemul pulmonar cardiogen, șocul cardiogen de altă origine, miocardita acută, embolia pulmonară, criza de astm și bronhospasmul, decompensarea respiratorie a BPCO, edemul pulmonar lezional, SDRA, pneumopatii (Peschanski, 2011: 865-877). Sunt posibile complicații de șoc cardiogen, obstrucție a fluxului

sanguin la ieșirea din ventriculul stâng, accident vascular cerebral și formare de tromboză apicală. Responsabilă de moarte subită, a fost descrisă ruptura ventriculului stâng. Complicațiile acute survin la 20% dintre pacienți. Decesul ca urmare a unui Takotsubo este rar 1-3,2 %, dar în caz de supraviețuire se constată o recuperare ad integrum a funcției miocardice în 94-100% din cazuri (Gianni, Dentali, Grandi, Sumner, Hiralal, Lonn, 2006; 27(13): 1523-9; Donohue, Movahed, 2005; 10(4): 311-6).

Simptomul cel mai frecvent este reprezentat printr-o durere toracică adesea tipică, frecvent asociată unei dispnei. Antecedentele personale ale pacientului nu există sau sunt sărace în plan cardiovascular (Donohue, Movahed, 2005; 10(4): 311-6; Pilgrim, Wyss, 2008; 124(3): 283-92.) Factorii de stres intens (emoțional sau fizic) survin în 65% din cazuri (Donohue, Movahed, 2005; 10(4): 311-6; Sato, Fujita, Saito, 2006; 70(8): 947-53).

Examenul fizic nu este specific, fiind adesea normal, în afara simptomatologiei dureroase. La auscultarea pulmonară, în caz de dispnee asociată, pacientul evocă o insuficiență cardiacă congestivă: murmur ventricular diminuat la cele două baze pulmonare și raluri crepitante declive; ortopneea este clasică în acest context de edem pulmonar acut. Auscultarea cardiacă relevă cel mai adesea o tahicardie regulată moderată, dat sunt descrise și cazuri de bradicardie sau de tahiaritmii. Pacienții pot fi anxioși, pe fond de stres emoțional sau fizic persistent (Bybee, Prasad, 2008; 118(4): 397-409; Buchholz, Rudan, 2007; 83(978): 261-4; Gianni, Dentali, Grandi, Sumner, Hiralal, Lonn, 2006; 27(13): 1523-9.)

Examen neinvaziv prin excelență, reproductibil și evolutiv, poate reprezenta elementul cheie de orientare a diagnosticului. Anomaliile ECG sunt aproape constant prezente în faza acută (Bybee, Prasad, 2008; 118(4): 397-409; Gianni, Dentali, Grandi, Sumner, Hiralal, Lonn, 2006; 27(13): 1523-9; Toshiaki, Kiyoshi, Satoshi, 2010; 55(22): 2514-17; Prasad, Lerman, Rihal, 2008; 155(3): 408-17.). Nu există deci nici un semn ECG patognomonic sau a cărui specificitate să fie destul de importantă pentru a diferenția sindromul Tako-tsubo de un infarct miocardic cu denivelare a segmentului ST (Bybee, Prasad, 2008; 118(4): 397-409; Gianni, Dentali, Grandi, Sumner, Hiralal, Lonn, 2006; 27(13): 1523-9; Toshiaki, Kiyoshi, Satoshi, 2010; 55(22): 2514-17; Prasad, Lerman, Rihal, 2008; 155(3) : 408-17).

Markerii cardiaci, în special troponina, sunt crescuți, în 90-93% din cazuri, dar în proporții mai mici decât cele observate în sindrom coronarian acut cu denivelare de segment ST (Kawai, Kitabatake, Tomoike, 2007; 71(6): 990-2; Bybee, Prasad, 2008; 118(4): 397-409; Sharkey, Lesser, Menon, Parpart, Maron, Maro, 2008; 101(12): 1723-8). Coronarografia arată lipsa leziunii coronare angiografice, permițând eliminarea unui SCA pur. Studiul cineticii ventriculului stâng sau ventriculografia arată o disfuncție ventriculară severă cu absența contracției apexului cardiac, în timp ce baza se contractă normal (Kolkebeck, Cotant, Krasuski, 2007; 25(1): 92-5; Park, Prasad,



Rihal, 2009; 84(6): 514-521; Riera, Llompart-Pou, Carrillo, 2010; 68: E13-E15; Scheffel, Stolzmann, Karlo, 2008; 31(1): 226-7).

Nu există consens în privința îngrijirii acestei maladii: se face, minimum, oxigenoterapie, ventilație neinvazivă, asistență respiratorie (Bybee, Prasad, 2008; 118(4): 397-409).

Această boală afectează în special persoanele care-și pierd ființele dragi, fiind o maladie misterioasă ce imită simptomele unui infarct, care însă nu au legătură cu cauzele reale ale infarctului. Sindromul „inimii frânte” este provocat de o emoție puternică în urma căreia organismul eliberează o cantitate foarte mare de adrenalină (hormon de stres), care afectează inima. „Injecția” cu adrenalină în exces conduce la blocarea ventriculului drept, întrerupe ciclul de contracții și împiedică transportul sângelui în organism. Acesta este un adevărat șoc pentru inimă, dar și pentru întregul organism, se aseamănă cu un infarct, însă nu este provocat de un blocaj al arterelor, ci de stres.

### 3. Concluzie

Deși creierul este considerat de anumiți și fiziologi „regele organelor”, se pare că inima îl poate detronea oricând, iar istoria, religia sau literatura vin cu argumente/metafore puternice în sprijinul acestei idei.

Inima frântă nu este un mit, ci un sindrom uneori mortal, așa cum au demonstrat oamenii de știință. Este deci posibil, așa cum Charles Aznavour cântă de circa 50 de ani, să mori din dragoste, *Mourir d'aimer*, refren popular pe care numeroși medici îl analizează cu atenție.

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# **(R)evolution in Teaching English for Informatics Based on New Developments in ESP**

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## **ABSTRACT**

English for Informatics is a type of ESP course. ESP professors have to take into consideration the needs of their students and be aware of the fact that it is not only the reason for which they learn that is important but also the manner in which they learn. A successful ESP professor focuses both on the learners' needs and on the learners as subjects/people. Using texts and creating situations that target the learners' specialist area – the domain of Informatics in our case (or mainly such texts and situations) – to teach English (general and technical vocabulary, grammar, language skills, and functional language) is the correct approach to teaching an ESP class because this approach motivates students to learn the foreign language as they can immediately see the benefits. Nevertheless, their learning is effective only if this approach is connected to appealing, modern teaching methods and to the professor's attention to the idea of different learning styles. In today's demanding world a high-quality teaching is translated in innovation, experimentation, and flexibility. English for Informatics has to be more than a course of English for people specializing or specialized in the domain of computer science, of IT; it has to be a course which sheds light on emotional and social learning, on integrated studies as well as on educational technology and which is student centred.

**KEYWORDS:** *English for Informatics, ESP, appealing, modern teaching method, learning styles, emotional and social learning, integrated studies, educational technology, student centred course*

Making students in Informatics learn English or realise that they need very good English to succeed in their domain is not as easy as it might appear. Choosing material from their domain of study as a channel to teach language structures and functions as well as to improve their vocabulary and language skills in English is not enough. Drawing the students' attention to the fact that both computers and a foreign language, especially English, are associated with getting access to and transmitting information is just piquing their interest. The main idea is that professors should

never be just information sources for their students as computers or/and computer technology should not be used as simply (a) tool(s) for getting information because the end result in such situations would not necessarily lead to development, not to mention complete development, of the individual who is supposed to obtain such a benefit. We can talk of a real development when information becomes knowledge and the individual has learned how to use the newly acquired knowledge to construct something of significance with it. If we were to compare computers and computer technology with learning a foreign language, we would talk about fluency meaning that knowing how to communicate fluently in an accurate way is similar to knowing how to use computer tools to express yourself or make a change in your life or/and other people's lives.

Professors have always been known to be the ones responsible with the promotion of a discipline among students. So, the very first thing all professors should do when they first meet their students is to explain to them the rationale behind the course. Professors of English for Informatics have to tell students about the fact that the course is on the one hand about teaching and learning the subject under discussion and its implications which will help them during the academic period and in their future careers; and on the other hand about learning to think and create, about learning to make choices, about their individual interests, about understanding the necessity of learning something, about things which will help them meet life's requirements.

English language and Informatics are central to modern society. English language is the language of international communication and by communication we mean interaction and in the same time transmission of information, of thoughts. Informatics is a science that deals with the study of information representation and organization as well as with the study of algorithms used to process information with the help of a computer. But in order to process information, the computer needs to be told by a person what algorithm to use. The computer receives the instruction through a program which is written in an artificial language. Consequently, people can use the computer to effectively manipulate information that is to find information, retrieve it, and organize it for a certain purpose. Hence, it is obvious that the field of informatics considers the human computer interaction and that any language – be it artificial or natural – has the definite role to organize and to transmit information which can assist people in the learning process. Nevertheless, information is useful and people's knowledge can be developed only if the learning process is not seen as a mere transmission of information but as an active process in which people analyse information using critical thinking and innovate through reflection combined with creative thinking, through experimentation. So, since the beginning of the computer age and since the emergence of computer technologies the human society has been

advancing continuously and thus it has been changing constantly. The transformations are visible not only in the computer domain but also in all the other domains – education, business, medicine, politics, media, philosophy, and so on – which are influenced and influence the world of Informatics. Language is as vital in the natural world as it is in the computer world which makes it easy for students to understand the importance of studying a language in order to use it for communication purposes. Having information means having knowledge and the human society develops through knowledge and through sharing of knowledge but success comes when one is able to access information and when one has the skills to interpret it appropriately and use it creatively after accessing it.

Nonetheless, being aware of or even understanding the necessity to learn a language and actually learning it have proven to be two totally different things. Here, we have to bring into discussion the main role of a professor that of a person responsible for making learning possible. Professors need to revolutionize the way they approach teaching. They have to start spending more time on how students learn. The course content is important but it is not the only ingredient in the recipe for excellent classes. Instead of total control over a course, professors could share control in the sense that they do not have to be the only ones providing the materials or choosing the ways to work on something. For instance, successful business executives are the ones who take the initiative and are the brains behind everything but they know that they should act as consultants while monitoring or managing the activity of their employees, encourage employees' suggestions, and be ready to delegate in certain cases too. Professors who assume such a role give their students the chance to be more active, more independent while they are providers and observers. When students learn by doing is definitely better because the results are always positive. Providing information and/or access to information is essential to the learning process but not sufficient because the means for learning can indeed significantly change the end result. The teaching goals, methods, materials and even assessments have to motivate, inspire and especially be accessible. A lesson is informative and accessible if professors start by bearing in mind that students are different in terms of interests, capabilities and knowledge. The goal of each lesson has to be the same for everybody but the manner of getting there has to cater for all needs and abilities. It sounds impossible but it is not.

Marjatta Huhta, Karin Vogt, Esko Johnson and Heikki Tulkki affirm in their study on designing an ESP course that *“what is specific about ESP is related not so much to domain-specific language – terminology, acronyms, neologism and so on – as to what the professional requires in order to perform the duties of the role in the context successfully”* (p. 35). The idea is that professors of ESP have to analyse their teaching situation and their students' learning situation from multiple perspectives.

For instance, when you teach at a faculty where the domain of study is called Exact Sciences or is related somehow with Science and Technology, it does not mean that you should include everything from IT to Civil and Mechanical Engineering or go even further and consider all the exact sciences such as Physics, Chemistry, Geography, etc. In our case, English for Informatics is part of the domain of Exact Sciences but designing a course for these students means thinking of their present academic context – present themes being studied – and of their future professional context – future work related situations. Therefore, besides practice in language structures and skills, besides a presentation of specific language expressions and vocabulary based on the topics taught by the professors in their faculty, the communication skills necessary in IT world have to be addressed as well. Thus, professors have to do more than focus on the profession-specific language, they have to offer classes whose lessons are a combination between correct language and vocabulary put in work related situations and communication situations relevant to the reality of a student in Informatics or graduating from the Faculty of Informatics. More exactly, if in the past ESP classes were using language-centred approaches which targeted “*exclusively (...) functions and notions and (...) the four skills of speaking, listening, writing and reading*” (Huhta *et al.*, p. 14), today each ESP class requires “*a comprehensive task-based approach*” (p. 14) for effectiveness and is very much interested in activities related to the professional discourse. Huhta *et al.* say that “*a communicative task is integral to the professional workplace context, but (...) is primarily fulfilled through the application of language and discourse skills*” (p. 15) and that in everything the phenomenon of “*social agency*” should play an important role because a learner is not only a(n) (future) employee but an individual who is a member of society, of a certain community specializing/specialized in a given domain and further on a specific subject encountering in this way many communication situations. Under the circumstances, Huhta *et al.* suggest a “*holistic approach*” to the needs analysis which implies, in their opinion, accommodating “*the interplay of social, cognitive, emotional and volitional dimensions of learning*” (p. 15).

In addition to being aware of what the students do with the language, professors have to think of the language learning process and of how this happens in order to be able to choose materials and teaching methods appropriate for their courses. Such a view on things allows us to say that Huhta *et al.* are on the same wavelength with Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters regarding an ESP class and actually any EFL class. In *English for Specific Purposes: A learning-centred approach*, Hutchinson and Waters speak of a new direction in the development of teaching ESP, one that requires the professors’ attention to what enables students to learn, pointing out that “*language learning is conditioned by the way in which the mind observes, organises and stores information*” (p. 39) which means that “*the key to successful language*

*learning lies in (...) understanding the structure and processes of the mind*" (p. 39). They also stress the fact that modern language professors have to know that learners are thinking and emotional beings. According to them "*positive learning cycle*" is entailed by a good "*cognitive/affective interplay*" (p. 47), that is professors have to make the learners learn and apply cognitive powers in the acquisition of knowledge because in this way the learning is successful and develops the learners' competences which enable students to learn easily as long as the learning process is an enjoyable and satisfying experience, obviously.

The learning process is more than methods and theories; it is about learning styles too. Professors should always take into consideration the theory of multiple intelligences of Howard Gardner, the specialist in cognition and education from Harvard. In his book *Multiple Intelligences: New Horizons in Theory and Practice*, he explains that "*human cognitive competence is better described in terms of a set of abilities, talents, or mental skills*" [called] '*intelligences*'" (p. 6). He says that there are seven types of intelligences – the musical intelligence, the bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, the logical-mathematical intelligence, the linguistic intelligence, the spatial intelligence, the interpersonal intelligence and the intrapersonal intelligence – whose descriptions below are a proof of their importance in the learning process.

The musical intelligence refers to people who are sensitive to rhythm and sound. Professors can speak rhythmically when they present something by varying their tone of voice which is common practice in presentations and thus they can be a model for their students. And when students are working on a project music can be played in the background if agreed.

The bodily-kinesthetic intelligence implies that courses should include some kind of physical activity like hands-on learning, acting out, role playing which can help everybody as the lesson is not only about learning while sitting down for two hours. Moreover, references to the importance of body language in communication will probably interest not only the people who communicate easier through body language but also everybody else.

The logical-mathematical intelligence applies to people with logical thinking and to those who like reasoning a lot being able to see and explore patterns and relationships. This means that professors can insert in their classes problem-solving activities; investigation exercises through which students can be asked to find the differences and/or similarities in a picture, audio or video presentation; question and answer sessions on a certain theme of interest with previous research on the topic or not depending on the situation meaning that students either have background knowledge from other lessons or they search for information before the activity. Discovering notions and concepts, drawing parallels, and then creating something is exciting, especially as this is appealing to most people and should be considered as part



of the teaching method to develop learners' thinking and creative skills. This is particularly important for students in Informatics who need to be able to analyse things logically and quickly in their future jobs.

The linguistic intelligence is for those people who are good with words in the sense that they use words effectively and have their auditory skills very well developed. This implies that professors should also focus on activities that use words like games that require students to speak or write about a particular topic from their domain by using a given set of words and expressions related to that topic or that allow professors to ask students to start to talk about a topic by taking turns and by using the vocabulary given in the same time while professors can be coordinators and choose when a student to stop and another one to continue and thus students' attention, speed thinking, and quick appropriate reactions are practiced. Further on, professors can bring to class materials that exercise students' readings and listening comprehension skills and in this way other types of learners are involved too, especially those that enjoy thinking activities.

The spatial intelligence refers to the necessity of using in the teaching process such things as: images – presenting the difference between augmented reality and virtual reality by showing images or by seeing a video presentation; graphics and charts – making comparisons between the technical specifications of two laptops for instance or asking the students to interpret graphs and charts and then talk about a subject related to them; jigsaw puzzles based on a certain image reflecting their domain of learning; or drawings uncovering ideas connected to the subject under discussion. Such activities clearly develop thinking skills too and can give students the opportunity to improve their thinking speed so necessary first to pass an interview test in testing or programming and then to create software testing or programming situations.

The interpersonal intelligence can be seen in people who learn by interacting with others – collaborative learning being something that is on their taste – which would mean that everything involving many or several people is good for them. Team activities or dialogues such as conference calls and video or computer conferencing role plays plus writing e-mails are indicated while time and attention from the professor are a must. In the future careers of students from Informatics team work skills are a must because team work is the approach most software companies have in business projects.

The intrapersonal intelligence is for those that are intuitive but learn better independently being prone to introspection. Such students can be asked to do research and come up with their own impressions or create something based on that, besides they also work well during exercises containing a “make it personal” task when students have to apply what they have learned in grammar and subject content from the professor's materials.

Gardner explains that actually all “*normal individuals possess each of these skills to some extent*” (p. 6) but that “*individuals differ in the degree of skill and in the nature of their combination*” (p. 6) which results in the fact that it is possible for professors to include in their teaching learning activities that are designed for everybody varying them in terms of focus from class to class and giving students choices in approaching subjects. All individuals, as human beings, are endowed with one or several types of intelligences in different degrees. As some domains have the same name as certain intelligences – for example the Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Studies – or part of the name or a related name – for instance the domain of Logics and that of Mathematics or the domain of (Visual) Arts – these are often associated. Nonetheless, a group of specialists studying multiple intelligences says that “*an individual can, and often does, draw on several intelligences when performing in a given domain*” (Davis Katie *et al.*, p. 16). In our case a successful CEO at an IT company does not simply depend on logical-mathematical intelligence; spatial, linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences are most probably among his/her strengths as well. Besides, “*an intelligence does not dictate choice of profession*” (Davis Katie *et al.*, p. 16) because a student in Informatics with a high interpersonal intelligence might choose to enter the domain of education as a teacher or as a professor and might aim to become a principle or a dean or even work in the Ministry of Education as he/she might very well strive to enter the software business market as an employee of a software company aiming to climb the career ladder or as a business person with his/her own company. It is worth mentioning here the obvious fact that intelligences are used in our daily activities as it is showed in the study “The Theory of Multiple Intelligences” mentioned above and in time we can develop one or more intelligences to a high degree according to our needs and as a consequence we can become experts in a domain and be acknowledged as such.

In the same sphere of multiple intelligences theory, Gardner has also written some articles about computer technology and how this can help professors design an effective English course with activities that are for the benefit of all types of learners. In an article entitled “Can Technology Exploit Our Many Ways of Knowing?”<sup>1</sup> he brings into discussion the issue about old ways of teaching which he calls “*uniform schooling*” (p. 32) because this old methodology used is meant to treat all pupils/students in the same manner. For some reason certain schools consider that learners can benefit from the educational process if professors adopt a uniform style of teaching according to which learners sit down the entire class listening to the professor after which they are asked to “recite back” what they have been presented or are simply

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<sup>1</sup> <<https://howardgardner01.files.wordpress.com/2012/06/can-technology-exploit-our-many-ways-of-knowing1.pdf>>.

given a written test usually under the form of a multiple choice exercise through which the professor exploits only the logical and the linguistic intelligence of his/her students thinking that they are in school and only have to think and express themselves correctly and as fluently as possible. Although this seems fair to some people's mind, it is actually unfair, as Gardner explains, and we might add that it is very limiting. People can learn in many ways and formal schooling should not neglect this proven theory especially as nowadays technology makes it is easier for professors to design a course that considers this aspect of the learning process.

In his article on technology and the learning process, Gardner sees the emergence of "new technologies" such as CD-ROMs, the Internet, the World Wide Web, and hypermedia in general as an opportunity for professors, parents, youngsters, entrepreneurs even to improve instruction because *"technology can be used to mobilize the multiple intelligences of students"* (p. 33) and some professors, he mentions, have already started using such an approach. Gardner continues by drawing everybody's attention to a common mistake in using technology in the class, though. He refers to the use of technology to *"deliver the same drill-and-skill content"* (p. 32) when creativity and variety should in fact be the engine behind such approaches. He also advises professors to control their impulse of trying to find out what intelligences their students possess and of focusing only on those intelligences because this would again be limiting and not necessarily to students' benefit. As a consequence, Gardner recommends professors that they set some goals and then think how technology can be of help. He favours two kinds of broad goals: teaching students to become certain types of adults and in doing so developing not only one intelligence but several which they might need in life and give them some practice in the others too while helping them understand the major ways of thinking which have developed in the discipline of their interest. To exemplify he speaks of science and highlights that *"students need to understand how one develops theories, evaluates data, tests hypotheses, and makes predictions"* (p. 34) because access to information is not enough as we have made it clear in our analysis here. The data found in any research has to be manipulated correctly and the claims and counterclaims have to be evaluated as Gardner himself writes adding that technology is not just offering easier access to information but it makes the material *"vivid"* and *"fun to play with"* and *"readily address the multiple ways of knowing that humans possess"* (p. 35) which transform the learning environment from a stressful environment into a pleasant one as long as this new tool is properly used.

In another article written in collaboration with Shirley Veenema "Multimedia and Multiple Intelligences"<sup>2</sup>, Gardner warns people against the wrong use of technology

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<sup>2</sup> <<https://howardgardner01.files.wordpress.com/2012/06/multimedia-and-multiple-intelligences.pdf>>.

in general and in the educational process saying that “*interactive technology*” is a “*valuable education tool*” if it “*takes advantage of the complex view of intelligence*” (p. 69) because “*applications of new technology should provide ways for a variety of minds to get access to knowledge*” (p. 70). So professors should try to “*teach students in ways that are consonant with, or stretch, their current mental representations*” and “*give individuals the opportunity to exhibit their understandings by means of media and representations<sup>3</sup> to make sense to them*” (p. 70).

Therefore, when using computers or technology in the context of language learning and teaching professors have to be cautious. We live in the digital age when learners have the ways, means, and speed to gather information but they need the professor’s guidance to do this in an appropriate and meaningful manner. Students should be encouraged to use computer technology to learn but the professor should be the one to help them choose the correct way and teach them critical thinking when it comes to using technology in the learning process. For instance even when teaching students in Informatics professors should draw their students’ attention to the fact that searching the web has to be done with the eyes wide open. Not all the information from the web is good from the point of view of content correctness or of the relevance which means that students should try to find out how credible the source is by checking who is responsible for the information on the page or who the author of the page is; or how well the page can serve their purpose by looking for evidence to tell them if the page contains a personal opinion or an objective view, if it has an educational, informative or marketing purpose; or how up to date the page is. For students to understand such aspects, it is better if the professor shows them how everything applies instead of just telling them and if he/she does a follow-up activity to verify their understanding of the matter discussed and designs the activity to include a specific theme and even a certain grammar point in order to touch upon students’ needs and interests in the same time because after all professors of English for Informatics are teaching classes in which CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning)<sup>4</sup> is among the key concepts which describe what is happening there.

A good example of such an activity is one that asks students to look for information about laptops or any kind of device they might want or wish to buy or they might need as a group at that point and see descriptions – device specifications and features; related news; reviews; ratings and statistics in order to be able to make an

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<sup>3</sup> i.e. intelligences

<sup>4</sup> “*The name given to a kind of teaching (and learning) where students study a subject (...) and, at the same time, learn the language they need to understand and talk about the subject in a second language*” (Harmer, p. 225) that is “*students study content (...) through and with a second language, and they study language through and with the content.*” (Harmer, p. 226)

informed choice. Through this activity the professor can also teach and work on adjectives and degrees of comparison. Students can work in teams, groups or individually according to their desire as long as by the end of the activity they come up with some conclusions based on sound arguments. In this way students have a choice in the manner they want to complete the task and if they choose collaborative work they have the chance to negotiate about which device to be considered while at the end they all have the possibility to participate in a discussion and practice not only the specific vocabulary and language but also techniques of arguing in an effective way. All this time the professor monitors the activity and if necessary he/she acts as a consultant. This activity can work for all levels and even in classes with students of mixed levels because each student can select the information according to his language skills and can even improve these skills by the end of the activity.

Another activity that works well when the professor wants to show students how to evaluate websites and the information they provide is one in which the professor chooses a controversial and wide topic such as “Social Media: Advantages and Disadvantages” and generates discussion about it which can develop and encompass many human and computer aspects. This activity can be used to revise some language functions (expressing opinion, giving advice, expressing disbelief, asking for thoughts and/or arguments, expressing agreement and disagreement) and tenses possibly including reported speech if the professor chooses to have a secretary to record the conclusions of the debate for instance. For the evaluation of the information given the professor can write on the board the criteria to be used under the form of a table with two columns (one for questions and one for comments) and several rows based on the suggestions made for the things to be evaluated about the websites. Before the activity begins first the professor and the students brainstorm about social media and then the professor elicits from the students some useful phrases for comments and for the language functions relevant to the task.

It may seem impossible to teach to all learning styles but it is clearly not. This era of technology makes things easier. By using technology in the classroom professors can satisfy the many types of learning preferences that one person may embody or that a class embodies. However, professors should not overlook the importance of printed materials either. It is true that the internet with the many possibilities it has to offer for both teaching and learning – websites (education sites, journal sites, professional organizations sites, company sites), podcasts, video and audio files and multimedia (that is the combination of text, audio, still images, animation, video); or interactive content from a CD can attract, enhance knowledge, and entail creativity but books and dictionaries or printed materials from newspapers or hand-outs (like the jigsaw reading texts) can also prove to be useful and lead to an improvement of practical skills and to interaction.

Students can find helpful materials for the ESP class also in ESP books written by their professors or other professors who have studied the needs of such students and the job market and have chosen and/or adopted material and/or written material to suit their needs and highlight common mistakes in the language used in their domain of study. For example, in such books students can find gapped texts abridged from specialist texts or just texts or exercises that bring out lexical items and language structures from their domain of study. In addition, these texts may be designed to give students the opportunity to practice language in context orally or in writing while helping them learn about all sorts of communication issues which can appear in e-mails, teleconferences, face to face meetings and about how to handle these issues businesswise and language wise. A nice and loved activity which is relaxing but educational is one in which the professor and students play with newspaper headlines: they can discuss headline features – grammar wise and vocabulary wise, they can gather headlines from the present day news about computer and computer technology and try to think of a personal connection or story they can share with the class, they can analyse headline ambiguity or think of what the headline suggests and how this matches the actual article, they can find collocations by browsing through IT newspapers headlines brought to the class by the professor and then try to create a story to match them, they can look at pictures or graphs and try to find headlines for them as if they were part of a newspaper article.

What is more, students can look for explanations of IT content and essential concepts in specialist text-books and even in books for non-specialists written in English. These books can be used by students to read about the notions and themes they study during the faculty years and to look for relevant examples of English language structures used in their domain or can be used as reference for discussions or for the writing activities. Professors of English for Informatics suggest books for these purposes and bring in materials for the reading activities from such books after having talked to IT professors and specialists to be able to make a good selection of topics and even to give students practice in researching and presenting certain topics which are identical with or /and related to the ones from the subject courses. This collaborative teaching is mentioned in Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo St John's book *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. They talk about three types of collaborative teaching: "*Cooperation, Collaboration and Team-Teaching*" (p. 42).

In the cooperation phase the professor of ESP takes the initiative and asks the professors from the department how English fits into the requirements of their curriculum and what the department and the students see as priorities. Dudley-Evans and St John insist that ESP professors should also try "*occasionally [to introduce] material that provides a slightly different perspective on the content*" (p. 43), that is

– and here they mention J. N. Crofts and his “*Subjects and Objects in ESP Teaching Materials*” – ESP professors “*should concentrate on material that is parallel to the main subject course, but is not actually part of it (...) topics that could have been included in the main course, but were not*” (p. 10) to increase students’ motivation and avoid boredom with a subject already discussed. Here the idea of integrated studies<sup>5</sup> can work miracles. In our case such materials could bring business, culture, philosophy, sociology into discussion because the relation that these subjects have with the world of computers can feed students curiosity, develop their critical thinking and help them understand the surrounding world in all its complexity and see even better this human-computer interaction theme which is part of the definition of Informatics – their domain of study.

In the collaboration phase the professor of English, after having discussed with the professors of the department, plans a series of classes where the language class prepares the students for subsequent subject classes taught in English or not; runs classes that give practice on a specific skill or related to a specific task based on material suggested by the department (e.g. translating and discussing discipline related topics from materials suggested by the department) while also trying “*to move students from a dependence on rote learning towards developing critical thinking and a more questioning approach to learning*” (p. 44).

In the team-teaching phase the professor of English and the subject professor work together in the classroom – some previously recorded courses held by the subject professor are played in the classroom, students listen to the recordings and take notes which gives them practice in listening comprehension and note-taking. Dudley-Evans and St John say that “*the objective is to ‘empower’ students to understand and take notes on all lectures*” (p. 46) but, we might add, that students can build their summarizing and paraphrasing skills which are so necessary in the IT domain and not only. The language professor focuses both on the content of the recordings with the professor specialist acting as an adviser and on the language used. The language professor does not have to be an expert in the subject but has to have read

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<sup>5</sup> An approach to learning which refers to “*a combination of more academic subjects to prepare students for a world where all knowledge is integrated*” (<<http://www.edutopia.org/integrated-studies>>). Some universities from the USA and Canada offer a bachelor degree in integrated studies which means studying a customized curriculum created by the student to better suit his/her educational and life goals and give him/her the chance to follow the career of his/her dreams and be extremely good at it. Wikipedia gives examples of such universities and present the idea of “*integrative learning*” which “*comes in many varieties: connecting skills and knowledge from multiple sources and experiences; applying skills and practices in various settings; utilizing diverse and even contradictory points of view; and, understanding issues and positions contextually*” (<[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integrative\\_learning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integrative_learning)>)

about it and to have done research on it if possible with a specialist's help from the department and/or from the IT market. The language professor has the responsibility to initiate discussions, act as a consultant and help with the language problems, the students are to do the rest because the language professor's main responsibility is to facilitate language understanding and accuracy as well as to improve communication skills while giving the students choices and encouraging them to think and create. The idea is not to focus only on the "*immediate needs*" of the students but also on the "*delayed needs*" like those that refer to the dissertation work from the final year or to the communication needs from their future work (Dudley-Evans and St John, p. 40).

Another crucial aspect of the teaching-learning process in an ESP class is the assessment which plays an important part in the end results of the students. The assessment has to be thought in such a way as to eliminate stress and should come as a natural thing in order to shed light on the achievements and show what needs more practice. Besides, it should be continuous. In the achievement testing which is part of the class most of the times, the evaluation does not need be conducted solely by the professor all the time. The evaluation can be peer correction and the professor can be a supervisor and intervene when or if necessary – for instance sometimes professors can ask students to solve their task on a piece of paper without writing their names and then professors collect all the materials produced only to give it back to them for peer correction in a random order; or professors can ask students to write e-mails and save them in a folder without writing their names in order to be corrected in class, or they can bring to class materials that contain mistakes and ask students to find the "bugs"; or the evaluation can be a project-based<sup>6</sup>. No type of assessment should put pressure on students but should enable professors to grade students and see what they have misunderstood. Final testing should be meant to show the level of English the students have reached and how prepared they are for their future jobs and should have the structure of IELTS tests and additionally professors should think of a way to teach students what each grade reflects in terms of English level just like in the IELTS testing.

Given everything mentioned so far, it is natural that professors of ESP, including professors of English for Informatics, use the eclectic approach in teaching their classes. Diane Larsen-Freeman (2003) has used the term principled eclecticism to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching. She explains that eclecticism involves the use of a variety of language learning activities,

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<sup>6</sup> Project-based activities are meant to cover the needs of all students and allow each student to shine in his own way because everybody can explore the real world and experience real situations subject related and/or life related and be creative. In addition it prepares students for team-work and individual work, for presentations and debates while teaching them to become responsible for their actions.



each of which may have very different characteristics and may be motivated by different underlying assumptions. She reminds us that teaching methods “*are coherent combinations of techniques and principles*” (p. 183) and says that professors who subscribe to the pluralistic view of teaching are actually “*creating their own method by blending aspects of others in a principled manner*” (p. 183). The use of eclecticism does not mean mixing up different approaches randomly but combining structural approaches with communicative use of language in order to meet the goals of the course and in the same time students’ needs. In teaching English for Informatics the four language skills and the language functions are better developed and practiced by using a mixture of task based and content based approach – through which the needed vocabulary is expanded and the use of language structures is analysed and/or inferred – followed by conversational practice and creative writing practice. Language based on structures cannot be acquired without reasonable practice by means of communicative activities, be them oral or written. Professors are seen as facilitators, guides, consultants and learners are at the centre of teaching-learning activities with the professors making everything possible to involve everybody, insisting on cooperative work as well as on self-correction, and encouraging students to ask questions about the substance provided for teaching-learning activities.

In a class where the professor is an adept in the eclectic approach he/she uses charts, actions, pictures, or objects to present the target grammar and thus make sure that when he teaches he definitely applies the theory of multiple intelligences; students learn and practice grammar and vocabulary in a “natural” sequence: listening, speaking, reading, and writing; the contexts for instruction come from domain related situations and from everyday life; classroom activities are interactive and include collaborative learning and even teaching; instruction is based on attention to form, meaning, and use but in the same time lessons cover pronunciation practice focused on the importance of tone, intonation, and pauses in conveying meaning.

An eclectic approach is supported by many researchers who recognize that language instruction is context-dependent. In their chapter on the postmethods era, Richards and Rodgers observe that “[c]hoice of teaching method cannot . . . be determined in isolation from other planning and implementation practices.” (2002, p. 244–55) It is advisable that the teacher draw students’ attention to grammatical forms in the context of communication. This perspective is also advocated by many who say that attention to form should take place within a meaningful, communicative context, making it an extension of communicative language teaching, not a departure from it. Clearly, there is a need to combine focus on form with communicative activities to the learners’ benefits as this article shows too. Research has also shown that “*teachers who focus students’ attention on linguistic form during communicative interactions are more effective than those who never focus on form or who only*

*do so in decontextualized grammar lessons*” (Spada and Lightbown, 1993, and Lightbown, 1998, cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2002). Finally, there is evidence that students in programs that combine focus on form with communicative practice show accelerated learning and substantial gains in usage ability compared to students in programs that provide only communicative exposure to target structures.

The teaching and learning of grammar in English for Specific Purposes classes is important, especially as it will enhance competence in the four language skills. There should be some direct instruction in points of grammar later to be related to classroom activities and also to the contexts and situations the students are likely to encounter. These steps can be introduced gradually along the course or they can be part of the same lesson depending on the level of the students. Sometimes the students need to look at and discuss the similarities and the differences between their native language and the target language and analyse the contexts in which language structures appear by looking at their functions. So, in comprehensive programs of English for Specific Purposes, professors should be aware that the integration of language structures in meaningful contexts will enable the learner to use the language as a system and have an overall view of how the language functions and will prevent him/her from misunderstanding messages transmitted or from ruining the meaning of his/her messages. In no language, can there be efficient and effective communication without correct use of grammar.

The choice of grammar to be taught during an English for Informatics course depends on the (1) the language functions (i.e. a speaker’s purpose for communication) that learners will need in their future or present activity and in their daily lives, and (2) the environment in which learners use English. A communicative purpose can often be conveyed by specific grammatical structures. For example, one way of describing one’s past job duties (in a job interview, for instance) is to use the past tense. Thus, an IT developer might answer the question “What were your duties at your previous job?” with the statement “I researched, designed and implemented software.” Or if somebody wants to ask for information regarding specific possibilities he/she can use „is it possible to + verb” or „can/could + subject + verb” not „may” which is used for possibilities in the affirmative or negative. So, an employee’s question about existing possibilities would sound like this: „Is it possible to receive a pay increase if we work extra hours so often?” or „How can/could I write more efficient code?”. Or if an employee wants to request permission, he/she should know that in the business world the use of „may”, as opposed to the use of „can”, makes the request more formal.

When selecting grammar to teach, we need to ask ourselves whether that grammar communicates a purpose that our learners truly need and whether, as a result, it is worth spending class a lot of time on a particular item. For instance, there are some

grammatical categories with a high frequency in the world of computers and computer technology which, as mentioned above, includes some parts of the business domain. These are: the adequate use of tenses and reported speech which is needed to show the exact time of an action or event and to avoid confusing the interlocutor; the right choice of voice which can help shift the focus from the doer of the action to the action being done or the other way around depending on what is more important at that point; the right choice of questions (closed, open, tag questions and even indirect questions) which can make the difference when negotiating for instance or when discussing something; the modals which add extra meaning to a verb and so are used strategically to give an extra meaning to the utterance which is very valuable when for example you want to lower the degree of certainty of something or when you want to mitigate negative content or when you ask for advice or make a less direct suggestion or make a polite request, etc.; some forms of the subjunctive mood which are necessary because they occur in „that” clauses and „if” clauses which are very much used to make suggestions, to offer alternatives, and so on; the linking words which are the ones that connect words and ideas helping with the flow of the communication situation. Nevertheless, knowledge of the other categories such as the noun, the article, the qualifiers, the adjective, the adverb, and the various types of clauses are also important for the fluency of language and the correct transmission of messages. Necessity for conveying meaning is an important aspect in grammar. Some grammatical forms, though correct, are not crucial to meaning. For example, the -s on third person singular verbs („The client/He/She requires that...; „The application/It allows...”) is redundant because we are talking about only one person or thing as it is made clear by a noun or pronoun. This does not mean we should not teach the -s on third person singular verbs, but it does mean that we may spend less time on it than on other forms that are more critical to meaning, such as verb tenses.

Students’ needs have to be considered at all times and the teacher should not fall in the trap of covering in detail the grammar structures; he/she has to be flexible and focus on the language issues necessary for good communication. In short, the grammar we choose to include should closely match the functions that our students need in their daily lives for learning purposes, for work, or/and for socializing. In order to understand and acquire correct grammar notions to be used with ease later on, learners need to take part in a process of acquisition based on logics, comparisons, discovery, practice, and creation under the supervision of the professor.

The environment where learners speak English and the people with whom they speak it – have important implications for the grammar we choose to teach. First, in determining where learners use English, we need to look at three major areas: the present situation, the future workplace, and the social milieu. This is why the English language taught should not be connected only to specialized content; there should be some general content as well.

For example, if English is the dominant language at their future workplace – as it often is the case with IT people, then the functions of reporting and clarifying – and their associated grammar – are essential. Finally, when students will be using English in social situations, they will need “small talk,” including functions such as describing plans („I’m going to go on a well-deserved holiday abroad next year.”), giving advice („You should read more about resolving conflict situations.”), comparing interests („I like testing more than programming.”), discussing health („I’ve been having back problems and eye problems recently. It is because of my working habits as a programmer.”) and others.

The environment in which learners use English also includes the people with whom they will be speaking in English. In work situations, for example, will learners be interacting with clients and supervisors, or only with co-workers? So, they need to master different levels of formality and be showed how these are associated with different grammatical structures. For example, a speaker may use a simple imperative when requesting something from a co-worker (“Get me all the documents for this project, please!”), whereas a more polite form (“Could you please provide the documents for this project?”) is more appropriate in making a similar request of a supervisor.

In planning and preparing the appropriate activities for ESP lessons in general and for English for Informatics in particular, all the criteria presented above will prove fruitful. If the methods and approaches are understood and then used correctly, the aims of the lesson are met in the end; and if sometimes they are combined or modified with the learners’ needs in mind the sessions are guaranteed for success. In addition, we have to carefully plan the grammar part of the course in order to avoid the problems of stress and boredom often associated with it and with IT learners it is always good to present grammar using logics and comparisons and allowing them to practice it in specialized contexts and in “make it personal” kind of activities so that they can be explained things in contexts they have encountered themselves and in this way the acquisition is more successful.

In conclusion both professors and learners should be aware that we no more live in the age of information, not even in the age of knowledge but in the age of thinkers and visionaries. The era of creation and thus of evolution is unfolding in front of our eyes and professors, through their manner of teaching, should make it possible for their students to be active people during this era. The past is about the time when people were mesmerized by the flow of information made possible by computers and computers technology, by the free flow of information encouraged by the internet, by the knowledge people could acquire just with a few clicks. The present and the future belong to those that understand that there is a need for more. Knowing what information to use and how to use it is the key, being able to use digital skills to create something valuable and worthwhile for you and for the others means being successful. None of

these can happen without a sound knowledge of the English language – the international language, though. So, professors of ESP play an important part in the present and the future of students as they can not only teach students specific language but also help them develop useful academic, life, and job-related skills.

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- <[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integrative\\_learning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integrative_learning)>.

# Insights into *Boku's* Journey for Self-Discovery

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## ABSTRACT

*Dance Dance Dance* is a page turner where characters are constantly negotiating their identities between a real dimension and a fantasy world. Living primarily concerns one's arduous quest for a genuine soul-commitment. "Do not make the same mistake twice!" sounds promising, yet it turns out to be more like a challenge rather than a fact for most of Murakami's *shipwrecked-off-life's-shore* characters. In Haruki Murakami's case, the boundaries between reality and unreality do not mistakenly melt away; on the contrary, they are shaped as a road running zigzags among human beings' errors, recurrent faults, inaccuracies, and all sorts of inherent blunders.

**KEYWORDS:** *postmodern fiction, unravelling mysteries, hope*

## 1. Haruki Murakami, a Postmodern Japanese Writer

Haruki Murakami is an internationally known Japanese writer, with many of his works being translated into different languages. (Shelley, 2012: 100)

He is not only arguably the most experimental Japanese novelist to have been translated into English, he is also the most popular, with sales in the millions worldwide. His greatest novels inhabit the liminal zone between realism and fable, whodunit and science fiction: *Hard-Boiled Wonderland and the End of the World*, for example, features a protagonist who is literally of two minds, and *The Wind-Up Bird Chronicle*, perhaps his best-known work outside of Japan, begins prosaically – as a man's search for his missing wife- then quietly mutates into the strangest hybrid narrative since Laurence Sterne's *Tristram Shandy*. Murakami's world is an allegorical one, constructed of familiar symbols—an empty well, an underground city-but the meaning of those symbols remains hermetic to the last. His debt to popular culture (and American pop culture, in particular)

notwithstanding, it could be argued that no author's body of work has ever been more private. (Wray, 2004)

Murakami was born in 1949 in Kyoto, Japan's ancient capital, to a middle-class family with a vested interest in the national culture: his father was a teacher of Japanese literature, his grandfather a Buddhist monk. When he was two, his family moved to Kobe, and it was this bustling port city, with its steady stream of foreigners (especially American sailors), that most clearly shaped his sensibility. Rejecting Japanese literature, art, and music at an early age, Murakami came to identify more and more closely with the world outside Japan, a world he knew only through jazz records, Hollywood movies, and dime-store paperbacks.

As a student in Tokyo in the late sixties, Murakami developed a taste for post-modern fiction while looking on, quietly but sympathetically, as the protest movement reached its high-water mark. He married at twenty-three and spent the next several years of his life running a jazz club in Tokyo, *Peter Cat*, before the publication of his first novel made it possible for him to pay his way by writing. The novel, *Hear the Wind Sing*, translated into English but not available outside Japan at the author's request, won him the coveted *Gunzo Literature Prize* and the beginning of a readership. With each book that followed, his acclaim and popularity grew, until the publication in 1987 of his first realistic novel, *Norwegian Wood*, transformed him into a literary megastar and the *de facto* "voice of his generation" – eighties' Japan's version of J. D. Salinger. The book has sold more than two million copies in Japan alone, the equivalent of one for every household in Tokyo.

Since then Murakami has been an unwilling celebrity in his native country, living abroad for years at a time to secure a measure of distance from his public image. He has lived both in Europe and the U.S.; *The Wind-Up Bird Chronicle*, for example, was written while teaching at Princeton and Tufts. Though he has never returned to the straightforward lyricism of *Norwegian Wood*, his novels continue to find an ever wider audience. Internationally, Murakami is now the most widely read Japanese novelist of his generation; he has won virtually every prize Japan has to offer, including its greatest, the *Yomiuri Literary Prize*. He is also an extremely active translator, having brought writers as diverse as Raymond Carver, Tim O'Brien, and F. Scott Fitzgerald to Japanese readers, many of them for the first time.

Haruki's novels are a narrative of the times and memories. Even though his works are full of meaningless words, lost time, individuals with no identities, and unnamed places, they contain a consistent allusion to memories. Ironically, "*Haruki's null and cool atmosphere is created by remembering the time beyond the abyss. Nihilism is the feeling that replaces passion after passion disappears. Coolness comes after nihilism cools down. Both are based on memories.*" (Baik, 2010)

## **2. When?, How?, Why Did He Start Writing? and a Plethora of Other Literary Creativity–Related Questions That Haruki Murakami, Being Given the Floor, Will Shed Some Light On**

Who else, if not the writer himself, is the most suitable person to provide us, the readers, with priceless insights into Haruki Murakami's writing process?

As John Wray claims,

throughout the interview, which took place over two consecutive afternoons, he showed a readiness to laugh that was pleasantly out of keeping with the quiet of the office. He's clearly a busy man, and by his own admission, a reluctant talker, but once serious conversations began I found him focused and forthcoming. He spoke fluently, but with extended pauses between statements, taking great care to give the most accurate answer possible. When the talk turned to jazz or to running marathons, two of his great passions, he could easily have been mistaken for a man twenty years younger, or even for a fifteen-year-old boy.

(Wray, 2004)

John Wray's interview with Haruki Murakami's revolves around pivotal questions like: "How does the writer find his narrative voice?"; "At what age did Haruki Murakami become a writer? Was it a surprise to him?"; "Why doesn't he write any reviews or critiques?"; "How real do Haruki Murakami's characters become to him as he works?"; "Is it true that Haruki Murakami's protagonists serve as projections of his own point of view into the fantastic world of his narratives –the dreamer in the dream?"; "Does Haruki Murakami agree with the type of characterization according to which almost all his novels demand to be read as variations on a theme – a man has been abandoned by, or has otherwise lost the object of his desire, and is drawn by his inability to forget her into a parallel world that seems to offer the possibility of regaining what he has lost."; "Is disappointment depicted as rite of passage throughout Haruki Murakami's novels?"

The answers elicited by the aforementioned queries are rendering obvious Haruki Murakami's commitment to escape the conspicuous aspects of his life in order to tackle its limitations and to pursue the intricate path of uncovering camouflaged dimensions within the daily routine:

"When I start to write, I don't have any plan at all. I just wait for the story to come. I don't choose what kind of story it is, or what's going to happen. I just wait."; "When I was twenty-nine years old. Oh yes, it was a surprise. But I got used to it instantly. [...] I started writing at the kitchen table after midnight. It took ten months to finish that first book; I sent it to a publisher and I got some kind of prize, so it was like a



dream-I was surprised to find it happening. But after a moment, I thought, Yes, it's happened, and I'm a writer; why not? It's that simple"; "I think that my job is to observe people and the world, and not to judge them. I always hope to position myself away from the so-called conclusions. I would like to leave everything wide open to all the possibilities in the world. I prefer translating to criticism, because you are hardly required to judge anything when you translate. Line by line, I just let my favourite work pass through my body and my mind. We need critiques in this world, for sure, but it's just not my job"; "When I make up the characters in my books, I like to observe the real people in my life. I don't like to talk much; I like to listen to other people's stories. I don't decide what kind of people they are; I just try to think about what they feel, where they are going. I gather some factors from him, some factors from her. I don't know if this is realistic or unrealistic, but for me, my characters are more real than real people. In those six or seven months that I'm writing, those people are inside me. It's a kind of cosmos."; "When my protagonist misses something, he has to search for it. He's like Odysseus. He experiences so many strange things in the course of his search. [...] He has to survive those experiences, and in the end, he finds what he was searching for. But he is not sure it's the same thing. I think that's the motif of my books. Where do those things come from? I don't know. It fits me. It's the driving power of my stories: missing and searching and finding. And disappointment, a kind of new awareness of the world."

To Haruki Murakami, writing, therefore, transgresses the mundane touch, the quotidian minutiae of existence, thus acquiring the power to heal, to reveal unsuspected meanings, to raise awareness with regard to fundamental matters, to set readers' curiosity agog while also engaging their interest in relation to the emergence of a puzzling cosmos, defined by swiftly changing perspectives, and inhabited by deftly portrayed characters.

All Haruki Murakami's protagonists seem to follow the same pattern: they set the stage for their topsy-turvy universe to be reconsidered in the light of an excruciating quest, fantastically devised to secure the missing object of their desire. Ultimately, their search is tantamount to a genuine *rite of passage* as well as to self-discovery.

In view of the Japanese writer's literary creed, it would be remiss of us not to embark on the enticing journey of reconfiguring the protagonist's chaotic present through the lens of a splintered past, suffused with ambiguity and vagueness.

### **3. Insights into *Boku*'s Presence, One of Haruki Murakami's Literary Signatures**

*Dance Dance Dance* continues "the story of *Boku*", first introduced in Murakami's first three novels (the so-called *Rat trilogy*). In particular, "it reintroduces a number of characters first featured in Murakami's third novel, *Hitsuji o meguru bōken* (*A*

*Wild Sheep Chase*, 1982). As *Dance Dance Dance* begins, *Boku* reveals that he has been dreaming about the *Iruka* Hotel featured in this earlier work, and has the distinct impression that there is someone there crying for him.” In *A Wild Sheep Chase*, *Boku* had been led to this hotel by a mysterious call girl with magical ears, and as this new narrative unfolds, it soon becomes clear that it is this woman (whose name is finally revealed as Kiki) that is crying for him and calling him back. Since his last adventure, *Boku* has withdrawn from the world and has only recently begun making an effort to reconnect again. The world he is returning to, however, is very different from the one he left. (Dil, 2010)

To understand the nature of *Boku's* psychological journey in *Dance Dance Dance*, it is first necessary to briefly retrace where he has come from. Murakami's early trilogy, the so-called *Rat trilogy*, including *Kaze no ua o kike* (*Hear the Wind Sing*, 1979), 1973, *Pinbōru* (*Pinball*, 1973; 1980), and *Hitsuji o meguru bōken* (*A Wild Sheep Chase*, 1982) loosely traces *Boku's* story from childhood into young adulthood. *Boku* is learning to mourn and let go of the past, while at the same time creating a new form of identity for himself from the lost fragments of this past.

One of “the essential elements in the popularity of Murakami's work is his description of his main character. In his works, especially his early works, Murakami's protagonist is always the same kind of character—a nameless man in his late twenties or early thirties, known as *Boku*, the Japanese first person male pronoun.” In contrast to another male pronoun, *ore*, *Boku* evokes an image of a gentle and good boy. Compared to *watashi*, a first pronoun for both genders, which has a formal tone, *Boku*, particularly the *Boku* in Murakami's work, is casual and unpretentious. (Nihei, 2013)

In an echo of the young men of today, Murakami's protagonists do not admire traditional ideas of masculinity either in the workplace or at home. Murakami's portrayals of women are controversial because of their passivity and supporting role.

The reaction to Murakami's typical protagonist tends to be different outside and inside Japan. While Western scholars often appreciate *Boku* for being comfortably gentle, polite and intelligent, Japanese critics have tended to disapprove of his passivity and his unwillingness to engage deeply with others, especially when Murakami was starting his career as a writer in the late 1970s and as his popularity grew during the 1980s. During these periods, his perceived detachment was criticized harshly by Japanese intellectuals, especially those from the generation that had experienced the counter-culture movement. Many of Murakami's ordinary readers, however, have idealized his protagonist's willingness to be isolated, and have tended to understand his detachment as a sign of his mental strength and independence.

The elements of fantasy, mystery, adventure, and detective story, all presented with suspense and humour in a smooth, sophisticated style, nudge the novel in the direction of the “popular.” There is enough of the “pure” and “serious” about the work, however, to have held critics back from dismissing it merely as popular stuff-enough, it might be said, of the adversarial role against established norms of all sorts that the distinguished writer Kenzaburo Oe sees as the defining feature of “pure literature.” In other words, it seems to register a concern, albeit in a playfully oblique manner, over the human condition in the contemporary world. (Iwamoto, 1993)

*Boku* may well be viewed as an exemplar of the diffusion of the ego, the dispersal of the self, the death of the subject, that are an integral part of postmodern discourse.

*Boku* is in many respects an average middle-class citizen who, free from excessive financial worries, enjoys the kind of independence his status bestows. A product of 1960s, he takes endless pleasure in smoking, drinking, and eating, in bars, coffeehouses, and restaurants. He dresses with casual chic and frequents the movies regularly. His tastes in music and reading materials, though predominantly popular, are disarmingly eclectic – from the Beatles to Mozart, from Sherlock Holmes to Nietzsche – in the postmodern way of leveling elite/ popular boundaries. *Boku* is far from gregarious, yet by no means a true loner; he is by all counts a likable, easygoing fellow, devoid of malice and an overbearing aggressiveness. Indeed, endowed with a sense of humour and self-irony, he is engaging in his displays of sensitivity and tenderness, possesses a wry and ready wit, and evinces a bemused air.

Significantly, however, *Boku* is a member of the advertising world, that symbol of media-dominated and consumer-oriented contemporary Japanese culture. There is no core, only vacuity to *Boku*’s being. He is literally without a past (or a future, for that matter). Victims of erasure, neither his family nor his divorced wife, for instance, impinge much on his consciousness. Paradoxically, he is often filled with a sense of loss, though the content of that loss is not clearly spelled out. There are, at most, references to the style and climate of the 1960s, a past that *Boku* tends to estheticize into an indulgent, wistful nostalgia.

Anything requiring sustained thought, spiritual input, or a committed stance bores him, perhaps even frightens him. What he finds hard to handle or bothersome, he dismisses with slick, flippant aphorisms. It bears reiteration that *Boku* is by no means a despicable man, out to perpetrate evil. Neither is he coldly indifferent toward those around him.

Besides this universal appeal to cynicism, there are three other survival strategies operating in *Dance Dance Dance* that can also be seen as ideologically suspect: a

new age “go with the flow” attitude, a turn towards careful consumption and new forms of discipline, and a tendency to enjoy through the Other. (Dil, 2010)

Associated with this reverence for consumerism<sup>1</sup> is the driving need in late-capitalist societies to maximize pleasure, for even pleasure can be a burden when people are not sure if they are doing it right.

Given “*the ubiquity of Murakami's Boku and the self-reflexive quality in his use of the hard-boiled detective genre, it is necessary to revise the critical discussion of Murakami in one respect. The hard-boiled tradition is not one of the key elements of Murakami's literary cosmopolitanism; it is the key element. It is a means for Murakami of mapping out a narrative position from which writing fiction becomes possible.*” It allows him to reflect on himself as a cosmopolitan writer, working in a tradition extraneous to traditional Japanese culture and thus, as a spokesperson for Japan in its contemporary role within the global economy and emerging global culture. It also allows him to reflect on himself as a man in a profession coded as feminine,

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<sup>1</sup> Ellis Cashmore, *Encyclopedia of Race and Ethnic Studies*, New York: Routledge Ltd., 2004, pg. 169:

*Consumption, communications and production. Globalization may be understood as a tendency for routine day-to-day social interaction to be imbued with patterns that are, to an increasing extent, shared across the planet, which has in turn been brought about by the increasing interdependency of societies across the world and complemented by the expansion of international media of communications that has made people all over the world more conscious of other places and the world as a whole.*

*The twentieth century's 'holy trinity' of mass consumption, mass communication and mass production had, long before the world globalization came into use, brought about a trend toward the homogenization of culture in all sorts of ways. Mass production in its full sense can reasonably be attributed to Henry Ford's development of assembly line production. His dream was to produce the fruits of advanced engineering at a price that everyone, including his own workers, could afford. (He paid them \$ 5 for an eight-hour day when the going rate was \$2 for nine hours.) And, despite his subsequent lurch from philanthropy to ruthless autocratic control, it should not be forgotten that he championed the role of African Americans in ways that were unfashionable at the time. In drawing labor to his vast Dearborn plant, he substantially increased the black population of Detroit, in the north of the USA, with all that this implies. He grasped that one could not have mass production without mass consumption and with that came, whether he liked it or not, mass communication. With Ford and his emulators in other industries, the twentieth century became the age of the consumer and what became known as 'the American dream' was aspired to by the rest of the world. Possibly, the spread of consumerism is as important and emancipatory, if not democratic, process as any of the others, social and political.*

*If the twentieth century, up to its last few decades, is seen as the century of mass society based upon production - communication- consumption, these last few decades have been labeled those of the communications revolution and the knowledge industry.*

someone whose activity is not on a par with the *sarariiman*'s productivity but more along the lines of ironing shirts or cooking pasta. (Hantke, 2007)

It is the association with the hard-boiled detective that transforms the novelist's de-professionalization from social stigma into a prerequisite of heroic independence. In other words, it invites reflection on writing fiction as a socially responsible activity, both inside the mechanisms of a capitalist market and yet oddly undisciplined; a shadowy profession, socially coded as a non-profession, and thus in need of validation through either commercial success or the trappings of academic respectability.

This is a particularly urgent issue for Murakami because, on the one hand, his popularity nudges him toward the role of the public intellectual while, on the other hand, his investment in an ostensibly lowbrow and, more important, explicitly non-Japanese cultural tradition seems to bar him from just this role.

By introducing a figure that epitomizes, glorifies, and mythologizes American individualism into the Japanese cultural context, Murakami's work opens a line of inquiry into the flexibility of Japanese society, or the lack thereof. By taking on additional significance as a means of generic self-reflexivity, the *Boku* serves as a stand-in for the postmodern author and his options of how to participate in, and respond to the culture that has created him.

#### **4. *Dance Dance Dance*, a Metaphor for Self-Discovery and Life Itself**

A first person, unnamed narrator instantly captures our attention when he sets out to map his deep-rooted beliefs, angst, and disillusion. The existentialist remarks invite readers to decipher the narrative algorithm, to delve into Haruki Murakami's inextricably connected threads of *Dance Dance Dance*. Furthermore, from the very first lines, readers are tempted to cross the threshold of a world imbued with suspense, with the anxiety of designing a new order, of tracing some new, almost imperceptible axes.

I wake up, but where? I don't just think this, I actually voice the question to myself: "Where am I?" As if I didn't know: I'm here. In my life. A feature of the world that is my existence. Not that I particularly recall ever having approved these matters, this condition, this state of affairs in which I feature.

(Murakami, 1995: 5)

As Boku dreams of the hotel he will eventually need to return to, he has the undeniable feeling that he is somehow a part of it. Indeed, the hotel can easily be read as a metaphor for his sense of self. The woman who is there crying for him provides the invitation to begin his journey of individuation one more time. The hotel, as he had

first encountered it, reminded him of an organism somehow stalled in its development. (Dil, 2010)

I often dream about the Dolphin Hotel. In these dreams, I'm there, implicated in some kind of ongoing circumstances. All indications are that I belong to this dream continuity.

[...] The hotel envelops me. I can feel its pulse, its heat. In dreams, I am part of the hotel.

(Murakami, 1995: 5)

Readers are introduced to a matrix-like place that emanates a primordial energy; Murakami's choice of *the Dolphin Hotel* hints at a place that eludes both the spatial and temporal coordinates, leading to an outburst of the paradox. The dichotomy *coagulation-disintegration* of the vital impetus comes out as a propelling force in *Dance Dance Dance*. A concise, accurate style with apophthegmatic accents runs through the novel.

A mysterious hotel.

What it reminded me of was a biological dead end. A genetic retrogression. A freak accident of nature that stranded some organism up the wrong path without a way back. Evolutionary vector eliminated, orphaned life-form left cowering behind the curtain of history, in *The Land That Time Forgot*. And through no fault of anyone. No one to blame, no one to save it. [...] Sad hotels existed everywhere, to be sure, but the Dolphin was in a class of its own. The Dolphin Hotel was conceptually sorry. The Dolphin Hotel was tragic.

(Murakami, 1995: 6-7)

*Boku* is very conscious of the waste and excesses of the age in which he is living, though he is careful to maintain a cynical distance. He lives in a world where human relationships are increasingly being reduced to economic transactions and where everything is for sale. While not particularly fond of the way things are, he is deeply resigned to this situation. He constantly ridicules his job as freelance journalist, for example, as nothing more than cultural snow shoveling, even though he also realizes that such acts are a large part of what keeps the larger economy going. *Boku's* cynicism reflects a common attitude of his day, an uneasy acceptance that despite the obvious problems he sees around him, things are not really going to change.

My only concern was to do things systematically, from one end to the other. I sometimes wonder if this might not prove to be the bane of my life. After wasting so much pulp and ink myself, who was I to complain about waste? We live in an advanced

capitalist society, after all. Waste is the name of the game, its greatest virtue. Politicians call it “refinements in domestic consumption.” I call it meaningless waste. A difference of opinion.

(Murakami, 1995: 15)

By returning to this hotel, he is hoping to get his own stalled development moving again, but it is not until he returns that he realizes this hotel has been fundamentally changed by the force of late-capitalism. There is a sense that *Boku*’s psychological journey, at one time perhaps more innocent and straightforward, has been complicated by the acceleration of capitalist development. Throughout the novel,

Boku will constantly have to wrestle with the idea that polished veneers and flashy displays of wealth may simply be covering a more sinister core, though ultimately he realizes this too late. As he first makes his way to the hotel, however, he still has little idea of what he is actually searching for, and so he simply has to wait. The process of individuation he is involved in is not one that can be forced; rather, it must be allowed to develop spontaneously.

(Dil, 2010)

“We connect things. That’s what we do. Like a switchboard, we connect things. Here’s the knot. And we tie it. We’re the link. Don’t want things to get lost, so we tie the knot. That’s our duty. Switchboard duty. You seek for it, we connect, you got it. Get it?”

“Sort of,” I said.

“So, [...] you lost things, so you’re lost. You lost your way. Your connections come undone. You got confused, think you got no ties. But there’s where it all ties together.”

(Murakami, 1995: 84)

As *Boku* searches for meaning behind the seemingly contingent array of characters and events in his life, he seems comforted by the fact that despite the waste and extravagances surrounding him, his real quest is somehow about reconnecting with himself and the things he has lost in his life. Putting aside the question of whether or not he believes there is really some innermost kernel to discover, he is willing to let go of his sense of conscious control and to follow the mysterious intrusions of his life wherever they may take him. The message is that if he just keeps moving, somehow things are going to work out.

This, of course, is sometimes a useful strategy in a world where the only constant is change and where attempts to control and manipulate this mad process often come across as comical. Without this sense of inner confidence and belief, how is one

supposed to cope in an age of uncertainty? Clearly, however, there is something disturbing about this belief when it is employed as an excuse for failing to wrestle with the big picture and the difficult challenge of trying to work things out and make them better. When an inner conviction blocks our minds to further information and potentially troubling perspectives, then clearly we are trading inner certainty for the discomfort of facing our ignorance.

“You lost lots of things. Lots of precious things. Not anybody’s fault. But each time you lost something, you dropped a whole string of things with it. Know why? Why’d you have to go and do that?”

“I don’t know.”

“Hard to do different. Your fate, or something like fate. Tendencies.”

“Tendencies?”

“Tendencies. You got tendencies. So even if you did everything over again, your whole life, you got tendencies to do just what you did, all over again.”

(Murakami, 1995: 85)

## 5. Conclusion

*Dance Dance Dance* is much about grasping life through both mundane and epiphany moments. Furthermore, reality with postmodern Murakami is definitely more than what conventional parameters usually dictate. Suppressing time and space barriers leads to a sense of empowerment as some characters reach that part of their self which they need to rescue.

The protagonist comes across as being a tireless observer while in search for some meaning in life.

Another motif comes into focus in Murakami’s *Dance Dance Dance*, that of fighting back the existential void as characters struggle to come to terms with themselves.

It would be remiss of me not to foreground Murakami’s deftness in depicting loneliness, alienation, a rapidly expanding public image (the *persona* myth), and consumerism as landmarks of a modern, late-capitalist society, that system to which people are gradually succumbing rather than showing any resistance whatsoever.

In my opinion, the inability to truly communicate, to express one’s feelings, to commit to somebody, therefore a dense air of detachment seems to permeate every page of the novel. Moreover, losing one’s capacity to feel, to enjoy life, to reach a deeper level of fulfillment in something resonates with many characters. There is a wide range of pessimistic moods that *Dance Dance Dance* thoroughly covers, among which *estrangement, physical, psychical, and spiritual exhaustion*.



Egotistic, self-absorbed people fail to nurture and care for their offspring, indulging instead their own artistic hobbies: in short, a bohemian lifestyle at odds with a healthy parental agenda. It is beyond doubt that the individual prevails over his/her family.

To conclude, I should underscore the fact that, underlying Murakami's text, there is also the propensity for amassing fame, fortune, fleeting glitterati moments; some characters literally cherish their image as if it were sacrosanct, at the expense of one's genuine self, and ultimately soul annihilation.

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# Technical Project Work

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## **ABSTRACT**

Why project-based learning in technical field? Because it is full of active and exciting learning; it offers students the opportunity to obtain good knowledge of the technical subjects they are studying. This paper looks at a technical project work for developing a new small family car model.

**KEYWORDS:** *project planning, co-operation, project overview, project task*

Project work offers a path to independent learning for students. For a group of bored students, the project work can be exciting, but the process can be powdered with difficulties and challenges. The students should start the process of creating a project work with sketchy ideas about what they are going to achieve. Their project work should be coherent and have clear direction. When I teach project work, I begin by asking the students what their interests are for future work. If they say that they would like to do a project on cars, I will have a discussion with them about current issues in the car production world. When they develop a project, there are several steps in doing this:

1. **Research:** after the title has been decided, students add research and link sources. (I advise them to use some newspaper articles)
2. **Structure:** a basic model represents plan, research and develop. A typical project work includes an abstract, introduction, discussion and conclusion.
3. **Thinking skills:** working with a project, the students develop their skills in critical thinking and the expressions of their own ideas.

By developing a project work students aim to provide knowledge from various areas of learning and apply it to real life situations. This method helps students to develop skills like collaboration, communication, and independent learning. While

students learn to work in groups, they will also learn independently through self-reflection and evaluation of their own work processes. In order to realize a project, the students need the ability of linking different areas of knowledge and to generate, develop and evaluate ideas and information so as to apply these skills to project task.

Recent approaches to language learning and teaching (particularly those broadly termed “humanistic”) stress the importance of co-operation among learners as a motivating factor. Such approaches focus not only on interpersonal relationship, but also on the involvement and development of the individual. The more fully the student is involved in an exercise, the more likely he or she is to see the work through to the end, and to benefit from it. It is this sense of personal involvement that gives the impetus to project work. For the students, the motivation comes from within not from without. The project is theirs. They themselves decide (in consultation with the teacher) what they will do and how they will do it, and this includes not only the content of the project, but also the language requirements.<sup>1</sup>

Another important aspect is represented by the effective communication; students have to present ideas clearly and coherently to specific audience in both the written and oral forms.

Collaborative skills are very important in working in a team to achieve common goals. Students will be able to learn on their own, reflect on their learning and take the appropriate actions to improve it.

The paper presents a project model in English with upper intermediate students: planning, carrying out the project and reviewing and monitoring the work:

- 1. Planning.** The students, in close co-operation with the teacher talks about the content and target of their project, and predict their specific language needs. They also discuss the ways of gathering necessary materials: visits in factories, interviews, brochures, illustrations etc. Projects ensure communicative uses of spoken and written English – projects mean longer works which involve investigation and reporting. Even if our students do not study in English language communities, they have access to English speakers, TV programs, radio and written materials.
- 2. Carrying out the project.** After the students have gathered all the necessary material, they start to write their project work. In our case they will present a project about producing a new small family car. For writing this project they should follow some steps in the process of developing a car. They should determine three characteristics of their product:

- How quickly it has to be brought to market
- Whether it will be a high-quality or a low-quality family car
- Whether it is to be a high-cost or a low-cost car

The importance of various design criteria (convenience, durability, efficiency, beauty, safety, etc.) is showed. Other important aspect is represented by the performing tests carrying out on their car. They should have knowledge about value engineering principles which can be applied to their design in order to optimize costs.

**3. Reviewing and monitoring the project work.** The role of the teacher involved in project work is that of participant, coordinator when necessary. The teacher needs to be sensitive to the students' relationships and conduct constructive discussions so that working will not cause difficulties.

One way of insuring genuinely communicative uses of spoken and written English is through the use of projects – longer pieces of work which involve investigation and reporting. The end-product is the most important thing here, and all the language use that takes place is directed towards the final version. Although students studying in target language communities (Britain, the USA, etc.) obviously have much greater access to English speakers, TV stations, radio and written material, etc., there are a whole range of project types that do not require this kind of contact.<sup>2</sup>

Any project work will end with an oral presentation to complete their new design proposal. To give an oral presentation, students need to have great knowledge about pronunciation. This method of teaching combines the development of advanced language skills (integrated skills) with technical skills in a given context. During the presentation the teacher will pay attention not only to the language that is being used but also to the professional quality.

In spite of all the progress that has been made in language research, we still do not know how people learn, and, particularly, how the language of the classroom is absorbed and later put to use outside the classroom. Project work offers the student an opportunity to put into practice what has been learned through formal teaching. That is, it takes the experience of the classroom out into the world. It puts teaching to the test. And, most importantly, it provides an opportunity for informal as opposed to formal learning. The benefit for the student is clear: he or she is working on a topic of

interest and is using language for a specific purpose, with a particular aim in mind. What has already been learned can now be put to use, and what else is needed can be learned.<sup>3</sup>

For future engineers it is ideal for them to be able to read formulae, describe graphs, charts, diagrams, tables, plans or processes. For example, they should know something about different charts useful in quality control (**Pareto chart** is a type of bar chart typically used to improve quality, process capability, or to conserve materials and energy; **bar graph** uses either horizontal or vertical bars to show comparisons among categories; **pie chart** helps you visualize the relative importance of several categories of a variable.)

In our case, when students have to present a project about the developing of a new family car design, the knowing of technical terms is very important. They should be able to name the exterior car parts (number plate, boot, sill, front bumper, wind-screen wiper, petrol cap, logo, tire, rear light, bonnet, etc.) and to describe them. They need to have the capacity to name the function of the car parts (differential ensures that the rear wheels turn at a different speed to each other when a car corners; clutch disconnects the engine from the gearbox while gears are changed; muffler reduces the exhaust noise, etc.). Vocabulary about the materials used in manufacturing a car must be taught (steel, iron, plastics, aluminium, rubber, fluids, copper and glass). Useful phrases in describing a process are: firstly, to begin with; secondly, the next stage, after that, then, finally or the last step is. Students need to assimilate some notions about grammar, especially, in our case, passive voice to describe a process.

As a teacher I can advise them to go in an automobile factory and see what the stages in the process of developing a car are (in our case a small family car). They will find out that the first stage is that of realizing a questionnaire in which the customers are asked what sort of features they would like in their car ( in our case a small family car should be comfortable, classy and with good leg room in the back). The standard features of the car will be presented by the team engaged in the project work (driver airbag, passenger airbag, lateral airbag, ABS, number of cylinders, mpg, top speed, CD-auto changer, satellite navigation). Then, the researchers analyse the answers and suggest the possibilities.

The next stage is the designing of the new car based on these suggestions. Students can go and see how engineers work to modify existing parts for the new model. And a prototype is built. For this kind of project students could come into the class with a mock-up of the new design. They will have the opportunity to observe the tests carried out in different conditions (wind tunnels, dust tunnels, factory tracks, crashes). After that, product planners make sure that the new car is

ready on time. Finally, marketing teams work to promote the new model of a small family car and the new car is launched.

In project work the four skills are integrated, they are not treated isolate, but combined. In the first stage (**definition of the project objective**) of a project there will be more speaking and listening than reading and writing. In **design of written material stage**, reading and writing skills will be obvious. **Final presentation** requires abilities of reading and speaking.

Comprehension, in all forms, is now widely recognized as a key process in acquiring language. Learners who read widely achieve greater fluency in English and gain confidence and pleasure in learning the language.<sup>4</sup>

By using project-based learning will involve students in personal assessment, in other words they are training to use textbooks, to use communicative activities, to read for gist, to deal with unfamiliar vocabulary and to use dictionaries. Project writing helps students to communicate efficiently in English. The job of the teacher is to help students learn better, but also to encourage them to develop learning strategies.

In conclusion, this paper shows a case study methodology of how to teach English as a foreign language for Mechanical students in order to realize a technical project.

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup> Diana Fried-Booth, *Project Work*, Oxford University Press, 1986, p. 37.

<sup>2</sup> Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, London: Longman, 1994, p. 147.

<sup>3</sup> Gabriela Grigoriu, *An English Language Teaching Reader*, vol. II, Craiova: Reprografia Universității din Craiova, 2000, pp. 195-196.

<sup>4</sup> Nick Dawson, *Penguin Readers Teacher's Guide to Using Graded Readers*, Longman, 2000, p. 2.

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# On Teaching Business English to Experienced Learners: One-to-One Courses

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## ABSTRACT

This paper briefly reviews some ideas about teaching a course to experienced learners during which the interaction is only between teacher and student, i.e. a one-to-one course. Arguments were put forward in order to support the idea that a course taught to one student calls for different and varied approaches meant to make the student have a real and constant progress, particularly as he/ she works and activates in the field of business and studies English in order to be able to do his/ her job in English. In the first part of this paper there are some useful ideas to approach teaching vocabulary, pronunciation, functions, reading and writing, listening and speaking during a one-to-one course, whereas the second part provides an example of teaching such a course to a businessman.

**KEYWORDS:** *one-to-one, vocabulary, functions, speaking skills, experienced learner*

One-to-one courses differ from courses which address a trainer and a group of trainees mostly because of the general focus of core activities. In group courses, the teacher guides and monitors a number of students and entrances progresses of all participants. Thus, the approach is central and group oriented, whereas in a one-to-one course the focus is only and entirely on the only student participant. This triggers an impetus for active participation on behalf of the student and for multiple encouraging activities on behalf of the teacher.

When teaching vocabulary, it is sometimes very difficult to get the exact meaning across to students. This happens mostly with advanced learners, as for them language becomes more diverse and subtle. One way of looking at meaning and explaining it involves the analysis of each sense of a lexeme into its component parts. This is called 'Componential Analysis' and it aims to sort out the subtle differences between similar words. It is basically a chart which has, on one axis, the

words that we are focusing on, and, on the other, the different collocates or components that go to make up the meanings. Teachers should make sure that their students have a good command of basic general English vocabulary. If teachers do that, then they should make their students understand the differences between the words that make up a family of words. This allows them to fully understand how to teach business people to use words more easily. A family of words is a string of words derived from the same root or base. For example, “train, trainee, trainer” belong to the same family of words.

There is a difference between the active and passive business vocabulary. Passive vocabulary is mostly used for reading and listening, that is when business people get information. Active vocabulary is used in writing and speaking, when providing information. In reading, business people have time to think. If they want to be fluent, they do not have time to think because the definition of fluent speech is to speak quickly and easily.

Teachers’ goal should be to deepen their students’ knowledge of vocabulary. There are many English language learners, who know 8,000 words, but cannot produce even a sentence. On the other hand, there are people who know only 2,000 words and can speak fluently. The difference is how deeply they were taught to understand business vocabulary. Passive knowledge of 10,000 words will not help them to talk. Instead, teachers should focus on the in-depth learning of their students’ knowing the first 2,000 words.

To help distinguish the meaning of business words, they can be grouped in classes of themes associated with business purposes. Business metaphors represent a resourceful and dynamic association of words that can help Business English teachers focus on active vocabulary during their Business English course.

When teaching Business English, it is always mandatory to focus on pronunciation and stress. Business English teachers should be ready to explain the differences between words which are written the same, but pronounced differently according to meaning, either in British English or American English.

Correct English pronunciation can be acquired through great effort, as there is little correspondence between graphemes and phonemes. First through imitation and then through repetition, students reach a phase that helps in the formation of a discourse without hesitation. Teachers should present specific activities, all of them relevant to student motivation in order to determine them to develop their own pronunciations. Correct pronunciation is a skill that can only be obtained by students individually, especially because it is influenced by a variety of physical or psychological factors and therefore requires more individualized work of the teacher. Business people usually pay more attention to grammar rules than pronunciation rules. Therefore,

Business English teachers should be aware of the importance of emphasizing correct pronunciation and should encourage repetition.

Correct English pronunciation can be obtained through various methods. It is also essential to use a phoneme chart. During classes, the teacher pronounces sounds and words correctly and students repeat them and then use the same sounds individually. Subsequently, students should be made aware of the phonetic transcription of words or phrases. Phonetic transcription helps students understand better the differences between phonemes.

Educational games can improve various aspects of pronunciation in English. An interesting game to raise awareness of the differences between phonemes is "Hidden names." It requires reconstitution of the name. Teachers should provide a number of columns identical with the number of sounds of the name. Each column contains a separate phoneme. Individual phonemes discovery leads to finding out the name of a family member.

There is also the possibility of making puzzles with a number of words that contain the same phoneme. In an educational activity, the teacher trainee writes a certain phoneme on the board and students are asked to write as many words as they can, preferably using many different graphemes. For example, to illustrate the phoneme [ei] students can find a multitude of words, such as train, drain, level, brave, pray, gather, flame, break, straight, etc.

For intonation and accent, dramatic interpretation may be used to compel students to insist on certain words which could change the meaning of communication. First, students can read the sentence "Good morning, Mr. Johnson," said by the secretary with different intonations: kind, accusing, professional, neutral, etc. Later, teachers can make their students read a whole text in which their different intonation could play a central role in the hermeneutics of the text.

For experienced business people learning English, functions sometimes represent their most important acquisition. As they need to be able to use the language in their daily routines, Business English teachers must be ready to detect their needs and to encourage them to use functional English at work.

Efficient functions teaching can be the following:

Teaching how to make bookings and check arrangements. Students may first listen to a dialogue between a hotel receptionist and a business traveller. The teacher asks students what information the receptionist needs and what information the business traveller needs in order to book the room. The teacher should always clarify any unfamiliar vocabulary and pre-teach any words and phrases students may have difficulty with in the recording. The teacher gives handouts with the phrases used in

such conversations. Students are asked to read them and the teacher explains structures and patterns used in questions and answers. Then the students are divided into pairs and asked to role-play a telephone conversation. The teacher should circulate, monitor and help, if necessary.

Research has shown that Business English teachers need to be aware of the importance of effective teaching of reading. The method of reading the entire words in no hurry even in Business English classes has only recently returned phonics in classrooms. Although these two methods are opposed to each other, many teachers believe that they can successfully combine and take advantage of each of them. For example one of the advantages of reading whole words is the fact that it can be used to teach a student to read correctly at an early stage, some optimistic teachers believe that, even with the beginner level.

Business people need to be able to write e-mails first and Business English teachers must be ready to explain and provide suitable examples for all kinds of business e-mails. Business letters, reports, enquiries and faxes are also important, but most business people firstly need to be able to write a correct e-mail in English.

When teaching writing e-mails, Business English teachers should take into consideration the fact that business e-mails can be either neutral or formal. Informal business e-mails should be taught during a last section of courses, after students have mastered the basics of writing e-mails. Business English teachers should tell their students that informal e-mails are used for people they know well inside or outside the company. They should also mention that nowadays short forms are very much used in informal writing. Some examples of short forms are: TX=thanks, FYI= for your information, RUOK= are you OK?

Writing can be efficiently practised after a listening or speaking activity. Students are usually more prepared to write an e-mail or a letter after they have listened to or spoken about a certain theme. Business English teachers should encourage their students to write down under the form of letters e-mails or faxes what they have previously been talking about. An example of such an activity: The teacher asks the students to make a short oral presentation of the companies they work for. Dialogues may also be organised in order to make students share information about their companies. Then, during the course, the teacher may ask the students to make notes of a colleague's company description. These discussion points can form the basis for short pieces of written work. The teacher may ask students to write down about the discussion points as homework.

Business English teachers should know that listening to authentic materials is essential when teaching Business English. Authenticity always helps students understand functions and use them correctly when speaking. When teaching Business English, listening can be used as an example of native speakers use of language, but at the same time, as an example of the international English business people use worldwide. Students must be taught to understand both native speech, but also non-native speech, as business is done in English worldwide.

The correct use of CDs in class is essential when teaching listening. Technical details matter now and Business English teachers should be told to make sure they master all equipment needed before starting teaching. Listening activities help the correct learning of functions. After students listen to a recording, they can easily understand meaning and, afterwards, they can use the structures they listen to when they speak.

Business English teachers should know from the very beginning that teaching speaking is one of the most difficult skills to teach. Students may master grammar, vocabulary and functions information, they may be able to read and understand correctly a text, they may be able to listen to a recording, or conversation, but when they are asked to speak, they may find it very difficult to do it. This happens especially because they have to be able to use both correct grammar patterns, but also specific business vocabulary.

When teaching speaking, teachers should try not to interrupt a student speaking, even if he or she makes pronunciation or pattern mistakes. Instead, they should try to remember their students' mistakes, and, after the conversation, they should explain them and point out what correct structures to use. Non-verbal encouragement has also proven efficient during teaching speaking.

Business English teachers should know that it is always a good choice to use only English during teaching Business English. Business students must be exposed to as much English as possible in order to make them feel confident in an English-speaking environment.

Mutual trust is also important when teaching speaking. Students must feel relaxed in order to speak freely on the given themes. An example of such an activity: Work in pairs. Role-play this situation. Student A works at the EBB Bank. Student B works at the Goldcrest Hotel. Take it in turns to show each other around your company. Say what happens in each area and what is happening now.

**Example of a one-to-one course lesson plan, level Elementary, experienced learner, duration of the course: 180 minutes, topic: Travel**

**Main Aims:** by the end of the lesson my student will be able to: understand a written or audio text about travelling, talk about air travel - travelling routine using

Present Simple in questions and answers and a past business trip using Past Tense in questions and answers, check in at an airport, and react naturally using the correct language in specific travelling locations (airline check-in desk, business class cabin, hotel reception, conference venue, taxi).

**Personal aims:** keep the student focused on the speaking tasks and encourage her to use all the vocabulary and grammar structures she knows in order to succeed in communicating the specific messages of the topic.

**Assumptions:** The student will definitely be familiar with the topic and the normal course of action when travelling either for work or going on holiday. I expect my student to be familiar with some words and collocations used when travelling. However, my student may have difficulty with using the practical language for travelling fluently.

**Materials:** Business Result Elementary - Unit 11 - Travel (textbook + audio) and handouts from BEC Vantage Masterclass - workbook- by Nick Brieger and Jeremy Comfort, Oxford University Press - Unit 3 - Business Travel

**Anticipated Problems:** My student may find it difficult to speak fluently in English about routine travel arrangements she so well masters in Romanian and might be tempted to use Romanian words in her discourse.

**Solutions:** I allocate enough time to the speaking part and I design my course in such a way as to approach speaking after I have made sure that my student has fully understood vocabulary structures.

## **1. Lead-in**

**Aim:** to introduce the topic and make my student be interested in how to communicate in English while travelling

**Interaction:** T-S, S-T

**Time:** 15'

**Procedure:** After having welcomed the student, checked her homework and asked her if she had any questions or queries, the teacher starts the course by introducing the topic. The teacher uses the pattern “to be going to” “We are going to talk about travelling today...” The teacher asks simple questions of the type “Do you like travelling? Why? Why not? Do you enjoy travelling by plane/ train/ car? Why? Why not?”

## **2. Introducing the business travel vocabulary (developing a question-answer conversation)**

**Aim:** (revise questions while developing a conversation on travelling) to make my student curious about my travel routine and ask me questions of the type: Where do you often go? Why do you like travelling by plane? What is so difficult about

driving?; (revise questions) to make my student curious about my past travel experience and ask me questions of the type: Why did you go there?

When did you come back? Was it nice?; to encourage my student to talk about travelling

**Interaction:** T-S, S-T

**Time:** 30'

**Procedure:** The teacher uses the key words in the textbook, working with words, when she tells her student about her routine when travelling by plane. The student asks questions using Present Simple. The teacher answers using more and more travel vocabulary (business class cabin, in-flight menu, delegates, the best seat, venue, overhead locker, etc), words and expressions the student will further see in the handouts from BEC Vantage Masterclass. Then, the teacher starts talking about a past travelling experience by plane, using Past Tense together with the key words and expressions. The student asks questions using Past Simple. As she speaks, the teacher writes down key words and expressions about travelling. Then, the teacher asks her student questions:

Do you often travel on business? On holiday? What is your favourite destination? What is the best way to travel? Do you often travel by plane/ car/ train? Do you have a favourite airline? Why?

Etc. The student answers.

### **3. Working with words**

**Aim:** to make my student read out loud and understand a text and identify for herself the key words and expressions I used in the previous stage; to make my student be aware of the fact that "travel" is an uncountable noun; to make my student answer questions about the read text (reading comprehension)

**Interaction:** T-S, S-T

**Time:** 30'

**Procedure:** The teacher asks the student to talk about the importance of the four headings for her. Then the teacher explains the difference between a chair and a seat and between security and safety. The student reads the text out loud and completes the headings. The teacher points out the correct pronunciation of the words "aisle" and "queue." Further on, the teacher explains the difference between "queue" and "tail." The teacher points out the fact that "travel" is an uncountable noun in the given context and, thus, can only be used with a singular verb, irrespective of the Romanian translation. The teacher asks questions about the text: How many people were in the survey? Do travellers think travel is cool and exciting? What are two reasons for being late? Why are 47% of travellers tired? Why do companies put their employees in economy class?

#### **4. Practising the travel vocabulary studied (Writing + speaking)**

**Aim:** (writing) to familiarise my student with the spelling and meaning of business travel vocabulary; (writing) to practise real life dialogues in specific business travel locations; (speaking) to react naturally in specific locations

**Interaction:** T-S, S-T

**Time:** 40'

**Procedure:** The teacher checks the student's understanding of the vocabulary by asking her to do exercise 3 without looking at the text. The student finds it difficult to remember the spelling of all the words and the teacher dictates some of the letters, practising, thus, the alphabet. The teacher gives her student Handout 1. The student is asked to match the business travel locations with the most appropriate phrase. The teacher gives her student Handout 2 and asks her to look at some exchanges from business travel dialogues and choose the appropriate word or phrase to complete the sentences. The student has 5 minutes to read the task and do the exercise. Then, the student and the teacher talk together about the correct choices and further words or phrases the student needs to be explained from this activity. After having completed these exercises, the teacher mentions some locations to the student and asks her to react naturally in the specific locations. The locations are: airline check-in desk, hotel reception, conference venue, business class cabin and taxi. The student remembers the previous phrases and brainstorms some more.

#### **5. Listening to a conversation at the check-in desk**

**Aim:** to practise my student's ability to listen to an English conversation, to make my student be able to understand specific information when she hears it, to practice my student's capacity to write down important pieces of information while listening

**Interaction:** T-S, S-T, audio

**Time:** 20'

**Procedure:** The teacher tells her student that she is going to listen to a conversation at the check-in desk and look at a departure board (provided on page 67). After having listened to the audio once, the student has to indicate the flight number and the destination. The teacher plays the audio and then the student chooses the correct flight number and destination. The teacher asks her student to do exercise 6 on page 68 - fill in the gaps while listening to the audio a second time. To check full understanding of the listened conversation, the teacher asks her student some questions, such as:

Does the traveller have the passport? What about the ticket? Does the traveller have a lot of bags?

When exactly does boarding start? Etc.



## **6. Speaking** (role-play)

**Aim:** to encourage my student to speak in real life travel situations, to make my student practise speaking, to improve my student's speaking skills

**Interaction:** T-S, S-T

**Time:** 40'

**Procedure:** The teacher asks her student to look at the departures board again. The student is asked to practise conversations at the check-in desks using the information in the departures board and the following points: passport and ticket, number of bags, type of seat and confirm flight details. The student is a businesswoman. The teacher allows the student enough time to think and focus on the vocabulary and structures studied and then use them orally. The teacher asks the student to discuss the following questions, using the vocabulary studied:

What type of ticket do you usually buy? (Besides the vocabulary, the student uses Present Simple)

What was your worst journey? Give reasons (delays, long queues, etc) (besides the vocabulary, the student uses Past Simple) (exercise 4 on page 67)

## **7. Homework** 5'

**I. Written homework** - the student has to do exercises 1, 2 and 3 on page 98 (Working with words)

**II. Oral homework** - the student has to prepare a short talk during which to compare two business trips abroad - use the business travel vocabulary studied, Past Tense and the comparative.

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# The Proper Acquisition of English with Preschool Children

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## ABSTRACT

Teaching preschool children a foreign language such as English is a challenging process which involves a great deal of effort on the part of the teacher. He/she should try to find the right instructional approach which relies on the acquisition of oral skills centring mainly on the learner. Moreover, all the methodological elements that are normally engaged in this process at such an early age (story-telling, songs, poems, etc) should be presented in an interactive and stimulating way. It is not easy to draw the children's attention on a particular subject but to do it in a foreign language is even more difficult. The teacher should be ready to enter the realm of childhood, playing, laughing and doing physical exercises that may help children learn English without realizing that they are actually doing it. An oral-based approach combined with an active methodology can lead to an enjoyable class where children are stimulated and motivated.

**KEYWORDS:** *the age factor, motivation, preproduction, early production, speech emergence*

## Is young age an advantage or a disadvantage?

The increasing role of English in all fields of activity, has led to the development of a great interest in acquiring this language at a very early age. Kindergarten is the period when most children from our country get in touch with English and, despite the fact that this trend has been going on for several years now, there are still numerous debates related to the subject. Teachers, trainers, as well as parents have different opinions related to the period when it should be introduced in order to be functional and effective. Some people consider the kindergarten to be the best time to start getting accustomed to the English structure, pronunciation and speaking skills since the brain is active and ready to absorb a great deal of information. Others think that most 3 or 4 year-old children still find difficulties in using basic structures

in their native language and the additional input provided by the interaction with a foreign language would confuse them.

It should be stated that, in Romania, the starting age of compulsory English language learning is that of 8 years (according to Eurostat report, 2012<sup>1</sup>). In nursery, it has become a widely spread activity, English being an optional subject that most parents are looking forward to for their children. One of the reasons why parents are so eager to see their children interact in a foreign language such as English during the kindergarten period, may be connected to their own personal acquisition experience. The majority of them belong to a generation that got in touch with it at the beginning of the secondary school, the emphasis being placed on teaching grammar, doing translation and learning all sorts of structures by heart. The main teaching method used was teacher centred and relied heavily on assessments. As a consequence, the first contact with English as a foreign language was not so stimulating and most of them lost interest in time or developed poor language skills. Nowadays, the teaching methods have changed and lessons have become more interactive and attractive. Conscious of the great impact that the acquisition of English may have on the future careers of their children, parents are eager to enlist them in all sort of programs from a very early age.

In addition, a driving force behind parents' desire for their young children to learn English is the type of English experiences many parents had in their own schooling. They want their children to avoid negative experiences. For many parents, learning English was unpleasant or even painful. They started learning English in fifth grade, and every day they spent a lot of time memorizing English words and grammar rules. But after 8 years, or 12 years of English language learning, (...) most do not have the ability to read original books written in English. Their English listening and speaking skills remain poor and they have a hard time communicating directly with foreigners. (...). Therefore, they believe if their children start learning English when they are still young, the results will be better.

(Ruan & Leung, 2012: 56)

School is the period when all children connect to a foreign language no matter if they have previously studied it or not. It's the time they start to master reading and writing skills and familiarise with the difference in spelling and writing a word in English. Teaching does no longer unfold only at the speaking level but focuses on developing all the four components of a language: reading, speaking, writing and listening. Great changes take place at this age; children become more responsible and aware of the

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<sup>1</sup> <<http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice>>.

teaching act. They get familiarised with the grammatical structures, with its rules and exceptions, with complicated language items such as idioms, etc. As time passes by, some children become more and more interested in gathering new information about English and becoming proficient. Others, on the contrary, become discouraged and gradually lose their interest. Despite the fact that the teaching methods have evolved significantly in the field of foreign languages and that the students' books have become attractive and stimulating, some school children find it really hard to cope with all the information.

The more positive attitudes and motivation presented by primary school learners can be explained as linked to psychological and educational factors. Psychological factors associated with age could explain a rejection of the school system and have a negative effect on the attitudes and motivation scores obtained by secondary school subjects.(...) An alternative explanation is related to educational factors and particularly to input and teaching methods used in secondary school as compared to primary school. Learners seem to enjoy their English classes when an oral-based approach and a very active methodology based on drama and story-telling is used. Their attitudes and motivation are less positive when more attention is devoted to grammar and vocabulary learning in secondary school.

(García Mayo, & García Lecumberri, 2003: 90)

The need of acquiring a second language at an early age has long been discussed and debated. Are preschool children able to understand and communicate in two or more different languages at a time when they learn only by discovery? Is family background as well as the language spoken at home important in the switch of native – foreign language? The difference is made by the needs of children compared to those of adults. If the latter are presented the language based on explicit structural information, the formers do not need any formal explanations and rely mainly on the information they receive in the sentences they are exposed to. Just as they learn the L1 language based on continuous input without any further explanations, they do the same when it comes to the L2. Children are not able to distinguish among different ways of expressing the same concept, they simply choose the one which prevails in the language they are exposed to and continue using it as part of their natural way of communication. For them, L2 language is just another means of communication, a way of social interaction with other speakers, without paying attention to grammatical accuracy. Children are focused on the primary linguistic data (PLD) they enter into contact with.

Children do not build their grammars using corrective information when they have improperly formulated rules. [...] Nor do they receive explicit information from those

they interact with on such crucial matters as what constitutes a word, what makes something a subject or object, what determines the parts of speech and their various functions, or what defines the inflectional categories. Figuring out this crucial information comprises a fundamental first step before the syntactic rules of the language can emerge.

(Singleton & Lengyel, 1995: 96)

This issue of age has been debated by many researchers, starting with Lenneberg's Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) in the 1960s based on maturational constraints in the acquisition of a first language and expanded towards the acquisition of second language in naturalistic contexts. Krashen, Long and Scarcella (1979) showed that those who started the learning of a second language earlier outperformed those who began later even if the latter achieved higher levels of proficiency on a short term. It is about the long-run process of language acquisition where those who started earlier succeeded in comparison with the others. Age was also present in the study of Patkowski who, in 1980, considered this factor in explaining the differences between the immigrants arriving in the US before the age of 15 and those arriving later. He showed the fact that those who arrived earlier present a higher command of syntactic structures than those who started the study of the language later.

While these studies present age as an important predictor of proficiency in the acquisition of a second language, there are others (Muñoz, 2008) who do not confirm the benefits of an early start. She focuses on the amount and type of exposure, making the difference between naturalistic and formal learning contexts. For some people the experience of learning a foreign language may end any time, once they finish their formal studies or when they do not need it any more. Therefore, age cannot be used as a decisive indicator in the proficiency of a foreign language. According to Ortega (2009), native-like levels of a language appear only with those who have been exposed to that language from birth.

Nevertheless, it might seem impossible for anyone to totally discredit the role of age when it comes to the acquisition of a second language. The earlier one begins, the more input he/she gets and even if children, especially those who are really young – 3-4 year old ones, do not aware specific structures and cannot reach proficiency, they 'form their ears' with a new pronunciation, new words and expressions which, later on, help them in becoming proficient in that foreign language.

### **Other factors to consider**

In the case of preschool children, they base their acquisition of second language words and expressions on imitations and reproductions of simple and clear models

of a language. Age cannot be seen as an isolated factor that contributes to the further development of each individual, there are other issues of importance when it comes to the proper acquisition of a language. For instance, motivation. It appears even at the early ages when children show the desire of learning new things out of different reasons. One important motivational factor can be seen especially in the bilingual families where children need to use the second language to communicate with family members or to receive what they want. They are motivated to communicate in a different language to reach their goals and meet their needs. Thus, it becomes easier for them to use that specific language, no matter if it is English or another, to state their feelings and necessities. This can be transferred to the English classes they have at kindergarten if they want to communicate with their English teacher.

When learning a FL, there are then other apparently subordinate factors to consider. The quality of resources (i.e. the room: seating, sightlines, space, light, equipment), the quality of teaching (the teacher's personal qualities, rapport, the atmosphere generated by him/her, his/her classroom action research), the time of exposure, issues of motivation (kind of activities used, nature of student involvement), cognitive development and intellectual flexibility, possible different personalities, backgrounds and preferences are some of the most important elements to take into consideration.

(Edelenbos *et al.*, 2006: 22, *apud* Mezzi, 2012: 16)

At kindergarten, children perceive the experience of the English class as very pleasant mainly because it includes most of the factors stated above. They function in an 'informal' setting, they are presented visuals with items they are interested in (such as animals, family, toys, etc) they listen to and sing simple and funny songs, watch stories and actively participate, all of these being integrated in a 'play-like' environment. At the same time, their dynamism and need for movement are easily integrated in the activities used in kindergarten English classes. At this stage, children really like "doing" things. Drawing something, building or touching encourage their imagination and increases the chances to remember and fix the English vocabulary items and structures presented during the class. The teacher should struggle to activate all the children's senses by smelling, tasting, seeing or listening as well as touching while performing listening and speaking activities. Face mimics is also another aspect which shouldn't be neglected. When reading a story, the teacher should try to connect the children to the content by using certain gestures, imitating sounds and changing the tone of the voice when necessary. Toys may be used to perform the actions and eye contact should be maintained in order to help children maintain their interest. The story should be carefully chosen; it should be fascinating and should contain basic grammar

structures and vocabulary. Thus, lessons focused on children that unfold in a comfortable climate, raise their motivation and increase competence.

### **Stages in Language Learning**

According to Hadaway, Vardell and Young (2002), the process of language acquisition and learning is split into three important stages: (1) the stage of preproduction; (2) the stage of early production; (3) the stage of speech emergence. English teachers and trainers follow such stages when dealing with early-aged learners since language is learnt step by step. In the first case, learners get accustomed with the different sounds of the English words, they need physical guidance from the part of the teacher. This stage includes the TPR (Total Physical Response) which is used by teachers in order to familiarize the learners with simple words or commands in a foreign language. At this stage, children silently respond to limited commands such as *stand up; sit; run; stop; jump; clap your hands*. These instructions may be taught by inserting them into all sorts of games that rely on listening and doing. They are just perfect for subconsciously stimulating the children's intelligence and capacity of concentration. Moreover they create a special relation between the children and the teacher and among children. Children find it interesting and motivating to perform such easy commands alone or together with their colleagues. *"Students understand the instructions and do what they are asked to do, without speaking until they are ready to speak. The method is particularly efficient for low levels. The idea behind this method is that speech comes after the understanding of spoken language."* (Bălănescu, 2013: 19)

In the case of the early production stage, children learn how to speak, mainly using imitations or gestures to communicate feelings or meaning. They are able to connect up to 2-3 words and learn mainly by repetition. At this stage children recognize and are able to produce names of colours, shapes, letters or numbers, they utter simple sentences as *I want pizza; I like bananas; I have a dog, etc.*

The last stage is that of speech emergence when learners are ready to formulate simple sentences, to watch stories and even to sing songs. One of the most-frequently met teaching tool at this early age is the song. Songs are ideal for all types of learners: auditory, kinaesthetic and visual ones; they are catchy and bring a lot of benefits such as improving attention and memory. They can be used in the start-up stage of the lesson, especially in the case of anxious learners, in order to make them feel comfortable with the passing from the native language to the foreign one or at the end of the lesson to leave the children the impression that learning English is wonderful. Kids are always eager to learn new songs; they find it fun to use the rhyme, sounds or onomatopoeia when singing alone or with their colleagues.



Nursery songs involve all these aspects and, moreover, they make children move around and dance helping them learn words naturally.

Videos are also used when teaching English to kindergarten classes. Cartoons or educational stories help children associate certain images to the language, improving the listening skills. They should extend on a very short period of time and should not contain complicated vocabulary.

Enhancing children to create animals made of paper or different masks and drawings to be used in a subsequent story may raise their interest and may generate the feeling that what follows is important and that they contributed somehow to the process.

In *Teaching Literacy in Kindergarten*, it is stated that,

ELLs spend up to 9 months in preproduction, as many as 6 months in early production, and up to 1 year in speech emergence before reaching the beginning of intermediate fluency (Hadaway et al., 2002). Therefore, ELLs who have begun learning English at home or in preschool will have a head start on their peers who do not begin learning English until the day they enter kindergarten.

(Mc Gee & Morrow, 2005: 130)

## **Conclusions**

Teaching a foreign language to preschool children is a demanding but, at the same time, an interesting task to achieve. In our country the L2 education is widespread due to the possibility offered to parents of choosing optional activities their kids seem interested in. English is being taught both in state and private institutions at early ages and the outcomes are generally positive. In terms of far reaching implications, age is not the only important factor, teachers should take into consideration other items involved in the general process of language teaching and learning: motivation, length of exposure, the activities involved in the process. All in all, children perceive it as a pleasant and interesting experience.

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# Collaborative Learning Using Wikis

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## **ABSTRACT**

The paper explores the potential for wiki-type open architecture software to promote and support collaborative learning through the use of student-created content. Using wikis in English class allow educators and students to do things in an educational setting. To be effective in the 21-st century students must be able to create, evaluate, communicate and effectively utilize information, media and technology.

**KEYWORDS:** *learning Wiki systems, Collaboration Tool, new approach, educational setting*

## **1. Introduction**

According to <www.P21.org>: “it is important to give students hand-on experiences in providing and applying what they know [...]. 21<sup>st</sup> Century Learning presents creative ideas about connecting disciplines and working outside the classroom walls.” It means giving students the opportunity to communicate their ideas, defend their positions, to develop that positive self-identity that is so important to a success attitude. Our students will be future leaders and innovators and therefore, they should think critically, work collaboratively and communicate across cultures. The incorporation of computer technologies into higher education has led to the development of a variety of formats for education where practices of teaching and learning have been expanding to include the latest technologies (ICT-s).

There are several ways in which traditional classroom teaching is being augmented with emerging technologies including: course content acquisition, self-assessment, web-searches, and discussions using online course platforms, blogs, wikis, and social media. There is also a growing trend toward student-led collaborative learning where teachers adopt a supportive role and become learning resources (Harden & Crosby, 2000). Students are adopting new roles as producers or commentators and are participating more in the personalized construction and organization

of their own knowledge outside the traditional limits of education. Knowledge creation through user-created content is currently capturing the imagination of students and teachers alike and one social software tool – wiki – is developing quickly as a favourite in all sectors of education (Horizon, 2007<sup>1</sup>). Wikis enable students to collaboratively generate, mix, edit and synthesise subject specific knowledge within a shared and openly accessible digital space.

## 2. Wikis as Collaborative Tools for Learning English

According to M. Rethlefsen<sup>2</sup> a wiki is “a kind of Web site that allows multiple people to collaboratively write or edit content, even with little or no knowledge of programming or Web marking languages. The name for this kind of site comes from a Hawaiian word meaning “fast”. Wikis can be used both as a social software and as a tool which provides support for group projects and activities. They are extremely beneficial for higher educational purposes. A wiki is an online tool for collective writing, it is a text processor open and accessible to all those are granted permission of access. Moreover, the responsibility for the creation of materials is shared<sup>3</sup> and they are closely associated with project based and task-based language learning, practices where students and teachers contribute to the creation of knowledge and share their findings. The most beneficial aspect is represented by the fact that wikis can be extremely used in teaching English so that students to collaborate in a project via the Internet. Writing in a wiki offers the chance that students’ knowledge, thoughts and abilities are noticed and at best even honoured (e.g. through commentaries or references by others). Wikis enhance the feeling of acting autonomously in two ways.

They have two different writing modes, or styles of usage. The first is DOCUMENT MODE which helps users to create collaborative documents written in the third person and THREAD MODE which helps contributors to carry out discussions in the wiki environment by posting signed messages. Writing an entry initiates reflection processes and leads to a deeper assimilation of the learning content. The learner has to think about his/her learning process organizes his thoughts and externalizes them as texts or artefacts. Duffy and Brums<sup>4</sup> mention that a wiki can be used for acting as ongoing documentation of students’ work and to add summaries of their thoughts and building collaborative and annotated content as well as well as

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<sup>1</sup> *Horizon Report* (2007) retrieved from <<http://www.nmc.org/pdf/2007>>.

<sup>2</sup> M. Rethlefsen *et al.* “Internet Cool Tools for Physicians”, Springer-Verlag, p. 67.

<sup>3</sup> Wheeler *et al.* (2008: 988).

<sup>4</sup> P. Duffy, & A. Bruns: *The Use of blogs, wikis and RSS in education*, p. 67.

linked network of resources wikis improve academic writing. Based on the wiki's page history mechanism, it is possible to trace and analyse the development process of individual pages in some detail. The process of writing using wikis is rather co-operative because students can divide their tasks into different parts and work rather independently and individually.

A number of high-level thinking skills and socially rich activities could result from the use of management of wikis. A few teachers are exploiting the potential of wikis to transform the learning experience into one in which student-centred learning<sup>5</sup> can be facilitated. The wiki may become a focal point of interest for developing communities of practice, within which they can store their treasure house of knowledge about specific interests and learning. In classroom learning teachers will need to encourage all members to contribute, thereby foster a sense of community, but it is inevitable that some students will contribute more content than others. Wikis offers suitable environments within which students who are separated geographically from one another can develop social ties.

Teachers may cause distributed groups to “draw together” by encouraging each physically dislocated member to create a specific section or “stub” on the wiki, so that others are then able to add to it over the life of a course of a study. Individual students can be assigned the task of finding reliable websites they can hyperlink back to main wiki. Each student can also be assigned a specific time period during they have responsibility to “patrol” the wiki to ensure it has not been sabotaged or defaced in some way. Students are able to tag useful web resources within a highly visible space, thus alerting other students to their location and quality.

Further, the tagging of wiki pages makes their content more visible to a larger audience through search engine listings. The use of wikis in higher education engenders some challenges for teachers. One is the need to familiarise students with the concept of wiki and slowly orienting them to the architecture of software. The second is represented by the fact that wiki activities did not suit the learning preferences of all students. Teachers must establish a serious limitation in order to make sense of their learning. The third issue is the problem of ownership and intellectual property when using wikis. Students tend to protect their own ideas, although they are happy to post their contributions to a wiki space for other group members to read. Sometimes they are resistant to having their contributions altered or deleted by other group members.

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<sup>5</sup> Student-centered learning broadly encompasses methods of teaching that shift the focus of instruction from the teacher to student and it aims to develop learner autonomy and independence.

As Eberbach *et al.*<sup>6</sup> identified another issue: most students contributed to the wiki only when in class. Eberbach suggested that if such tools are not integrated into regular routine the result is that one or two people usually do the writing and others merely read. Students tend to read only those pages to which they had contributed directly which tend to alter the collaborative learning. Obviously, they are tended to copy items directly from sites such as Wikipedia, and paste them directly into the wiki pages instead of creating hyperlinks to those sites. There are also several beneficial aspects to the wiki. Students are aware of unseen audience and they focus on writing accurate and relevant content. Writing on the wiki is a challenging activity which involves much more thought about the length and structure of sentences.

### 3. A Case Study: Collaborative Writing Using wikis

A study<sup>7</sup> based on the idea of collaborative writing in order to create and edit a text asynchronously by many authors showed that students reflected on the content and initiated rethinking. This is, in fact one of the major goals and important aspect of motivation in English classes today. The idea was to foster collaboration and writing in English. The project group consisted of two to four students, each from a different class from different high schools. A personal face-to-face meeting of participating student group members was scheduled for the project's kick-off meeting and final presentation. Students had to utilize wiki during the virtual project phase to figure out strategic procedures and approaches about how to solve the task proposed by the teacher.

The experiment revealed that collaboration in terms of that content was corrected (edited and deleted) online took place in only a few exceptional ones. All students created and wrote their contributions linearly from top to bottom: all project groups were adding and refining content at the bottom of the wiki page. Students used the wiki infrastructure to communicate and to place questions. The study also showed participants positive attitude to collaborative writing. They valued the wiki most for options for error correction and possibility to discuss writing on chats or comment boxes.

According to Sawyer<sup>8</sup> writing comprises three main components: *planning, translating and reviewing*. New digital technologies can provide better environments for carrying out these three main components in order to carry out complex

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<sup>6</sup> A. Ebersbach, M. Glaser, & R. Heigl, *Wiki: web collaboration*, Berlin Springer, Verlag, 2006, p. 78.

<sup>7</sup> M. Krubs, C. Schmidt, & M. Henniker, *Are Wikis an Appropriate Approach to foster Collaboration, Reflection and Students Motivation?*, Springer, 2008, p.234.

<sup>8</sup> R. K. Sawyer, *The Cambridge Hand book of Learning Sciences*, CUP, 2006, p. 234.

tasks than traditional word processing tool. They, also ease the processes of feedback and revision which could further benefit students' collaborative writing by potentially increasing their motivation and reflection and promoting their sense of autonomy.

#### **4. Conclusion**

In recent years wikis are being used for various teaching and learning purposes. They are being used in writing compositions, literature, distance education, medicine, etc. in various ways such as classroom activities (information leaflets, generating discussion, group work, etc.). Sometimes using wikis in the English class may bring some problems such as: students are dependent on each other to complete a task, which was problematic when one of team members was late with the accomplishment of his/her part. Many of today's classrooms are equipped with either wireless connection for students to access the net or computers for students to use during class time. Unless the context in the classroom is designed for learning students are often found twitching their fingers and going to places like Facebook or Twitter during English class. The irresistible tug of technology leaves them disinterested in the lecture/ note taking portion of class. Sometimes if there is a purpose for their fingers to be active in the class the instructions can work efficiently at engaging the reader.

In conclusion, collaboration rather than competition should be promoted as a key aim of any wiki-based activity. Students should also be encouraged to contribute to the wiki outside of classroom contact hours, and to share their thoughts and ideas as they generate them. Teachers should act as moderators and may need to restrain themselves from direct action in order to promote collaborative working.

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# Modalități de predare ale verbul românesc. Valori contextuale ale timpurilor: viitorul

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**ABSTRACT:** Teaching methods of the Romanian verb. Contextual values of the times: the future

The article focuses on the contextual verbs, as well as the grammatical or lexical contexts that can give a verb a meaning of near or far future, or even of near or far past.

**KEYWORDS:** time, past, present, future, tense

Timpul este un continuu pe care fiecare limbă îl divizează după propria istorie. În funcție de momentul vorbirii, se consideră că, în toate limbile, acțiunile care coincid cu acesta sunt la p r e z e n t, cele care îl preced sunt la t r e c u t, iar cele situate după acest moment se află la v i i t o r.

În realitate, ca sens, prezentul este doar un punct pe axa temporală, iar, ca valoare gramaticală, foarte rar coincide cu momentul vorbirii, ca în exemplul

(1) *X transmite – î n a c e s t m o m e n t – meciul dintre Steaua și Dinamo.*

La modul absolut, formele de prezent pot avea, după cum se arată în literatura de specialitate, și după cum am arătat și noi în GLR, 2005, valori care foarte rar acoperă un prezent real, coincident cu momentul vorbirii, contextul putând transforma o formă de prezent în viitor:

(2) *Plec m â i n e l a m u n t e.* (plec = voi pleca)

sau în trecut:

(3) *Eminescu se naște la Botoșani și moare la București.* (se naște = s-a născut; moare = a murit).

(4) Ștefan ce Mare **conduce** Moldova *î n t r e 1 4 5 7 și 1 5 0 4* (conduce = a condus).

iar uneori acoperă întreaga axă temporală, marcată prin două infinituri: unul pentru începutul acțiunii, altul pentru sfârșitul ei ( $\infty \dots \infty$ ), ca în enunțurile științifice

(5) Dunărea **izvorăște** în Germania, în munții Pădurea Neagră și **se varsă** în România, în Marea Neagră.

sau ca în maxime și proverbe:

(6) Vorbele **zboară**, scrisul **rămâne** (Verba volant, scripta manent).

(7) Cine **știe** carte **are** patru ochi.

Putem afirma, prin urmare, că doar c o n t e x t u l precizează cu adevărat valoarea unei anumite forme verbale. În afara acestuia verbele *mănânc*, *beau*, *scriu*, *plec* etc. sunt forme de prezent, iar *voi mânca*, *voi bea*, *voi scrie*, *voi pleca* etc sunt forme de viitor. Contextul poate însă modifica în întregime sensul temporal al unei forme verbale, iar, alteleori, îi poate da, în plus sau exclusiv, valori modale.

(8) El **mănâncă** (acum).

(8a) El **mănâncă** mult (acum / în general).

(8b) El **nu mănâncă** bine (în general).

(9) El **bea** (acum).

(9a) El *c a m bea* (obișnuiește să bea).

(10) El **urmează să plece** (după momentul vorbirii).

În acest articol ne vom ocupa doar de viitorul românesc: valorile sale contextuale, precum și contexte, gramaticale sau lexicale, care pot da unui verb sens de viitor apropiat sau îndepărtat ori chiar de trecut apropiat, numit și *t r e c u t r e c e n t*, sau îndepărtat.

## I. Valori contextuale ale viitorului în limba română

### 1. Viitorul I

#### 1.1. Viitorul I = viitor II

Viitorul I în relație cu alt verb aflat la același timp (deci în frază) poate avea sens de viitor II (sau anterior):

(11) *Abia după ce se vor ține toate probele de concurs se va cunoaște numele învingătorului.*

Acțiunile din acest exemplu se află într-o relație de *s u c c e s i u n e*, ceea ce nu implică nicidecum momentul vorbirii ca timp de referință. Cele două verbe se vor afla în aceeași relație, indiferent de timpul lor gramatical: acțiunea denumită de verbul <sub>1</sub> (*a se ține*) este mereu anterioară celei denumite de verbul <sub>2</sub> (*a se cunoaște*):

(11a) *Abia după ce se țin toate probele de concurs se cunoaște numele învingătorului* (cu verbele la prezent).

(11b) *Abia după ce s-au ținut toate probele de concurs s-a cunoscut numele învingătorului* (cu verbele la trecut).

Fiind în relație de succesiune, aceste două verbe nu-și pot schimba topica în frază decât dacă se fac și alte modificări care să actualizeze relația:

(11c) *În t â i se vor ține toate probele de concurs, a p o i se va cunoaște numele învingătorului* (cu două propoziții principale).

(11d) *Numele învingătorului se va cunoaște d u p ă c e se vor ține toate probele de concurs.*

Verbul *a se ține* este situat tot în subordonată, ca în (11), cu deosebirea că în (11d) fraza începe cu principală.

## **1.2. Viitorul I = viitor în trecut**

În anumite contexte viitorul I exprimă acțiuni anterioare momentului vorbirii:

(12) *P â n ă d e c u r â n d speram că ne vom revedea.*

Verbul <sub>1</sub> (*a spera*) se află în trecut (la imperfect), exprimând o acțiune anterioară momentului vorbirii, iar verbul <sub>2</sub> (*a se revedea*), raportat la momentul vorbirii, este plasat tot în trecut, deși forma lui este de viitor. Verbul <sub>1</sub> poate avea și alte forme de trecut, iar viitorul din propoziția a doua se poate înlocui cu prezentul, datorită frecvenței cu care prezentul substituie forme de viitor:

(12a) *P â n ă d e c u r â n d am sperat că...* (cu perfectul compus);

(12b) *Până decurând sperasem* că... (cu mai-mult-ca-perfectul);

(12c) *Până decurând sperai* că... (cu perfectul simplu);

(12d) *Până decurând speram* că *ne revedem* (cu verbul 2 la prezent.)

Forma de imperfect a verbului *a spera* și determinarea circumstanțială *până decurând* dau întregii fraze valoare ireală: acțiunile verbelor sunt nerealizate și nerealizabile.

Tot cu sens de viitor în trecut este folosit verbul *a veni* din exemplele:

(13) *Mi-ai spus că vei veni.*

(14) *Ți-am spus eu că voi veni?*

Trebuie precizat că, ori de câte ori viitorul este în relație cu un timp trecut, rezultă enunțuri în care viitorul exprimă acțiuni nerealizate și nerealizabile, deci ireale.

### **1.3. Viitorul intenției**

Acest sens al viitorului I se exprimă numai lexical:

(15) *Am de gând să învăț limba engleză.*

Acțiunea din exemplul 15 este plasată după momentul vorbirii când verbul este la prezent și înainte de acest moment, cu verbul la un timp trecut, ca în (15a) – (15c):

(15a) *Aveam de gând să...*

(15b) *Am avut de gând să...*

(15c) *Avusesem de gând să...*

(16) *Intenționez să plec la munte.*

(16a) *Am intenționat să ....*

(17) *Am intenția să...*

(17a) *Am avut intenția să...*

Și în acest caz, prin formele de trecut ale verbului se exprimă acțiuni ireale, nerealizate și nerealizabile.

#### **1.4. Viitorul I = imperativ**

Această valoare a viitorului se realizează suprasegmental, în prezența unei intonații specifice. Fără această intonație, verbele la viitor exprimă sensuri ale indicativului. Să se compare:

(18) ***Veți pleca** acasă.*

cu

(18a) ***Veți pleca** acasă!*

Avantajul exprimării imperativului prin viitor este, ca și în cazul folosirii conjunctivului sau a infinitivului cu această valoare modală, posibilitatea extinderii sensului de imperativ și la alte persoane, nu numai la persoana a doua singular și plural:

(19) ***Vom renunța** la privilegii!* (1 pl.)

(20) ***Pansamentul se va schimba** zilnic!* (3 sg.)

(21) ***Copiii vor pleca** chiar acum!* (3 pl.)

(22) ***Voi scrie** acest articol până mâine!* (1 sg.)

De multe ori, propozițiile de acest fel exprimă nu atât un ordin, cât o recomandare, o obligativitate, o necesitate sau un angajament.

#### **1.5. Viitorul I = optativ**

Viitorul și optativul sunt sinonime în enunțuri în care intenția vorbitorului este de exprimare reverențioasă, politicoasă.

(23) ***Am să vă rog** să fiți mai atenți* (pentru v-aș ruga).

## **2. Viitorul II**

Această formă verbală apare numai în frază, deci numai împreună și în relația cu alt verb, aflat la viitorul I:

(24) *Până la ora 5 (cel târziu), când **vei veni** tu cu biletele, eu **voi fi făcut** bagajele.*

### **2.1. Viitorul II = prezumtiv perfect**

Folosit singur, fără timp de referință, și cu o anumită intonație, în propoziții interogative sau exclamative, viitorul II are sens de prezumtiv perfect:

(25) *Va fi ajuns oare?*

(26) *Va fi ajuns până la ora asta!*

În exemplele cu intonație interogativă accentul cade pe îndoială, iar în cele cu intonație exclamativă se exprimă mai degrabă o dorință, speranța că acțiunea este terminată în momentul vorbirii.

## **II. Contexte specifice viitorului**

Contextele care dau sens de viitor unei forme verbale sunt **g r a m a t i c a l e**, **s i - t u a ț i o n a l e** și **l e x i c a l e**.

**1. Gramatical**, viitorul se exprimă în limba română **a n a l i t i c**, cu ajutorul a trei auxiliare, fiecare construcție având statut stilistic aparte.

**1.1. auxiliarul a vrea (voi, vei, va) + infinitiv**, așa-numitul **v i i t o r l i t e r a r**, în opoziție cu celelalte forme de viitor, considerate **f a m i l i a r e**, **c o l o c v i a l e**.

(27) *Voi veni mâine la tine.*

**1.2. auxiliarul a avea (am, ai, are etc.) + conjunctiv**

(28) *Am să vin mâine la tine.*

**1.3. auxiliarul invariabil o + conjunctiv**

(29) *O să vin mâine la tine.*

## **2. Contexte situaționale**

(30) (Cineva cu bagajul în mână, spune)

(30a) *Plec. Am tren la ora 5.* (cu prezentul la ambele verbe)

(30a) **Am plecat. Am tren la ora 5** (cu perfectul compus numai la primul verb)

### 3. Contexte lexicale

Exprimarea lexicală a sensului de viitor în limba română este bogată și variată.

(31) **Plecăm** imediat / mâine / mai târziu etc.

#### 3.1. Adverbe de timp

a) adverbe de timp propriu-zise, prin care acțiunea se plasează după momentul vorbirii: *deseară, după-masă, mâine, poimâine, apoi* etc.

b) adverbe provenite din substantive cu sens temporal: *joi, duminică* etc.

c) construcții prepoziționale cu substantive ± numere: *la vară, în martie, la anul; după o oră, peste un an* etc.

d) sintagme nominale formate dintr-un substantiv ca nucleu + determinant adjectival sau prepozițional: *săptămâna (luna, joia, ora) următoare / viitoare, anul (semestrul, secolul, mileniul) următor / viitor; săptămâna (luna, joia, ora), anul (semestrul, secolul, mileniul) care vine / care urmează;*

e) structuri complexe, cu adverbe și substantive: *de azi (de mâine / de joi) într-o săptămână / într-o lună / într-un an*

f) sintagme verbale:

- *a urma* + conjunctiv:

(32) *Când urmează să veniți?*

- *a avea* + supin / conjunctiv

(33) *Ce ai de făcut pentru mâine?* (prezent + supin)

(33) *Ce ai să faci pentru mâine?* (prezent + conjunctiv)

(34) *Ce aveai de făcut pentru mâine ?* (imperfect + supin)

(35) *Ce aveau să faci pentru mâine?* (imperfect + conjunctiv)

Verbul *a avea* are, în asemenea contexte, sensul de „a trebui”.

- *a fi* + c o n j u n c t i v

(36) *Ce era să fac?* (imperfect + conjunctiv)

- *a fi pe punctul de a* + infinitiv

- *a fi pe punctul* + conjunctiv

(37) *X este pe punctul de a rezolva cazul.*

(38) *X este pe punctul să rezolve cazul.*

- *a avea de gând* + conjunctiv

(39) *X are de gând să ne vadă.*

- *a intenționa* + conjunctiv.

(38) *X intenționează să ne vadă.*

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# La traduction économique et financière : exploitation didactique en classe de FLE

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**ABSTRACT: Economic and Financial Translation: Activities for exploiting it During French as a Foreign Language Classes**

After a period where the focus has been mainly on the communicative approach in the didactics of languages, we note that the translation is recently the subject of a pedagogical rehabilitation, particularly in the context of the teaching - learning of French as a foreign language. Research and studies in the field of teaching professional translation and applied linguistics developed multiple approaches to translation, and demonstrated that translation is one of the main instruments of linguistic awareness. This metalinguistic ability does not exclusively concern the grammatical structures, but includes practical and stylistic aspects as well as the effects they can create. This type of approach is used not only to strengthen the student's awareness of the potential of the French language, of the similarities and differences between the French language and the Romanian language, but also to build a better knowledge of the mother tongue and, therefore, a better communicative efficiency both in French and in Romanian language. In our article we will show how the economic language works, what are the various aspects of economic and financial translations, focusing on the collocation, the metonymy and polysemic words.

**KEYWORDS:** *translation, didactics, specialized language, economy, French as a foreign language*

## 1. Introduction

La traduction a été depuis toujours un moyen qui a permis la communication entre les individus et les sociétés. Depuis que l'homme a existé, il a ressenti le besoin de communiquer avec ses semblables et d'apprendre leurs langues. La traduction était alors l'un des moyens les plus utilisés dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères

avant qu'elle soit bannie et rejetée. La didactique des langues étrangères s'est beaucoup préoccupée de la découverte de nouvelles méthodes pour enseigner/apprendre une langue étrangère. Les méthodes qui se sont succédées avaient une position favorable ou non concernant la traduction sans qu'aucune d'entre elles ne puisse s'imposer définitivement au détriment des autres. La didactique des langues étrangères se trouve, selon les mots de Christian Puren « à la croisée des méthodes ». L'éclectisme permet ainsi d'établir des méthodes suivant ce qui est nécessaire et selon plusieurs paramètres. Le contexte, la nature des apprenants et leurs objectifs sont quelques-uns des facteurs qui interviennent dans le choix des moyens d'enseignement.

Le développement de l'enseignement des langues de spécialité a mis en évidence les besoins des apprenants et une valorisation de leurs connaissances, linguistiques ou non. Nous nous proposons de remettre en cause l'idée selon laquelle la traduction doit être refoulée de la classe où le français langue étrangère est appris. En effet, les méthodes directes ne laissent aucune place et ne reconnaissent aucun avantage à la traduction dans l'acquisition d'une langue étrangère. La traduction est présentée comme un obstacle qui contrarie et empêche la réussite dans l'acquisition du français langue étrangère. Le pire ennemi dans l'acquisition d'une langue étrangère, selon ces méthodes, n'est pas la traduction en elle-même, mais la traduction comme technique qui met en contact deux langues différentes : la langue maternelle et la langue étrangère apprise.

Pour traduire, il importe certes de maîtriser deux langues mais cela ne suffit pas. Encore faut-il être capable de comprendre, de combler ses lacunes, de dominer l'outil d'expression, de s'adapter à un public et, à tout moment, manifester un sens critique. Autant de compétences qui constituent le noyau dur de l'activité traduisante et auxquelles il est essentiel de sensibiliser l'apprenant suivant des modalités propres à favoriser leur acquisition et leur développement.

(Israël, & Lederer, 2005 : 63)

Les défenseurs des méthodes directes soutiennent que les automatismes de la langue maternelle se dressent devant l'apprentissage de toute autre nouvelle langue. Les structures de la langue maternelle empêchent celles de la langue étrangère apprise à fonctionner réellement. Il en résulte des interférences entre les deux langues, donc la solution proposée par les méthodes directes ne pourrait être que le bannissement de la langue maternelle pour avoir un accès direct à la langue étrangère. Les méthodes qui rejettent la traduction incitent les apprenants à penser dans la langue étrangère. Atteindre le niveau de penser dans la langue étrangère est considéré comme un critère de la maîtrise de cette langue. Or cette supposition repose sur un mal entendu, car on ne pense pas dans une autre langue. En réalité, on s'exprime dans la langue

étrangère au point d'avoir l'impression de penser dans celle-ci. Si l'on possède de suffisantes connaissances linguistiques dans une langue étrangère on peut exprimer sa pensée dans toutes ses nuances. En réalité, malgré les réticences exprimées à l'utilisation de la traduction dans l'enseignement d'une langue étrangère, elle n'a pas été totalement écartée. Elle a continué à occuper une place, qui n'a pas cessé de connaître des hauts et des bas, selon les méthodologies adoptées. La traduction a toujours existé dans les classes mais à différents degrés, de la méthode directe à la méthodologie audio-orale et audio-visuelle. Si hier, les préjugés sur le retour à la traduction étaient forts, empêchant ainsi toute utilisation de la langue maternelle dans les classes de langues étrangères, le cas aujourd'hui est différent. Il a été démontré, grâce à des recherches et des études consacrées à ce domaine, que la traduction aide dans l'acquisition d'une langue étrangère.

## **2. La traduction professionnelle et la traduction pédagogique**

La traduction renvoie à deux opérations distinctes, proches l'une de l'autre sans que l'une implique l'autre : la traduction professionnelle d'un côté et la traduction didactique de l'autre. Delisle (1988) présente ainsi un tableau complet des similitudes et des différences entre la traduction didactique et la traduction professionnelle, dont les principales différences sont : l'objectif (apprendre la langue ou finaliser un texte), les destinataires (le professeur ou le lecteur) et son étude (la traduction professionnelle exige que la langue cible soit déjà maîtrisée par le traducteur). En traduction pédagogique, nombreux sont les exercices qui peuvent être utilisés : la traduction explicative, par laquelle l'enseignant se sert des textes pour expliquer les différences entre les langues (lexicales ou grammaticales) et les exercices de traduction, par lesquels l'étudiant doit montrer ses capacités de compréhension et de production (en langue maternelle et étrangère).

Un fossé sépare la traduction pédagogique de la pédagogie de la traduction. L'emploi du mot *traduction* dans les deux cas crée une certaine confusion quant à la nature de l'opération, passage d'une langue à une autre ou passage d'un texte à un autre. Certes, dans les deux cas, l'emploi du même mot peut sembler justifié puisque aussi bien, à l'issue de l'une comme de l'autre, on a sous les yeux une langue et un texte différents. Mais les méthodes appliquées diffèrent du tout au tout. La traduction pédagogique est un instrument d'enseignement de la langue ; elle se doit d'établir des correspondances pour la faire apprendre. La pédagogie de la traduction, en revanche, part de l'hypothèse que les langues sont sues et vise à former des professionnels de la traduction en leur inculquant des méthodes de recherche du sens des textes et de création d'équivalences. Indispensables, chacune dans sa finalité, elles ne se confondent pas.

(Lederer, 2006 : 121)

Une fois établie la différence entre traduction pédagogique et traduction professionnelle, il est important d'insister, selon Durieux (2005) sur l'importance qu'il y a à adapter l'enseignement de la traduction à l'objectif retenu : 1) enseigner une langue étrangère ; 2) former de futurs professeurs de langue ; 3) former de futurs traducteurs professionnels ou 4) former de futurs formateurs de traducteurs. Ce qui est essentiel est donc d'adapter l'enseignement de la traduction aux objectifs fixés. Nous nous proposons d'enseigner le français langue étrangère aux étudiants économistes et la traduction des textes économiques et financiers nous sert à atteindre d'autres objectifs. La traduction peut viser l'étude de différents aspects de la langue : le lexique, la syntaxe, le style, mais elle ne constitue en aucun cas une fin en soi. La traduction permet d'augmenter la compétence linguistique de l'étudiant, à condition qu'elle ne soit le seul moyen d'enseignement du français langue étrangère. Le recours à la traduction est variable en fonction des niveaux d'études.

Alors que la traduction est fortement sollicitée par les niveaux débutants, elle l'est moins par les niveaux supérieurs. Effectivement nous avons constaté que plus que les étudiants possèdent un bon niveau en français, moins ils demandent la traduction des textes économiques en roumain. Le recours à la traduction en classe de français langue étrangère ne se fait que lorsque les étudiants ne trouvent pas de réponses aux questions du professeur qui veut vérifier leur compréhension des textes lus. La traduction, au lieu de porter sur des termes isolés, peut, parfois, porter sur des unités lexicales entières, voire sur le texte entier. Le professeur, voulant s'assurer que les étudiants ont bien compris le sens du texte, leur demande de formuler l'idée générale du texte en langue maternelle. Ceci avant de se pencher sur la lecture linéaire et mot à mot pour saisir le sens des textes dans ses moindres détails. C'est à ce moment que la traduction porte sur les mots pris isolément dans leur contexte de la phrase pour les expliquer et éventuellement les traduire, si la compréhension s'avère difficile.

Nous pouvons proposer aux étudiants des exercices portant sur la traduction des textes écrits pour les faire en classe ou en dehors de la classe. Se servant du bagage de connaissances déjà accumulées, les étudiants peuvent approfondir davantage leurs connaissances avec les exercices de traduction écrite. Nous considérons que, généralement, lorsque les étudiants font ce travail en classe ou en dehors de la classe, ils apprennent encore. Les comparaisons entre la langue française et la langue roumaine et l'utilisation du dictionnaire sont quelques avantages qui militent en faveur de ce genre de traduction.

La version et le thème sont le domaine classique de la traduction pédagogique. La version dans sa forme classique (la traduction écrite d'un extrait relativement court – dix à vingt lignes) est tirée d'un texte inconnu de l'étudiant. Les erreurs dans la version sont surtout des fautes de sens primaires, dont le nombre diminue

considérablement lorsque les étudiants doivent traduire un texte qu'ils ont déjà étudié. Le thème est essentiellement un exercice grammatical portant sur des phrases fabriquées en fonction des éléments linguistiques qui viennent d'être enseignés et des difficultés qu'ils comportent. Il faut faire une distinction entre le thème grammatical, exercice de contrôle et de fixation des structures grammaticales qui néglige les difficultés lexicales, et le thème d'imitation qui inclut également le vocabulaire et vise un réemploi immédiat d'éléments linguistiques présents dans un texte de base qui vient d'être amplement étudié. Les deux types de thème sont généralement présents dans le thème d'application qui est un pot-pourri des structures grammaticales, du vocabulaire et des tournures idiomatiques de la dernière leçon. Certaines phrases réactivent aussi du vocabulaire général, censé connu, il y a quelques semaines. Ces phrases sont artificiellement conçues en fonction des différences entre la langue maternelle et la langue étrangère enseignée. Elles permettent de vérifier si les étudiants ont assimilé les éléments nouveaux des cours précédents et s'ils savent les réemployer.

La correction des thèmes en classe est souvent l'occasion de mises au point sur la grammaire ou le vocabulaire et d'une reprise par toute la classe des éléments qui ont occasionné le plus d'erreurs. Pour cette raison, le thème est considéré comme un auxiliaire précieux pour l'assimilation et la fixation des éléments linguistiques les plus propices aux interférences. Apprendre à traduire, c'est apprendre à jouer avec la langue, à explorer ses ressources, à disséquer et prospecter sans jamais se contenter d'un à peu près, car une traduction n'est jamais définitive – elle peut toujours être améliorée.

### **3. La traduction économique et financière**

La traduction de textes spécialisés économiques nécessite rigueur et précision. Des spécialistes s'adressent à des spécialistes ; dans ce dialogue, l'étudiant qui traduit intervient en tant que moyen de transmission, rendant possible cette communication. Pour que la qualité de la traduction soit bonne, l'étudiant doit comprendre la terminologie utilisée dans les textes économiques.

Une bonne traduction ne peut que résulter d'un mariage parfait entre les connaissances techniques et linguistiques : les traducteurs se documentent et se spécialisent sans cesse et, si nécessaire, travaillent en équipe avec des experts du domaine concerné. C'est pourquoi il faudrait aussi donner quelques bases aux futurs techniciens et chercheurs, et les inciter à réfléchir sur ce qu'est la traduction, ne serait-ce que pour qu'ils puissent porter un regard critique sur les traductions littérales qui desservent si souvent les productions scientifiques.

(Lavault, 1998 : 74)

Quels sont les moyens dont l'étudiant doit disposer, afin d'apprendre à traduire efficacement ? En premier lieu l'étudiant doit analyser et comprendre le texte donné pour être en mesure de le traduire avec précision. En deuxième lieu il doit identifier et employer la terminologie appropriée. L'étudiant doit avoir un esprit ouvert pour mobiliser et augmenter ses connaissances. Il doit reconnaître l'information importante du texte à traduire, aller rapidement à sa source, viser la maîtrise totale du texte (compréhension et expression), surmonter les difficultés, savoir se mobiliser, travailler avec efficacité, rapidité et précision. Il s'agit en somme de développer une méthode de recherche efficace, applicable à tout texte économique et financier et à toute combinaison linguistique en traduction. L'étudiant doit établir une liste de mots clés, non obligatoirement contenus dans le texte, qui lui serviront de base pour ses traductions, le point de départ de celles-ci étant le plus souvent la consultation d'un index d'ouvrage, d'une base de données (bibliographiques, terminologiques), d'un annuaire professionnel ou de l'Internet.

En didactique des langues, le processus de traduction est présent, même lorsque la traduction est rejetée par les méthodologies. La traduction littérale peut être erronée si elle n'est pas explicitement corrigée. Il est donc utile de reconsidérer le rôle de la traduction dans l'apprentissage. Les méthodologies nouvelles s'appuyant sur la sociologie de la communication et la psycholinguistique, avancent une théorie de l'apprentissage où la langue maternelle retrouve sa place en réhabilitant de cette façon la comparaison entre les langues et en encourageant la traduction.

Une personne non-initiée dans la traduction peut croire que traduire consiste à transposer les mots d'une langue de départ en ceux d'une langue d'arrivée en s'appuyant sur les significations codifiées des dictionnaires et en mettant en pratique les règles de grammaire spécifiques à la langue d'arrivée. La traduction se reporterait ainsi à un transcodage, un transfert de correspondances préétablies. Ce transcodage existe dans certains types de traduction technique (la traduction de nomenclatures par exemple), pourtant pour la majorité des traductions le traducteur ne transpose pas des mots d'une langue à l'autre, il transmet un contenu à un destinataire, il saisit et restitue un sens qui ne peut se réduire aux significations données par la langue.

Le niveau de la langue est celui des significations que l'on trouve dans le dictionnaire, ce à quoi les mots renvoient dans le système abstrait de la langue. Ces significations ont un caractère permanent et conscient hors-communication. À ce niveau, le premier problème est celui que pose la polysémie des mots. Ainsi l'étudiant qui isole un mot inconnu du texte, trouvera dans le dictionnaire plusieurs significations possibles. Ce n'est que lorsqu'on procède à l'analyse de la langue que l'on devient conscient de cette polysémie, car dans son emploi, la signification pertinente du mot est imposée par le contexte. L'étudiant qui n'a pas une connaissance suffisante de la

langue, tend à associer au mot la ou les seules acceptions qu'il connaît ou, s'il n'en connaît aucune, à se précipiter sur le dictionnaire. Comme il utilise le plus souvent un dictionnaire bilingue, sans faire attention aux indications de domaine, et sans vérifier ensuite dans un dictionnaire unilingue, il commet des erreurs. Ainsi la polysémie des mots devient chez l'étudiant source d'incompréhension et d'erreurs. L'exercice suivant relève très clairement la polysémie du verbe *chasser* et du nom *chasseur*. Dans les exemples a, c, g, h le substantif *chasseurs* a les sens suivants : *braconniers, portiers, avion, recruteurs* tandis que dans les exemples b, d, e, f, i, j le verbe *chassent* a les sens suivants : *patinent, dissipé, expulser, mettre dehors, font disparaître, démis*.

- a) Les chasseurs sans permis ont été surpris par le garde-chasse.
- b) Les roues chassent sur le verglas.
- c) Les chasseurs de Chez Maxim's sont célèbres pour la distinction de leurs uniformes.
- d) Le vent ayant chassé les nuages, on contemplait le bleu clair du ciel.
- e) Il s'est fait chasser de son pays d'adoption après avoir commis plusieurs infractions.
- f) Chasser les indésirables, ce n'est pas facile à faire.
- g) Le fleuron de l'armée roumaine est un chasseur à réaction.
- h) Les chasseurs de têtes ont une mission difficile avec la pénurie des cadres.
- i) Ces comprimés chassent les maux de tête sur le coup.
- j) Il aurait été chassé de son poste après six mois, faute d'avoir atteint les objectifs fixés par ses supérieurs.

(Cilianu-Lascu, 2005 : 117)

Même si les méthodes introduisent toujours le vocabulaire en situation, l'apprentissage de la langue ne peut ignorer la polysémie et les valeurs des mots, ce qui forme donc la première difficulté de la traduction pédagogique. La langue économique et financière rend compte d'une réalité en constante évolution et génère de nombreux néologismes. L'étudiant devra être capable d'utiliser les sources de documentation générale traditionnelles telles que le Robert, le Trésor de la Langue Française, le Petit Robert, le petit Robert 2, le Lexis, le bilingue Larousse, des grammaires, des dictionnaires des conjugaisons et des difficultés de la langue française.

Les textes pédagogiques peuvent appartenir à deux catégories : les supports authentiques et les supports fabriqués. Les supports authentiques sont les plus nombreux et correspondent soit à des textes qui ont fait l'objet d'une traduction dans la situation réelle professionnelle de la traduction dans la langue étrangère, soit à des textes publiés qui n'ont pas fait l'objet de traduction (textes publiés dans la presse, par les maisons d'édition, documents de la vie quotidienne – affiches, publicités,

publications municipales). Lorsque ces textes authentiques sont utilisés comme support d'une tâche sans aucune modification (ni dans leur présentation, ni dans leur contenu) ce sont des textes authentiques bruts. Lorsqu'ils sont modifiés, c'est-à-dire lorsque pour les besoins pédagogiques nous modifions la présentation et le texte lui-même en supprimant ou en ajoutant des éléments, ce sont des textes authentiques modifiés. Les supports fabriqués sont, soit des montages, c'est-à-dire un assemblage de phrases ou de paragraphes authentiques, en contexte ou hors contexte, pour fabriquer par exemple un thème grammatical, soit des textes courts entièrement fabriqués par le professeur.

Voici un exemple de support fabriqué qui correspond à un montage en contexte pour une tâche dont l'objectif est la réflexion sur la traduction en français de la préposition roumaine. Il est préférable de donner aux étudiants des exercices où ils doivent tirer des conclusions générales d'exemples particuliers.

Dans l'exercice suivant on demande aux étudiants de compléter les points de suspension par la préposition appropriée. Les étudiants trouveront la préposition *à* dans les exemples : poste *à* pourvoir et salaire *à* forfait, la préposition *en* dans les exemples : rencontrer qqn *en* entretien, salaire *en* nature, la préposition *sur* dans les exemples : effectuer des retenues *sur* le salaire, taxe *sur* la masse salariale, la préposition *chez* dans l'exemple : recruter *chez* les concurrents, la préposition *de* dans les exemples : changer *de* poste, salaire *d'*appoint, complément *de* salaire, éventail *des* salaires, la préposition *au* dans les exemples : réduire qqn *au* chômage, salaire *au* rendement, salaire *au* temps, la préposition *pour* dans l'exemple : postuler *pour* un emploi, la préposition *à la* dans les exemples : départ *à la* retraite, être *à la* retraite, salaire *à la* tâche, salaire *à la* pièce. Les étudiants observent que la préposition *à* et ses variantes *au* et *à la* est la plus fréquemment utilisée.

- a) poste ... pourvoir, rencontrer qqn ... entretien, effectuer des retenues ... le salaire, recruter ... les concurrents, changer ... poste, réduire qqn ... chômage, postuler ... un emploi, départ ... retraite, être .../... retraite, proposer un poste ... candidature ;
- b) salaire ... rendement, salaire ... tâche, salaire ... pièce, salaire ... appoint, salaire ... temps, salaire ... forfait, salaire ... nature, taxe ... la masse salariale, complément ... salaire, éventail ... salaires.

(Cilianu-Lascu, 2005 : 110)

On peut aussi par exemple travailler avec les étudiants sur l'utilisation de l'indicatif et du subjonctif dans les propositions complétives. Le seul document distribué est une feuille avec des phrases à traduire (on leur propose deux formes verbales, l'une à l'indicatif et l'autre au subjonctif, les étudiants doivent choisir la forme correcte et expliquer leurs choix). Pour chaque phrase un étudiant doit expliquer le type de difficulté en partant de l'exemple concret.



1. Nous espérons que les droits de douane sur les produits agricoles *seront/soient* bientôt supprimés.
2. Les syndicalistes réclament que des mesures *sont/soient* prises pour lutter contre les délocalisations.
3. Il est clair que les quotas *sont/soient* une sérieuse entrave à la liberté de circulation des marchandises.
4. J'ai appris que la Commission européenne *était/ait été* favorable à une augmentation des droits de douane sur les produits textiles.
5. J'avais compris qu'il *était/soit* protectionniste, mais à ce point !
6. Je suis d'avis que nous ne *pourrons/puissions* pas redresser nos comptes extérieurs avant longtemps.
7. Je trouve dommage que nous n'*exportons/exportions* pas davantage en Asie.

(Habert, & Penfornis, 2007 : 62)

L'étudiant pour apprendre doit pouvoir mobiliser des connaissances antérieures. Le meilleur apprentissage est celui de type collaboratif qui se fait par l'interaction entre les étudiants et le professeur. L'enseignant et l'enseignement doivent s'adapter dans la mesure du possible à l'étudiant. L'enseignant doit accompagner l'étudiant dans son processus d'apprentissage en lui proposant régulièrement des feedbacks personnalisés. L'enseignant doit présenter la matière de façon cohérente, logique et claire et expliciter sa façon de procéder. L'enseignant devrait amener non seulement à l'acquisition de connaissances et de savoir-faire, mais aussi au développement d'un savoir-être. L'enseignant doit savoir susciter la motivation et favoriser dans la classe un climat de partage de connaissances et de discussion critique et scientifique. Le professeur doit discuter en classe et présenter certains points de grammaire problématiques, des structures propres au français.

Pour ce qui est des différents exercices proposés (traduction, faux-amis, grammaire), les plus utiles pour les étudiants semblent être ceux qui portent sur les faux-amis, suivis par les exercices de grammaire. Les étudiants doivent gérer eux-mêmes leur apprentissage. Ils doivent décider du temps qu'ils souhaitent ou peuvent consacrer aux devoirs. Ils doivent sélectionner les exercices qui leur seront les plus utiles ou qui les intéressent le plus. Les étudiants souhaitent améliorer leur grammaire par plus d'exercices, par une meilleure notation des corrections. Le professeur doit focaliser ses explications sur les fautes de grammaire rencontrées dans les copies.

#### **4. Conclusions**

Le processus de traduction en classe de français langue étrangère peut représenter un excellent point de départ pour une analyse linguistique des deux langues (langue

cible et langue source). Le texte à traduire peut être le commencement d'une réflexion sur la différence entre les deux systèmes linguistiques du français et du roumain. Se servant d'exemples précis du texte proposé (la plupart du temps ceux qui ont posé des problèmes aux étudiants), le professeur amplifie la question, dirige les étudiants vers une réflexion sur la langue et suggère d'autres exemples.

Il est possible de faire de la traduction un élément positif dans l'apprentissage du français langue étrangère en faisant comprendre aux étudiants comment les langues s'articulent différemment et comment leur propre langue fonctionne. Il semble difficile d'enseigner une langue étrangère sans travailler aussi sur la langue maternelle. Il existe chez les étudiants un besoin d'explication mentale face à la langue étrangère, un besoin d'intellectualisation de l'acquis, qui doit se réaliser à un moment donné du cours, dans la langue maternelle bien entendu.

La traduction n'est par conséquent plus une fin, mais un moyen, dans la mesure où ce qui est important dans la classe de français langue étrangère, ce n'est pas le contenu du texte proposé pour l'étude, le sens véhiculé par le texte, mais l'acte de la traduction et ses nombreuses fonctions : apprentissage de la langue, perfectionnement, contrôle de la compréhension, fixation des structures, évaluation.

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## **Recorded data – an alternative to traditional English teaching methods**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Recorded speech data and their accompanying transcripts can be successfully used even in ESP classes. These recordings stand for whatever form of recording chosen by the teacher – whether it is an audiocassette, a video, a CD or even a DVD. Listening tasks have a precise aim in developing skills for oral conversations. Each English learner should be able to understand, initiate and participate in live conversations. For most learners of English – especially of English as an International Language – such samples of live language are likely to provide a useful model. Audio data should emphasize on rendering natural speech even if this means including some performance effects such as hesitations, false start or even repetitions. Showing learners that even proficient or native speakers have to make certain real-time adjustments can be quite helpful in the long process of acquiring English or any other foreign language. Moreover listening to a recording while at the same time having its transcript can help reinforce sound- spelling connections that are so necessary for English learners.

**KEYWORDS:** *recorded data, transcript, sound-spelling connections, live conversations*

In nowadays almost every English course book has a complex list of included features. These features comprise of: a variety of reading passages, career specific dialogues/interviews, reading and listening comprehension checks, vocabulary terms, guided speaking, writing exercises and even a complex glossary of terms and phrases.

Listening checks are meant to draw the student's attention and to make him focus on spelling, word order and "*unfamiliar vocabulary items that are likely to occur*" (Thornbury, 2007: 47). For example in a unit designed for English Engineering, the listening part is usually represented by a dialogue in which the participants introduce

different topics and vocabulary terms related to a certain notion from the Engineering domain.

Nevertheless every new term that is introduced to the learner through a re-cording should be carefully handled by the teacher who needs to set up a presentation of these new notions before the recorded information is played. In some cases, the teacher can activate the background knowledge by asking the English learners to improvise a conversation on the same topic before playing them the recordings. In other cases repeated listening may be necessary while the learner is noting down the key words. The use of recordings can also be seen as a starting point of an oral debate in the English classroom. From the recorded information that the learner receives he can develop conversational skills by choosing, memorizing and then using short extracts from the sources that he hears.

Nevertheless, the English teacher has a key role in managing the recorded data that he presents to his students. It is advisable for him to check the details of the audio/ video material – in some cases “...*the learner may need to be set further, more probing, tasks, such as a table to complete, a grid to fill or multiple choice questions to answer.*” (Schmitt & Mc Carthy, 1997: 67)

The teacher can also hand out a transcript of the audio/ video data assuming one is available in the Teacher’s Book that should accompany each English Course Book. If the transcript is not available then the English learner should be asked to produce their own transcript based on what they hear. This task brings benefits / improvements both in understanding skills as well as in writing skills that are essential in the process of acquiring a foreign language.

Moreover, the English learners should be given the opportunity to ask and consult each other concerning any residual problems or doubts they have about the transcript or the recorded data. This involves a direct implication of the teacher who is free to offer translation, synonyms or even a complete re-formulation of the entire sentence/ phrase that remains obscure for the English learner. Usually the placement of the listening part is quite important for a successful English class.

Almost every English course book places these recorded data near the end of each unit before the writing part. In the beginning of each unit learners are introduced to a text, afterwards they have to solve some exercises based on the information provided by the written text and then they are presented to a listening part. This part is meant to complete and review the new English notions that have been introduced throughout the entire unit. Recorded data focus on language features which can involve the following features:

*Identifying*, e.g. underline, or circle, in the transcript examples of evaluative language.

*Counting*, e.g. count the number of times the speakers say / pronounce certain idioms.

*Classifying*, e.g. identify and classify the different discourse markers.

*Matching*, e.g. match idiomatic expressions in the text with their synonyms on a list.

*Connecting*, e.g. connect the pronouns in the text with their referents (i.e. the words they refer to).

*Comparing and contrasting*, e.g. compare these two versions of the same conversation and identify any difference.

(Thornbury, 2007: 48)

All these language procedures can be used alternatively and they can also be enriched/developed by other alternative ways of English language practice. The most common task that I have encountered in many English Course Books is providing the transcript that is either incomplete or differs in some way from the actual recording. For example: the listener has to fill in the gaps from a transcript – these gaps can represent all the discourse markers or all the new notions presented previously in the unit. Another procedure is spotting the differences between the transcript and the recorded data. It should be obvious that all the above procedures are not meant to be prescriptive and they can be adapted according to the demands of the listening text itself.

The level and language needs of the learners should also be taken in consideration. Moreover, the purpose of English is the most important factor – for example: in an ESP classroom the recorded data has to focus on the English specialized vocabulary according to the domain that the English learner activates in. For a student or graduate in Business Administration, Electrical Engineering, Agriculture or Medicine the English recorded data differ in structure, vocabulary and even organization. The recorded data that the English teacher provides have to be structured and organized based on different features. They can focus either on vocabulary acquisition or on developing social-cultural skills which are “*aimed at raising awareness about the appropriacy of particular topics in casual conversations*” (Oxenden & Seligson, 2000: 15).

Vocabulary acquisition through recorded data occurs naturally and can be easily assimilated by the English learner. New notions are introduced in spoken language along with other content words such as: pronouns, conjunctions, discourse markers and auxiliary verbs. Listening tasks are effective in emphasizing new vocabulary notions because it is well known that spoken language is less dense than written language.

This represents an advantage especially if the recorded data is meant to highlight new notions and the stress and intonation that are used to signal new or important information. In other words, English learners acquire not only new terminology but

also a correct pronunciation. Learners are therefore exposed to a wide range of accents, voice types and, more importantly, to multi-party tasks.

Live listening offers the English learner a chance to adjust and improve his language as well as to communicate with his teacher and his colleagues in English. He can ask questions, clarify details, solicit repeats and develop further conversations based on the themes that have been presented in the recorded data. The learner can also participate in a writing activity which is *“highly productive in terms of its awareness – raising potential”* (Russell, 2001: 15)

The process of writing their own transcript is called by English teacher To-ny Lynch, who is specialized in teaching Second Language Listening, proof – listening. In Lynch’s version:

the learners are recorded performing a task in pairs, and together they then make a transcription (Transcript 1), working together with a single cassette recorder. They can edit this transcription, that is, they make corrections and improvements. This second transcript (Transcript 2) is submitted to the teacher, who makes any additional changes (Transcript 3). The students then compare Transcript 2 and 3 and discuss with the teacher any points they thought were important or interesting.

(Thornbury, 2007: 60)

This type of activity activates the attention of the English learner both in listening and writing skills. Lynch also noted that students who participated did not show any sign of boredom or frustration with the transcribing process.

In **conclusion** recorded data is a necessary task that should be included in every English class. Such listening tasks develop the learner’s awareness regarding features of speaking. They also represent a starting point for other activities such as writing or oral debate. They help the student incorporate new knowledge and to improve their speaking skills.

Therefore, listening parts should not be considered only passive activities in which the student is not involved. They can be quite interactive and attract the learner’s attention. They also activate the memorizing system and develop pronunciation skills.

The English learner may find it easier to capture the meaning of a new term if he listens to its explanation within a live context. He can identify himself in the dialogue/monologue/speaking act that he hears. The learner will also try to reproduce/repeat certain words/phrases that he found interesting in the recorded data.

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# Modern Approaches to the Teaching of English Grammar to Engineering Students

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## **ABSTRACT**

The article dwells on issues raised by the teaching of English for Science and Engineering (ESE), with a special focus on the language of computers. Going along modern approaches to the teaching of general English, this specialized teaching also needs to take into account the main purpose of language learning, which is communication. The structuring of grammar lessons should always demonstrate relevance, accessibility and create a context and pretexts for the learners to practice the rules being taught to them. Apparently, although engineering is at the forefront of professional dynamics and English is the main tool as a lingua franca, there are few ESE specialists compared to other ESP areas. In this context, the study of language and, more specifically, of grammar for a certain segment of learners, requires raising awareness of certain features in the teaching process.

**KEYWORDS:** *communication, restricted activities, relevance, practice*

The article dwells on issues raised by the teaching of English for Science and Engineering, with a special focus on the language of computers. Going along modern approaches to the teaching of general English, this specialized teaching also needs to take into account the main purpose of language learning, which is communication. The structuring of grammar lessons should always demonstrate relevance, accessibility and create a context and pretexts for the learners to practice the rules being taught to them.

In the field of ESP (English for Specific Purposes), the study of English for Engineering, as a more specific branch of English for Science and Engineering (ESE) should gain more prominence as an academics' major research aim. Apparently, although engineering is at the forefront of professional dynamics and English is the main tool as a lingua franca, there are few ESE specialists compared to other ESP

areas. In this context, the study of language and, more specifically, of grammar for a certain segment of learners, requires raising awareness of certain features in the teaching process. Basturkmen (2006) points out that,

It has been a traditional idea that second-language instruction should focus on a set of basic sentence-level grammatical structures (for example, verb tenses, conditional clauses, noun phrases) and core vocabulary. This idea has featured in ESP instruction also. One early approach to ESP, Register Analysis, was concerned with identifying and teaching the grammatical structures and vocabulary seen as of central importance in scientific and technical writing. The approach was premised on the ideas that although scientific and technical writing has the same grammar as general English, particular grammatical structures and vocabulary items are used more frequently.

(Basturkmen, 2006: 35)

ESE is generally an impersonal, detached type of language, with specific traits such as: the frequent use of the passive voice, of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person in personal pronouns, the use of internationalisms (e.g. *experiment, science, laboratory* etc.), the use of abstract and concrete terms related to the subject area, which have no close synonyms (e.g. *computer, RAM*, etc.), the use of certain genres (the scientific report, the research article etc.).

An author provides an outline of the instructional content regarding grammar in ESE courses at a Japanese university, and these could be taken as a starting point for the development of similar approaches in teaching: “*Generic and discipline-specific sentence patterns (e.g., sentence grammar of definitions), grammatical parallelism, subject-verb agreement, plural/singular distinctions, count/noncount distinctions, nominalization, lessons on common errors in student writing [...]*.” (Orr, 2010: 227)

ESE instructors should always bear in mind that their students are not future language specialists, but prospective engineers, who will use language just as a tool for communication. Therefore, grammar is not a purpose in itself, and the simple presentation of rules and detailed explanations without getting to put them into practice lack the attribute of relevance. Even in the case of general English courses, authors underline that,

Just learning grammatical rules and structures doesn't give learners enough help with learning how to communicate, which is the main purpose of language. So, much language teaching has moved away from teaching only grammar, and now teaches, e.g. functions, language skills and fluency as well as grammar.

(Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2005: 7)

Therefore, those lessons which are focused on the teaching of grammar usually create a background around grammar rules, from which these need to be discovered or derived in a more intuitive manner, which implies more active participation and cognitive effort from the students' part. As Harmer points out,

Grammar teaching sometimes happens as a result of other work the students are doing – for example, when they study language in a text they have been reading or listening to, or when a grammar problem presents itself unexpectedly in the middle of a lesson and we feel we have to deal with it on the spot. Grammar teaching may grow directly from the tasks students are performing or have just performed as part of a focus-on-form approach.

(Harmer, 2007: 210)

Various authors point out that the purpose of a good grammar lesson is not purely informative and that what makes the difference is the practice which students get by using the rules having been taught to them: *“a language teacher’s job is primarily to push, encourage and help learners to try using the language themselves. [...] The primary learning experience is doing the thing yourself, not listening to someone else telling you about how to do it. [...] What [students] tend to need more are challenging opportunities to try using the language items themselves.* (Scrivener, 2005: 277) The same position is adopted by other authors, who refer to naturalistic research into second language acquisition and believe in *“an activity-centered approach that sets out to provide [students] with language-rich instructional opportunities and offer [students] explicit exposure and instruction related to language structures.”* (Hernández-Gantes / Blank, 2009: 15)

Scrivener speaks about limiting the use of language through focused activities. Thus, he also argues that *“the real learning experience is when learners try to use the language themselves”* (2005: 255) and suggests the use of restricted language activities for the target items, which are *“defined by their focus on (a) limited options for use of language; (b) limited options for communication; (c) a focus on accuracy. Typical restricted activities are oral drills, written exercises, elicited dialogues, and grammar practice activities/games.”* (2005: 255)

Language instructors should be aware of the various teaching methods and trends existing in the field and, by a certain moment in their careers, they should have tried these in classroom in order to check their effectiveness and appropriateness in relation to certain types of learners. As Olivia Bălănescu notes, *“[...] it is hard to believe that teachers follow one single method entirely (except if they are involved in some kind of experimental project) or that they necessarily follow all of them. Rather, they observe the students and their needs, and decide what is effective in their classroom.*

*In time, they will develop a personal methodology of their own.” (Bălănescu, 2013: 27)*

In what follows, a range of possible activities for introducing new grammar will be presented.

### **Example 1**

*Language:* specific uses of the Present Continuous

*Level:* upper-intermediate/advanced

In this grammar presentation, students need to induce a specific usage of the present continuous, which is related to transformation, the passing from one state to another. The students’ previous knowledge includes the formation of the present continuous, and using it to express events which happen in the moment of speaking.

The students are provided photocopies of a newspaper article fragment, in which there are several occurrences of the present continuous:

Over the last few years we have become more and more "connected", and are now living in a world where there is more wireless network coverage than power grid coverage. Currently, 85% of the world's population is covered by wireless networks while just 80% is covered by the electric grid. As a result, we are moving into a mobile and wireless world where we are empowered by mobile devices such as smart phones and tablet devices. The availability of omniscient network connections means that we are "always online" and constantly connected to knowledge, people and things. With just one click of a button we can summon information on our location, find the cheapest place to buy something or purchase a service on-demand. We now live in a networked economy where we revolve around data that is accessed through a variety of digital devices held together by the web and available on demand. However, with so much data at our fingertips, we demand relevance and the ability to instantly discover information, easily retrieve it, and manage how the information is stored across our devices. To make sense of the growing amount of information available, things like search are becoming more social, semantic and context aware. For some, this looks like the dawn of the semantic web, also dubbed Web 3.0.<sup>1</sup>

The students are asked to identify those instances of the present continuous, underline and list them in a column:

1. *we are living*
2. *we are moving*

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<sup>1</sup> J. Stevenson (2012). *Humanisation of computing: A Copernican moment for tech*. BBC News, 26 April 2012. Retrieved 20 July 2013 from <<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-17858069>>.

### 3. things are becoming

Then we elicit from the students the meaning expressed by each example. If they encounter any difficulties, we can give them prompts of the type:

*When does the action expressed in example 1. happen?*

*Is the activity expressed in example 2. permanent? When did it begin? Is it still happening? etc.*

After working out the reason for using the present continuous in example 2. and 3., students are encouraged to talk about changing states in the field of technology:

*e.g. Are people now discarding and replacing their computer-based devices more often than they did in the past?*

*Is there anything changing in the policies of companies like Apple or Microsoft regarding their relationship with customers compared to previous years?*

*What is changing in terms of cybersecurity regarding the sending of emails?*

### Example 2

*Language:* the imperative for instructions

*Level:* beginner

Students are handed out photocopies of a webpage screenshot or, if there is an Internet connection and computers available for small groups of students, they are directed to access a webpage where a product can be registered after purchase:

Register your product

By taking just a few minutes to register, you can improve your experience with HP. Enjoy more efficient support alerts, and more.

Find the product you want to register

Select your country/language:

United States English

I primarily use HP products and services for:

Personal Use

Enter the name/number of the product you want to register. How do I find my product name/number?

Product Name or Number e.g. Photosmart A636, LaserJet P2035, or CE461A

SEARCH<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> HP Product Registration. Retrieved 20 July 2013 from: <<https://register.hp.com/americas/flowPage/registration/index.do?execution=e1s1&cc=US&lang=en>>.

The students are then given a list of the underlined words, and another list with their translations into Romanian, in jumbled order; they are asked to match the meaning of each word with its translation:

<i>register</i>	introduceți
<i>find</i>	selectați
<i>select</i>	căutați
<i>enter</i>	înregistrați
<i>search</i>	găsiți

They are told to look up the words in a bilingual dictionary to check their solutions; the teacher points out that verbs such as these are used with their basic, dictionary form in order to give instructions in the affirmative.

The teacher also points out collocations in the text:

*register a product*  
*find a product*  
*select your country/language*  
*enter the name/number*

The teacher can carry out these instructions on the computer so that the students should be able to work out the meaning of the collocations.

As a follow-up, for further practice using the imperative for instructions, the teacher can ask students to check their mobile phones with their menus in English and write down some series of commands which need to be followed in order to perform different activities.

e.g. To phone your desk mate: *Press \* to unlock; Choose "Contacts"; Dial the number; Press "OK"* etc.

The teacher will read out a series of instructions and then will ask students in turn to repeat in order to practice pronunciation.

### **Example 3**

*Language:* Practising past tense forms

*Level:* intermediate

Students are handed out photocopies of a fragment from a newspaper article, in which they will be told to underline the past tense forms:

The Raspberry Pi, a credit-card sized computer designed to encourage children to learn programming, caught the imagination of millions when it was unveiled in February. The website where it was offered for sale crashed, and then there were delays in getting the product safety-tested. Now, though, the first devices are beginning to be delivered to customers. Mine arrived in the post a few days ago, so small that it came through the letterbox. I wondered how to set about testing it and decided to invite a teenage programmer, Isabell Long, to come and help me out.<sup>3</sup>

The students are then told to make questions of the forms they have found, then use these forms in the negative.

As a follow-up activity, the teacher asks the students whether they have ever ordered an electronic device from an Internet site; if the answer is “yes”, the teacher can ask a few students to tell the class about their experience. In order to help students with their account, the teacher can help them with questions of the type:

e.g. *What type of device was it?*  
*When did you get it delivered?*  
*How did you set it up?*

#### **Example 4**

*Language:* introducing the indefinite adjectives *some*, *any* and *no* to describe what people have

*Level:* beginner

The teacher writes on the board a sentence, then s/he says it aloud while holding up a picture representing some DVDs:

e.g. *I have some DVDs in my living room.*

Then s/he writes another sentence, which she then reads out while also making negative non-verbal signals, stressing the word *no*:

e.g. *I have no DVDs in my bedroom.*

Then she asks a student in the class, while pointing out to the picture:

e.g. *Do you have any DVDs in your living room?*

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<sup>3</sup> R. Cellan-Jones (2012). *Raspberry Pi computer review: 'a great step forward'*. BBC News, 26 April 2012. Retrieved 20 July 2013 from <<http://www.bbc.com/news/technology-17857189>>.

Then the teacher repeats this sequence, while holding up the picture of a book:

e.g. *I have some books in my living room.*

*I have no books in my room.*

*Do you have any books in your room?*

After demonstrating the same sequence several times while holding up pictures of different objects, the teacher asks students in turn to work in pairs in front of the class and do the same so as to be true in their case, while pointing to different pictures that the teacher provides.

Again, the teacher can produce those pictures on a computer (PC/laptop/tablet etc.). It is a good idea to have a collection of such prompts prepared for different activities, which can be easily accessed at any moment thanks to modern technologies.

#### **Example 4**

*Language:* using *should + perfect infinitive* to practise past advisability

*Level:* intermediate/upper-intermediate

The teacher tells the students that they are going to do some practice with a structure written on the board:

*You should have \_\_\_\_\_ + the 3<sup>rd</sup> / -ed form of verbs*

in order to give people advice about the past. Then the teacher says that they have had some problems with their computer. S/he enumerates the problems one by one and asks the students for advice.

e.g. Teacher: *My printer produced fuzzy printouts. What do you think I should have done?*

Student 1: *You should have run the clean cartridge routine.*

e.g. Teacher: *My monitor flickered. What do you think I should have done?*

Student 2: *You should have reset the refresh rate of your monitor.*

e.g. Teacher: *My computer ran very slowly and it showed low memory error messages. What do you think I should have done?*

Student 3: *You should have added some more RAM. etc.*

More variety can be added by accessing sites on the Internet (which the teacher has researched previously) showing pictures of people facing different problems.



The teacher can ask students to work in pairs in front of the class, with one of them describing the picture and the other giving the advice, by using their imagination.

e.g. Student 1: *That man has had a car accident. What do you think he should have done?*

Student 2: *He should have been careful of the traffic lights.*

e.g. Student 3: *There is a lot of electronic waste in this picture. What do you think people should have done?*

Student 4: *They should have recycled it.*

Last but not least, an ESE teacher should always take advantage of the fact that his/her learners' field of study is innovating with unprecedented speed. Students can easily be drawn to activities which involve communicating about the latest trends or developments in that area. The Internet represents an invaluable source of materials, which the teacher can adapt with a focus on grammar. Even if language specialists are not technology specialists, by collaborating with and asking for feedback from the faculty staff, or even by resorting to their own intuition, they can choose the most challenging topics around which grammar lessons can be structured. If bare grammar rules may not appear too attractive, their occurrence in a relevant context will justify efforts and it is for the teacher to point this out, to make them accessible and lead to their practice.

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